

# JPAE

## JOURNAL OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS EDUCATION

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## From the Editor

This, the fall 2006 issue of *JPAE*, is dedicated to the memory of Ferrel Heady, who died August 17 at the age of 90. Heady is widely considered one of the great figures in public administration, along with names like Fred Riggs (with whom he developed the field of comparative public administration), H. George Frederickson, Deil Wright, Dwight Waldo, and Herbert Simon.

After a distinguished 20-year teaching career at the University of Michigan, Ferrel Heady joined the University of New Mexico as Academic Vice President in 1967. The following year he became the university's 11th president, serving in that position until 1975. He founded and directed the Division (now School) of Public Administration at the university, serving as a professor of Public Administration and Political Science for several years and then as a very active professor emeritus. As he was to countless others in the field, Heady was a mentor to me, and I was privileged to collaborate with him in teaching and published research.

Heady's best-known work is *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*, published in six editions by Marcel Dekker between 1966 and 2001, with a seventh edition in progress, coauthored by Marc Holzer and Mario Rivera and to be published by Taylor & Francis. Translated into several languages, the now-classic text has had particularly significant impact in Latin America, through a Spanish-language edition published by Mexico's Fondo de Cultura Económica.

Heady was a major force in the discipline in other ways as well. He was most active in the American Society for Public Administration (and its president from 1969 to 1970), a founding member and eventually a Senior Fellow of the National Academy of Public Administration, and a significant influence in the creation of NASPAA, favoring its move toward an accreditation role. He took considerable interest in the *Journal of Public Affairs Education* when it came to the University of  Mexico in Spring 2005, and particularly in the new editors' intent to incorporate comparative and international administration concerns more explicitly and centrally in the journal.

The current issue is, in fact, centered on comparative and international public administration education, and it therefore serves as a fitting tribute to Professor Heady. The essays range from an analysis of Canadian public policy programs in comparative context, by Iris Geva-May and Allan Maslove, to a study of university-government partnerships in support of state reform in the Caribbean (by Associate Editor Patria de Lancer Julnes), a treatment of transparency and public administration in Mexico (Abraham David Benavides), assessments of a service learning partnership with El Salvador (Melissa Baker-Boosamra, Julia Guevara, and Danny Balfour), an early career mentoring program for women faculty (Elissa Wolfe Poel, Barbara Coppola, and Elsa Arroyos-Jurado), the first Russian master of public administration program (Carmine Scavo, Paul Dezendorf, Natalia Kos-

tina, Yaroslav Startsev, and Alyona Vishnevskaya), the diffusion of information technology education in Korean public affairs and administration programs (Hun Myoung Park and Hanjun Park), and the development of comparative performance evaluation systems in the state of New Mexico (Ferrel Heady and Mario Rivera).

It is fortuitous that the current issue of *JPAE* was organized around the theme of comparative and international education, that it can serve as a memorial to a great figure in Public Administration and Public Affairs Education, and, in that vein, that it can incorporate one of Professor Heady's last manuscripts intended for publication. Although a brief research note, it indicates the direction of his reflections (and mine) on comparative analytical methods and performance accountability, and it also suggests the mutually enriching role of classroom explorations and practitioner applications in this regard.

—*Mario A. Rivera, Ph.D.*

## 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 examin-

ing 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](mailto: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](mailto: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](mailto:jpae@unm.edu).

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## Canadian Public Policy Analysis and Public Policy Programs: A Comparative Perspective

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### ABSTRACT

This article seeks to place Canadian public policy programs in a comparative context and to provide an overview that identifies the status of the Canadian public policy analysis profession and policy analysis/policy studies instruction in light of domestic and global developments.<sup>1</sup> The authors acknowledge that instruction plays a crucial role in the training as well as in the future approach and orientation of policy analysts and they analyze shifts in the perspective of policy analysis studies and policy analysis instruction.

This preliminary comparative paper primarily discusses the characteristics and training needs of policy studies/analysis by tracking the needs of the profession; the development of the field to date; orientations arising from conceptual and historical developments in Canada, the United States, and Europe, and shaping particular public policy programs, curriculum orientations, and practices; and implications of and lessons drawn from the various contexts in comparison to Canada. Throughout the paper the terms policy analysis and policy studies are used interchangeably, because in the various traditions highlighted in this paper, programs of policy studies, rather than policy analysis, are prevalent. Policy analysis skills are promoted, albeit with various degrees of emphasis, within these programs.

### THE POLICY ANALYSIS PROFESSION: CHARACTERISTICS AND NEEDS

Public policy is both an academic and professional field and can be understood as a type of professional practice much like medicine, psychology, law, economics, or management.<sup>2</sup> As in these other professions, the concept of practical

application dovetails with instructional methods designed to develop, enhance, and reinforce reasoning skills and embodied knowledge within the profession. Instruction and practice in these professions entail a diagnostic/clinical reasoning process<sup>3</sup> that starts with a problem within a specific context; problem identification and the cognitive problem-solving process are founded on prior knowledge and knowledge-related cue. Professional literature asserts that this tacit professional knowledge common to the members of a particular professional community, as well as professional standards and norms, are best learned and internalized through practice and experience (Polanyi, 1966; Gigerenzer, 1999; Reiner and Gilbert, 2000; Sternberg et al., 2000; Collins, 2001; Geva-May, 2005).

Akin to other diagnostic/clinical professional fields, policy analysis relates to a problem presented by a client and provides advice on the best strategies to solve the problem once it has been diagnosed (Geva-May, 2005). Nevertheless, more than in any other discipline, policy analysis and policy decision-making take place within contexts affected by competing political and economic considerations, differing agendas, and multiple actors and stakeholders representing a variety of interests. In the field of policy analysis, the acquisition of tacit knowledge, which has been described as innate learned responses regarding strategies and procedural tools (March and Simon, 1956) or “decision frames” leading to mastery (Tversky and Kahneman, 1981), distinguishes the future skilled technician or expert from the impostor (Meltsner, 1976).<sup>4</sup>

The shared goals of policy programs in Canada, the United States, and Europe are to provide knowledge, skills, and understanding of the craft of policy analysis and to facilitate expert status in the profession. Active student participation is a key element of accepted learning theories (Bruner, 1963; Dewey, 1933, 1938; Lewin, 1938; Piaget, 1953, 1977, 1985). Traditional modes of instruction that see students as passive recipients of knowledge imparted by instructors, or that rely on purely theoretical academic curricula—based on the premise that this is the learners’ only opportunity to be exposed to scholarly work—run contrary to current knowledge of pedagogy. Furthermore, studies have clearly shown that learning is more effective in real-life settings, and that exposure through practice leads to a higher level of tacit knowledge acquisition that can then be adapted to individual styles and a variety of future contexts (Anis, Armstrong, and Zhu, 2004; Geva-May, 2005). As in other diagnostic/clinical professions, for policy analysis this means (a) learning a wide range of theories, but mainly (b) being able to synthesize and to apply theory in problem-solving settings and (c) to use acquired experiential knowledge for future expert terms of reference.

In view of these considerations, we regard the need for high-quality instruction and practice in the art and craft of policy analysis as a profession to be of particular importance to the field. We also note that, unlike professional programs in other disciplines that expressly prepare students for careers that operate on norms and conventions, with clear guidelines, standardized requirements, and measur-

able competencies for licensing practitioners, policy analysis lacks such professional accreditation guidelines. This is the case at both the level of accreditation of policy analysis/policy studies instructional programs and at the level of specialized accreditation to practitioners. These concerns, and the need to comprehend local and global trends affecting policy analysis as a profession, are at the forefront of this study.

The development of programs of policy analysis studies in Canada, the United States, and Europe is highly dependent on the governance context and its individual prevailing analytical culture. In turn, developments in these regions relate to the historical and political events that shaped those contexts and to institutional traditions inherited within national governments (Bevir and Rhodes, 2003; Hajnal, 2003) or within regulatory bodies (Vogel, 1986) or public agencies (Wilson, 1989; Jordan, 2003).<sup>5</sup> Recruitment patterns for policy analysts prior to the emergence of separate policy analysis/studies programs and institutions saw graduates drawn from schools of law, economics, business, management, and public administration. This orientation shaped policy making as well as the characteristics of emerging policy programs (Kagan, 1991, 1996; Hajnal, 2003). In the second part of this paper, we will address the different contextual triggers that shaped the emergence of policy studies in Canada, the United States, and Europe (Western and Central/Eastern Europe).

Given the blurry borders between policy analysis, public administration, and public management, it is important to make the distinction between these fields and their related types of instruction. In business and public administration programs, the concept of practice is tied to behaviors and attitudes. In policy analysis, skill and reasoning are tied to diagnostic processes, which require innate knowledge and practice. Therefore, policy studies/policy analysis instruction within theoretically oriented departments of political science, for instance, usually does not provide students with sufficient exposure and opportunity to acquire practical analytical skills. For this reason, most policy analysis programs in the United States, for example, recognize the value of introducing learners to professional (as opposed to purely academic) reasoning and of assisting students to acquire at least entry-level practical skills. To supplement studies of theory, students analyze case studies, undertake real policy analysis projects, serve in internships, and acquire supervised professional field experience. Programs sometimes require the completion of a capstone project as opposed to, or in addition to, the more academically based traditional thesis.

How can knowledge and mastery of policy analysis best be acquired? Which institutions provide fluent practitioners? These questions constantly re-emerge in policy analysis and policy studies dialogues. Michael Luger (2005) recounts that scholars of public policy and public administration have frequently questioned whether member schools of the Association for Public Policy and Management (APPAM) are keeping up with changes in the profession. Don Stokes (1996), in

an APPAM presidential address, reflects on “successive waves of educational innovation” and tracks changes in curricula over five waves of instruction for public service, dating back to the post-World War II period.<sup>6</sup> Don Kettl (1997) and Larry Lynn (1998, 1999), among others, write about the “revolution” in public management and its implications for curricula. Ed Lawler (1994) and Larry Walters and Ray Sudweeks (1996) shed light on changes in the theory and practice of policy analysis, with related consequences for curriculum development. A recent book by Geva-May (2005) features a number of distinguished scholars sharing their views on policy analysis instruction.

In the 1980s, APPAM leaders met in South Carolina to discuss and compare curriculum issues.<sup>7</sup> The 2006 APPAM spring conference was devoted to projected policy analysis and instruction perspectives. European public administration and public affairs scholars met for seven consecutive years beginning in 1997 in various European cities to share similar concerns. The result of their deliberations was the foundation of the European Association for Public Administration Accreditation (EAPAA), following the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) model. The purpose of the EAPAA was to promote and coordinate public administration programs and their modes of instruction in Europe.<sup>8</sup>

#### **THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROFESSION**

In tracing the development of the policy analysis profession, we acknowledge and contrast the assumptions of earlier periods with those prevalent today in terms of historical, political, or other contextual triggers. We discuss the scale and location of policy analysis and identify the types of instructional programs proposed to teach methods of policy analysis.

The field of policy analysis has been widely influenced by developments in the United States. Indeed, when we compare the development of the field of policy studies and policy analysis in various countries, we detect attempts to adopt normative policy analysis as developed in the United States or to use normative American policy analysis methods as benchmarks for systematic policy analysis. The increased adoption of this systematic approach to policy making is driven by a move to accountability, transparency, proof of efficiency, and corruption deterrence. Interestingly, in the last decade, systematic approaches to policy analysis studies have been embraced even more aggressively in Central and Eastern European countries than in Western Europe.

The development of instructional programs of public policy started in the United States coincident with developments in the field, beginning in the 1950s. Studies by Gow and Sutherland (2004) in Canada and by Cleary (1990), Henry (1995), and Breaux et al. (2003) in the United States present an in-depth account of the development of public policy. DeLeon’s “stages” (1989) and—a decade later—Beryl Radin’s presidential address (1996) and her *Beyond Machiavelli* (2000)

provide a comprehensive account of shifts in the development of the field of policy studies and policy analysis. So does the more finessed account of policy analysis frameworks by Mayer, Van Daalen, and Bots (2004). There is no major comparative study of programs of public policy in Europe, although the EAPAA, the European Public Administration Network (EPAN), and the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee) have been producing valuable information. The new process of developing associations among European universities and an accreditation benchmark for programs of public management/administration will inevitably lead to such comparisons. As part of this trend, at the 2003 Swiss Political Science annual conference the working group on public policy chose the topic of comparing the state of the art in public policy analysis across Switzerland, Germany, and France.<sup>9</sup>

The field of policy studies was first defined by Lasswell in 1951 and provided the perception of an applied area of inquiry within social sciences. This development was layered on the 1912 decision of the American Political Science Association to set up a committee on public service training. These developments had significant consequences for the way policy studies and policy analysis developed in the United States as compared to Europe or Canada. In the mid-20th century in the United States, the first programs that addressed issues of public policy were started in departments of political science and in public administration schools. Those programs traditionally focused on training students how to administer and implement government decisions, rather than training them to analyze policy problems, develop alternatives, and advise decision makers. Policy analysis studies in Europe and in Canada started in earnest more recently and present similar institutional characteristics and curriculum confines.

During the 1960s and 1970s in the United States, policy analysis took a major leap forward. The period was marked by wartime policy issues, large-scale social and welfare initiatives, national defense concerns, new economic and budget planning processes, and a reliance on scientific management-style thinking prevalent in the mid-20th century. An important stepping stone was the initiation of the Planning Programming Budgeting System (PPBS) in the United States and similar developments in Canada and other countries (Heineman et al., 1990; Garson, 1986; Lindbloom, 1958; Dobuzinskis, 1977; Wildavsky, 1979; Starling, 1979; Radin, 2000; Howlett and Lindquist, 2006; Mintrom, 2003).

The emerging field of policy analysis also coincided with rhetoric in performance-oriented efficient governments, faith in rational decision-making, objectivity, and systematic policy analysis, and with “speaking truth to power”—the understanding that policy analysts can affect policy making (Radin, 1996, 2000). The notion of policy analysis as “craft driven” stemmed from both positivist social science and normative economic models, with the economic models providing the clearest and most powerful basis for improvement and change orientation (Aaron, 1989; Radin, 1996). Policy analysts were typically short-term

experts contracted from universities or research centres, usually with background expertise in economics or operations research. This remains the case today in many European countries and still to some extent in Canada. Clients provide the perspective, values, and agenda for the analytic activity, while policy analysis is supposed to contribute to the improvement of effective, scientifically assessed and transparent decision making (Dror, 1971; Meltsner, 1976; and Wildavsky, 1979). As Radin explains, the American pragmatic tradition<sup>10</sup> provided fertile soil for the development of policy analysis, because it promoted the social and democratic goals of improving efficiency in the way that resources were allocated; increasing the use of knowledge and information in the actual making of decisions; and allowing for control by top agency officials over fragmented and diffuse organizational and program units.

These developments throughout the 1960s promoted the creation of public affairs programs that focused on policy problems and best alternatives. They were spearheaded by economists and political scientists who worked to refine the methods used to promote optimal choices made by governments. The U.S. government increasingly utilized these services, and the demand for experts in analysis methods increased. As the market for trained policy analysts expanded, public policy programs proliferated. Some U.S. schools of public administration or public affairs converted into public policy programs; other public policy programs were created from the ground up. Still others kept their public administration or public affairs titles and focus but expanded their curriculum to include public policy analysis. During the 1970s, growing interest in implementation led public management programs in business schools to develop distinct public policy programs or to develop public policy and policy analysis curricula for inclusion in existing programs.

A key directional shift in the field of policy studies and policy analysis took place in the United States starting in the 1980s and accelerating throughout the 1990s. It was influenced by the widespread development of policy analysis units, both within the government and on the periphery (within think tanks, policy analysis centres, nongovernmental organizations, interest groups, and so forth). The proliferated, but diffused influence held by analysts led to the realization that policy analysts were no longer able to speak truth close to power (Rivlin, 1984; Lynn, 1989; Radin, 1996). At the methodological level, they gradually realized that there were other factors beyond objective, systematic analysis—like that performed by economists, for instance—affecting recommendations.<sup>11</sup> Interestingly, in the United States, we have observed a slight swing characterized by the reexamination of a more holistic approach that recognizes the symbiosis between the fields of management, public administration, and policy analysis, and over the years the MPA and MPP degrees in the United States have moved closer together.<sup>12</sup> For example, the last APPAM presidential address called for more attention to public management and its inherent interrelation to policy analysis.<sup>13</sup>

After varying time lags, Canada and Europe find themselves in a climate with growing market demand for policy analysis similar to that which existed in the United States during the above-referenced period.<sup>14</sup> Significant increased demand for policy analysis experts because of developments in these regions has been the driver for public administration, political science, and business schools to change their orientation and, increasingly, to include public policy studies and policy analysis in their curriculum offerings. As previously noted, some have created or are in the process of creating discrete public policy programs. Nevertheless, including policy studies in business schools is still a trend in the United Kingdom today. Most of the programs in Europe and Canada are still entities within public administration and political science schools, but the trend is toward developing freestanding public policy programs.

Historical and political factors have increasingly affected the development of the public policy and policy analysis field in Europe in the last decade. The challenge has been to promote harmonization and unification within the European Union. This has brought about the need for a common denominator in policy making. Hence, an attempt at tracing developments in Europe shows that, in the last decade, the traditional schools of political science, public management, and administration have gradually started to provide programs in (mainly comparative) policy studies, policy analysis, or common core curricula in public administration and public policy. Accreditation, following the NASPAA template, is highly sought after. In this climate, established systematic policy analytic techniques seem to gain ground. Central and Eastern Europe have also witnessed the fall of the previous regimes, and a void has been created in public administration and public policy in those regions. Given the perception of the need for “good practice,” the countries involved have moved more aggressively than other regions toward the adoption of policy analytic practices and the initiation of public administration, policy studies, and policy analysis programs.<sup>15</sup> In recent years, in response to international trends and influenced by the more established field in the United States, some Canadian institutions have developed programs in public policy and have added the label of policy studies to their existing programs. One example is the School of Public Policy and Administration at Carleton University, which added “Public Policy” in 2001, though the doctoral program to which it refers is several years older. Simon Fraser University initiated a public policy program in 2003. The Guelph-McMaster and Regina programs combine public administration or management with public policy. Concordia includes public policy in its political science department. The Commonwealth/Westminster administrative tradition and its implications for policy analysis as a Canadian profession seem to place developments in Canada somewhere between the United States and the European approaches to policy studies and policy analysis instruction.

In the following sections, we will attempt to highlight Canada's position in between the two trends prevalent in the United States and Europe. We will mainly relate Canadian, U.S., and European developments leading to a penchant toward policy analysis and featuring different institutional and instructional approaches.

#### INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENTS IN CANADA, THE UNITED STATES AND EUROPE<sup>16</sup>

##### *Policy Analysis in Canadian Universities*

While often one cannot reliably link a single cause and effect, it is fair to say that a major impetus for policy analysis training in Canada came in the late 1960s when Pierre Trudeau became the prime minister. Trudeau was very dissatisfied with the process of policy formation in Ottawa, believing it was insufficiently systematic and rational and, as a consequence, driven too much by partisan politics. He was determined to make policy formation in the federal government more analysis-driven, more scientific, and more rational.<sup>17</sup> Although policy analysis in Canada was influenced by developments elsewhere, especially the United States (e.g., the advent of planning programming budgeting systems), it was also strongly affected by the particular context of Canadian parliamentary government and federalism and the highly heterogeneous nature of the country (linguistically, culturally, and economically regionalized).<sup>18</sup> Trudeau's demands created a market for more analytically trained civil servants to staff the new branches of policy analysis and program evaluation that were established in virtually every government department and agency, led by the Treasury Board. The earliest rounds of staff and consultants were drawn primarily from university economics departments, and it is still the case today that economics methodology and analysis play a major role in policy analysis, as reflected in continuing high demand for people with economics training and the strong representation of microeconomics in public policy programs. But a demand was also created for graduates who possessed a broader background than the economists typically offered, especially as many economics departments became increasingly more mathematical and theoretical. This was a key impetus for the new public policy programs and for the older, traditional public administration programs to become more policy analysis oriented.

The demands of the federal government, and later on, of provincial and municipal governments, spurred the universities to become more involved with both policy analysis teaching and research.

In Canada, the training of policy analysts occurs mostly in graduate and undergraduate university programs with labels such as public policy, public administration, and policy studies. Generally, there are three types of programs. In the first group are programs that are wholly or largely within departments of political science (Concordia, Manitoba/Winnipeg, Guelph/McMaster, Laval).

This is the oldest model, though there are such programs in some universities that are relatively recent. In this model, public administration is regarded as one of the subfields of the discipline. The study of public administration—what governments do, and how they make and carry out their decisions—is deemed an inherent part of political science. These programs are essentially unidisciplinary, though some—especially new or newly revised ones—draw on other fields to a limited extent. These programs are sometimes offered alongside programs in international studies or international relations, being identified, in effect, as two professionally oriented subfields of the discipline.

Such programs tend to study the institutions and processes of governing and decision-making, intra- and inter-organization relations, values and ethics, the history of policy fields, and politics. More of these programs have come to include analytical methods courses such as quantitative and qualitative analysis and survey techniques.

The second model is the small group of programs (Regina, York) that are located within schools or faculties of business. Although the discipline of political science dominates the first group, it is all but absent in the second. These programs tend to reflect the perspective that management is generic, and that all organizations—public and private—undertake similar activities such as financial management, human resource management, planning, and budgeting. These programs tend to share a common core with master of business administration programs that dominate these schools in terms of enrollments and curricular design. It is usually only in the latter part of these programs that “the public sector” is explicitly introduced through specialized and/or elective courses for students in that particular stream of management studies.

The third model—and the one that constitutes the mainstream approach—is the group of stand-alone schools of public administration or public policy (Carleton, Dalhousie, ENAP-Quebec,<sup>19</sup> Moncton, Queen’s, Simon Fraser, Victoria). These schools, for the most part, offer comprehensive programs. All offer degrees at the master’s level and some at the doctoral level. These programs are all based on a view that public policy analysis must necessarily draw on methodologies and techniques from several of the traditional disciplines, with economics and political science being the core foundation disciplines, but with significant contributions from at least some or all of law, sociology/organization studies, accounting and finance, and quantitative analysis. Ideally these programs are interdisciplinary, in that students are taught in a way that more or less simultaneously integrates the insights and techniques of the underlying disciplines. In practice, some turn out to be multidisciplinary, teaching the disciplinary contributions separately and leaving it to the students to discover the integration themselves.

Gow and Sutherland (2004) note that Canadian programs of public administration tend to include more on public policy than do public administration programs in the United States and are lighter on management material than their

NASPAA-accredited counterparts. Canadian programs are also much more likely to include a course on the theory of public policy and/or public administration.

While some of the Canadian institutions (especially those with doctoral programs) interpret their missions, at least in part, as educating future academic researchers and teachers, it is fair to say that the schools and programs attending to policy studies view themselves primarily as professional programs, preparing the great majority of their graduates for careers in government or other organizations that participate in some fashion in the public policy arena. This orientation is perhaps best expressed by certain properties that are often—though not universally—associated with these programs.

First, these programs are likely to include a co-op or internship placement component (e.g., Carleton, Dalhousie, Queen's, Simon Fraser, Victoria), which is highly recommended or required of all students except those already having professional experience. Second, many of these programs have executive programs alongside their regular master's degrees. In some cases these are executive degree programs; in others they are specialized certificate or diploma programs. These programs are designed to accommodate mid-career public servants or others who view the programs as vehicles to hone their policy analysis skills and, closely related, to enhance their prospects for promotion or other employment opportunities. The executive and certificate programs, in recognition of the constraints under which their clients take these programs, are often offered in various non-standard timetables and formats (e.g., intensive weekends once per month, summer sessions, evening classes, and online teaching or distance education).

A current issue for professional training is the accreditation of schools and programs (Gow and Sutherland, 2004). Public administration and public affairs schools in the United States have NASPAA administering their national accreditation program. At this writing, professional accreditation is under active consideration in Canada, led by the Canadian Association of Programs in Public Administration (CAPPA).<sup>20</sup> A CAPPA working group has developed a model for the accreditation of master's-level programs in public administration and public policy. This model does not explicitly refer to public policy programs but is a step forward in acknowledging and including programs promoting policy analysis and policy studies.

The Canadian template does not contemplate a standard model to which all accredited institutions should adhere and that would deliver a recognized body of knowledge and a measurable set of core competencies and mastery of skills. Rather, it would evaluate whether institutions achieve the objectives established for each program as well as the appropriateness of the stated objectives.

In addition to their teaching programs, some universities also house units that conduct policy analyses. They are often structured as research units with links to their respective academic programs in policy analysis (e.g., the Centre for Policy and Program Assessment at Carleton, the Centre for Public Policy Research at

Simon Fraser, and the Local Government Institute at Victoria). They undertake and publish research on a wide range of public policy issues, depending on their respective mandates, and they host or participate in seminars, conferences, public consultations, and public fora. Such units function, in part, like think tanks, insofar as they undertake and publish self-initiated research, and partly as consulting firms when they undertake research on a contract basis for governments or other clients. Some are quite broad in the range of issues they investigate; others specialize in a particular policy area or sector. The activities of these units constitute another avenue of university participation in the policy analysis community, usually in the public domain. Canadian university research units also provide a laboratory for the institutions' students of policy analysis, providing them direct participation in policy analysis activities.<sup>21</sup> In this way, universities provide a bridge between the academic training of future analysts and the real world analysis that occurs in governments and elsewhere among policy communities.<sup>22</sup>

In recent years, universities have themselves become much more intensive consumers of policy analysis. In an environment characterized by tighter financial constraints and increased competition for students and faculty, universities have become more involved in strategic planning and policy analysis. That has led them to seek more and stronger analytical insights into prospective program, student, and faculty decisions; to pay increased attention to government policy formulation processes; and to seek more effective methods of intervening in those decision-making processes (advising and lobbying). What has not developed thus far is any significant feedback from the universities as consumers of policy analysis to universities as producers of future policy analysts. For example, there do not appear to be significant curricular changes focused on the "analysis of policy analysis."

#### *Policy Analysis in American Universities*

Tracing the development of the field, we have discussed the circumstances that triggered the development of policy studies and policy analysis in the United States. Indeed, when comparing policy analysis activity in Canadian and American universities, one is immediately struck by the differences in size and breadth between the two systems. Even accounting for population size differences, both the number of policy analysis schools and the variety of specialized programs in the United States is far greater than in Canada. In addition, American universities have addressed and resolved several issues with which Canadian institutions are still grappling, particularly accreditation.

As is often the case, with larger scale comes more specialization. As in Canada, there are American programs grounded in political science and programs that are structured to be interdisciplinary. There is also considerable specialization by policy field and sector. In addition to general programs in policy analysis and public administration, American schools offer a variety of specialized programs

in areas such as health policy/administration, education, urban government, and the nonprofit sector. These specialized programs, while often carrying their own distinct degree designations, are usually offered by more broadly focused public policy units and share common characteristics with a core program. The Goldman School of Public Policy at Berkeley, for instance, offers a program in housing and urban policy, one of its several specializations. The Harris Graduate School of Public Policy Studies at the University of Chicago offers a specialization in environmental science and policy, among others. The Kennedy School at Harvard offers numerous specialization opportunities, including a program in technology and economic policy. Many schools—certainly the larger ones—offer degree programs at all three levels (undergraduate, master's, and Ph.D.) and a range of specialized certificate and executive programs. While one can see evidence of this variety in Canada as well, the United States has a much more extensive range of offerings, even taking into account the population size difference.

Given budget constraints, private and public institutions in the United States have had to rely on private money. Overall, American schools of public policy are often located in private universities and are thus more connected to private support and less dependent on government funding than is the case in Canada or Europe. At the same time, they appear often to be more closely linked to governments in a two-way flow of expertise. It is quite common for faculty members to work for a time in government and for people who have held senior government positions (both appointed and elected) to move to academia. Such cross-fertilization occurs in Canada as well, but to a lesser extent than in the United States. In part, this may be the consequence of the American political system, where senior bureaucrats come and go with presidents and governors. In part, it is also the result of a more open and welcoming environment in U.S. universities toward individuals who do not regard academia as their lifetime vocation.

How might this difference impact the nature of policy analysis training? One area of difference might be in the formal curricula and in styles of teaching and training. American schools tend to put somewhat more emphasis on management and analytical techniques, while Canadian programs tend to contain more theory and are perhaps more abstract. While programs in both countries offer internship terms, these placements tend to be emphasized somewhat more in the American context. For example, the public policy program at the University of Chapel Hill in North Carolina sends students to Washington, D.C., on a regular basis for internships, as is the case in the large majority of U.S. policy studies programs. American schools are also more innovative in offering alternative routes for applying theory to practice. For example, NYU's Wagner School offers an imaginative capstone program in which teams of students undertake policy analysis projects for client organizations, applying knowledge to practice.

Probably the major difference in policy analysis education between Canada and the United States is the U.S. system of accreditation. This occurs through

a voluntary association of American schools and programs, the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). NASPAA, which welcomes memberships from institutions, whether accredited or not, also represents a large majority of the U.S. institutions that offer public affairs, public administration, and public policy programs. It accepts affiliate memberships from non-American universities as well. Initially begun as a way to ensure some quality control at institutions that were lenient in their degree provision, program accreditation standards and procedures initially addressed public affairs and public administration programs. These standards and procedures did not particularly focus on policy analysis but were subsequently broadened to include public policy programs as well.

The NASPAA accreditation process,<sup>23</sup> which dates from the mid-1970s, has settled debates in the United States that are still ongoing in Canada. European programs appear to fall somewhere between Canada and the United States, but are moving toward an accreditation system that is at least partly patterned on NASPAA.<sup>24</sup> Certain benefits flow from a formal accreditation process. One of these is the appearance to the external world as a “profession” that, like most professions, establishes standards for training and for admission to the profession. For an individual member institution, the system offers recognition and a seal of approval, which benefits graduates of the program but ultimately also enhances the reputation of the institution and its faculty. A potential disadvantage is diminished institutional autonomy and potential infringement of the right of each university to determine what its faculty collectively decides is an appropriate curriculum and standard of performance. The latter argument is predominantly heard when raising the issue of accreditation for programs of policy analysis in the United States. We note that several of the leading U.S. public policy schools have not sought NASPAA accreditation (e.g., the Harris School at the University of Chicago and the Woodrow Wilson School at Princeton University).

Many American schools have opted for the enhanced professionalism associated with program accreditation, though the regime employed does not prevent a school from designing a diverse set of offerings. Master’s programs, which are seen as “the professional degree,” are accredited against a set of standards that largely focuses on defining a core. Guidelines have been developed for undergraduate programs; however, doctoral programs—where the arguments for academic independence and unconstrained inquiry are strongest—are left unregulated.

The NASPAA move to accreditation was influenced by the much larger community of business schools and their system of accreditation for master of business administration (MBA) programs. On one hand, the NASPAA initiative confronted a movement by the business schools to extend their reach to the public affairs and public administration programs. As was noted with respect to the Canadian scene, there is a view that management is management: that is, the skills, techniques, issues, and sensitivities are essentially the same across the

two broad sectors. A separate and independent accreditation system was, in part, intended to ensure that a distinction between these two sectors was maintained. At the same time, there was a desire to gain a professional status similar to that afforded the MBA degree; it was at least a tacit goal to create for the master's of public administration (MPA) and similar designations a public perception of professional training comparable to that of the MBA.

Finally, also consistent with the move toward professional education, NASPAA engages in the range of other activities that one would expect in a professional association. For example, it offers an annual conference and publishes the *Journal of Public Affairs Education (JPAAE)*. It also includes an active international program that helps to export the American model of public affairs/policy analysis education to other countries.

In general, American universities actively engage in doing as well as teaching policy analysis through research centers attached to their policy analysis schools. Virtually every U.S. program of policy analysis has a research center attached to it, and, in most cases, there are several. These centers cover a wide range of specialties, focusing on federal, state, and local government in one dimension, and on an array of policy fields (defense and national security, health, education, government/business relations, environment, poverty, and others). At least in some cases, these institutes have a higher public profile than their Canadian counterparts and they actively participate in American public policy debates through their publications, conferences, media contributions, and so forth. They are comparable to the university-based centers in Canada in their contribution to policy analysis and in providing policy analysis laboratories for students in training. Nevertheless, U.S. policy analysis research centers are significantly much more widely spread than in Canada at the federal, state, and nongovernment organization level. To enumerate only a few of the many such organizations, which serve also as internship venues, we could mention the Urban Institute, Mathematica, the Brookings Institute, the RAND Corporation, and the American Enterprise Institute. It should be noted that these often engage in policy research rather than policy analysis.

#### *Policy Analysis in European Universities*

This discussion on developments in the European Union (EU) encompasses a large number of European countries; hence we address general common trends. In the EU context, it is important to understand the reasons for the emergence and growth of policy analysis.

The gradual adoption of policy analysis reflects increasing recognition of the contribution of this systematic mode to policy making. A primary consideration for EU member states is the need for harmonization of varied styles of policy making influenced by a range of traditions and cultures that have gained strength since the 1950s (Van Gunstrenen, 1998). Given the various cultures, the united

Europe policy field is marked, as Bobrow and Dryzek (1989) advise, by an “extraordinary variety of technical approaches.” They list a variety and subvariations of analytic methods inspired by these traditions and applied to social science fields. According to March and Simon (1958), this would suggest that standards differ in EU organizations and so would do the analyses performed in the various regions. This assumption is also supported by Hood’s (1998) major study on the impacts of political cultures within European institutions.

In the context of European policy making, Hoppe, for instance, points to an increasing belief in the importance of acquiring maximum rational judgment and of producing viable policy recommendations (Hoppe, 1999, 201). But in the same breath he points to studies showing great pluralism in the way policy analytical aspects are handled among the EU states.<sup>25</sup> He advises that the challenge in the EU is to “cope intelligently and creatively with pluralism and diversity” (2002, 235).

Therefore, with the unification of Europe, we note that the main challenge has been to move from largely diverse, culturally driven analytic traditions to a more uniform common-core method of policy analytic work. Since the mid-1990s, this new vision has brought significant changes in the way policy analysis infiltrates European bureaucracy. As a result, similar to developments that took place in the 1980s in the United States, the demand for public administration and public policy training programs with common core curricula in policy studies and policy analysis has been steadily increasing.

A comparison between the American and the EU policy venues and modes of instruction is rather striking. Indeed, many of the policy-oriented courses in the European programs are comparative in nature (especially among the Erasmus intra-university coordinated programs)<sup>26</sup> but most focus on comparisons between countries within fields of public policy. Most of the programs do not overtly train students in applied public policy analysis practice, and internships are less widespread than in the United States. In contrast to common U.S. practice in policy studies, promoting capstone projects, internships, and reflective thinking courses (de Leon, 2005; Smith, 2005), European practice features final dissertations based on social science inquiry methods applied to public administration or public policy, and does not necessarily feature internships.<sup>27</sup> Policy analysis seems to feature more prominently in programs offered in the new Central and Eastern European programs of public administration (NISPAcee).<sup>28</sup>

It is difficult to highlight a unified European approach to policy analysis, and therefore we will note some variations among countries in the EU. Notably, only a handful of European institutions offer explicit policy analysis or policy studies programs, although a current shift toward the establishment of schools of public policy can be observed in the United Kingdom and Germany. Similar to the developments of the policy analysis field in the United States and the prominent models of instruction during the 1970s and 1980s, most public policy instruc-

tion in Europe is undertaken in schools of public administration, business, economics, or political science. Within these programs we note social science-oriented curricula such as welfare economics, public choice, social structure, political/legal philosophy, systematic programming, and comparative European policies.

Our study shows that the main venues for the instruction of policy studies and policy analysis in various European programs—mainly in Western and Central Europe—fall into four categories: 1) public management departments within business schools; 2) schools of economics; 3) departments of political science; and 4) schools of public administration. This is consistent with Hajnal's (2003) study, although his categories and sample countries are somewhat different.

We found policy studies curricula offered in public management departments within business schools, among others, in the United Kingdom universities of Aston, Glasgow, Sussex, and Manchester, and at Bocconi University Center for Applied Social Studies of Management, Italy; in schools of economics, for instance at the Erasmus University, Rotterdam, with its School of Economics and Management, and at the University of Minho, Portugal, within the School of Economics; in departments of political science, such as the London School Economics, UK, and six institutes of political science in France, and political science departments in Switzerland; in schools of public administration, such as the École Nationale d'Administration (ENA) in France, the Department of Public Administration at the University of Leidan, Belgium, and at eight Erasmus universities throughout Europe (EMPA).

Hajnal's (2003) comprehensive statistical comparative study of public administration education programs identifies three orientation clusters of reference: legal, including Greece, Hungary, Italy, Moldova, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Yugoslavia; public management, including Belgium, France, Spain, and Sweden; and, corporate, comprising schools in Armenia, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, The Netherlands, Slovakia, and Ukraine.<sup>29, 30</sup>

Similar to the United States, and unlike Canada, policy-oriented programs in Europe offer a wide range of policy specializations. For instance, the London School of Economics' Department of Social Policy offers 18 different specialties, including criminal justice policy, gender and social policy, health and international health policy, social policy, social policy and planning in developing countries, and youth policy and education policy. The University of Namur, Belgium; Maastricht, the Netherlands; East London; Louis Pasteur, Strasbourg, France; Universidad del Pais Vasco/Euskal Herrero Unibersitatea, Bilbao, Spain; University of Madrid; University of Lisbon; and the University of Oslo all offer policy studies with an orientation toward science and technology. In France, policy studies are also often offered within faculties of law.

An additional orientation in some European institutions is toward urban planning. We note that the *École Polytechnique Federale de Lausanne*, Switzerland, Lund University, Sweden, and the Erasmus University, Rotterdam, the Netherlands, offer a joint program with the Institute of Housing and Urban Development (HIS).

In most EU institutions, policy analysis is not offered as a particular core course but rather as “policy studies” with a strong penchant toward European governance, organization, management, and administration. Recently, the EMPA,<sup>31</sup> which is part of an intra-university joint enterprise headed by the Katholieke Universiteit in Leuvan, Belgium, includes a series of core courses in comparative European policy studies.<sup>32</sup> A common core master of European politics and policies program was initiated by Twente University and EGPA<sup>33</sup> and involves several EU institutions that offer policy-oriented courses dealing with decision-making in Europe, comparative federalism, public policy and public management, comparative public administration, and aspects of European integration. The University of Nottingham offers a public policy program, and the National University of Ireland offers policy analysis in the context of European integration. The only school of public policy in Switzerland is the IDHEAP (Institut de Hautes Études en Administration Publique) of the Swiss Graduate School of Public Administration, in Lausanne. It offers explicit policy analysis courses. The University of Oslo’s master’s program in European social policy analysis has an overt orientation toward policy analysis as well. Several German universities offer clearly stated policy certificates: the Erfurt School of Public Policy (master’s in public policy); the University of Potsdam Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences (master’s of global public policy); University of Konstanz Department of Politics and Management (public policy and management and public policy and evaluation); the Austrian Institute for International Affairs (master’s in public policy, public administration, and international development). Among the more interesting developments in Germany is the Hertie School of Governance, a privately funded school that is aggressively recruiting and planning curricula to start public policy programs within a year.

Central and Eastern Europe offer a particularly interesting intellectual arena for policy analysis because of the challenge presented in the last decade: to transform perceived obsolete government, public administration, and policy-making practices, and to fill a perceived void in systematic, analytical policy development. As in Western Europe, the challenge was intensified by the fact that Eastern Europe includes different regional histories and variations of organizational autonomy. Nevertheless, unlike Western Europe, most of the countries lacked a critical mass of experts in public policy administration and management. This fueled the need for a new orientation, programs, curricula in teaching and training in public administration and for recruiting. For instance, the Budapest University

of Economic Sciences (formerly Karl Marx University) initiated a Centre for Public Affairs Studies in 1991 and finally merged with the College of Public Administration. Now called Budapest University of Economic Sciences and Public Administration, it offers public affairs degrees. The National Academy of Public Administration in Kyiv, Ukraine, is sponsored by the president of the Ukraine and is the first Eastern European institute to be accredited by the EAPAA. The Central European University (CEU) recently initiated a public policy post-graduate degree. George Soros' Open Society Institute has been instrumental in providing both financial and intellectual support to CEU and in the diffusion of policy studies in post-communist countries (Straussman, 2005).<sup>34</sup>

Sponsorship and technical assistance also influences the academic and professional orientation taken by various schools in Central and Eastern Europe. According to Hajnal (2003), the perspective of the United States and Scandinavian countries is dominant because they are key advisors and donors to schools of public administration and public policy in the region. Further, he asserts that countries that already had sovereign statehood prior to their respective transition belong to the legal orientation cluster, while countries that gained independence only through the transition process have a business/corporate orientation.

Inspired mainly by APPAM and NASPAA, several Western, Central, and Eastern European associations are actively coordinating and promoting public administration, policy studies, and policy analysis in the EU and in soon-to-be EU-member states. EAPAA and NISPAcee deserve special attention. Akin to APPAM, its American counterpart, EGPA, which is the professional association for public administration, does not accredit programs. Inspired by NASPAA, the EAPAA, among others, organizes Europe-wide accreditation.<sup>35,36</sup> While some European programs have been nationally accredited in the past by national standards (for instance in Germany and in the Netherlands), until recently there have not been common standards for the accreditation of schools in Europe. Common EU accreditation is a rather new but promising concept. The first EAPAA-accredited program was the Erasmus public administration program in the Netherlands, which had been previously reviewed by NASPAA and was followed by others.<sup>37,38</sup> In all cases, the European accreditation recognizes that programs have different missions and approaches and that they stem from different educational systems. A balance is expected between each institution's unique mission and substantial conformance with commonly agreed-upon standards. This will be a critical consideration if any form of accreditation is considered for Canada.

In Eastern Europe, NISPAcee is an organization of institutes and universities whose main role is to promote education in public affairs through the exchange of ideas, skills, and relevant information among institutions. It advocates raising the quality of public administration and developing the civil service in the region. It promotes faculty training, curriculum development, the development

of graduate programs, and conferences and research in order to advance and spread the practices “of good professional public management, public policy and governance.”<sup>39</sup> NISPAcee also offers consultancy and is a nexus between Western European and U.S. consultants and the Central and Eastern European countries.

Policy analysis is practiced in Western Europe through a myriad of think tanks and research-oriented centers and institutes. The United Kingdom is home to a particularly large number. Listing them is not the purpose of this paper, but it is important to observe that they all contribute to the comparative policy database within the EU, mainly in fields such as economics, migration, welfare, and security. Some of the think tanks are funded and supported by governments fostering international collaboration within the EU.<sup>40</sup> Others are funded by parties or by NGOs.<sup>41</sup>

#### CONCLUSIONS: CANADA IN A COMPARATIVE CONTEXT

The central aim of this paper has been to identify the state of Canadian public policy analysis and public policy programs and to place Canadian public policy programs in a comparative holistic perspective. This may help provide an understanding of the needs of the public policy field in Canada and help higher education institutional planners prepare students for their immersion in the policy analysis profession.

We have noticed that a key trend across policy analysis programs in Canada, the United States, and Europe is the movement toward a more professional orientation and a determination to be perceived as being more professional. There are differences in the expression of this increased professionalism in the three study regions, reflecting differences in both the academic environments and in governance traditions and histories.

Clearly, there is a longer history of formal public policy studies, public affairs, and policy analysis in the United States. Reflecting the American pragmatic tradition of systematic policy making, efficiency, and effectiveness, American schools have developed a common core policy analysis methodology, and the United States has produced a large volume of public policy analysis tools. Thus, prevalent policy analysis materials utilized internationally are influenced by U.S. methodology and materials. The export of U.S. influence is also due, in part, to the large number of consultants and advisors from American institutions of public policy that promote and influence the profession worldwide, but primarily in Central and Eastern Europe and Southeast Asia.

The unification of Europe and the need for common policy analytical tools has led to the cognizant adoption of policy studies and policy analysis as systematic decision-making tools. In most cases this has translated into comparative European policy studies in schools of public administration or political science. With the exception of the United Kingdom and Germany, very few schools actually offer policy analysis courses *per se*. Nevertheless, policy analysis is increasingly

taught in Central and Eastern Europe, with the aggressive establishment of schools of public administration and public policy in response to the void created after the fall of the communist bureaucracies.

Since its beginnings in the late 1960s with Prime Minister Trudeau's discontent with the mechanisms of federal decision making, the shift toward a more comprehensive approach to policy analysis as a profession has been relatively slow in Canada. Global changes in orientation toward a more systematic approach to policy making, as increasingly adopted throughout the EU and Eastern European countries, are gradually infiltrating Canada. The primary question we should pose at this juncture is what the most suitable Canadian policy analysis instruction venues and curricula are, given the country's unique national characteristics and its role on the international stage. A first major attempt in answering this question was made by Gow and Southerland (2004) in their study sponsored by CAPPA.

The most striking manifestation of this movement toward a more systematic approach within training institutions is the practice of accreditation of programs, albeit under the public administration umbrella of NASPAA and EAPAA. The EU and Canada have been influenced by the focused orientation toward policy studies promoted in the United States (for instance, by the Kennedy School or the University of California-Berkeley's Goldman School of Public Policy) and by developments outside the academic world. In the EU and Canada, the legal, political, and social context has been as influential as the export of ideas from the U.S. experience. Note, however, that in Europe the move to accreditation seems to be following the American example fairly closely, with the EAPAA pursuing a similar accreditation system to NASPAA and with Eastern and Central European countries receiving counsel or sponsorship from U.S. universities. The emerging Canadian accreditation system is distinguishable from the others to the extent that it allows institutions a larger measure of flexibility to define their own educational goals and curricula. In this regard, Canada stands quite clearly apart from the other two regions. While the desire for professional acceptance and recognition certainly exists in Canada, thus far, tension exists between opposing forces seeking to preserve academic autonomy and regional identities. This tension has limited the distance that schools are willing to move toward a formal, national accreditation regime.

Accreditation is seen to advance the goal of being perceived as professional, especially among the clients of the programs—governments, nonacademic think tanks, interest groups, and ultimately, prospective faculty and students. The development of think tanks within universities also contributes to this goal. The output of studies and advice that emerges from these institutes helps to create a perception of schools that are engaged and relevant, offering contributions that advance the policy process. Again, while we recognize that these developments

proceed in different ways and at different paces in the three study regions, the broad trends are consistent across all three.

We note that, unlike law, medicine, or psychology, accreditation for policy analysis is limited to programs that choose to be included in NASPAA or EAPPA accreditation processes. There are no licensing requirements for practitioners of public administration or policy analysis. Although this is not an issue for the schools *per se*, or for the training of policy analysts, it remains an important distinction between policy analysis and other professions.

Common trends notwithstanding, ultimately, policy analysis is craft and art rather than a precise science. It is characterized by scholarly and theoretical grounding and offers commonly accepted methodologies, but it is heavily influenced by many political realities inherent in policy formation. These political practicalities, along with different traditions and approaches to governance—within each of the three regions, as well as across them—imply that the differences we observe among programs that produce policy analysts are firmly rooted in place and are contextually necessary.

This underscores the relevance of behaviors and attitudes as central to effective professional practice and the view that early, classical policy analysis, featuring scientific reasoning and systematic problem solving, has to be adapted to social and political realities. In Canada, such influencing factors include the Westminster parliamentary governance model, federalism, and a highly diverse population, all of which are reflected in the evolution of Canadian policy analysis studies.

Comparing developments in Canada, the United States, and the European Union allows us to locate Canada on the map of recent shifts of perspective in public policy analysis and analytic policy instruction. Moreover, the main benefit of this study is that it has raised a number of questions pertaining to policy analysis as a profession requiring instruction, training, and accreditation both to individuals seeking to become members of a community of practice and to the institutions providing instruction in these fields.

## NOTES

1. For a good definition and comparison of the two terms see Howlett and Ramesh (2003). According to them, “Policy Studies” are conducted mainly by academics, relate to ‘meta-policy’ or the overall nature of the activities of the state, and are generally concerned with understanding the development, logic, and implications of overall state policy processes and the models used by investigators to analyze those processes. In comparison, “policy analysis” refers to applied social and scientific research pursued by government officials and nongovernmental organizations, and is usually directed at designing, implementing, and evaluating existing policies, programs, and other specific courses of action adopted or contemplated by states. A third discipline, “public administration,” is regarded as more management-oriented, having to do with the administration of public programs in accordance with given legal and financial norms and established management principles. See also Weimer and Vining (1999), Chapter 2, Figure 1, comparing the fields of policy analysis policy studies and public administration.

2. For detailed discussions on policy analysis, public management, and other fields as clinical professions requiring awareness of reasoning processes acquired through practice, see I. Geva-May, 2205, *Thinking Like a Policy Analyst*, Chapter 1.
3. A clinical/ reasoning process is viewed in medicine, psychology, law, and policy analysis as “diagnostic acumen and thoughtful analysis of trade-offs between the benefits and risks and treatments” (Kassirer and Kopelman, 1991, 2.; Geva-May, 2005)
4. Melsner’s work describes four types of policy analysts and their characteristics.
5. For further discussions on this subject, see Peters, 1990; Geva-May, 2000; and Hoppe, 2000.
6. Published in the *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 1996.
7. See a full account in Michael Luger, 2005.
8. EAPAA Accreditation Criteria, June 2003, 2. Available at [www.eapaa.org/eapaa](http://www.eapaa.org/eapaa).
9. Our main database on developments and trends in Europe is based on the various programs’ Web sites and interviews with leading scholars. There is no literature *per se* in this regard. Hence, a comparative study decision is an important step toward a more scholastic discourse.
10. This tradition was defined by John Dewey and presented belief in objectivity and scientific study of social problems.
11. See Beryl Radin’s outstanding account in her presidential address, 1996.
12. See the mission statement of the APPAM Research Conference, October 2005.
13. See Howlett and Ramesh (2003) for insightful definitions distinguishing between public management, public administration, and public policy.
14. See Gow and Sutherland, 2004, regarding the state of the art in Canada, and Gyorgy Hajnal, 2003, in Europe.
15. See, for instance, the NISPAcee (Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe) and EPAN (European Public Administration Network) Web sites. See also the Web sites of various schools and programs in the EU. We thank Monika Steffen, Jann Werner, Colin Talbot, Frans van Nispen, Geert Bouchaert, Salvador Parrado Diez, Stephen Osborne, Christine Rothmayr, Bruno Dente, and others for their invaluable comments and explanations.
16. While we focus on the policy schools, we also recognize that policy analysts are also trained elsewhere in universities, often with a focus on a particular sector, discipline, or policy area. Thus, policy analysis training occurs, for example, in units such as economics social work, environmental studies, and international studies.
17. Brooks’ chapter in Howlett et al., (forthcoming 2007), provides a historical overview of the policy analysis profession in Canada, which he dates from the early years of the previous century. Brooks also notes the beginning of the Trudeau years as one of the watersheds in this history. Similarly, McArthur’s contribution in this volume draws attention to the Trudeau period.
18. Howlett and Lindquist, 2005.
19. ENAP—*École Nationale d’Administration Publique* (National School for Public Administration).
20. It is important to note that, at this stage, CAPP is a much looser and less established body (for example, CAPP has no secretariat) than its American counterpart.
21. As do a number of policy research centres such as the C. D. Howe Institute, the Institute for Research on Public Policy, the Fraser Institute, the Canadian Centre for Policy Alternatives, and the Caledon Institute.
22. The chapters by Abelson and Dobuzinskis included in Howlett et al. (forthcoming 2007) provide a wider perspective on the work of think tanks and research centers and their contribution to policy analysis in Canada.
23. A history of the development of accreditation is provided on the NASPAA Web site at [www.naspaa.org](http://www.naspaa.org).
24. See below section on “Policy Analysis in European Universities.”
25. See also Beck, 1992; Van Gunstrenen, 1998; Hoppe, 1999; and Hoppe and Grin, 2000.
26. See EAPAA at [www.eapaa.org](http://www.eapaa.org).
27. As defined for instance by the EAPAA.
28. See NISPAcee at [www.nispac.sk](http://www.nispac.sk); Hanjal, 2003.
29. It should be noted that for statistical significance reasons key countries such as the United Kingdom and Germany have not been included in this study

30. A comprehensive discussion regarding developments in Central and Eastern European countries is provided separately in this section.
31. EMPA (European Masters in Public Administration) is a consortium consisting of eight Erasmus universities.
32. Including Leiden University; Erasmus University (Rotterdam, The Netherlands); Hochschule für Verwaltungswissenschaften (Speyer, Germany); and the University of Economic Sciences (Budapest, Hungary).
33. EGPA, the European Group of Public Affairs.
34. See Jeff Straussman, *JCPA* 7:1, special issue on policy analysis in Eastern and Central Europe.
35. EAPAA is viewed as the new European consortium for public administration accreditation and is currently based at the University of Leuven, Belgium. Its aim is to contribute to quality improvement and to ensure academic excellence in public administration programs throughout the Council of Europe states.
36. The institutions already accredited include the School of Public Administration (NSOB) in The Hague; Erasmus University, Rotterdam; Göteborg University, Göteborg; the Kyiv National Academy of Public Administration; the Business School at Aston; and the School of Public Administration, Erasmus, Rotterdam, Warwick, and Copenhagen. To offer another common denominator, the language of accreditation is English.
37. See footnote 39 below.
38. The Erasmus program went through the NASPAA reviewing process, successfully, as part of what seems to have been an experiment to see how the process would work in an international context. Because it was not an American institution, Erasmus was never placed on NASPAA roster of accredited programs. Nevertheless, the lack of ability to create an “European chapter” led to the initiation of an accreditation function in Europe. The first accredited program was Erasmus Rotterdam.
39. See [www.nispacee.org](http://www.nispacee.org) (p. 10).
40. The following are only some of the many think tanks and research centres in the EU countries, and they were chosen to reflect intra-EU interests and concerns; country-specific centers can be found in almost every European country and seem to be part of a long-established tradition: Centre for the Study of Public Policy, at the University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Scotland; Centre for Economic Policy Research based at the University of Essex; The European Policy Centre (EPC), an example of such an independent, nonprofit think tank and its *Journal of European Public Affairs* promotes debates on European integration; the Institute for European Studies, based in Brussels, which takes part in many research programs funded by the European Union, international organizations, and regional Belgian authorities and publishes the journal of *European Integration* and a series, *Études Européennes*; the Franco-Austrian Centre for Economic Convergence (CFA), another example of an intergovernmental organization, created in 1978 by Jacques Chirac and Chancellor Bruno Kreisky and financed by the European Commission; the Centre for International Studies and Research (CRI), which has developed policy partnerships; the European Research Centre of Migration and Ethnic Relations, University of Utrecht; the Geneva Centre for Security Policy (GCSP), an international foundation under the framework of Swiss participation in the Partnership for Peace (1995); the Stockholm International Research Institute, established in 1996, financed by the Swedish government and providing support for studies on issues such as arms control, disarmament, conflict management, and security building.
41. For instance, in the United Kingdom, the Centre of Policy Studies founded by Margaret Thatcher and Keith Joseph in 1974; and, on the other hand, the Institute for Public Policy Research, London, which is described as “left to centre society, an independent charity based on donations.”

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# University-Government Partnerships in Support of State Reform: Lessons from the Caribbean

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## ABSTRACT

This article describes a multiparty partnership seeking to support government reform efforts in the Dominican Republic through public administration education. The partnership includes two government institutions in the Dominican Republic and two public universities, Utah State University (USU) in the United States and Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo (UASD, Autonomous University of Santo Domingo) in the Dominican Republic. Seed money was obtained from the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration. Subsequently, the partnership obtained a grant from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) through the former Association Liaison Office for University Cooperation in Development (ALO), now the Higher Education Development office. This article describes the necessity of public administration training in the Dominican Republic, experiences in implementing the academic component of the partnership, a master of public policy and administration program in the Dominican Republic, and the outcomes of the training. The article concludes with lessons learned that can be applied to similar projects in other settings.

## PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN CONTEXT

For many years, a lack of transparency and inefficient bureaucratic arrangements across the Latin American region have minimized the importance of academic training. A consistent pattern across the region has been that in countries where there is no system of administrative careers or civil service, and where jobs in public administration are given out as political booty, public administration training has had little application (Perez Salgado, 2002). Thus, the need for public administration education in the Dominican Republic, which only recently

implemented its 1991 law of administrative career and civil services, is best explained in the context of the state of the art of public administration and of the region.

Although Latin American governments have been engaged in some form of administrative reform, with little respite, for more than three decades, public administration capacity has remained underdeveloped (Bresser-Pereira, 2001). Originally, the strategies used for reform were fiscal adjustment and devaluation of the currency. But the legacy of the late 1970s crisis of confidence in government led to other reforms that de-emphasized government solutions and allowed the market to have greater predominance (Centro Lationamericano de Administracion Para el Desarrollo [CLAD], 1998).

The trend was accelerated in 1985 when the United States, through what is known as the Baker Plan, defined its commitment to neoliberal reforms as a way for indebted countries to solve their problems. Neoliberalism became a universal solution for all public failures. The underlying assumption was that the private sector was better than the public sector at delivering services at a lower cost (United Nations, 2000; CLAD, 1998). Accordingly, neoliberalism was embodied in economic and structural reforms that emphasized downsizing, free market mechanisms, privatization, and decentralization.

Unfortunately, the benefits of neoliberalism did not materialize for everyone, and critics have contended that the application of the pure neoliberal model has been a disaster (Ospina, 2002). This does not necessarily mean that the ideals embodied in neoliberalism were bad; however, Paramio<sup>1</sup> and other critics contend that the reforms were done in haste, with governments committing grave mistakes along the way. Whatever the reasons, we find weak public sectors across the region, with public institutions that were not able to develop the capacity to provide the framework within which the market is supposed to operate. Hence, the national economies became vulnerable to outside forces, causing devastating events such as the Mexican economic crisis in 1994-1995 (Paramio, 2002, CLAD, 1998).

Since the late 1990s, strident calls were increasingly issued for rebuilding and strengthening state capacity through public administration reform (CLAD, 1998). Recent experiences in Latin America provide some support for this course of action. For example, Chile's apparent success with privatization is owed, to a large extent, to a technically and administratively capable public sector. Indeed, according to the World Bank (2000), while the Chilean private sector is the engine of growth, the public sector plays a guiding and supportive role by setting the ground rules, compensating for major imbalances, and maintaining macroeconomic stability.

If we accept the goal of increasing government's capacity to improve its performance, we need to develop ways of overcoming dysfunctional traditions, invigorating public institutions through the design of norms and regulations, and

effecting the professionalization of public servants (Martinez Puon, 2002). The traditions to overcome include patrimonialism, corruption, patronage, economic populism, lack of policy continuity, centralization, authoritarianism, and a cult of personality (Welsch and Carrasquero, 2001; Mejia-Ricart, 2000; Scarpaci and Irarrazaval, 1994; Meacham, 1999), all of which are still prevalent in the region. Improving government's capacity would create an ability to reverse the negative effects of previous reform efforts, to ameliorate the deeply rooted deficiencies in the public administration apparatus, and to provide public institutions with the ability to support the demands of a market-based economy. With this in mind, Merodio (2003, 3-4) suggests that reform, in general, should have three major objectives: (1) the implementation of a political reform that allows checks and balances, (2) the creation of institutions that promote economic development, and (3) the creation of institutional infrastructure in the public sector.

The new institutional infrastructure would require public administration valuing appropriate managerial and political leadership, professionalism, accountability, and administrative and technical capacity as well as the use of information for decision making. These values are embedded in good public administration and are promoted because of a belief that in the long run they can help improve citizens' quality of life. Without the correct tools, the processes of change and governance and the legitimacy of the state in the local and national context are threatened (Ryan and Aguilar, 2002).

#### PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND STATE REFORM IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

In 1996, the newly elected president of the Dominican Republic, Leonel Fernandez, began a process of reform with the creation of the *Comision Presidencial para la Reforma y Modernizacion del Estado* (COPRyME, Presidential Commission for State Reform and Modernization).<sup>2</sup> One of the first steps of this reform effort was to identify the obstacles to the conversion of public institutions from institutions known for their bureaucratic and nontransparent functions into democratic, credible, and efficient government agencies.

Not surprisingly, one of the obstacles uncovered by the former COPRyME, now CONARE, was that the Dominican public administration system was marred by inefficiency, a lack of managerial and decision-making skills, clientelism, and instability. Thus, it was decided that the reform of the country's public administration apparatus would be one of the commission's four areas of emphasis. The objectives of this reform as articulated by COPRyME were, and remain, to institutionalize the civil service and administrative career system, to enhance professionalism in public management, and to increase efficiency in the delivery of public services. This reform is also expected to respond to increased demands for transparency in government.

One important event that took place during the 1996-2000 Fernandez administration was the implementation of the Dominican Republic's 1991 Law of

Administrative Career and Civil Service. The implementation of the law requires specialized training and legally sanctioned job stability for public servants. The significance of this law, summarized next, can be appreciated when one considers that the public sector is the most important and largest employer in the Dominican Republic (Gusta, 2005).

#### THE BARRIERS

The quality and working conditions of the human capital in the Dominican public sector has long been an issue of concern, even before the reform efforts that began in 1996. For more than three decades, the country had engaged a number of Dominican and foreign experts in the extensive study and analysis of comparative administrative law (Oficina Nacional de Administración y Personal [National Office of Administration and Personnel ONAP], 2004). These efforts resulted in the enactment of the Law of Administrative Career and Civil Service (Law No. 14-91) on May 20, 1991. The law attempts to “democratize public administration...and to provide public employees the same rights that were given half a century earlier to employees in the private sector through the Code of Work” (ONAP, 2004).

Among other things, the law attempts to bring job stability to public servants and calls for individuals with specialized administrative training to be incorporated into the administrative career. It mandates that, in order for individuals to qualify for administrative careers, they need either to go through an internal evaluation that takes into account their academic record, years of employment, and performance or to participate in a general competition. In spite of its significance and long legacy of interest, for a long time the law was not properly implemented. We can identify three specific reasons: lack of political will, lack of capacity within ONAP, and structural barriers.

#### *Lack of Political Will*

As enacted in 1991, the law appeared to be more of a symbolic gesture than a true attempt to forever change public employment. ONAP, the agency in charge of implementing the law, was not given the financial support and the legal mandate it needed to implement the law beyond one agency. The rules and regulations for applying the law were not approved until 1994. And even then, according to a former Dominican secretary of labor, the regulations dictated that the law had to be applied first in a small public institution—the Department of Finance—and that only executive orders could mandate the application of the law in other government institutions (CONARE, 2001). It was not until 1999, when then-President Fernandez issued an executive order mandating that the law be applied in other government institutions, that its application was broadened. ONAP then began the process of incorporating individuals into the administrative career and civil service.

However, when the 2000-2004 administration came in, President Mejia, well within constitutional rights that critics contend make the president an “emperor without crown,” ordered the firing of public personnel, including those who had been brought into the civil service during the previous administration. He also ordered the suspension of the application of the law. According to the director of ONAP (2000-2004), Dario Castillo, this was done because there was suspicion that individuals that did not qualify according to the requirements of the law had been nonetheless incorporated during the previous administration (CONARE, 2001). Yet an audit the files of those incorporated by President Fernandez found that 86 percent did indeed qualify. ONAP recommended to President Mejia that he complete the process for those individuals by issuing the special appointments as stipulated in the law; President Mejia complied with the request. Fernandez was reelected to office in May 2004. New evidence, although tentative at this time, suggests that the practice of firing individuals already incorporated into civil service careers may be taking place under his current administration<sup>3</sup> (Gusta, 2005). Gusta (2005) reports that as many as 3,000 individuals already incorporated may have been fired after August 2004.

#### *Lack of Capacity Within ONAP*

The low rate of incorporation of personnel into the civil service has also been blamed on the ONAP’s longstanding lack of capacity. The agency has had neither the financial means nor the political backing to apply the law. Thus, when the time came to implement the law, ONAP did not have enough workers with the skills needed to evaluate and classify personnel. According to Castillo,<sup>4</sup> in 2000 only 15 individuals had such skills; by 2001, with the financial support of the European Union, ONAP had 94 employees trained in these skills. This helped accelerate the process of implementation.

#### *Structural Barriers*

The longstanding tradition of hiring on the basis of patronage—government positions given out in return for personal and political loyalty and service—rather than on the basis of merit (U.S. Library of Congress, 2004) continues to derail the implementation efforts. This practice has resulted in two specific problems, according to Castillo. The first is that directors of government agencies erect many barriers that do not allow ONAP to effectively implement the law. They do this because these agency directors are accustomed to “clientelistic” practices, something that the law is aiming to end (CONARE, 2001, 38). The second problem is that ONAP also found it difficult to incorporate individuals into the civil service because of the low skill levels of Dominican public servants (CONARE, 2001). That is, individuals working in the public sector, typically in political appointments, often do not have the technical and administrative skills necessary for the jobs for which they have been hired. Complicating this,

no money is ever allocated for professional development (Secretaria de Estado de Salud Publica y Asistencia Social, SESPAS, 2000). Thus, the clientelistic nature of public employment has two important repercussions. It makes it difficult to attract qualified and bright individuals to the public sector, and it causes high turnover in public employment because of the firing that goes on when the administration changes. These two issues are further exacerbated by traditionally low salaries in public employment.

Nonetheless, by December 2003, approximately 11,000 public employees had been incorporated into civil service and administrative careers under the law. By August 2006, approximately 28,000 had been admitted into the system. As clearly stated in the standards put forth by ONAP and the Contraloria General (comptroller general), key administrators have come to understand that a professionalized public administration can play a pivotal role in state reform and modernization efforts. But professionalization is not achieved simply through the application of a law. It also requires that training be available for individuals interested in joining the profession.

#### THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES

The processes of reform, several economic crises, and the trend toward globalization in Latin America have underscored the need for academic training in public administration. Specifically, there is a need to link universities with government institutions and the community in the development of human resources with a high level of scientific training. Furthermore, in that the ultimate goal of government reform is to improve the quality of life of citizens, universities—particularly public universities—have the responsibility to develop their internal capacities so as to address this need. However, the traditional marginalization of local universities, as will be illustrated by the case of the UASD, has not allowed universities to develop the capacity to fulfill the country's need for professionals who have the skills needed to respond to the challenges presented by the processes of reform.

The Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo (UASD), the sole public university in the Dominican Republic, with more than 50 percent of the country's student population, has found itself in the position of a simple bystander. Although the UASD has an undergraduate degree with a specialization in public administration, the program has never attracted students. In 2003, ONAP tried to foment interest in this degree by offering scholarships, but no one took advantage of it. One reason is illustrated by a comment made by a young man at a recent panel presentation I made in the Dominican Republic. The young man raised his hand and asked what incentives were there for young people like him to pursue a career in public service when "we all know that getting a job in the public sector is not about what you know, but who you know."

Similarly, because of structural issues such as the lack of application of the law governing civil service and administrative careers, as well as lack of respect for the law, earlier efforts made by one of the largest private religious universities in the country to train public administrators faltered. The university developed a degree in public administration, but after the first group graduated the university had to abandon the program. Without a system of public employment that valued knowledge, program graduates were unable to find suitable employment in the public sector.

But the Dominican Republic is not the only country in Latin America in which public administration education is underdeveloped. According to Perez Salgado (2002), the great majority of universities in Latin America offer only undergraduate degrees in public administration and the number of graduate degrees is comparatively small, though now growing. For example, it wasn't until 1982 that a graduate degree in public administration was created in Panama; to this day, the University of Panama, a public university, is the only higher education institution that offers such training in the country (Ramirez Villalba, 1996). The first graduate program in public management in Cuba was created in 1992. Historically, in Mexico, lament Herrera Macias and Gonzalez Calderon (2003), there has not been an interest in the training and professionalization of public functionaries. As a result, with a few exceptions, Mexican public universities have not responded to the challenges of training public administrators in the quantity and with the quality necessary to respond to the country's needs.

Thus, in the case of public administration education in the Dominican Republic, it is not surprising that the UASD has very few faculty members trained in public administration. And, there is little emphasis on research, including applied policy analysis that could be useful for decision making. One of the reasons is that faculty do not have the formal training in research that could be obtained at the Ph.D. level of study. Further, faculty members with Ph.D.s are the exception rather than the rule.<sup>5</sup> Of the more than 2,000 faculty members at UASD, only 30 hold a Ph.D. degree.

#### HIGHER EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT PARTNERSHIP

The implementation of the 1991 Law of Administrative Career and Civil Service is in itself an important step toward government reform and the development of the needed infrastructure in public institutions. But, as stated above, the Dominican Republic currently does not have enough capacity to respond to the core problem confronting the implementation of reforms: the lack of properly trained public servants. Specifically, there is a need for public administrators who embrace "the broad goals and values driving public administration...these include modernity, rationality, neutrality, science, accountability, meritocracy, and pluralism" (Candler, 2002, 303). Although those values can't be sanctioned, they can be promoted and supported through formal training.

In this context, the UASD has come to recognize that it needs to develop its own capacity in order to become a driving force in developing the kinds of experts, public servants, and faculty that are needed to support national reforms. To that end, since 2002, members of the faculty of the UASD (from the Facultad de Ciencias Economicas y Sociales [College of Economics and Social Sciences, FCES]) and Utah State University, as well as staff of CONARE, have been working in a multilateral partnership to help contribute to strengthening the UASD so that it can take its place as a producer of knowledge in support of reform. Seed money for this initial partnership was provided by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) through its Inter-American Network for Public Administration (INPAE) initiative. These initial efforts were later endorsed by ONAP and in 2004 resulted in a successful partnership proposal that received funding from USAID through the American Liaison Office for Cooperation in Development (ALO), now the Office of Higher Education Development.

The overall goals of the partnership from general to specific are (1) to promote partnerships between the UASD and other government institutions; (2) to provide training to government officials and others that increases the skill levels and professional identification of government administrators; and (3) to prepare university faculty for new roles as policy analysts and as leaders in government reform. The project involved establishing formal cooperative protocols between UASD and government entities seeking to augment human capital resources that specifically address the reform needs of the country. The academic component consists of training individuals through a master of public policy and administration program at UASD. The master's program is composed of 13 courses and one thesis or internship report. The curriculum was developed by the USU project director with the input of CONARE and UASD, targeting the areas of need identified by those institutions. A list of the courses is found in Appendix I.

The master's program has a strong applied component with students working to develop solutions to real problems. Each course requires that students complete a project related to their job and to complete a thesis project on an issue of import for their agency or another agency through a research internship and in collaboration with the appropriate personnel in those agencies. Such an opportunity is particularly important for students who do not currently have employment in the public sector. It is also an opportunity to develop relationships between the university and government agencies, currently a neglected linkage, and across institutions. Furthermore, it is hoped that this will in turn help develop employment opportunities for future graduates of the program. Finally, and consistent with the third goal listed above, the project seeks to help establish the capacity for technical assistance collaboration between faculty of the UASD and CONARE. This is not common practice in the Dominican Republic; government agencies often rely on private and foreign personnel to work on local projects.

To provide some context, it is important to note that Utah State University has been involved in water-related projects in the Dominican Republic since the late 1970s. USU is well respected for the quality of its projects and its innovative approaches to water management. The relationship with the Dominican government was expanded to the area of higher education when in May 2000 the outgoing government in the Dominican Republic initiated a presidential scholarship program sending 35 undergraduate and graduate students to study at USU. A new group of 56 presidential scholars enrolled in August 2004.

#### PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

The partnership activities carried out to date have laid the foundation to meet some of the goals outlined above. The first cohort of students (32) in the master of public policy and administration program began in January 2005, and as of this writing they have ended their coursework and are working on their final project. Five of the 13 courses were taught by faculty members from universities in the United States, Mexico, and Spain. Each course was offered in Spanish over a period of six days. The project called for a local UASD faculty member with relevant experience to provide advice and support to the students for their projects once the visiting professor left. The visiting professor was expected to stay in contact with students via email and was responsible for grading papers and course assignments. The other courses in the program were taught by UASD faculty, adjuncts, or lecturers with relevant experience on the topic of study; for example, the course on public policy was taught by CONARE's former executive director, who has a Ph.D. in psychology.

The program was also conceived with a train-the-trainer approach in mind. This approach was to be carried out in two ways: first, through formal instruction by enrolling current UASD faculty in the program, and, second, by having the visiting professors who teach in the master's program provide at least one faculty development seminar for faculty at the UASD. The topics would include incorporating practical research in coursework, integrating lessons learned, developing strategies for seeking sponsored research, and helping students make the best out of research and service projects. The first approach, enrolling current UASD faculty, worked as will be illustrated below. However, we were never able to hold the seminars, mainly because there was not enough interest among the local faculty.

The demand for the master's program exceeded expectations, with 85 applicants for the 25-30 openings for the cohort. Applicants not initially admitted were told to wait until another cohort could be admitted. We later obtained funding from the Dominican Ministry of Higher Education to support another cohort using the same approach that was used with the first cohort. This group of 30 began to take classes in August 2005. Another request for funding for a third cohort has been made to the Ministry of Higher Education.

Five of the 32 students enrolled in the first cohort are members of the faculty at UASD in various fields, including economics and law. There is also a wide cross-section of government agencies represented in the first cohort, but ONAP has the largest representation, with nine employees enrolled. Many of these students hold high-level positions in their agencies. We expect that the current UASD faculty enrolled in the program will be teaching in the master's program after they graduate. Furthermore, the UASD will be able to draw on other graduates for instruction. This will allow UASD to have a more stable and qualified resource base of instructors trained in public administration, thus contributing to the long-term sustainability of the program.

The majority of current students are being supported financially—i.e., their tuition is paid for—by their agencies. All of the tuition monies are kept by the UASD, which contributes financially to the project with a cost-share portion to cover the salaries of the local project director and a secretary. The UASD also pays local instructors and provides school facilities, equipment, and local transportation for foreign professors.

Sixteen faculty and government administrators have participated in exchanges between institutions supported as part of the capacity-building activities of this partnership. One of the exchanges consisted of government officials—representatives from CONARE and ONAP—and UASD administrators and faculty visiting Utah in May 2004 for one week. In addition to other program inception activities, the Dominican visitors attended presentations by the Utah Department of Human Resource Management, where they learned about the hiring, firing, promotion, and compensation of public employees and how the agency deals with issues of nepotism, patronage, and other professional misconduct. They also attended a presentation by state prosecutors at the Utah attorney general's office. The presenters were familiar with the Dominican Republic because they had done some work with prosecutors and administrators there implementing the reform of the justice system. In addition, as part of the exchange activities, the participants visited USU's administrative offices to learn about the different activities that are germane to research universities, and they attended presentations by faculty and administrators from several of the colleges across USU's campus.

Another exchange consisted of USU's administrators and faculty visiting the Dominican Republic in July 2004. They visited UASD and led a two-day workshop at UASD on topics that included markets and public bureaucracies, public finance, decision making, and decentralization. Each of the presenters during the workshop had a Dominican counterpart who discussed the same topics but from a local perspective. The exchange was also used to refine the curriculum content of the proposed master's program, to scout possible alliances with other government institution, and to publicize the partnership's project objectives.

Other workshops and panels have been supported by the funds of this partnership. A workshop on electoral reform was conducted in April 2005. In July 2006, the partnership, in collaboration with CONARE, funded a panel presentation on reforming public administration, program evaluation, and performance improvement. All of the workshops have been open to the public. To date, more than 160 Dominicans, not counting current students, have been trained through these workshops.

In August 2006, the Dominican government paid for the airfare of 27 students of the first cohort to visit the USU campus. Like the public functionaries and UASD administrators and faculty that had visited Utah, the students also attended presentations by the USDHRM and the office of the Attorney General.

### CHALLENGES

Although the accomplishments may give the appearance that the process of implementation was smooth, that was hardly the case. The challenges encountered since the initial steps of this partnership included negative perceptions by USAID officials about the UASD, external politics, economic concerns, politics within UASD, and internal capacity at UASD.

#### *Perceptions of USAID Officials*

The first challenge to be overcome was the negative perception of UASD held by USAID mission officials in the Dominican Republic. We first attempted to obtain funding for this project in 2002. One of the requirements of ALO is that the local USAID mission officials express support for the proposal in a letter that must be included with the application. Prior to submitting the application and requesting the mission's letter of support, we met with a mission official. During that visit, the official acknowledged that the project would provide a valuable asset to the mission, namely a workforce skilled in public administration and policy that they could tap into to implement their own program. However, the official also expressed concern about the UASD being able to deliver on its commitment as a partner. The mission did not hold the UASD in high esteem because the university had a reputation of mismanagement and a lack of accountability. It was then suggested to us that the project would have better chances of succeeding if we partnered with the major private university instead. But because USU is part of a state university system and is often involved in government supported research and development, we continued to believe that the UASD, as *the* public university, needed to be supported so that it could become a similar resource for the Dominican Republic. Another major concern raised by the USAID officer was that, because of the traditional way in which public sector employment worked, there would be no jobs waiting for graduates. Thus, the program would meet the same fate as the one previously implemented at a private university. We

moved forward and submitted our application with a letter from the mission that expressed reservations about the partnership. The proposal was not funded.

Before submitting a new application in fall 2003, we visited again with the USAID mission official. Fortunately for us, one of the main hurdles had been removed by that time; specifically, there had been an announcement earlier that year that the government was going to start implementing the civil service and administrative career law. Thus, the mission's concern about graduates not being able to obtain and retain jobs was no longer an issue. Furthermore, we had decided to focus our student recruitment strategies on people who had already been incorporated as career bureaucrats. Thus, a market of more than 10,000 people needed to be served. We also assured the mission representative that UASD officials were very interested in changing the negative perception that organizations like USAID had about the university. From the rector of the university to the dean of the school with which we were working, university officials were committed to working hard to make sure that everything went as had been planned in the proposal. Finally, and because of the requirements of the grant, we assured the official that USU would retain control of partnership funds. The second time around, we were successful.

#### *External Politics*

After the national elections of May 2004, there was a change in the ruling elite, bringing back those who had governed from 1996 to 2000. Although in many ways this represented an opportunity, it also brought with it some challenges. These challenges were the result of the country's historical lack of policy continuity, including the common belief of newly installed political leaders that previous administrations' policies and programs provide little political payoff and must be replaced with their own. This was illustrated during a visit we made shortly after the installment of the new government to introduce this project to newly installed heads of agencies. In one agency, we had to make a strong case to that agency's head to convince him that he should deliver on the commitment made by the previous minister to give scholarships to 15 of his employees to study in the master's program. The minister had to be convinced that this was not a pet project of the old administration but one that sought to benefit the country by supporting the processes of reform underway since 1996.

In addition, as could be expected, the strong and very productive ties that had been developed over the past three years with the two main government entities that are collaborating in this partnership (ONAP and CONARE) became something of a liability. The ministers with whom we worked were replaced, so we have had to continue to work hard to nurture and develop relationships with these new individuals. The challenge is to make sure that the relationships transcend political claims and become institutional.

*Economic Concerns*

Because of the country's economic situation and the fact that the UASD receives most of its funds—about 85 percent—from the national government, the dean of the school where the master's program has been implemented set a very low tuition fee. Yet, tuition payments for the students who are supported by their employers have been slow to come. Whenever agency representatives are contacted about payment, said the dean, the ubiquitous response is "the check is being processed." Thus, the low tuition fee and the apparent unresponsiveness of these agencies to repeated requests for payment may threaten the financial viability of the master's program.

*Politics Within UASD*

Administrators (rector, vice-rectors, deans, program administrators, etc.) at UASD are elected by faculty and students. The rector can only run for one three-year term, but the deans can run for more than one term. The process is very much like political elections, with administrators forming factions similar to political parties and engaging in a lot of political activism. In fact, only those who have been given the backing of their political parties run for office at the university (e.g., the Partido de la Liberacion Dominicana, the party of President Fernandez, would throw its support behind one candidate; the Partido Revolucionario Dominicano, the party of former President Hipolito Mejia, would back another).

As might be expected, this is not always conducive to good decision-making. By necessity, political considerations overshadow judgments on the basis of merit. For example, when the dean of the college where this project is housed was up for re-election, the selection of a local project director, a seemingly innocuous decision, became highly political. The position, which is paid for in part by the funds provided by ALO, was highly coveted by a number of individuals who had political pull. Upon reviewing the qualifications of several prospective project directors, the USU project leader in conjunction with an academic advisor selected an individual who met, if not exceeded, all of the requirements we thought were necessary for a local project coordinator. These included formal academic training in public administration. This individual had a public administration degree from a highly regarded Spanish university.

Unfortunately, weeks later, we were informed by the dean that this individual was a highly controversial figure with questionable professional practices. Accordingly, this individual was not selected. However, we later learned that the reason why this individual was not appointed was that he could have hurt the dean's chances of being reelected. In the end, we hired a local project coordinator who was more politically neutral but also was not trained in public administration and was less effective in performing his duties. This negatively affected the quality of services provided to students. Nonetheless, after a project implementa-

tion evaluation, 12 months later, this local coordinator was removed and a new and more effective person was appointed.

The political competition within UASD had caused another problem: a delay in the graduate council's approval of the master's program. Even though all the paperwork had been ready for review since August 2004, and apparently the required support had been garnered, the vice rector for graduate studies did not put the proposal forward. According to the dean and another source, this occurred because the vice rector was in a party that opposed the dean's party. It was not until a former UASD administrator, who is now a vice minister for higher education (and who happens to be related to the U.S. project director), applied pressure to the vice rector that she put forth the proposal. The master's program was formally approved on January 18, 2005, and classes began on January 31.

#### *Internal Capacity of the UASD*

Some structural issues at the UASD have threatened the project's viability and continue to obstruct institutional change. One of those issues is that salaries at UASD are low. As a result, many faculty members seek consulting assignments outside of the control of the institution. They also take teaching assignments at other universities or hold jobs in other government institutions. This problem is compounded by the fact that, at least on paper, full-time faculty have a teaching load of 40 hours per week. This creates an employment situation where faculty members may not feel committed to the institution and their profession. As a result, observers say that faculty don't have time to properly prepare for classes, often cancel classes because they don't make it back from their other assignments, and are often involved in union strikes. All of these events negatively affect the quality of education that students receive and the training that the faculty seeks.

In addition, no mechanisms for rewarding intellectual research are currently in place. This is not to say that UASD faculty members do not publish. Some are very productive, but most of their publications are self-financed and lack the academic rigor we expect of faculty in the United States.

UASD employs many practitioners as adjuncts. In many ways, this is an advantage because of the wealth of knowledge and practical experience that these individuals bring. However, they don't necessarily have formal training in their field, nor do they understand pedagogy.

Thus, although the partnership agreement indicated that UASD was going to hire a local faculty to provide support for students after the foreign professors left, the lack of faculty trained in public administration and the conditions described above did not make it feasible. Once, the UASD hired a faculty member for this purpose, but the guidance given to the students by this individual was not at all aligned with what the foreign professor had taught and, according to some students, even contradicted what they had learned. As a result, the experience was counterproductive and not conducive to the goals we had in mind.

## PROJECT EVALUATION

The end-of-program evaluation consisted of a questionnaire that 26 of the students in the first cohort filled out anonymously and two interviews with the heads of CONARE and ONAP, our partners.

Without exception, all of the students agreed that the material covered in the courses has contributed to their professional development and has helped them to improve in their daily duties at work. A number of the students are supervisors of other students in the program. They reported noting improvement in the way the employees they supervise perform their jobs. The students said that they found the workshops and panels sponsored by the partnership invaluable not only to their intellectual and personal development but also for the country in general because they dealt with themes that are directly related to the current processes of state reform. The students appreciated being exposed to other ways of doing things.

Unanimously, the students said they felt that the program is definitely making a contribution to the process of reform. One of the students said that “this program is the base to make a good government reform.” Another stated that “[I]f I had the ability, I would give all the support that this program needs. These types of programs are necessary in order to deepen and sustain the process of reform and modernization of the estate in the region, and especially in the Dominican Republic.” Another student said that the Dominican Republic lacks a cadre of “public managers that can think and develop processes that transform the bureaucratic system into a more productive and coherent one that fulfills the expectations of users. I believe this program will help to build that cadre.”

The students were also asked about the program’s curriculum, instructors, and coordination. Their responses are described below.

### *Curriculum*

In general, the students said they felt that the courses had been very useful. In particular, students said they appreciated learning about program evaluation, strategic planning, budgeting, and financial, and human resource management issues. On the other hand, only three of the 26 who answered said that the course on quantitative methods was useful. However, one of the students wrote that this was probably because they were not prepared for the level of sophistication with which the professor taught the class. The program calls for a short course on statistics that students must complete before starting the program. Unfortunately, according to the students, they did not learn the skills required to be able to follow a graduate-level class in quantitative analysis. Apparently, this problem is not unique to our students. The dean of the school where the master’s program is housed said that, with a few exceptions, students in general lack quantitative skills and there are very few teachers who can effectively teach the subject.

Some students commented on the relevance of the course themes to their jobs and to the processes of reform. One student commented that “the tools discussed

in class have allowed me to better visualize the different issues dealt with in public administration, and to reflect on the role that strategic planning and evaluation play in public policy.” The students also said they appreciated being able to apply the methods in their daily work; they said they had acquired the ability to “convert book knowledge into practical knowledge.”

The comparative aspects brought into the classroom and discussed by the foreign professors and speakers were, according to one student, the highlight of the program. Another student said that it had been very useful to see how public administration in the Dominican Republic compares to that of more developed countries; in particular, the student said, it was useful to discover the process that those countries had to undergo in order to achieve their current level of development in the field.

It was difficult for some of the foreign professors to find suitable textbooks and materials in Spanish that systematically discussed the course topics. As a result, some of the instructors assigned readings in English to complement the material in Spanish. Unfortunately, only a few of the 32 students enrolled understood English. This limited the extent to which students could be exposed to different viewpoints and research done in the Western tradition. One of the students commented that the material in English was the least useful of all.

Students also suggested that a few more courses be added to the program. They also suggested that there be continued support for more workshops. Some of the topics suggested for courses/workshops included Total Quality Management, political marketing, public sector communication, design and implementation of public policy, and field research. None of the students suggested doing away with any of the courses currently being offered.

### *Quality of Instruction*

Of the five foreign instructors, only the one who taught quantitative methods was considered completely ineffective. In general, compared to the local professors, most of the foreign professors were perceived as having the adequate knowledge about the topic, being up to date in their field of study, being enthusiastic about their subject, and having a genuine commitment to improve the public sector. Three of the foreign instructors (all trained in the United States) were considered very effective by all of those who answered, compared to only two of the local instructors. To summarize, students blamed the lack of quality of the local instructors on a lack of communication with students; not having the material to be covered (including syllabus, books, article, etc.) with enough time prior to the beginning of the courses; the lack of alignment between what was promised on the brochure and what the instructors actually taught; lack of knowledge and preparation on the part of the instructor; lack of instructor’s commitment of time; and lack of enthusiasm for the subject matter.

*Administration and Coordination*

The students agreed that having USU as a partner is a major strength of the program and an incentive for people to enroll in the program. Students said that Utah State University's involvement provides credibility to the program, and the University's continued involvement in and supervision of the program is perceived as necessary to the continued quality of the program. It should be noted that UASD will award the master's degree; Utah State will issue a certificate of completion for all graduates of the program.

While the students experienced many problems with the first local coordinator, as mentioned above, a new one was assigned after the results of a midterm project evaluation and student's complaints were analyzed. The problems included a lack of communication with the students and the project leader at Utah State University; a lack of coordination with the instructors; a lack of attention to program logistics; and general dissatisfaction with the manner in which the coordinator handled problems and concerns. The new program coordinator started in February; all of the students who completed the questionnaire agreed in that the local coordination has significantly improved.

The personal communication with the executive directors of ONAP and CONARE that took place in July 2006 also yielded a positive assessment of the program. For example, the head of ONAP said that he was impressed with the transformation of those of his employees who are enrolled in the program. He says that he has noted a difference in the way in which the students (his employees, who include a subdirector who works directly under him) approach and analyze problems at work. He says that their opinions are now different and that "you know that there is new knowledge." The executive director of CONARE, who also has one student enrolled in the program, said that the type of knowledge that is learned and generated in the master's program is essential for the process of reform that the country is undergoing. He believes that the program "is helping to build human capital capable of supporting the process of reform." The executive director of ONAP also said that he would like to see the UASD increase its focus on the creation of knowledge through applied research. He said that the applied component of this program, along with the opportunity for internships, is an excellent vehicle for that.

CONCLUSIONS AND LESSONS LEARNED

We began with the premise that the success of any government reform depends on the existence of an institutional public administration infrastructure capable of supporting reform. Such an infrastructure requires professional public servants. As suggested by Woodrow Wilson in his seminal 1887 essay, by professionalizing public administration we create a public service culture that strengthens democracy, increases efficiency, and promotes accountability. The evaluation of the master's program, the key component of the higher education partnership

discussed here, suggests that we are contributing toward achieving those goals.

The students' responses also highlight some of the major challenges that we will continue to confront, at least until the program gets fully established. In particular, we find concerns with the quality and preparedness of local instructors. Although there are some structural issues that only the UASD's administration can change, there are some specific steps we can take to ameliorate this problem. Those include a requirement that instructors make available their teaching plan and the list of reading assignments at least one month before their courses start. Another step is for the USU project leader and the UASD coordinator to work closely with each instructor to make sure that the teaching plan corresponds with the learning objectives of the master's program. Also, we can encourage UASD to hire as instructors the best graduates of the program.

The evaluation also highlighted the importance of conducting implementation evaluations. The result of ours allowed us to improve the program's local coordination. This had a positive impact on the quality of the experience of the students in the program. It was important for students to have someone who could give answers to their questions, follow up with communication between students and instructors, ensure that the instructors were available to teach the courses as scheduled and that the designated classrooms were available, keep students informed, and do the necessary follow-up with the foreign and local instructors.

One issue that needs to be addressed is the extent to which Utah State University can remain a key player beyond January 2007, when the grant will be closed out. Utah State has already made a commitment of faculty time and university resources beyond those pledged as co-share in the grant proposal. In fact, Utah State did not charge indirect costs. We had planned for the Utah State's role to begin to diminish by the beginning of 2006 and for the program to be completely independent by 2007. This has not happened; we remain very involved in the decision-making activities that relate to the program, and it is clear that students expect us to continue playing a major role for years to come.

In looking back at our experience with this project since 2002, several lessons that can be applied to similar projects emerge. First, politics matter. Even though on paper the goals and objectives of this project sounded good, when it came time for implementation, political allies were vital. Thus, those involved in international development initiatives are advised not to underestimate the impact that local politics, organizational or otherwise, will have on the outcome of those initiatives. The right political connections may help move the program forward. The wrong political connection may bring paralysis. Yet, it is imperative that the initiatives be promoted as something that will advance the national agenda.

Second, reputation and prestige alone are not sufficient. Indeed, Utah State University has a long history of work in the Dominican Republic and because of that experience was selected to be the host institution of Dominican students receiving presidential scholarships. Furthermore, the students believe that Utah

State's involvement in the master's program is a sign of quality. However, this did not guarantee that the partnership with UASD would work. Yes, the prestige and history of involvement created a positive image for the overall project. It was a necessary condition. But when it came to implementation, negotiation, give and take, and levers such as personal relationships became more important.

Third, taking time to fully understand the institutional partner's context and to develop key partnerships is crucial. The seed money INPAE provided allowed for the initial contact with the Dominican partners, for an initial planning visit to the U.S. institution in 2002, and for a 2003 to the UASD. The Dominican counterparts were clearly interested in establishing a meaningful partnership with the lead U.S. institution. The recent implementation of the law of civil service and administrative careers had created a demand that could not be satisfied by local universities.

Even though during the planning phase some possible difficulties were raised and strategies for addressing them were developed, unanticipated problems, such as resistance in approving the master's degree initiated under this partnership, were encountered. Perhaps more frank and open conversations with more UASD administrators could have elucidated these looming problems and more appropriate strategies could have been developed. But this would have required more resources.

Likewise, USAID officials' initial reaction was unanticipated. Fortunately, we were able to visit with the field official once again. By that time, we had been able to think through the initial concerns and had come up with strategies for addressing those concerns. And, we continued to emphasize that working with UASD was important for developing a strong public administration infrastructure in the Dominican Republic.

Fourth, we should be content with small successes. Perhaps this is the hardest lesson to accept, particularly when funding agencies, and we, are looking for grand results. Given our professional experience as faculty and students in American universities, we tend to be rather naïve in our expectations of foreign universities, especially of those in developing countries. As illustrated above under the challenges section and in the results of the evaluation, change is difficult, and the situations may not support moving fast on change. This is true at least in the case of the UASD, where continuity of leadership can't be taken for granted and where institutional arrangements may not be conducive to the kind of academic environment we enjoy here in the United States. As we seek to promote our ideals, we should develop long-term agendas, based on local context, where activities are strategically designed to lead to small successes. In time, these will accumulate to produce meaningful transformation.

Given these four lessons, and taking into account the accomplishments of this project to date, I would argue that the partnership is on track toward achieving its goals. The master's program has been implemented, and now the focus has to

be on ensuring its continuity. UASD officials have started to talk about administrative transformation, not a small feat for a university of this size, history, and structure. Also, the UASD has started to reach out to public agencies and to reposition itself as a creator and disseminator of knowledge. There are many hurdles still ahead, but the foundation is being laid for the UASD to be able to support the processes of state reform.

Our experience should not be misconstrued as an argument for funding agencies to support only established partnerships. New partnerships bring new ideas to the table, invigorating the development agenda. The goal should be to provide more seed money, perhaps through organizations like NASPAA's INPAE, to help lay the foundation for successful projects. Without this foundation, it is very likely that our project would not have succeeded.

## NOTES

1. Personal communication, April 2006, Madrid, Spain.
2. In 2001 an executive order by Fernandez's successor, President Hipolito Mejia, renamed the Commission. It became Consejo Nacional de Reforma del Estado (CONARE, National Council for State Reform).
3. Because of a recently abolished constitutional amendment, President Fernandez was not able to run for reelection at the end of his first presidency, which was from 1996 to 2000.
4. Personal communication.
5. According to the Ministry of Higher Education in a personal communication, in 2001 only 102 individuals with a Ph.D. lived in the country. Recently, the UASD entered into an agreement with a university in Spain to provide doctoral-level training at UASD.

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## **Appendix I**

### **Curriculum**

- Introduction to the theory of public administration and the state
- Leadership in public administration
- Quantitative analysis in public administration
- Public policy
- Program evaluation
- Institutional and political thought in the Dominican Republic
- Human resources management
- Budgeting and finance
- Decentralization and management at the local level
- Economic analysis applied to public management
- Strategic management
- Public and administrative law
- Thesis seminar

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# Transparency and Public Administration in Mexico: How the Enactment of a Law is Changing Culture

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## ABSTRACT

Recent elections in Mexico, despite their tumultuous appearance, have been more participatory and have reflected progress in Mexico's culture of openness and transparency as opposed to its traditional culture of secrecy and corruption. This article begins by arguing that corruption has long been, by default, a principal element in the administration and management of public services in Mexico and that this moral and ethical situation facilitated the groundwork for the law of transparency to emerge. Transparency, freedom of information laws, and the right-to-know movement are discussed in the context of the Mexican state, and the key elements of the freedom of information law in Mexico and the role of the Federal Institute on Access to Public Information are explored. It is argued that Mexico's efforts are creating a new culture of openness and transparency that will eventually provide a more participatory democracy for all citizens. Finally, the article presents the results of a survey of master of public administration professors on the current state of transparency in Mexico and how the law is changing political and bureaucratic culture there.

Earlier this year Mexico held its presidential elections. President-elect Felipe Calderón was chosen to succeed President Vicente Fox Quesada as the second man to hold this office from the conservative National Action Party, or PAN, as known by its Spanish acronym. Mexican election observers, both national and international, dismissed allegations of election fraud, and foreign leaders including President Bush called Calderón to congratulate him on his election. Neverthe-

less, the process was reminiscent of recent U.S. elections in which the runner-up demanded a recount and alleged electoral misconduct. Left-of-center rival Andres Manuel Lopez Obrador from the Democratic Revolutionary Party, or PRD, claimed voting irregularities and demanded a recount. Mexico relied on federal election officials from its Federal Electoral Institute and a federal electoral tribunal—the Tribunal Electoral del Poder Judicial de la Federación—for a solution. This specialized electoral court was legally empowered to pronounce who would be the next president of Mexico, and it did so on September 6, 2006.

Although the recent elections in Mexico would appear tumultuous, they have actually been more participatory and are an improvement from the 71 years of uninterrupted rule by the Institutional Revolutionary Party, or PRI.<sup>1</sup> As a symbol of the growing democratization in Mexico, even the ballot boxes in this election were transparent. The square cardboard boxes with plastic see-through sides allowed all to see the votes as they were cast. The 2006 presidential election marked the closest in the country's history and reflected progress in Mexico's culture of openness and transparency as opposed to its traditional culture of secrecy and corruption. The administration of President Vicente Fox has advanced a sense of honesty and truthfulness when compared to past administrations and has made considerable progress in improving transparency in Mexican federal public administration (MFPA).<sup>2</sup>

In recent years, this progress has manifested itself by allowing access to governmental information via new laws that secure and promote an atmosphere of openness and self-determination. Major initiatives have included a reform of the budget process, a new human resource system, an overhaul of public procurement policies, the streamlining of government regulations, and the strengthening of internal and external audit controls (Loser and Ter-Minassian, 2002). Nevertheless, significant improvements can still be made in both electoral and bureaucratic transparency as Mexico transitions from authoritarianism to democracy.

This article begins by arguing that corruption, although not officially part of the system for conducting business in Mexico, was by default a principal element in the administration and management of public services. This moral and ethical dilemma, it is argued, facilitated the groundwork for the law of transparency to emerge. Transparency, freedom of information laws, and the right-to-know movement are then discussed in the context of the Mexican state. At this point, some of the key elements of the freedom of information law in Mexico and the role of the Federal Institute on Access to Public Information (IFAI) are explored. Next, it is argued that these efforts made by Mexico are creating a new culture of openness and transparency that, although in its infancy, will soon blossom and provide a more participatory democracy for all citizens.

Finally, in an effort to present an independent assessment of the country's transparency laws and its effects on this cultural transformation, a sampling of profes-

sors in master of public administration (MPA) programs were asked the following questions:

1. Has the new law on transparency caused changes in MPA programs in Mexico? For example, is a course on transparency being taught? Or, is this topic being taught as part of another course, but in more detail than before? Or has the curriculum in MPA programs not changed?
2. In your opinion, is the IFAI fulfilling its role to facilitate access to public information?
3. From your point of view, is a culture of transparency being created in Mexico?

The final three sections of the article return to this survey and its findings, in relation to the current state of transparency in Mexico, and how the law is changing political and bureaucratic culture there.

#### CORRUPTION

According to David H. Rosenbloom (1998), corruption can be defined as “a betrayal of the public trust for reasons of private interest. By many accounts, corruption in public administration is virtually a worldwide phenomenon and a serious limitation on the ability of public administrative systems to accomplish some of the tasks assigned to them” (533). American public administration is quite familiar with corruption and the devastating effects it can have on society. Reformers at the turn of the 20th century were conscious of the corruption in their midst and were successful in their efforts against political machines, the spoils system, graft, and bribery, and as Woodrow Wilson put it in his classic essay, *The Study of Administration*, “the poisonous atmosphere of city government, the crooked secrets of state administration, the confusion, sinecurism, and corruption ever and again discovered in the bureaux at Washington” (Wilson, 5). The progressive era was able to achieve a number of reforms through legislation, among which were changes in the federal executive branch, nonpartisan city government elections, and the introduction of the professional city manager.

A comparison can be drawn between the corruption and eventual changes in American public administration at the turn of the 20th century, and the corruption and changes in Mexican federal public administration at the turn of the 21st century. In both instances, corruption, graft, secrecy, and other hindrances to good administration were identified, and action through legislation to improve administration and management was taken. Mexico, however, has a unique history and in this context political and bureaucratic change has been greatly hindered. Some have argued that La Conquista and Spanish rule in Mexico laid the groundwork for today’s system of corruption (Lomnitz, 1995). Mexico inherited

the Spanish legal system and traditions in which officials appointed by the crown were expected to support themselves by extracting part of their pay from the local community. Billington (1970) has suggested that, because the Iberian Peninsula did not benefit from the Enlightenment ideal of the rule of law, the Spanish colonies had less regard for the law and thus higher levels of corruption.

History and political circumstances have contributed to the rise of organized crime and corruption in Mexico, and a number of studies have chronicled the extensive corruption (Tennenbaum, 1950; Morris, 1999; Shelley, 2001). Nevertheless, Mexico has achieved remarkable progress in recent years, and it began before the election of President Vicente Fox. All Mexican presidents since the 1970s have initiated some type of anti-corruption or moral reform movement but have had little success in institutionalizing lasting change. In 1977, for instance, Article 6 of the Mexican Constitution was amended to include the words, "the state will grant freedom of information." Unfortunately, the Mexican Congress failed to define its meaning and make the term operational. In 1999, the Mexican Senate approved the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) anti-bribery convention statement.<sup>3</sup> However, with no enforcement powers, it was merely symbolic. A number of recent presidents have even gone so far as to investigate the corruption of former administrations and some high-profile public servants have served jail time. However, the majority of the anti-corruption efforts were isolated and temporary, geared to appease the masses instead of real structural change aimed at true reform.

As a measure of corruption for the past 10 years, Transparency International has provided a Corruption Perception Index (CPI) in which it rates 159 of the world's 193 countries according to the degree to which corruption is perceived to exist among a country's public officials and politicians. The scores range from 10 (least corrupt) to zero (highly corrupt). A score of 5.0 is the borderline figure, distinguishing countries that do or do not have a serious corruption problem. For 2005 Iceland, Finland, and New Zealand scored 9.7, 9.6, and 9.6 respectively and are perceived to be the world's least corrupt countries. Bangladesh, Chad, and Haiti scored 1.7, 1.7, and 1.8 and are perceived to be the most corrupt. For comparative purposes, Canada scored an 8.4 and the United States a 7.6. Mexico's scores have remained constant over the last eight years, with the most recent (2005) being a 3.5, and with a high of 3.7 in 2001 and a low of 3.3 in 2000. The scores for Mexico have improved with its transparency and accountability initiatives, but it still has some way to go before it transcends the 5.0 mark and moves into new territory marked by less perceived corruption.<sup>4</sup>

There is no mistake that corruption is still rampant in Mexico, as shown by the CPI. The drug trade has been devastating and has transformed some Mexican cities like Nuevo Laredo, Ciudad Juarez, and Tijuana along the border into labyrinths of criminal activity. The Fox administration has tried, with limited success, to curb the power of these criminal organizations. Nevertheless, recent

structural changes under his watch have been instrumental in effecting lasting change in dealing with corruption.

During its first few days in office, the Fox administration established the Comisión Intersecretarial para la Transparencia y el Combate a la Corrupción (CITCC), or Commission for Transparency for Combating Corruption. The commission had three main areas of focus: prisons, the police force, and customs. This move was crucial in attempting to fight organized crime. Shortly thereafter, in an attempt to fight corruption within the bureaucracy, the government signed a national pact on transparency and fighting corruption. The agency charged with fighting corruption the Secretaría de la Contraloría y Desarrollo Administrativo (SECODAM)—the Secretariat of Audit and Administrative Development—created a special unit with the responsibility to oversee the fight on corruption within government agencies and to involve civil society in its work.

These initial foundational measures were the first time Mexico had actually operationalized a commission for coordinating anticorruption and transparency policies (Franco-Barrios, 2003). These preliminary moves, similar in principle to what previous Mexican presidents had done when first elected to office, were different in one big respect: they were genuine. Additionally, within the climate of democratization and with the momentum of the recent election—the symbolic defeat of authoritarianism—these initiatives signaled the lead for the Mexican Congress and others to move forward with reform. These efforts set forth by the Fox administration increased the opportunity for transparency legislation to pass in Mexico. The environment had been altered, and even external international actors took the opportunity to exert power and influence on Mexico's internal affairs. These organizations ranged from NGOs, IGOs, and U.S. government agencies to the foreign press, governments, and businesses. One consequence of globalization is that investors, both in the economic sense and those with democratic interests, will command a greater concern in a country's stability (Morris, 1999). This collective self-interest creates a desire to expose public corruption and to secure the free flow of information.

#### TRANSPARENCY, FREEDOM OF INFORMATION, AND THE RIGHT TO KNOW

Transparency, freedom of information (FOI) laws, and the right-to-know movement can be classified as actions that have the intent of opening the governance process to citizens. This openness allows participants access to information and eventually empowers them to use this information to improve society. In essence, all three have the same goal, and it could be argued that transparency is an appropriate umbrella term that includes FOI laws and right-to-know movement concerns. This article follows this argument and uses the terms synonymously.

Transparency has been defined a number of ways. Johnston (2002) defines it as “official business conducted in such a way that substantive and procedural information is available to, and broadly understandable by, people and groups in

society, subject to reasonable limits protecting security and privacy” (2). Another definition suggests that information “is freely available and directly accessible to those who will be affected by decisions and that enough information is provided in easily understandable forms and media” (Kim et al., 2005, 649). Best (2005) implies that the word “carries with it a powerful array of moral and political associations, including honesty, guilelessness, and openness” (see Kim et al., 2005, 649). Finel and Lord (1999) define transparency as “legal, political, and institutional structures that make information about the internal characteristics of a government and society available to actors both inside and outside of the domestic political system” (316). A final definition has transparency being described as a long continuum of behavior. “At one extreme, nothing is hidden. All government files are open to inspection by anyone wanting to see them, and meetings are always public. At the other, secrecy reigns supreme, and no one outside the narrow circle of government is permitted to know anything” (Florini, 2002, 4).

In summary, transparency revolves around three dimensions including openness, government structure, and function. First, at a comprehensive level, the virtue of open government as a tenet of democracy must be recognized. People as the sovereign have a right to know how their governments conduct business and that the right to “information has been recognized as a prerequisite for the legitimate exercise of public authority within the nation state” (Roberts, 2004, 410). Although some would argue that transparency is not synonymous with democracy (Zakaria, 1997) fundamentally, transparency under most theories of democracy is linked to a government’s ability to disclose public information. Citizens have a right to information, and they have a right to use that information to influence or challenge government decision-making. Second, transparency as a tool requires the availability and provision of reliable information. The structure of government should facilitate accessibility to data and information on government operations, including budgets and information about the organization itself along with rules of procedure. Finally, the third dimension consists of behavioral aspects, including clearly established conflict-of-interest rules for elected and appointed officials—codes of conduct, open public procurement and employment practices, and a transparent regulatory framework.<sup>5</sup>

#### MEXICO’S TRANSPARENCY AND PUBLIC INFORMATION LAW

In a society that has been mired in corruption for generations, the likelihood of long-lasting change was now a real possibility. With the example of the Fox administration and its initiatives to curb corruption and attempt transparency in its paramilitary organizations, the Mexican Congress was now ready to take up the issue of transparency. SECODAM, the government agency in charge of reducing corruption, had actually drafted a transparency law; however, once the details were known it appeared more like a secrecy law than a freedom of information law. A political party, the PRD, had also put forward a freedom of information

proposal. However, it was not until a loose-knit coalition of civil society organizations emerged and worked with the Mexican Congress that the passage of the law was secure. Issa Luna Pla (2003) noted that the group included more than 100 members from national and local newspapers, human rights organizations, and universities.<sup>6</sup> Pla goes on to say that “Mexican law does not recognize a citizen’s right to present bills directly to the legislature, so when the group’s work on the draft was complete, the first step was to convince Congress to include it on the legislative agenda” (2).

In essence, the creation of the law was itself a unique process, in that determined civil advocacy and participation helped draft the law. It has generally been accepted that “decision makers in Mexico have long operated behind closed doors and access to both government and corporate information has been extremely limited. For years, citizens and activists have been insisting on greater transparency and the unlocking of official records, and government archives” (Nauman, 2003, 1). That time had finally arrived.

Mexico’s first national freedom of information initiative was signed into law by President Vicente Fox in June 2002 and took effect one year later in June 2003. The purpose and objective of the *Ley Federal de Transparencia y Acceso a la Información Pública*—Federal Transparency and Governmental Public Information Access Law—is to “provide that all persons have access to information through simple and expeditious procedures,” to “make public administration transparent,” to “encourage accountability to citizens,” and to “contribute to the democratization of Mexican society and the full operation of the rule of law” (see Article 4). The law is very progressive, and it is the most comprehensive in all of Latin America. For instance, the law also covers privacy rights and contains a section of information that describes what would be considered confidential and/or classified. These special areas include national security or national defense information and information that could impair international relations, harm the country’s economic stability, and put the life security or health of any person at risk. During the three years of the law’s existence in Mexico, these exclusions to freedom of information have not proven to be detrimental.

Kate Doyle (2003) notes that “it is a very good law: well conceived, well articulated, and unequivocal in its intent to guarantee the right of citizens to obtain information about their executive and legislative branches” (103). She goes on to maintain that the legislation rests on a premise of disclosure, defining all government information as public and directing government agencies and entities to favor the principle of publicity of information over secrecy.

Today, it is imperative to support the effective functioning of Mexico’s new freedom of information laws and to endorse democratic governance. A recent declaration of civil society groups at the 2005 International Conference of Information Commissioners in Cancun, Mexico, stated that “the right of access to information has no meaning if people cannot use [the] information to improve

the quality of their lives.” Mexico in its recent past has had a history of questionable violations, and, with violence precipitated by the drug cartels in the north and indigenous guerrillas in the south, its people will need to be patient. This relatively new law, juxtaposed with the solid tradition of corruption and secrecy, will take time to permeate throughout society.

#### FEDERAL INSTITUTE ON ACCESS TO PUBLIC INFORMATION

Mexico’s transparency law created a new federal agency, the Instituto Federal de Acceso a la Información Pública (Federal Institute on Access to Public Information). Chapter II, Article 33 states, “The Federal Institute on Access to Public Information is a body of Federal Public Administration which is independent in its operations, budget and decision-making and charged with promoting and publicizing the exercise of the right of access to information, ruling on the denial or requests for access to information and protecting personal information held by the agencies and entities.” The IFAI has four basic functions: it serves as a court or regulator for FOI issues; it protects personal data and the privacy of individuals; it conducts a variety of training for agencies and the public, some online; and it promotes transparency issues. For example, if a requesting party is notified of the denial of access to information by a federal government agency or that the documents requested do not exist, the party may lodge an appeal for review before the IFAI. One of the Institute’s many mandates is to rule on whether the decision of the entity or agency is justified or if the information should be given to the requesting party, even though it was initially denied. The law has already attracted more than 2,500 requests for appeals from the public, with 56 percent resulting in the disclosure of some or all of the information disputed. IFAI has upheld or sided with a government agency 16 percent of the time (Sobel, 2006). Furthermore, this new agency has produced more than a dozen major success stories against corruption and cover-up, according to IFAI’s reports. The new freedom of information law in Mexico will not only allow transparency but will have the effect of promoting democracy.

At this juncture, freedom of information permits citizens to request records on the actions of their federal government, with the law working as intended. However, this newfound freedom is not a reality for much of the Mexican citizenry, especially at the state and local levels, with the problem being magnified for the poor in rural areas. Professors in MPA programs concur with this assessment; one stated that

[A]t the state level we have commissions that are supposed to enact transparency laws. However, it is even more difficult at this level because state agencies are subject to incipient processes that are unorganized and they can not meet the time limits of the law. This

does not bother them because the sanction for noncompliance is simply an administrative letter of reprimand.

Kate Doyle (2003) notes that the Mexican public still has difficulty getting access to “information about the most fundamental ways in which government affects daily life, and issues such as local school budgets, crime statistics, anti-pollution controls, the salaries of public officials, the number of police patrols, contracts awarded and much more remain out of the reach of ordinary citizens” (110).

According to some professors, the IFAI is accomplishing its goals inasmuch as most agencies have placed on the Web the information required of them. However, some respondents said that they believe that there are still many ways of classifying information as confidential. Additionally, some indicated that agencies do not respond as required and that at times it is necessary to get the IFAI to pressure them. One professor noted, “IFAI is doing its job; however, there still exist flaws in the archival system of many agencies thus it is not easy to guarantee access to information even though the will to provide the information is there. On the other hand, when information is received it is not always the information that was requested. Thus you will get a response, but it might not be what you actually solicited.”

One concern for some professors is how to get a wider cross-section of the citizenry exercising its rights. One noted that “[b]asically the citizens that are using the FOI law, at least in our state, are students, journalists, and newspaper reporters.” Although some of these faculty responses signal frustration, they also suggest it is mainly a matter of mastering a new learning curve.

Finally, another professor summed up nicely the stage at which Mexico is currently in with respect to its new freedom of information law:

I believe that the IFAI has carried out an important job and that it has acted with efficacy in the requests it has received. The problem is that the knowledge that the ordinary citizen has about this topic and the services available is still very limited. Recent statistics from the IFAI show that only 4 percent of FOI requests come from ordinary citizens. The rest come from journalists, newspaper reporters, political parties, etc. IFAI needs to mature as an organization and this will occur slowly. It should be remembered that for decades the Mexican government was completely unaccountable to its people and the creation of institutions like the IFAI contribute without a doubt to the creation of a government that is more responsible and a citizenry that is more conscientious.

#### CURRENT EFFORTS

The Mexican government has made tremendous strides in its efforts to incorporate new technology into its operations. One professor from Mexico noted that “[t]echnologically, we are probably the most advanced in Latin America and much of the information being requested is already available in the public domain.” In 2000 Mexico initiated its eMexico project, one that provides more than 3,000 kiosk access points across the country. This initiative serves to bring underserved segments of the population access to a variety of Mexican federal public administration agencies’ online Web sites. This proposal also introduced Compranet, an Internet-based public procurement site that allows companies to bid for federal projects on line. Its success inspired two other Web sites that have also proved to be very useful in opening up Mexican federal public administration and giving access to citizens through the Internet.

In January 2002, Mexico launched the Internet site Tramitanet, which allows federal agencies, states, and cities to have Web space for conducting business. Citizens can pay electricity bills, obtain information on state and federal agencies, and fill out permits and obtain various application forms online. The other Internet site is Declaranet. This Internet site is designed for public servants to declare or disclose their financial position before and after public service. Patrimonial information is required for real property, vehicles, investments, stocks, bank accounts, mortgages, liens, credit cards, and loans. All of these efforts have moved Mexico to the forefront of openness in government in the Americas.

These current efforts are in keeping with Article 9 of the transparency law in Mexico, which states that all public information must be made available through electronic means. Specifically, it says that “subjects [government agencies] compelled by this law must place computer equipment at the disposal of interested persons so that they may obtain information directly or by printing it out. They must also give support to users who need it and lend every type of assistance possible with regard to their procedures and services they are providing.” According to Sobel (2006), 92 percent of all current requests made of IFAI are online; however, there are still means for submitting requests through traditional mail services. Synder (2004) predicts that, because of comprehensive computing and the ability to place limitless documents on the Internet, in 15 to 20 years transparency will be substantially accomplished among both public and private institutions.

The interest in transparency worldwide and in Mexico has encouraged international organizations to hold special conferences on transparency there. In February 2005, as mentioned previously, freedom of information advocates and government officials who implement access laws around the world gathered in Cancún for the third annual International Conference of Information Commissioners, which was hosted by IFAI. In June and July 2006, two different organizations

also held conferences in Mexico around the topic of transparency. The International Institute of Administrative Sciences held its conference in Monterrey with their theme being transparency for better governance. And the second annual National Conference on Transparency in conjunction with the International City County Management Association, in Mexico, was held in Veracruz with topics ranging from transparency and accountability programs to municipal best practices and evaluation results concerning transparency in Mexico. The country has come a long way from an established tradition of nontransparency and corruption to the beginnings of a much more open, transparent, and accountable government sector.

Finally, the Instituto Nacional de Administración Pública (INAP), or the National Institute of Public Administration, one of the oldest nonprofit organizations in Mexico, geared to strengthening Mexican federal public administration and democracy, now gives out an annual transparency award. The award is given to a public agency that best demonstrates results in transparency and anti-corruption policies. The criteria for the award are very elaborate, yet its objectives are clear: recognize the permanent transparency efforts being made, promote the simplification of administrative processes, and fight corruption and engender a spirit and culture of transparency. The 2006 annual award went to the Servicio De Administración y Enajenación de Bienes, Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público, or the Administrative Services for the Estrangement of Goods, Secretariat of the Treasury and Public Credit. This agency designed and created a public Web site for decision-making on proposals for debt payments. These conferences and awards, along with the university efforts, are making a difference in Mexico to create a culture of transparency.

#### CREATING A CULTURE OF TRANSPARENCY

Creating a culture of transparency, despite the recent positive changes in Mexico, will take time. Nevertheless, it can be attained with concerted effort. A recent study by David L. Sobel (2006) on IFAI suggests that this organization has already “contributed enormously to a culture of transparency in Mexico [and that this] culture of transparency has contributed to under girding democratic processes” (1). He goes to say that “the challenge that all participants in the process face at this juncture is to cultivate further, and embed in Mexican society, a culture of openness that reinforces the breakthrough that the law represents” (7).

Scholars have noted that creating organizational change comes by way of the adoption of a new idea or behavior in an organization (Daft, 1992). Carter McNamara (1999) argues that “cultural change is a form of organizational transformation, that is, radical and fundamental. It involves changing the basic values, norms, and beliefs, among members of the organization in order to improve organizational performance” (1). Schein (1999) further states that “culture matters

because it is a powerful, latent, and often unconscious set of forces that determine both our individual and collective behavior, ways of perceiving, thought patterns, and values. Organizational culture in particular matters because cultural elements determine strategy, goals, and modes of operating” (34). The cultural transformation currently in process in Mexico is a fascinating study on organizational change on a large scale. Deep-seated traits fostering corruption are being replaced by the openness of freedom of information laws and the ability of a maturing new agency (the IFAI) to take the lead in the process of democratization.

IFAI takes seriously its mandate to promote transparency and an open and free society. It also believes that sustaining fundamental democratic principles is tied to its efforts. On its Web site, under the appropriate title of “Culture of Transparency,” IFAI says the following:

Modern constitutional democracies must not only guarantee clear and trustworthy rules for electoral competition and access to political power, but must also ensure the transparent operation of public functions, so that society may know and evaluate governmental management and the performance of civil servants. Our country has undertaken a process of change in the relationship between the government and the governed, and thus there is a new way of carrying out public functions, with open doors and face-to-face with society.

This process implies a true cultural transformation of the concept and practice of public service; it assumes the submission of government management and the performance of civil servants to the daily scrutiny of society; it requires the right to access information to be disseminated and take root among the population and for its exercise to be effectively promoted, as well as the right to privacy and the private lives of persons, through the protection of their personal data. It requires, in short, the generation, encouragement and consolidation of the culture of transparency and access to public information in our country.

David Sobel (2006) suggests that “a culture of openness requires the forging of a new relationship between citizen and state, one that fosters the capacity for informed debate and decision-making that citizens need to genuinely participate in a democratic society” (8). In Mexico this relationship is being forged, however slowly. Professors in the field of public administration have no reservations about the creation of a culture of transparency. Many feel that the key is to know the law and to know how to have their rights respected. One professor respondent to the aforementioned survey feels that, although there is much still to do, it would be important to focus on agency training so that practitioners understand the

importance of this law. He goes on to talk about the advertisements on television about transparency. Noting that a key IFAI goal is to promote transparency, the respondent suggests that its public service announcements need to be reevaluated, because they fail to show how this law affects the ordinary citizen.

Respondents concurred that a new culture is gradually beginning to form, and many said they believe that, if civil society keeps pushing, educators keep training, and the government keeps reforming, a new culture of honesty will emerge. As one professor said, "I believe it is a concept that is here to stay."

The Mexican political structure and culture is changing, and government agencies are much more conscious and careful about the information they generate and its management. One professor noted that, as with any processes in Mexico, acculturating the citizen is very complicated, and that this is reflected in the low demand in FOI requests from them. Many professors responding to the survey indicated that, because of the success of the IFAI, other institutions like it need to be created at the state and local level. IFAI offers access to information on the federal level, but state and local governments are not subject to this law.

Currently, many states have their own transparency laws, and they have created institutes of transparency and access to information, but their effectiveness is very questionable. One professor put it this way:

In the case of the state of Mexico, the political culture was distinguished by the 71 years of one party rule. This is very hard to change. The state is the vanguard of information laws and institutions but in practice it has no intention of transforming or becoming more responsible or transparent. To date, the state institute on transparency and access to public information has had limited and questionable results.

This frustration with state and local governments on FOI laws has many advocating for changes at this level. Many support an IFAI-type agency for every state in Mexico.

#### MEXICO'S TRANSPARENCY LAW AND MPA PROGRAMS

A final integral part of securing a long-lasting and permanent culture of transparency in Mexico is ensuring that students who enter the field have been exposed academically to the principles of transparency. Professors at schools of public administration overwhelmingly indicated their bachelor's, master's, and doctoral programs and corresponding plans have been updated to include this topic. However, the majority do not teach this subject as a stand-alone course. A typical response is the following: "We don't have a course specifically on this topic. However, it is included in a class we call seminar in public administration." Another professor indicated that his/her university offers two courses that

cover the topic, which also includes accountability; one is a seminar in public administration and the other is a course on public policy. In a summary that could characterize many programs in public administration education, one professor said, "We do not have specific courses on transparency, but transparency plays an important role in many courses, for instance, strategic management in public administration, public policy analysis, civil society and government, public administration in Mexico, and globalization and development."

Another method for exposing students to the subject of transparency and freedom of information has been through seminars, workshops, and conferences. One professor indicates that "[i]n the case of our university, we have not necessarily changed the curriculum. What we do, is have seminars and conferences that address the topic with the goal of understanding such an important subject." She goes on to say that "our curriculum is very much influenced by a quest for democratic, transparent, good governance."

Finally, another professor shared these comments: "Let's take for example the two most prestigious programs in our country—one a bachelor's program and the other an MPA program. Although in neither program there is an actual course on transparency, the topic is important and it is covered in seminars and in their courses on public policy analysis. Furthermore, there are university connections to IFAI. One of the commissioners and the current president are academicians and transparency is currently a very popular topic of master's thesis and doctoral dissertations." There is no doubt that new entrants into the field of public administration will be taught and trained about transparency issues and their importance to the democratic process.

## CONCLUSION

Although Mexico has come a long way these past six years, there is still a significant amount of work to be done. Corruption embedded into the system and into the psyche of the people will take years to change. However, the change has begun. One of the strengths of Mexico during this transition period is found in the halls of education. Affordable higher education with an educated middle class can preclude some of the emblematic problems currently facing the nation.

Strengthening the rule of law, designing functional institutions, and curbing corruption are no longer "mere theoretical prospects" (Morris, 1999, 640); they are actually taking place. Mexico is at a point in its history that it can embrace and advance the changes that have thus far been instituted. The next six years of president-elect Felipe Calderón are pivotal in the development of transparency and eradicating corruption in Mexico.

The hope is that changes in the Mexican federal public administration will filter down to state and local levels. To be sure, 24 of 31 Mexican states already have their own transparency laws, and the movement has reached a growing number of Mexican cities. A lack of transparency is associated with higher levels of corrup-

tion. In recent years, Mexico has pressed forward faster than any other country in the Americas to make transparency a reality in politics and public administration. Amanda Frost once said, "Freedom of information and other right-to-know information laws have gained stature taking on an input-legitimizing role, because they arm interest groups and citizens with the information they need to contribute to the decision-making process" (2003, 93). It also should be remembered that "[a]t stake in the fight against corruption in Mexico is nothing less than the country's economic and political future, for there is a real danger that the public will get frustrated, either with unfulfilled promises, or with democracy itself" (Berain and Araizaga 2001, 159).

Although there is much still to do, events have been placed in motion that will account for fundamental change in public administration in Mexico. A colleague at a premier university in public administration in Mexico volunteered that "the promulgation of the Federal Transparency and Governmental Public Information Access Law represents without a doubt a milestone in the transformation of the Mexican state. This law represents a step forward in the process to make our public institutions more accountable and our citizens more participative." If the assessments and views of the professoriate are any indication, as the informal sampling here presented suggests, higher education in public administration will play a key role as well.

#### NOTES

1. The monopoly of PRI over presidential politics was ended in 2000 with the election of President Vicente Fox Quesada from PAN.
2. In addition to giving credit to the Fox administration for advances in democracy, it is essential to recognize that political changes first occurred in Mexico in municipal elections at the grassroots level and in economically powerful states.
3. The OECD Anti-Bribery Convention was passed in 1997 and has captured worldwide attention as the first global instrument to fight corruption in cross-border business deals. Since its ratification by all 30 OECD countries and six nonmembers, it has made some real headway in the fight against corruption. Today, in the 36 countries that have enacted anti-bribery laws based on the OECD Convention, bribing a foreign public official is a crime.
4. The Corruption Perception Index will continually be a challenge for Mexico. For despite the significant changes the country is making, it has a tradition of corruption and any close calls along the way will be assumed to be corruption. The 2006 presidential elections is a case in point. For a look at the 2005 CPI, see [http://www.icgg.org/corruption.cpi\\_2005\\_data.html](http://www.icgg.org/corruption.cpi_2005_data.html).
5. The dimensions presented here are based on the fiscal transparency work done by George Koptis (2000). They have been changed to place less emphasis on fiscal matters.
6. The New York Times named this coalition the Grupo Oaxaca because of meetings held in this Mexican city. The group has since formalized as an NGO called Libertad de Información-México A.C. (LIMAC). It now monitors the new law and is working to get transparency laws at the state level enacted.

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# From Service to Solidarity: Evaluation and Recommendations for International Service Learning

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## ABSTRACT

For service learning pedagogy to live up to its full potential, educators must address the pitfalls of privilege that often go unexamined in relationships between groups of affluent university students and the underprivileged populations that service learning programs traditionally seek to “serve.” In order to address the dynamics of power and privilege inherent between those who “give service” and those who are “served,” a relationship of honesty, reciprocity, and mutuality must be established and promoted between those two groups. This study is an effort to further establish such a relationship by fully involving Salvadoran partners in the evaluation of a service learning program in El Salvador. The evaluation was conducted in order to learn more from the program’s international partners and to include their voices in the further development of the program. As a result of interview responses from Salvadoran stakeholders, this paper seeks to further investigate the distinction between the ideas of service and solidarity and the ways in which solidarity can contribute to larger social change.

## SERVICE LEARNING AND SOME CRITICAL CONCERNS

Service learning can take place on a domestic or an international stage, each with varying implications and results. No matter the venue, service learning pedagogy is generally based on three overlapping objectives. Service learning at its finest makes a “contribution to the host community,” contributes to “the creation of a consciousness of the civil society through participation,” and “strengthens the interaction between academia and the world outside” (Woolf, 2005, 2).

The goal of this research was to understand the perspective of Salvadoran stakeholders on their motivations for participation in a service learning program and their opinions on the program's efficacy relative to Salvadoran needs and vision. Furthermore, Salvadoran stakeholders were asked to reflect on what they saw as the benefits of participation and to make suggestions for program improvement.

Often, it is assumed that Woolf's "contribution to the host community," or the service piece of service learning, is an inherent good. That is, service is often seen as time freely dedicated by individuals to contribute to the greater good of society. This assumption about the inherent good of the freely donated time of individuals who are generally in a position of power and privilege and who thereby have the time and the means to be able to do service has the potential to override our critical sensibilities and to do more harm than good. Service learning, gone unexamined, can actually harm the community if well-intentioned beneficence perpetuates dependency, with the use of a community as a lab and even the denigration of human beings who are objectified and looked at as the "other" and as poor people. Furthermore, short-term service relationships are often fragmented and leave community partners in the dust, while students who are unable to successfully process their experience in the host community revert to previously held beliefs, thus hardening prejudices and stereotypes.

Therefore, if it is to avoid these pitfalls, service learning must be more than the donation of time or charity. Programs must be designed to be intentionally mutual and inclusive in structure and relationships and they require all parties to critically reflect on the implications of the service learning relationship.

Three cornerstone principles of service learning, as set forth by one of service learning's pedagogical pioneers, Robert Sigmon, serve to inform the *kind* of structure and relationships that must be developed for service learning to live up to the good that it is capable of achieving. Sigmon's principles state that those being served control the services provided; those being served become better able to serve and be served by their own actions; and those who serve are also learners and have significant control over what is expected to be learned (Stanton, Giles, and Cruz, 1999, 3).

It must be noted, however, that even these principles are loaded with language that denotes privilege and a certain inequality in the service learning relationship. To be served implies neediness, while being in the position of giving service implies the opposite. Some critics of service learning pedagogy charge that, without careful observance and implementation of the criteria set forth by Sigmon, as well as the critical evaluation of power relations established by Sigmon's language, service learning will likely contribute to the perpetuation of paternalism and privilege. A relationship based on the assumption that the privileged have can help the needy have-nots is particularly dangerous because it "actually reinforces prejudice and replicates power differentials between those conferring and those receiving the service" (King, 2004, 123).

Often, university service learning programs are established with goals for a community service project having already been determined by the university, without soliciting or including community partners in the discussion. The implicit assumption is that the university knows best and that the community needs its help. In order to avoid the pitfalls of this assumption, it is critical that, prior to the implementation of a service learning program, the partner communities (or organizations) that are identified and established are interested in the cooperative development of a program that will address a mutually established vision and in which both parties will serve and be served.

The idea of mutual vision is supported by the Action Theory paradigm (Harmon, 1981). According to Harmon's propositions, "mutuality is the normative premise deriving from the face-to-face relation (encounter) between active-social selves" (Harmon, 1981, 5). A service learning program that incorporates in its planning, development, and evaluation structure the opportunity for "face-to-face encounters," or planning sessions that address the needs, concerns, and vision of the university and the community, also adequately addresses Sigmon's cornerstone principles of service learning: host communities that "control the services provided, become better able to serve and be served by their own actions, are also learners and have significant control over what is expected to be learned" (Stanton, Giles, and Cruz, 1999, 3).

Furthermore, "social justice is the logistical extension of mutuality applied to collectivities" (Harmon, 1981, 5). As such, a university service learning program based on the values of mutuality and collaborative vision has the potential to challenge the previously held beliefs of all participants. This challenge requires that participants find common ground and common interests that they likely would not have the opportunity to discover without the face-to-face encounter of the service learning experience. In short, the objectified haves and have-nots have the chance to sit at the same table together to discuss and design a mutually beneficial relationship. This sense of mutual humanity promotes a climate in which all participants see their interconnectedness as global citizens and begin to understand the impact of their own lives on the lives of others across the globe. Thus, a relationship of mutuality is logically extended to the idea of social change and social justice. Once participants are able to make the connection between their struggles and the struggles of others in the world, a force for social change is established. Service learning participants can move from mutuality and partnership, to understanding common connections, to collective action.

In addition to the establishment of a relationship based on mutual vision and goals, and reciprocal service, it is imperative that students engage in the critical reflection necessary to understand their service learning experience in the "larger context of issues of social justice and social policy—rather than in the context of charity" (Stanton, Giles, and Cruz, 1999, 3).

Without necessary reflection on the nature of power relations as a part of students' preparation for service, these students have the potential to do a great disservice to their education and to host communities by not understanding the social framework within which their service will be carried out. Effective service learning partnership calls for the kind of critical awareness in students that must be cultivated through "structured opportunities for critical reflection on service so that students can 'better understand the causes of social injustice... [and] take actions to eliminate the causes'" (Stanton, Giles, and Cruz, 1999, 3).

### **EL SALVADOR: THE CONTEXT OF SERVICE**

El Salvador is no stranger to death and destruction, nor is it unfamiliar with being the beneficiary of international service and assistance. Its recent history has been marked by natural and manmade disasters, from civil war to earthquakes and hurricanes, making this country one that has often needed the help of the international community.

During El Salvador's brutal civil war, which lasted 12 years (1980-1992) and claimed 80,000 lives, the United States directly supported El Salvador's repressive right-wing government in order to prevent the spread of communism. Under the Reagan administration, massive military and economic aid was given to El Salvador's government (Hertvik, 2002). Further U.S. involvement in the civil war was discovered after the murder of six Jesuit priests and of a housekeeper and her daughter at the Universidad de Central America (UCA). In the early 1990s, a Congressional taskforce headed by Congressman Joe Moakley, found that from a very high level, the armed forces of El Salvador, supported by the U.S. government, had been responsible for the murders of the Jesuits (Moakley, 1991).

As a result of the country's civil war, El Salvador has been left with little foreign investment, and with roads, power lines, and other basic services in tatters. (Kaufman and Gonzalez, 2001) After a ceasefire was established in 1992, when rebels of the FMLN and the ARENA government signed Peace Accords, Salvadorans were assured political and military reforms and impunity for all human rights abuses during the civil war. Further, rightist "death squads," trained by the U.S. military-supported School of the Americas, were said to be eliminated. However, the peace accords did not address social reforms.

El Salvador is also known for the many earthquakes that occur within its borders. In January 2001, an earthquake that measured 7.6 on the Richter scale caused landslides that killed more than 850 people and destroyed 100,000 homes. This natural disaster was followed in February 2001 by another earthquake that killed 300 people.

Currently almost half of El Salvador's 6.7 million people live in poverty. The country's stratified economy leaves the richest fifth of its population with 45 percent of the country's income, while the poorest fifth receives only 5.6 percent

(Engler, 2002). Such unequal income distribution encourages many Salvadorans to seek a better life elsewhere, producing an influx of illegal immigrants to the United States. In the past 20 years, almost two million Salvadorans have fled to the United States in search of jobs. With Salvadorans migrating to the United States in such great numbers, the country's national economy is greatly dependent on the more than \$1.3 billion in expatriate remittances sent to El Salvador annually.

Not unlike other developing countries, El Salvador has been, in many ways, at the mercy of the United States, through unfair trade policies, covert military operations, and taxpayer support of repressive Salvadoran governments. The Central American Free Trade Agreement (CAFTA), signed into law in August 2005, follows the agenda of its predecessor, the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), by further opening up trade borders between the United States and its neighbors to the south. CAFTA is expected to increase imports to the United States from industries that specialize in low-wage labor, specifically the *maquiladora* industry, sweatshops that produce cheap goods for export to the United States. While, at face value, CAFTA may seem to be good economic policy for El Salvador, because of the increase in jobs that it can provide for the region, the quality of those jobs is likely to be very low. Multinational corporations that operate *maquilas* traditionally pay workers very little, offer substandard working conditions, require workdays of 16-20 hours, do not allow for union activity, and thwart or ignore national environmental and labor regulations. These multinational corporations that proclaim economic prosperity in the developing world as a result of NAFTA and CAFTA are highly mobile and seek the lowest bidder in what many opponents of globalization call "the race to the bottom" (Laliberte and Chawla, 2005).

Many of these forces that together contribute to El Salvador's dire situation can be linked to the United States and its role and influence in the region. As citizens of the United States and as educators, we have an opportunity to take the responsibility to be a part of a solution for the problem that we have helped to create. It is in this context that service learning takes place.

#### SERVICE LEARNING AND THE INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

In an international setting, differences between university students and community stakeholders are often much more clearly apparent than such distinctions in domestic service learning programs. The disparities between the haves and the have-nots are further illustrated and highlighted when students visit a developing country such as El Salvador and witness firsthand the desperate conditions of poverty in which more than half of the world's population lives. When students begin to ask why and to reflect upon the causes of international economic and

political inequality that create the need for service learning in the first place, the inescapable conclusion is that we, the haves, are in a position of power and influence and that we must examine our part in the perpetuation of this inequality. When done well, international service learning encourages students to seek a critical understanding of the social and economic inequalities reflected in their own experience and demonstrated in the stories and real lives of the people they meet while abroad. Through personal interaction with those who are in dramatically less privileged positions, students ideally begin to look at the idea of service through a different lens. Students' "engagement with poor people and their struggle to survive, when combined with personal and academic reflection, can help students become the authors of their lives and contribute to addressing the global situation" (Baxter-Magolda, 2004, 152). With proper guidance, students can learn to critically examine their own place in the world and their relationship to power, privilege, and service.

#### COMMUNITY-BASED EVALUATION OF SERVICE LEARNING

Service learning requires that the partnership between university and community uphold three interrelated and overlapping notions. The first of these notions is reciprocity, which has several main characteristics, including the following: that benefits are perceived by both sides in the service learning relationship; that an interconnection exists between teaching and learning in the university and in the community; and finally, that there is a balanced interchange and a sense of being fully vested in the project and complementing one another. The second is mutuality, a sense of common vision, stemming from intensive conversations about goals. The third is power, which lies in the validation of community members and community-based learning (Boyle-Baise et al., 2001).

Each of these notions calls for the equal input and investment of university and community in program development and evaluation. Because the development of these qualities in the service learning relationship depends on community-based evaluation of programs, such evaluation is essential. Without community-based evaluation, service learning risks becoming one-sided, self serving, and perpetuating inequality and dependence.

A review of the literature relevant to service learning evaluation indicates a general lack of critical attention to the motivations, intentions, and outcomes of service learning from the community perspective (Ward and Wolf-Wendel, 2000). According to Cruz and Giles (2000), the lack of research done on community outcomes of service learning can be attributed to several key factors. First, "politically-charged concerns about academic rigor" (Cruz and Giles, 2000, 28) plague the field of service learning and cause many advocates for service learning to spend time and resources defending the legitimacy of student academic outcomes. Second, "funders, seeking to document and evaluate their investments, have made student outcome research a priority in their grant-making" (Cruz and

Giles, 2000, 28). Last, the ambiguity of a common definition for “community” makes community research difficult to generalize and therefore legitimize. Adding to the difficulty of the ability to generalize research in this area, all communities are dynamic and different, and therefore it is difficult to control for all possible variables.

Further difficulty in evaluating service learning programs stems from the process of developing program objectives. While course objectives for students enrolled in service learning programs are generally clear and well defined, objectives for community counterparts often are vague or imprecise. With community objectives vaguely defined, evaluation of outcomes is difficult and arguably invalid. Given that service learning is the undertaking of the university, the objectives for service learning often tend to be primarily student-focused. In a service learning program that lacks a true sense of partnership and reciprocity with the community, objectives for partner or host communities end up being developed secondarily. When objectives for the community are defined, often they are developed *for* the community *by* the university. Objectives developed in this paternalistic manner inherently lack mutuality—the sense of common vision stemming from intensive conversations about goals for service and learning that are critical to true partnership (Boyle-Baise et al., 2001). Many universities perpetuate the split between campus and community by looking at service learning as a way for higher education to do *for* the community as opposed to a way to do *with* the community (Ward, Wolf-Wendel, 2000). Without community partners defining their own objectives for participation in service learning programs, the community becomes little more than a laboratory for the use of privileged students rather than being a true partner in learning.

There is a growing call to address the lack of community voice in service learning research. The effects of service learning on students have long been the focus of study for researchers. Much of the research in the field of service learning examines the impact of this pedagogy on students and their intellectual and personal growth, focusing in particular on the usefulness of the community for promoting greater academic understanding (Roschelle, Turpin, and Elias, 2000). In the past, this program has conducted evaluations from the perspective of student participants and faculty members; however, an inquiry into Salvadoran perceptions of the program is unprecedented. By focusing on the effects of service learning to the host community rather than simply for university students, the research reported in this paper contributes directly to this gap in the literature.

If advocates of service learning wish to stay true to the fundamental nature of this style of inquiry and action, it is imperative that universities begin asking community partners for guidance in the development of objectives and program development and in program evaluation. Through community-based assessment, we can create opportunities to set the standard for true partnership and to truly hear and listen to the voices of the Salvadoran communities that we claim to

serve. Such inquiry aims to forge a strong sense of mutuality between the university and the community hosts and stakeholders in El Salvador.

#### PROGRAM BACKGROUND

This service learning course has been offered to graduate and undergraduate students once per year since 1997. Approximately 50 social work students have taken part in the class. The course has four major goals: (1) to increase students' awareness of the degree to which global interdependence is evident in social work practice; (2) to develop students' awareness of the applicability of global knowledge to domestic social problems; (3) to provide students with an opportunity to contribute to the solution of global issues; and (4) to provide students with opportunities to learn more about themselves and their potential to recognize and address global issues in their professional careers. During their two weeks in El Salvador, students take part in numerous discussions and seminars with Salvadoran experts and ordinary citizens alike, visit various public and private social service agencies and receive extensive education, both theoretical and practical, in order to illuminate the reality of life in El Salvador. Students take part in two-day service placements with various Salvadoran social service agencies and nonprofit organizations whose missions range from environmental advocacy to assisting homeless street children. While in service placements, students learn about social work in El Salvador and provide a service to the host agency. The manner in which students serve their respective host agencies and other Salvadoran stakeholders and the ways in which this service might be improved and might address the concerns of the community partners are the topics of inquiry in this paper.

#### RESEARCH QUESTIONS, METHODS, AND DATA ANALYSIS

In order to assess the service learning experience from the Salvadoran perspective, 11 program stakeholders were contacted for an interview. Those interviewees included stakeholders who had been involved with the program for no less than three years and many more than five years; a sufficiently long enough time to be able to critically reflect on the program, its mission and goals, its level of efficacy, and the level of partnership between the university and the Salvadoran partners (see Table 1). Interviewees were initially contacted by a university liaison in El Salvador, then through a letter explaining the research project and the university's desire for their participation in the research.

#### *Instrument*

An interview guide was drafted in both Spanish and English as a part of the initial preparation for the project (see Table 2). The interview guide utilized a semi-structured ethnographic format to address the identified primary areas of interest for this project: (1) reasons for and benefits of participation, (2) program criticism, and (3) suggestions for improving the program.

Table I. Salvadoran Community Stakeholders and Interviewees

Name of Interviewee	Position
Aida	Middle-aged peasant woman from a rural village who has hosted students in her home for five years. Aida has served as the coordinator for students' visits to her village by arranging home-stays, cooking meals, and organizing presentations for students by local groups. Aida also serves as a narrator to students of the horrific story of war and repression in her small village.
Zuima	Member of a host family for five years, and the youth committee director in her rural village. As a teenager, Zuima has a unique perspective on her village's history, its current situation, and Grand Valley's program.
Delmy	Director of nonprofit agency whose mission is the protection of children's rights. This agency focuses particularly on the rights of child workers and street children. Delmy's organization hosts students in service placements and has been involved with the Grand Valley program for 3 years.
Lorena	Director of a parish outreach program in what is known as the poorest community in San Salvador. This parish works to meet the needs of the community through a daycare program, health and vision clinics, drug rehabilitation program, adult education, and a seniors program. Lorena's parish hosts students in service placements and has been involved with the Grand Valley program for 3 years.
Susana	Social worker from a former host organization whose mission is advocacy for street children. Susana's organization was involved as a host agency for the Grand Valley program for 3 years.
Ciro	Director of a government agency for the protection of minors. Ciro's agency hosts students in service placements and has been involved with the Grand Valley program for 5 years.
Romeo	Director of a government agency for the protection of minors. Ciro's agency hosts students in service placements and has been involved with the Grand Valley program for 5 years.
Cristina	Director of a popular radio station run entirely by community members and volunteers. Students visit the radio station, learn about the place of communication within the history of El Salvador, and produce public service messages to be aired on the radio station. Cristina has been involved with the Grand Valley program for 5 years.
Damion	Owner of a guest house in which students have stayed for the past 5 years; former FMLN organizer.
Carolina	Co-owner of guest house in which students have stayed for the past 5 years; former FMLN organizer.
Matt	American working in El Salvador for an organization that promotes youth activism and community organization. Matt has lived in El Salvador for 5 years and has been involved with the program for 3 years.

Table 2. Survey Instrument (in English)

1. Tell me about your experience hosting XXX students.
2. How long have you been hosting XXX students?
3. What first interested you in the XXX program?
4. What are the reasons that you continue participating in the XXX program?
5. What has been the greatest or most important benefit to your organization as a result of participating with the XXX program?
6. What has been the biggest problem in participating?
7. Describe the typical activities in which XXX students have participated with your organization.
8. What have students learned from your organization?
9. What has your organization learned from students?
10. If you could make a change in the program for the future, what would it be?
11. How can XXX better prepare students to take advantage of the opportunities for learning in El Salvador?
12. Describe any other ideas that you have for strengthening the relationship between XXX and your organization.

### *Design of Study/Data Collection*

An interview guide with open-ended questions served as the basic framework for each interview, and probe questions were spontaneously generated to elicit additional information and personalize each interview. The interview guide was designed to reflect the type of qualitative feedback that can serve to inform the mutual assessment process. Interviews were conducted in Spanish. Throughout the interview process, each participant was asked to speak to the relevance of the three identified theme areas.

Those who were interviewed represented a cross-section of Salvadoran program participants. Conversations were tape-recorded, transcribed, and translated for further review. The researchers made a deliberate choice to individually interview participants so that each voice was carefully considered. Action research tends to be participative and to deal with qualitative data (Dick, 1993). Attempts were consciously made to respect and value the social context of interviewees by conducting interviews in places of the participants' choosing. Interviews were conducted in homes, offices, and even in a car, depending on the comfort level

of participants, and in order to most naturally hear the voices of those stakeholders. Harmon (1981, 4) notes that “social context defines people’s status as humans.” With this in mind, it was important to the quality of interviews that the researchers were both conscious and respectful of the context within which interviews took place. Interview tapes yielded 11 rich sets of data generated in two-hour interviews, with an overriding interest in determining how the study’s participants perceived their relationships with the program.

The two researchers coded the transcribed tapes of the interviews in keeping with the three previously mentioned dimensions: reasons for and benefits of participation, program criticism, and suggestions for improving the program. A number of common themes reoccurred throughout the interviews. Many of the interviewees echoed each other’s praises and repeated similar criticisms and suggestions.

#### *Data Analysis*

Analysis began with the researchers reading all interviews in their entirety, beginning to end, several times. In these initial readings, the greatest attention was directed toward the three dimensions; however, the research became more open to identifying any other themes that were also evident in the data. It was at this point that an awareness of one other additional theme—solidarity—began to emerge.

The first coding categories were created as themes began to emerge from each interview. The interviews were then all read again, beginning to end, and all statements within each interview relating to these different colors were used. For example, all references to material aid were coded in red; to program length, in purple; to cultural exchange, in pink; and so on. Each interview was thereby deconstructed into its themes.

Once the coding of the transcripts was complete, the interviews were re-read yet another time, but this time only those portions that had not been highlighted were read to determine if any other themes could be discovered. This reading of the interviews did not produce any new themes, but resulted in some portions of the interviews that had not been coded in the first place being understood as representative of one of the existing themes.

When the researchers were satisfied that this phase of the coding was complete, each interview was literally deconstructed; that is, the themes of each interview were physically separated (cut apart) from one another. Stakeholder comments relating to the original three dimensions as well as newer themes were taken from interview contexts and were assembled together on theme boards. The theme boards contained each stakeholder’s words on the theme, exactly as they had been spoken, along with the name of the stakeholder. When each theme board was completed, it contained all of the attributed statements of all of the research participants on that topic or theme.

Once all of the relevant data provided by stakeholders in their interviews had been coded into main themes, themes-within-themes, and themes-across-themes, the process of reconstructing them into units of meaning began. The process of reconstruction could be communicated as the “findings” of this study. It should be understood that this method of analysis is but one of the many ways in which this data can be organized and understood (Wolcott, 1994).

### *Participants*

The availability of participants was not entirely in the control of the researchers and was limited to those stakeholders who were available and willing to participate in the proposed research study. This sampling technique is referred to as accidental sampling. There were also certain demand characteristics associated with the willingness of the participants to volunteer to be a part of the study. Because of one of the principle researchers' prior relationships with the participants, the participants had an emotional investment in the research process and quite possibly felt the need to represent themselves and their experiences with the program in ways that would be beneficial to the research study and to themselves. The researcher attempted to anticipate and minimize the emotional involvement of the participants and their need to meet the objectives of the study by acknowledging these characteristics with the participants.

## SALVADORAN VOICES: INTERVIEWS, ASSESSMENTS, AND STAKEHOLDER RECOMMENDATIONS

### *Salvadoran Reasons for and Benefits of Participation*

*Solidarity.* The term solidarity and the concept of solidarity did not appear in the interview guide and the interviewers did not use the term prior to use by the participants. It was therefore considered of singular note when transcript after transcript of the interviews was translated and the term solidarity made its appearance not once but dozens of times in the interviews of the participants as they told of their expectations and experiences with the students. Indeed, if the results of the study were to be summed up in a single statement, it would read, from a Salvadoran perspective: “en nuestra lucha por justicia, que no estamos solo,” or, in English, “in our struggle for justice, that we are not alone.”

When asked for the reasons why a given stakeholder or organization participated with the program, many responses included the word “solidaridad,” or solidarity. Salvadorans generally acknowledge that, on the global stage, their voices, the voices of the poor and disenfranchised, often go unheard. It is with this acknowledgment that solidarity, organizing, and the power in numbers becomes particularly important.

According to interview respondents, solidarity takes several forms. Program stakeholders articulated the importance of educating the American public about

the reality of poverty in El Salvador. Respondents repeatedly made the connection between El Salvador's desperate conditions and the economic and political systems in place in the United States. One respondent stated, "American students see things in the news. Now they are able to make connections, and give a face to the issues they know." This kind of connection makes action all the more urgent. When students see, firsthand, the lives of real people suffering as a result of U.S. policy, remaining on the sidelines becomes nearly incomprehensible.

Stakeholders asked students to become active in their advocacy for El Salvador at home. Said one respondent, "The most important thing is that the North American people realize the reality of El Salvador and bring this information to the other side [the U.S.]." Another commented, "[T]he propaganda that the Salvadoran government sends to the U.S. isn't true. The American people need to see the truth here." Salvadoran stakeholders expressed their trust in the students' ability and promise to share their experiences and the history and current state of affairs in El Salvador with U.S. citizens, at home. "Students have a good memory," one respondent said. "They don't forget what we say. We share solidarity." This trust is at the heart of Salvadoran participation in the program.

The idea of solidarity was further described by a Salvadoran stakeholder as "the feeling of international support and awareness...that we are not alone." The importance of recognition and validation was also expressed. One respondent commented that "Salvadoran youth feel like their own government, society, and community don't recognize the work that they do. The program allows North Americans to appreciate the work of Salvadoran youth and shows the youth that there's something of value here: them." The recognition that the international presence brings to Salvadorans was echoed by other respondents. One stated, "Just the presence of international visitors means so much to the youth, and the community sees this."

*Cultural Exchange.* A second reason that was commonly given for program participation was the benefit of "intercambio," or cultural exchange. Responses that spoke to the importance of "intercambio" included one respondent who stated, "This program permits a mutual exchange of ideas and experience. Everybody wins, principally our children." Another stakeholder echoed this sentiment, saying, "[W]e get to know each other and understand our cultural differences. Through this program, we can start breaking through all of that." An underlying assumption present in stakeholder responses was the inherent goodness of mutual understanding and the exchange of ideas. It seemed to be a general understanding that such international relations are inherently and genuinely good, in and of themselves.

*Material Aid.* Prior to their departure to El Salvador, students organized a drive in order to bring needed material aid (clothing, medical materials, school supplies, etc.) with them for distribution at partner agencies. Although some stakeholders expressed gratitude for these material items, this was hardly a main

theme relevant to the reasons for participation. This aspect of the program was not spoken of often in the interviews. One respondent said, “The toys, clothes, and money have all helped. Every little bit helps.”

### *Salvadoran Program Criticism*

*Language barrier.* The most obvious barrier noted by respondents was the language barrier. Many students go to El Salvador lacking more than a very basic level of Spanish proficiency. By the same token, most Salvadorans lack the ability to communicate in English. Many respondents mentioned this issue, and, although most acknowledged that a better ability to communicate would enhance the level of cultural exchange, the impression was that the overall quality of the program and the *intercambio* experience did not suffer as a result.

“The language barrier is an issue for both students and community members, but not a big problem,” said one respondent. Although language is such an obvious barrier to communication, many stakeholders responded that it was a surmountable issue. “Language is a difficulty, not a problem,” said one. “We learn from each other and find words and ways to communicate.”

*Program length.* Many Salvadorans lamented the short duration of the program. During their two-week stay in El Salvador, the students’ two-day field placements allows them the opportunity to observe Salvadoran social service agencies at work. Stakeholders varied in their opinions about the value of such short-term placements. One respondent said, “The ideal would be for students to be here longer, but although it’s only two days of placements, it’s worth it.” On the flip side, others made comments such as, “We are not learning from students—there’s too little time,” and “There is no balance of learning. In a month or more, students can contribute here, but not in a day or two.”

### *Salvadoran Suggestions for Program Improvement*

*Pre-trip Student Preparation.* Without proper orientation prior to such a dramatic cultural and economic reality shift, American students risk missing the benefits of the cultural exchange altogether while potentially doing more harm than good in their host country. Students’ maturity level and their level of identity development must be closely matched with the appropriate international experience, for when students are emotionally or intellectually ill prepared for the magnitude of the poverty and injustice in El Salvador—like in many other developing countries—they have the potential to revert back into the safety of their own cultural bubble and behave in ways that can act to reinforce negative American stereotypes. Through grouping closely together with other American students, by emotionally and intellectually refusing to fully process and experience all that El Salvador has to offer them, and by reinforcing previously held cultural and political values in order to maintain an image of self that is familiar and comfortable, unprepared American students miss the boat.

Students from the United States who are ill prepared to experience the Third World and to explore their own personal connection to the injustice and poverty therein tend to go into denial just as alcoholics do when confronted with their addiction. North American consumers—students and faculty alike—need to come to terms with our own addictions to comfort, excess, and immediate gratification before we can fully see them for what they are and begin to understand the effects that our rampant consumerism has on our fellow citizens of the world.

In interviews with Salvadoran stakeholders, many of the recommendations for program improvement centered around this subject of student preparation. Stakeholders repeatedly stated that a more thoroughly prepared student body would enhance the experience for everyone involved, both students and Salvadorans. In order to better prepare our students for the potential depth and transformative effect of the international experience, we would do well to listen to the voices of our Salvadoran partners. Salvadoran stakeholders suggested a number of ways in which students could be better prepared for the cultural *intercambio* that takes place when groups of American students visit El Salvador.

Ideas for pre-trip student preparation abounded in interviews with Salvadoran stakeholders. Types of suggested preparation for American students included the study of Salvadoran culture, history, and economy; pre-departure relationship building; basic Spanish language instruction; and students' critical examination of power and privilege.

The program currently has in place an orientation session that includes in-depth readings and discussion on Salvadoran culture, history, economy, and politics. Salvadoran stakeholder recommendations support this orientation process.

One Salvadoran stakeholder suggested that students should have contact with Salvadoran partner agencies prior to student placements: "Students should familiarize themselves with their respective host agencies prior to arrival in El Salvador.... Students and host agencies could e-mail periodic updates and correspond with one another prior to the trip and placement." This relationship-building could serve to inform both student and partner agency expectations for the experience, begin positive communication, and provide a general overview of the agency for the student, and vice versa. In a similar vein, one Salvadoran partner suggested that students should bring a presentation to the community or their respective agency about life in the United States to promote a deeper sense of reciprocal international understanding, increasing the benefit of the student's presence to Salvadoran partners. Something as simple as a cultural presentation about life in the United States by the student at a host agency or host family could greatly enhance the perceived benefit to Salvadorans for hosting U.S. students. Without this kind of gesture, the greatest immediate benefit of the *intercambio* would be to the student, who has the benefit of being present in a foreign host country and who is exposed to the breadth and depth of that culture while there.

*In-Country Program Suggestions.* Stakeholders mentioned a number of various suggestions for in-country program improvement, none of which emerged as themes, but all of which are valuable for further program improvement, specifically relevant to the needs and vision of Salvadorans.

One respondent suggested that a community assembly should be convened upon the students' arrival in order to introduce students to the community and discuss the reasons for their presence. Such an assembly would be feasible in a small village, such as Santa Marta, but would not likely be very inclusive in a large city such as San Salvador. Another suggestion that further encourages the theme of immersion and dialogue with the community was that students would "stay with youth from the various host agencies, in order to get to know their reality in more depth." Further suggestions for general in-country program improvement included hosting a final conference day for students and host agency representatives after service placements have occurred and as a way to keep Salvadoran community members abreast of what students have been involved with while in El Salvador. This final conference day could also provide a venue for student or faculty-led evaluation of the various host agencies and a forum for the exchange of social work techniques and recommendations.

*Post-trip Follow-up and Continued Relationship Building.* In order to build on relationships developed with community stakeholders during student trips to El Salvador and to further grow those relationships into mutual, reciprocal relationships of solidarity, faculty and students must establish a means of ongoing communication with their Salvadoran counterparts. The idea of continued correspondence was brought up in many interviews. Salvadorans suggested that students send letters to host agencies, the elderly, youth, and other community members after returning to the United States in order to "promote a feeling of equality and demonstrate to Salvadoran clients that students do not regard them just as objects to come and observe." Furthermore, the development of a Web site documenting former students, host agencies, and projects undertaken would promote ongoing communication that would foster solidarity by linking people together around common goals and projects. Salvadorans would be able to see the kinds of advocacy projects that the students have undertaken on their behalf at home and could provide their support for and feedback on those projects while supplying valuable input to inform potential future projects.

*Salvadoran Professional and Student Exchange.* To encourage a greater benefit to the Salvadoran community agencies, stakeholders suggested an "exchange of professionals." Some stakeholders suggested sending Salvadoran professionals to travel to the United States for cultural study and immersion. Others thought that the idea of sending qualified American professionals, capable of assisting Salvadoran agencies with technical capacity building, would create the conditions for Salvadoran and American professionals to work together for the greater good of the field of social work. By sending a group of American professionals, rather than or

in addition to students, to Salvadoran organizations, or by bringing Salvadoran professionals to the United States for an exchange, each group would benefit from their shared expertise. Both groups and their respective clientele would gain by developing a deeper sense of respect and understanding for another culture and from the wealth of knowledge that would be convened by bringing such a diverse group of professionals to the same table. One participant stated that if a certain university “would send professionals, or students of a higher academic level, with more experience, the benefits for us would be much greater. Social workers here would benefit from the increased knowledge of American visitors, while they could learn from us.”

*Material Support.* Much as when respondents were asked about the reasons they participated with the program, material support was mentioned, but only peripherally. Respondents appreciated the material support offered and mentioned continued material support as a means to continue helping Salvadoran partner agencies.

A new twist on the traditional idea of material support (medicine, clothing, etc.) was suggested by one stakeholder who proposed that the university rally financial support for scholarships for Salvadoran students. Because the majority of Salvadoran youth are unable to complete high school, or *bachierata*, because of economic hardship, scholarships would be developed that would allow students from the rural village of Santa Marta to complete their secondary education. It was also proposed that further scholarships be developed to support university study in El Salvador or other countries. This kind of economic support would also further a relationship of solidarity by using education as a tool to level the playing field. Promoting the education of Salvadoran nationals would contribute to a higher level of knowledge and ability within that country and thus decrease the need for outside support or service.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

When students return home, it is crucial to the service learning partnership that the Salvadoran expectation of solidarity be honored. Solidarity requires critical reflection, public action, and ongoing communication. In addition to personal critical reflection about the conditions they witness in El Salvador, and such reflection about the power relationships inherent in the service relationship, students need to be required to uphold their end of the partnership by sharing Salvadoran stories at home and to act on Salvadoran partners' behalf. Action has the potential to transform the hierarchical service relationship into one of partnership and solidarity, through seeking to change the conditions that perpetuate inequality and a need for service.

We recommend that solidarity be integrated into the course design and curriculum in the following ways.

*Study of activism.* As a part of the initial student orientation, reading material and discussion specifically relevant to solidarity, social action, and activism should be included and focused upon. The study of activism should be included in this orientation and throughout the course as a primer for understanding Salvadoran community organizing and action and to equip students with the tools to undertake such action themselves. Several texts that could be useful in this study are *The Activist's Handbook* (Shaw, 1996), *Rules for Radicals* (Alinsky, 1971), *The Global Activist's Manual* (Prokosch and Raymond, 2002), *The Power of the Poor in History* (Gutierrez, 1979), and *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (Freire, 1970).

*Moving students from private citizens to public citizens.* In order to fulfill Salvadoran expectations of partnership and solidarity, students need to be required to move from being private citizens to becoming public citizens. Taking a stand publicly on an issue is powerful. Engagement in public life is the foundation of democracy. For these reasons, students should be required to take their experience, the stories that were entrusted to them, and the reality to which they were witness and to share those things in a public way. Suggestions for action include the following: publishing a paper in a journal; making a presentation at a local club or church; organizing public demonstrations or other civil action; starting a campaign; fundraising; writing letters to elected officials or news editors; or hosting a series of gatherings in private homes as well as public places. Of course, this is just a list of suggestions to which students could add a number of projects. Students would be required to develop a public action, to be approved by faculty, and to briefly report back on that action to fellow students, faculty, and their Salvadoran hosts and stakeholders (possibly by way of a newsletter of compiled actions or via a Web site). Readings relevant to the public action chosen—theory of activism, organization strategy, etc.—should be integrated as a part of the student's project.

*Continual community-based program evaluation.* Through this research, the university has established a foundation from which to build a deeper, more mutually beneficial, and reciprocal relationship. Continued communication in the form of regular and ongoing community-based program evaluation will ensure that the program continues to develop toward a mutually established vision, with mutually beneficial goals.

*Investigation of the impact of service learning programs on host communities.* Just as there has been a lack of critical attention paid to the vision, goals, and motivations of partner communities in the service learning relationship, there is a gap in the literature regarding the impact of service learning programs on their respective host communities. It is often assumed that any service will be of benefit to a community "in need." However, further investigation of the impact of student, faculty, and university presence in a host community would do well to consider the positive and negative effects of the service learning relationship. Relevant variables for consideration might include whether the service program is locally

based or international, whether the program is short- or long-term, and in what type of service placements students engage.

In order to move away from simply using the community as a laboratory for the benefit of privileged students, we must actively investigate the impact of service learning, good and bad, on those communities.

#### CONCLUSION: SOLIDARITY AND SERVICE

A key component of the course assessment has been to determine what the intention of service is for this program. What do students and Salvadoran stakeholders consider as their vision for what service should mean in this relationship? Through the interviews conducted with Salvadoran hosts and stakeholders, a very new definition of what service learning *can be* has emerged. Nearly all of the stakeholders interviewed reported that they participate in the program for the same primary reason. All shared various reasons for participating, but by far stakeholders reported that their most compelling interest in the program is the opportunity to develop a relationship of *solidarity* with students from the United States.

The term solidarity has traditionally been used in the United States by the organized labor movement. In El Salvador and other Latin American countries, the term is rich with history and meaning. During El Salvador's brutal civil war, the struggle for justice was supported by many international organizations that supported the cause of Salvadoran peasants and rebel fighters. Salvadorans recognized the need for this international support, or *solidaridad*, which lent a voice on the world stage to those who had none. From this context, the idea of solidarity has become a popularly accepted and commonly used concept in El Salvador, as it is also for many activist organizations worldwide.

For the purpose of this research, the idea of solidarity here might best be defined as a fellowship of responsibilities and interests that places equal value on all members of that fellowship. Solidarity is the practice of partnership, focused on collective social action, with the goal of positive social change as a result. In the context of service learning, emphasis should be given to the action that takes place as a result of this fellowship of responsibilities and interests.

According to Brecher, Costello, and Smith (2000), the process of social change begins when "some people internally question or reject some aspects of the status quo.... [Social change] becomes a social process as people discover that others are having similar experiences, identifying the same problems, asking the same questions, and being tempted to make the same rejections" (Brecher, Costello and Smith, 2000, 20). The intercultural exchange and dialogue between cultures made possible by consciously developed international service learning programs can promote cross-cultural solidarity and global social change through the development of the compassionate imagination. This compassionate imagination "makes other people's lives more than distant abstractions" and encourages

students to “see themselves as not simply citizens of some local region or group, but also, and above all, as human beings bound to all other human beings by recognition and concern: as ‘citizens of the world’” (Nussbaum, 2004, 1, 3). When students are able to transcend the boundaries of culture, class, and ethnicity, they become capable of seeing themselves and those whom they seek to “serve” as equal partners and ‘citizens of the world.’ Thus, an equitable relationship of solidarity, the basis for social change, becomes possible.

The venue that international service learning provides to students and community stakeholders alike is one that allows for the intersection of people who might not otherwise meet, particularly in large numbers or with any consistency. The intimate exposure of privileged students to the lives and stories of real people who are often simply objectified as the “have-nots,” together with critical reflection, allows students to “begin to identify with those others and to interact with them. This turns what might have been an individual and isolating process into a social one” (Brecher, Costello, and Smith, 2000, 20).

Students who visit El Salvador are able to see firsthand the effects of El Salvador’s brutal and repressive history. Informational meetings, readings, and reflection sessions encourage students to question the connection between the United States and El Salvador and El Salvador’s history and current condition. The realization that there is a connection between themselves as U.S. citizens and the wretched stories of war and oppression told to them by the Salvadorans who actually lived these stories begins to become clear to students. It is for *this* reason that program stakeholders share their stories. Salvadorans ask that students act in solidarity and use their voices in our powerful country to affect change on their behalf. Salvadoran stakeholders shake hands with U.S. students with the unsaid expectation and trust that their stories will not go unheard. Program stakeholders expect students to advocate on their behalf here in the United States, and, according to them, this is the most valuable aspect of the service learning partnership.

Rather than providing a service that perpetuates or accepts Salvadorans’ dependence on others, the service of solidarity is an act of partnership that seeks to transform the structural causes of injustice and to empower those perceived to be in need of service. The most invaluable service that university students, faculty, and administration could provide to community partners would be to examine our own part in the creation and perpetuation of unjust economic and political systems and to challenge the existing status quo on which that inequality is based. For the service of service learning to be authentic and true to the best interests of community partners, universities and students would do well to work ourselves out of a job, so to speak. The service of solidarity is that which identifies, examines, and challenges the root causes of injustice, which in turn create a need for service in the first place.

By interviewing Salvadoran stakeholders and reflecting on what these program hosts have said, Grand Valley State University has taken a great step toward cul-

tivating a true partnership with the people of El Salvador. Using the information generated from this study, the university now has the opportunity to more fully evaluate the program in order to ensure its alignment with the philosophical underpinnings of service learning pedagogy. Now that we can hear the voices of Salvadoran stakeholders, those voices can contribute equally to the evaluation of the program, just as partners' voices should.

Salvadoran stakeholders provided a number of suggestions and recommendations that can be used to improve the program in El Salvador. These suggestions will be very valuable in the further development of this program. The greatest realization of this research, however, is that of the Salvadoran desire for a relationship of solidarity with the university's students and faculty. This finding has ramifications that could potentially alter the philosophy and purpose of service learning. To engage in a relationship of solidarity with the Salvadoran people will help bring the partnership to its fullest potential, through committing to work together to challenge the structures that place Salvadoran partners in need of such service.

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# Women, Mentoring, and a Border University

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## ABSTRACT

Institutions of higher education use various models for mentoring early career faculty. The workshop model employs a technique in which early career faculty meet as a group. The mentor-protégé model pairs senior faculty with early career faculty. The graduate-school model views the advisor as the primary mentor. Often these assignments are made within the department on a rotating basis and do not employ a self-selection approach. This paper describes the professional practice of three nontraditional junior faculty as they participated in a mentoring program. Involvement in this formal program evolved into a co-mentoring process that led to the development of a mentoring model for research productivity. A description of the process, discussions, and model are presented.

## WOMEN, MENTORING, AND A BORDER UNIVERSITY

With the increased attention on the development of mentoring programs over the past two decades (Sorcinelli, 1994; Peluchette and Jeanquart, 2000), it may seem that the mentoring of early career faculty in research is commonplace in academia. As early career faculty, we found that this is not the case. Although the university has a well thought-out mentoring program, we found that it was an appropriate beginning, but it was not all we needed as new, nontraditional faculty (female and/or ethnic minority and/or over 40 years of age). We found that our needs gave rise to an adaptation of our university's program—from a formal structure to a co-mentoring form.

In reviewing the literature and conversing with colleagues, we learned that mentoring takes on a variety of formats that differ across institutions and departments (Conyers, 2004; Patton and Harper, 2003; Murrell and Tangry, 1999; Sorcinelli, 1994). Many institutions of higher education today use various models for mentoring early career faculty. For example, the workshop model employs

a technique in which early career faculty learn as a group about institutional resources, policies, and procedures. The mentor-protégé model pairs senior faculty with early career faculty for a one-on-one relationship. The graduate-school model views the advisor as the primary mentor because professors are considered highly qualified and influential. Often, these assignments are made within the department on a rotating basis and do not employ a self-selection approach.

Mentoring is often defined as a “close, intense mutually beneficial relationship between someone who is older, wiser, more experienced, and more powerful with someone younger or less experienced. It is a complementary relationship...built on both the mentor’s and protégé’s needs” (Jeruchim and Shapiro, 1992, 23, as cited in Bullough, 2004). Patton and Harper (2003) imply that individuals who participate in a mentoring program with someone who looks like them, has similar personal and professional interests, and is focused on the experience are key issues to successful mentoring. Conyers (2004) states “that mentor-protégé relationships can succeed and be productive only when the protégés respect the mentor” (2). Mumford (1996) (as cited in Patton and Harper, 2003) states that women tend to have a wide range of mentors that include friends, relatives, work-based supervisors, and professional colleagues who also provide spiritual, emotional, financial, and educational advisement. Peluchette and Jeanquart (2000) state that “assistant professors with multiple sources of mentors yielded significantly higher levels of both objective (i.e., research productivity) and subjective (i.e., how successful an individual felt about his career related to work role, interpersonal, financial, and life) career success than did those with single sources or no mentor” (549). On the other hand, “not everyone needs the same degree of mentoring—and not everyone is well suited to benefit from it” (Conyers, 2004, 2). For the most part, researchers have found that some form of mentoring is essential to an emerging scholar’s success in academia (Blake, 1999; Caplan, 1995; Keith and Moore, 1995; Smith and Davidson, 1992). Yet, much of what we know about mentoring and its effects are drawn from the context of the traditional mentor–protégé relationship, where an older, more experienced person guides, sponsors, and supports a younger, less experienced person (Boice, 1992).

This manuscript outlines the experiences of three early career faculty from the College of Education as we participated in a mentoring group offered to all new faculty on campus. We decided early on in the program to focus our mentoring on research and publication because we felt that we were a more experienced faculty in the teaching and service components of the promotion and tenure process and had less time and resources to devote to research. Once the formal university program ended, we continued to co-mentor each other for a second year. A description of the process, discussions, and the evolution of *Mentoring for Research Productivity* (MeRP), our mentoring model, are presented. The intention of this model is that it can be implemented in academic, business, or public affairs settings to help ensure the advancement of women in leadership roles.

#### OVERVIEW OF INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT

Our university is classified as a land grant, Carnegie I Research, and Hispanic-serving institution located in the Southwest. Under the auspices of its Teaching Academy, our university instituted a mentoring program for all new faculty on campus during the 2003-2004 academic year. The structure of the mentoring program was based on the National Science Foundation (NSF)-sponsored ADVANCE mentoring program for Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) faculty to encourage diversity and increase advancement opportunities for women. It was expanded from the STEM fields to include the humanities, social sciences, and such education fields as curriculum and instruction, counseling and educational psychology, educational management, and special education.

The mission of the Teaching Academy is to support teachers, enhance learning, and build a community of educators through training, mentoring, and networking. The Teaching Academy offers a variety of professional development workshops, short courses, and teaching conferences throughout the academic school year using a variety of teaching platforms. They maintain a professional lending library and provide updated information via online newsletters and email.

An invitation is distributed at the beginning of the academic year by the Teaching Academy to all new faculty on campus inviting them to join a yearlong program of mentoring. Historically, the deans of the Colleges have provided the financial support for new faculty to enter the program.

#### *The Process*

At the beginning of the fall semester, new faculty met in small groups of six to 10 with the Teaching Academy director. The purpose of this initial meeting was to discuss faculty issues related to promotion and tenure along with university policies and issues, keeping in mind the ultimate goal of self-selecting mentors. New faculty brainstormed, discussed, and developed a list of questions as the basis for interviewing senior faculty (potential mentors) around campus. These questions focused on common concerns of new faculty (i.e., how to begin a research agenda, how to balance work and personal life), and became the basis for interviewing senior faculty and, ultimately, for selecting a mentor. Every two weeks for four months, the new faculty met, discussed, and devised a new set of interview questions. Monthly, each new faculty then chose a senior faculty person around campus to interview. The choice of faculty to interview was determined by the protégés. At the end of each interview week, new faculty members again would meet and share their responses. This led to an interesting discussion since a variety of responses to the same questions were elicited from senior faculty. This process continued throughout the fall semester, with each protégé ultimately interviewing four senior faculty.

Based on the interview responses and personal/professional connections, the protégés selected one senior faculty member to be their mentor for the spring

semester. Two of the three authors, independently, selected the same mentor. Because this mentor was a department head, he requested to invite one of his early-career faculty members to join the team. As a result, the final makeup of the team included the mentor and three early-career faculty. Monthly lunch meetings were scheduled to discuss teaching (i.e., syllabi and approaches), research (i.e., agenda and publications), and service issues. The lunch meetings were funded by the Teaching Academy.

We were all from the College of Education, but from different departments: Counseling and Educational Psychology, Curriculum and Instruction, and Special Education/Communication Disorders. As a result, we formed a cross-cultural, cross-generational mentoring group—our mentor, a Latino department head; one Latina generation Xer (born between 1965 and 1980), and two European-American baby-boomer (born between 1946 and 1964) females. Given our different backgrounds, we each brought our own individual strengths and unique experiences to the team.

We decided that our most urgent need was to master the art and practice of publishing. We began to adapt aspects of the Teaching Academy program to fit our needs. We would meet on alternate weeks for working sessions and only go to lunch when there was something to celebrate, such as when one of us submitted an article for publication, received an acceptance letter to present at a conference, or obtained grant funding. We also established our own identity by dubbing ourselves “the REZZes” (short for research).

During our working sessions, we discussed and focused our energies on the following topics: mentoring; research; efficiency, time management and goal orientation; support and professional relationships; and developing our own mentoring model. The following sections provide an overview of each of these topics as they were discussed.

### *Mentoring*

As early career faculty members, we often felt inexperienced and/or inadequate in comparison to senior faculty members who are tenured and published. As early career faculty, our time was consumed with teaching and service, along with limited and scattered research activities. It seemed impossible to schedule more time to take part in such endeavors as team/peer mentoring. However, we have since found that the benefits of participating in a mentoring group have outweighed the time commitment. In fact, we have become more structured and focused on our research. The skills that we have gained from the mentoring research group have certainly begun to help as we advance in our careers.

A basic principle underlying the mentoring program is drawn from Hansman (2001), who asserted that protégés who participate in mentoring relationships have the opportunity to participate in rich, contextual learning situated within the real world of work (8). Because of this, many university administra-

tors encourage mentoring relationships; in reality, however, they are not often realized. According to the American Council on Education (as cited in Gilroy, 2004), many female and minority faculty members are on their own, once hired, with very few institutions offering support systems, resulting in more women and minorities leaving academia within five years after feeling undervalued and marginalized. One of the most effective mechanisms for retaining women and minorities is a mentoring program, because a mentor can “lessen the feelings of loneliness and isolation that result if they are the only minority in their department” (Gilroy, 2004, 14). Gilroy further states that women involved in a mentoring process feel the overwhelming pressure eased as they struggle to balance their professional and personal responsibilities.

As expected, tenured faculty continue to engage in teaching, research, and service in order to advance in their careers. They may find that mentoring early career faculty can be cumbersome. It would be our hope that more tenured faculty would be willing to share their expertise, experiences, and insight with new/early career faculty. Sharing of expertise can most certainly lead to benefits for all involved (e.g. Horton, 2003; Brinson and Kottler, 1993). Fortunately, for our group, we did find a mentor who was more than willing to assist us in our journey to tenure and promotion.

The personal benefits for participating in this mentoring research group were many. First, it normalized the experience of being female, early career faculty. Participating in the group validated our feelings and allowed us to share our frustrations with each other. Boice (1992; as cited in Shifflett and Patterson, 1995) states that it is especially important to mentor women and minorities because they might otherwise be excluded from informal developmental assistance. Turner (2002) analyzes the consequences of under-representation of women faculty of color and outlines specifically the effects of race and gender bias in the academic workplace—i.e. challenges from academic old-boy networks, feeling isolated and under-respected, the salience of race and gender, being underemployed and overused by departments/institutions, being torn between family/community/career, and being challenged by students. Based on this information, Turner (2002) suggests that promoting networking and mentoring is one means to ensure the affirmation, validation, and valuation of contributions made by faculty women of color in academia; in addition, colleges and universities should facilitate opportunities for faculty women of color to get together.

Secondly, we felt encouraged by our individual accomplishments as we celebrated each other's research successes (i.e., completing, submitting, and publishing a manuscript). Finally, by being held accountable to others, we believe that our productivity has increased. As a case in point, our group continues to meet and work on joint publications. In summary, the task of research publication seems much more attainable as we achieved higher productivity through this mentoring experience. Our REZZ group, which has focused on research, is

a value-added approach. Guidance and support are provided to us in completing actual work, which is essential to promotion and tenure.

*Research Efficiency: Less Work, More Output*

Very little research specific to the topic of mentoring and research has been published; however, a vast amount of information focusing on mentoring—from mentoring K-12 students to mentoring new hires in corporate America (e.g. Bonnett, 2004)—is available. Effective mentoring is believed to be responsible for “improving retention and promotion...improving teaching skills... furthering gender equity and equal opportunity, and...lending a helping hand up the career ladder” (Bonnette, 2004, 137). In higher education, mentoring is viewed as an important opportunity to network with senior faculty and to learn the hidden curriculum of the college or university (the unwritten rules; i.e., department and college mores, traditions, and values) (Stanley, 2005). Interacting with influential senior faculty is viewed as most desirable and can prove to be rewarding while engaging in the promotion and tenure process (Patton and Harper, 2003).

At our REZZ meetings, central to our discussions was research. That is, how could we establish a research agenda that would yield publishable manuscripts and help us on our journey to promotion and tenure. With guidance from our mentor, we recognized immediately the importance of having a clearly established research agenda that would sustain us through our academic careers. We understood that research is key to our work as faculty and is essential for promotion and tenure. As one of us stated, “academia seemed an occupation that afforded a great deal of support to pursue one’s intellectual passions in research and one’s enjoyment of teaching at the same time.” It was the former statement—pursuing one’s intellectual passions in research—that took on the utmost importance.

At one of our first meetings, our mentor was quick to discuss with us our research agenda and strategies for increasing our research productivity. He provided us with articles and handouts on how to determine first, second, or third authorships; evaluate manuscripts; adhere to ethics in publication; and focus on the Internal Review Board process as a means of addressing the central components to research and publishing. After engaging in a discussion of authorship and research ethics, we concluded that we were a research team by participating in this mentoring group. We just had not considered ourselves to be a research team. We quickly realized that one of the benefits to being a research team was that we could brainstorm ideas and discuss issues that were important to each of us—i.e., balancing teaching, research, and service activities; verbalizing our own research interests as a means of solidifying our individual research agendas; discussing our individual interests to determine the connection of our research—thus, the purpose of our collaboration. By engaging in this process, we were able to better conceptualize our research agenda and solidify our interests.

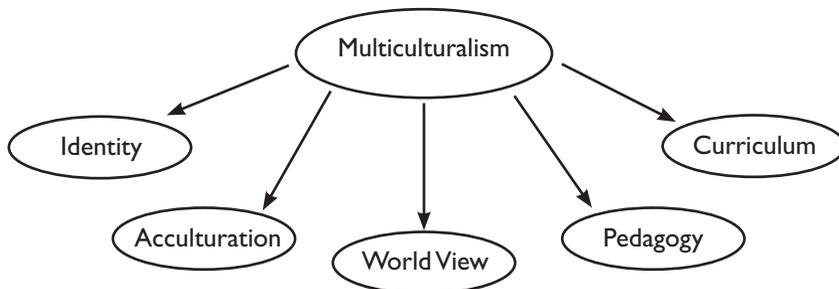
Our mentor guided us in a discussion on how to develop an effective research agenda that focused on our individual interests and maximized our efforts. Specifically, we discussed a two out, one in process and how to stay product-oriented by always working on a manuscript. This method requires that one article is submitted for consideration for publication in a journal while a second article is begun and close to being completed and a third is in the beginning stages of writing. When the first article is returned for revisions or as a reject, corrections are made and the article is resubmitted while the second article is prepared for submission (two out). The third manuscript should then be the central focus of the writing process (one in).

Another path to publication was to consider writing conceptual pieces from our grantwriting activities. This made sense to us, because we each had successful and unsuccessful grant experiences; needless to say, these grants took an incredible amount of time to prepare. At the outset of this discussion, we felt particularly weak in the area of research and publishing. By having this discussion on how to maximize our efforts and using work in progress, we viewed the task of research publication as much more attainable.

Regarding research mentoring, we continued a discussion on how to develop a research agenda based on our interests, some of which stemmed from our dissertation topics. The purpose was to understand how to structure our interests in a manner that was efficient—that is, how to write up our research in a manner that yielded more results in the form of published manuscripts with the least amount of time.

Several guidelines were discussed. First, our research agenda had to be based on interests or topics that were personally relevant or that were our passions. Because writing for a professional audience is considered our responsibility as early career faculty, it was important to clearly outline a research agenda that would hold true for us throughout our academic careers. Second, infusing our areas of expertise into a programmatic research agenda was necessary, as was having a research agenda that would hold true and relate to our areas of expertise. This was a way to maintain our motivation and continued research productivity. For example, Figure 1 displays our mentor's research agenda based on his interest and expertise in multiculturalism. It is apparent that his interests and expertise in multicultural-

Figure 1. Mentor's Research Agenda



alism are infused in all of the components of his research agenda. Third, looking for gaps in the literature could be the basis for a conceptual article. For example, these gaps often can be found in the discussion section of manuscripts. Fourth, examining the references in the literature review for journals that publish articles with similar topics may provide valuable information about possible journals for article submission. Fifth, acquiring calls for papers, contacting journals, and verifying acceptance rates may provide further insight into additional possible domains for publishing. Last, making a list of at least five journals that publish similar topics and ranking these journals in relation to refereed and national prominence as feedback is received helps maintain focus (resubmit—great; if not, edit and send to the next journal on the list), keeping in mind at all times the two out, one in process and how to stay product-oriented by always working on a manuscript.

We have come to learn that the most efficient use of our time is to yield more outcomes with the efficient use of our efforts. In summary, we should be ready to submit a paper, have a working draft, and have a paper/topic that is being developed. We should write conceptual, practice, and empirical pieces on the same topic while focusing on writing about our passions. Realistically, three articles can be written on one topic. The first article would be considered the conceptual piece, the second article would relate to the practical application, and the third article would be empirically based and/or data driven. In this manner, the outcome is three manuscripts centered on one topical area. The final piece of advice from our mentor was to always set writing goals and to channel writing into journal articles. This way, we will continually submit manuscripts, because we will continually have a manuscript in progress.

### *Time Management*

In our REZZ group dialogue, we agreed that the biggest stressor was that it was often difficult to schedule the time to write. Organizing our resources, managing the piles of papers, and actually sitting down at the computer were often challenging tasks. Our mentor recommended the following weekly schedule for us to follow:

- Schedule nine hours dedicated for office hours to meet with students, address emails, and return phone calls.
- Schedule 12 hours for course delivery. (At our university, we teach a 3-3 load, meaning that we teach three courses in the fall and three courses in the spring. Each semester we are allotted 3 credit hours of research time.)
- Schedule 12 hours for course preparation by creating PowerPoints, updating notes and handouts, and accessing current research related to the course content.
- Finally, designate seven hours a week for writing, whether that is on manuscripts or grants.

This suggested 40-hour work week schedule helped us to realize where our focus should be as early career faculty. In order to continue to maintain research productivity within a heavy teaching load, our mentor recommended that we designate specific writing times each week and schedule committee meetings and other professional activities around this time. That is, it is important to safeguard our writing time and commit to writing during this time. It was also imperative that we designate an environment that was conducive to this writing time, even if this meant working outside our office on campus. To increase and stay productive in our research and publication agenda, we soon realized the importance of being goal oriented. Staying focused on our professional goals—teaching, research, and service—in preparation for the promotion and tenure process remains a priority.

#### SUPPORT AND PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

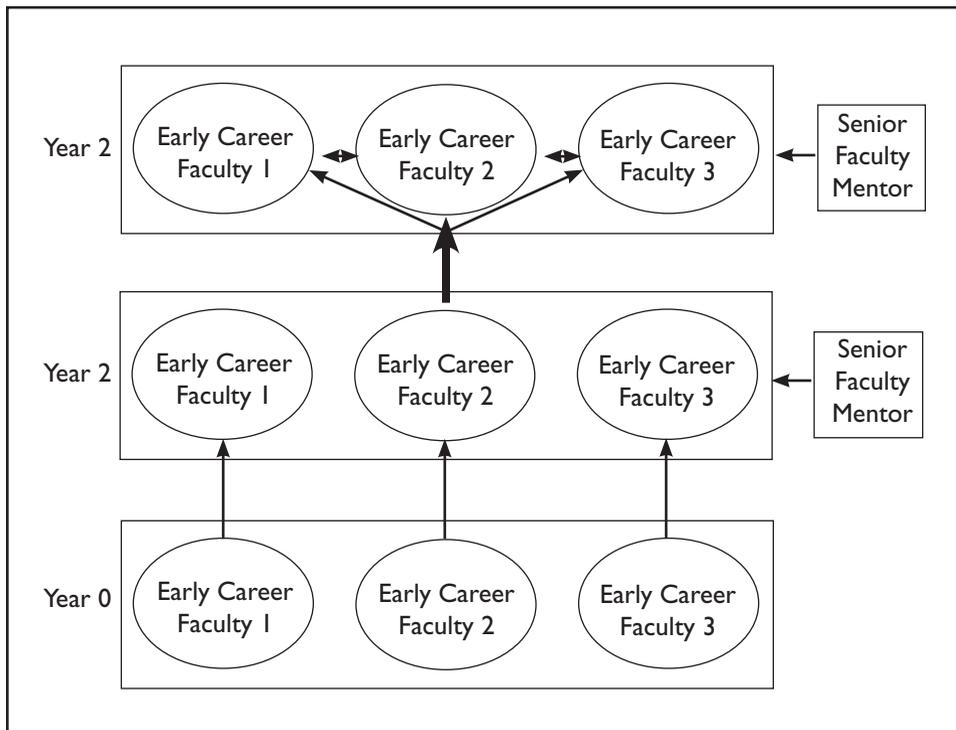
During our meeting times, which often took place at a local coffee house or the student union on campus, we discussed our current accomplishments—articles accepted or in progress, grantwriting activities, conference schedules—and time spent getting to know each other. We set writing goals and discussed the promotion and tenure process and the ins and outs of departmental politics as a way to succeed in the organizational culture where we work. We all agreed not to share any personal information outside of our group sessions as a way to maintain confidentiality and promote trust. We became and continue to be a support group for each other. One year after the formal mentoring activities, we continue to meet weekly and work together on publications. We remain committed to the team because of the social and professional support benefits. We work on a team mentality where we have come to count on each other's contributions.

Our mentoring experience has helped us to get to know colleagues in our college who are in other departments and to develop personal and professional relationships with them. We are proud of each other's successes and provide support when one of us is feeling overwhelmed. We have worked to create a safe environment wherever we are and to remain comfortable discussing personal issues. Being a member of REZZ has helped to increase our self-esteem and strengthen our professional relationships within and outside our departments. We have had the opportunity to work on grants and research projects outside of our REZZ group stemming from the confidence gained from our mentoring experience. We continue to look forward to our weekly meetings and look to prepare our promotion and tenure documents together. We hope to continue to gain confidence and to seek additional opportunities to work with each other and our colleagues in our college.

MENTORING FOR RESEARCH PRODUCTIVITY (MeRP):  
A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

As our group continued to meet during the year, we began to consider the idea of sharing our mentoring experience, which led to developing a model of our mentoring process. We were excited about the possibilities of a small group approach to mentoring. During the year and after participating in our formal mentoring program with our selected mentor, we began to meet regularly (as early career faculty) without our mentor to continue our work. We moved from being mentored to supporting ourselves and, in a sense, to mentoring each other (see Figure 2). As our model shows, we began in Year 0 working individually on our research and struggled to maintain research productivity on our own and balance our various personal and academic responsibilities. In Year 1, we met formally under the structure of the Teaching Academy on campus while also meeting under the mentorship of a senior faculty and our REZZ group. As previously discussed, we focused on issues related to promotion and tenure and, more specifically, our research agendas. We looked to each other for professional support and feedback in our own individual projects (i.e., grant writing, manuscript developing, conference presentations). As the end of the academic year approached, we discussed continuing as a research team. As such, in Year 2, and as early career faculty, we decided to continue the work we had begun with our mentor as we

Figure 2. Mentoring for Research Productivity (MeRP)



felt the need to continue to take responsibility for our own professional journeys. Hence, we took the lead for our own mentoring while our senior faculty mentor remains available to us on an on-call basis. It is during this year that we continued to work on our individual projects and committed to collaborating on additional projects. It is this movement of the group from Year 0 through Year 2, continuing our work to publish together, that is a direct result of our three-year mentoring journey.

#### DISCUSSION

An increasing number of women, minorities, and middle-aged scholars have entered the Teaching Academy since our year of participation in the program. Because there seems to be a trend indicating that more faculty (early career and senior faculty) are choosing to participate in the formal mentoring program on campus, one predicts the need for greater numbers of faculty to be mentored. The traditional mentoring model was based on a strong form of mentoring, where a senior person took a junior person under his or her wing, provided information about the university and department culture, advocated for and supported her advancement (through grant writing, dual authorship, and conference presentations), and buffered and protected her. In our current university environment, there appear to be fewer senior faculty who take on this role because of their own academic responsibilities; hence, this traditional model is not often used.

Universities have responded in numerous ways, creating mentoring programs sponsored by the central administration. Although these programs offer information, guidance, and support, they are more general in nature, and are often not focused on advocating a particular person/protégé in a particular situation in a particular department.

The success of our mentoring program included support for one another, a shared vision of career success, and the creation of a safe environment for personal and professional growth. Edmonson, Fisher, Brown, Irby, and Lunenburg (2002) discuss the importance of a healthy work environment and its positive impact on faculty productivity. What we believe we created is a healthy, collaborative culture that has had a positive impact on our productivity. Defined by Peters and Waterman (1982, as cited in Edmonson et al., 2002), a collaborative culture maintains an element of control, a meaningful relationship, and positive support (9). Integral to a collaborative culture are support for one another, coexisting in a cooperative, friendly, nurturing environment, physical proximity, deliberate communication, shared vision, and continued mentoring and support: “[d]eveloping a Collaborative Culture, then, is critical to maintaining an effective environment within the college environment, particularly among a program that is responsible for developing future education leaders” (Edmonson et al., 2002, 11).

The approach we describe in this paper may help bridge the gap between the traditional one-to-one form of mentoring to what might be called a Mentor-

ing for Research Productivity (MeRP) model by beginning with a cross-campus group of multiple participants, moving to small groups mentored by a single senior faculty member (all from the same college), and finally moving to a place where the protégés support themselves (see Figure 2). Although mentored early career faculty may miss out on the targeted advocacy of the traditional model, they may gain, instead, a support group focused on various aspects of their research, teaching, or service.

The MeRP model may be useful when there are larger numbers of early career faculty in need of mentoring than there are appropriate mentors. It may work best, however, for the first year of mentoring, focusing as it does on the more general expectations and processes at the university and college level. A faculty member's needs are different in the second year, and they can build on what they learned and the strategies they developed during that first year of mentoring. Each department's role is essential to the success of faculty, and during the second year of an early career faculty member's appointment, it may be more helpful for that person's department to take a more significant role in mentoring early career faculty in their journey to promotion and tenure. The combination of senior faculty mentoring and early career faculty taking a mentoring initiative may lead to more collaboration among colleagues and benefits for all of those involved.

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# Design and Implementation Issues in the First Russian Master of Public Administration Program

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## ABSTRACT

This paper examines the design and implementation of the first working master of public administration program in Russia. This program has been in existence at the Urals Academy of Public Administration (UAPA) in Yekaterinburg since 2001 and graduated its first class in 2003. The development of the program from 2001 through 2004 was aided by a U.S. State Department Newly Independent States Colleges and Universities Partnership Program (NISCUPP) grant. The article examines why public administration education is important to Russia and how UAPA is implementing innovative public administration education through its MPA program while also meeting the national standards for such education issued by the Russian Ministry of Education. At the current time, the Urals Academy is partnering with London Metropolitan University under a British government Russian-UK Partnerships in Higher Education (BRIDGE) grant to increase the number of students in the MPA program, to build faculty expertise further, and to prepare to meet the challenges of European integration as negotiated in the Bologna Process.

A great deal of attention has been recently paid to the need for better education of public administrators throughout the world and the functionality of this education to the solution of problems facing developing countries (Gáspár, 1999; Volkova, 2003). Tong and Straussman (2003), for example, recently described

the situation in China and the steps the Chinese government was taking toward improving the education of Chinese public administrators by creating a master of public administration (MPA) program at 24 universities in that country. By 2005, China had some 83 operating MPA programs.

Russia also is beginning to introduce practical graduate education in public administration. Russian governmental and administrative problems are severe and the country is at a crossroads; Goetz (2001) describes the choice as between modernization or Europeanization—with a focus on liberalization and democracy, a relatively free market, a professional public service, and pluralism—on the one hand, and Latinization—with a focus on special interest capture of public authority, clientelism, and nepotism—on the other. Public administration programs in Russia can be seen as an effort to influence this choice in the former rather than the latter direction. This essay provides a preliminary description of the design and implementation of the first Russian MPA program and the authors' reflections on what they view as the key issues raised in that process. In a larger framework, this essay also provides some of the limited empirical data regarding the likely directions for development of Russian public administration education. In Russia at present, government administration still is predominant, public administration managers are not adequately educated to deal with current social challenges, and academic institutions are constrained by tradition and limited resources. The successful adoption of democratic institutions, rule of law, and actions leading to an environment hospitable to foreign investment is in large part dependent upon how quickly Russia builds a foundation of quality public administration.

## INTRODUCTION

At the time of the breakup of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s, Russian bureaucracy was in the hands of the Communist Party. Public services at the national, regional, and local levels of society were delivered by party apparatchiks who were trained more as ideologues than they were as civil servants. Much of this training was accomplished through a series of party training schools located in the capitals of the Soviet republics and in key cities through Russia. The socialist nature of Russian government also meant that there was virtually no private or nonprofit sector to complement the public sector. After the fall of socialism, Russia was left in a situation of recreating its bureaucratic structure at the same time that it created a trained, competent, and professional bureaucracy.

The foundation on which to build was very limited. Studies at the Urals Academy of Public Administration in the 1990s showed that only some 1 percent of public administrators in Russia had specialized training in public administration, while 70 percent had advanced training in fields unrelated to public administration, and close to 30 percent had no advanced training at all. Accordingly, few prepared civil servants were available when Russia began the transition to democ-

racy and the shift from central planning to a market economy and the country began to grapple with such policy and administrative problems as economic development, environmental degradation, and growing crime rates.

#### THE PUBLIC SERVICE PROBLEM IN RUSSIA

The topic of civil service reform has been a priority in the governments of Boris Yeltsin and Vladimir Putin. While both Russian presidents attempted to modernize the Russian civil service, both attempts had a checkered history. Pat Gray writes that “[t]here can be few better examples of how supposedly globalizing trends for the ‘modernization’ of public services have been dissipated and resisted than that of the Russian Federation” (Gray, 2003, 1). This shortcoming has been recognized widely in the research literature and even more directly by President Vladimir Putin himself. In 1999, Putin stated that Russia needed “a streamlined structure of bodies of state authority and management, higher professionalism, more discipline and responsibility of civil servants, keener struggle against corruption [and] a restructuring of the state personnel policy on the basis of a selection of the best staff.” By 2002, Putin observed that most reforms were bogged down in bureaucracy. His vice minister for the economy, development and trade, Mikhail Dmitriev, noted that only the Soviet system of *nomenklatura* for senior appointments had really been dismantled in the current civil service system, leaving many of the inefficiencies and vices of the Soviet system preserved, thus making overall governmental and economic reform extremely difficult. In addition, the disadvantages of working in an old-style bureaucracy, coupled with low salaries for many civil servants, especially in comparison to comparable positions in the private sector, made it difficult for the public sector to attract and retain qualified professionals.

An 2001 European Union analysis of the Russian civil service noted that the success of the transition to a market economy depends in part on the reforms in the public sector administrative structure (European Commission, 2001). But in Russia, many features are inconsistent with successfully reforming the civil service, such as complex and overlapping governmental and administrative structures; constantly changing management but an unchanging middle-level staff; and across-the-board cuts in staffing levels regardless of agency performance. Consequences of this situation include low pay for civil servants, the loss of younger officials to the private sector, a rise in the average age of civil servants, and “a major growth in rent seeking activities of civil servants” (European Commission, 2001, 12).

The difference between the Russian and the Eastern European situation is instructive. For many Eastern European countries, quick establishment of large-scale public administration education and training was of utmost importance for newly independent post-communist countries because of factors including the problems of lack of trust in old regime administrators and the paucity of admin-

istrators educated and trained in modern public administration (Hajnal, 2003). Education and training drew heavily on technical assistance programs from the United States and Scandinavia. Those “corporate” approaches differ to a great degree from the “legal” approaches that have resulted from the Continental Public Law found in post-Communist countries that “have a relatively continuous development path leading from socialism to capitalism and liberal democracy” (Hajnal, 2003, 252).

#### RUSSIAN HIGHER EDUCATION’S ROLE

One aspect of civil service reform that has attempted to address the problem of cultural change in the bureaucracy is the education of future Russian civil servants. By 1991, Boris Yeltsin recognized that public administration training was necessary for the future development of the country. In that year, Yeltsin seized the 11 Communist Party advanced training academies in Russia and recreated them as academies of public administration.<sup>1</sup> The general mission of the academies would be the basic training of future administrators as well as the advanced training of existing administrators. These responsibilities were much the same mission that the Party training schools had been assigned in Soviet times, except that public administration replaced ideology. This transition did leave unaddressed some issues related to the differing missions of the nine regional academies, with their own unique responsibilities due to the areas each served, and the two Moscow academies that have unique strengths because of their proximity to the seat of government. As Guseletov (2000) writes, “It would be useful to redistribute some functions of the academy in Moscow and the local civil service academies. For example, the Moscow academy could prepare and retrain civil servants at the federal level of management, a level of regional management, and staff of the regional academies” thus presumably leaving local, municipal, and some regional management training to the regional academies.

These academies, while exercising many of the same functions as a university, are quite different in structure and size. The Russian classical universities cover the same curricula as do many of the major universities elsewhere, e.g., social sciences, natural sciences, liberal arts, mathematics, etc. The Russian academies are much narrower in their focus. These academies address topics in a five-year undergraduate program dealing mainly with management (both public and private) and associated fields such as finance, economics, computer programming and usage. In many ways, the academies in Russia are analogous to schools of public affairs in the United States with the exception that the academies are smaller in size, are freestanding, and are not associated with universities.

By 1995, the Russian Ministry of Education had developed standards for public administration education that were implemented by all the academies. These standards call for some 4,068 contact hours of education in the following

areas: general and strategic management, state and municipal administration, management in the social sphere, human resources management, marketing, management of production, logistics, project management, information management, innovation management, management consulting, international business, financial management, technological management, the legal basis for economic development, auditing and bookkeeping, continuing problems in science, the history and method of science, a scientific and research internship, and a pedagogical internship. In May 2000, the Ministry of Education released standards for the degree in management.

Russian students in most higher education institutions generally take five years to complete their undergraduate education. More recently, the Urals Academy has begun to experiment with an alternate to the standard five-year diploma. A six-year (or in actuality a four-plus-two year) system would award a student a baccalaureate degree after four years and then a master's degree after the completion of two additional years of graduate training. This new approach represents an intermediary level of education between the traditional five-year degree and the usual Russian course of post-graduate study leading to the candidate and Ph.D. degrees.

#### THE URALS ACADEMY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The Urals Academy of Public Administration (UAPA) is located in Yekaterinburg, Sverdlovsk Oblast, Russia. UAPA was created along with the other academies in 1991 with the following mission contained in the presidential decree creating the new system:

- Working out recommendations for reforming public administration and forming the legal basis for it.
- Organizing and conducting fundamental and applied research on public administration and staff policy problems.
- Providing information-analytical materials for public administration.
- Coordinating activities of organizations and institutions involved in training, retraining, and advanced training of public administration personnel.
- Providing curricula and educational methods for the system of public administration personnel training.
- Providing scientific and organizational support for international programs and projects concerning public administration.

UAPA serves 10 components of the Russian Federation. They are the Sverdlovsk, Chelyabinsk, Perm, Orenburg, Kurgan, and Tumen regions; the Udmurtian Republic; and the Komi-Permyak, Yamalo-Nenetsk, and Khanty-Mansiisk autonomous regions. With the assistance of local governments, the Academy

has set up territorial departments and branches in such cities as Izhevsk, Chelyabinsk, Perm, Magnitogorsk, Orenburg, Kurgan, Langepas, and Nizhny Tagil.

UAPA's service area is larger than that of any other Russian academy of public administration and includes more population than most. This large service area, subject to Siberian winters and not well served by transportation or electronic communications, encompasses local governments with extensive training needs. UAPA mounted an aggressive program of gaining independence from state subsidies, expanding their diversity of educational programs, and influencing Russian public life. With the support of local governments, UAPA developed an extensive outreach program with an average of approximately 9,000 civil servants receiving continuing education training per year and about 800 students engaging in the five-year program of study on the home campus. Faculty travel sometimes as much as 16 hours by train to reach distant sites; modern distance education technology (Web-based course support software, video conferencing, etc.) has been scarcely used because of traditional Russian educational patterns of podium-based learning and limited resources.

UAPA's focus on the future, combined with increasing demands for public administration education and a limited undergraduate and continuing curriculum, created a desire in UAPA's management group to seek external assistance for expansion and improvement. As a result, UAPA partnered with a U.S. university in applying for a U.S. State Department Newly Independent States Colleges and Universities Partnership Program (NISCUPP) grant in order to assist UAPA in developing the first MPA in Russia, strengthen UAPA teaching overall, and upgrade distance education and information technology (DE/IT).

The NISCUPP partners immediately recognized the need to address DE/IT as a substantial factor in introducing a pedagogy based on problem solving and flexibility. In addition, the partners recognized the need to infuse the curriculum with elements of DE/IT: decision making software, mathematical simulations, electronic group work, etc. Finally, possibly meeting external standards for accreditation meant that MPA education at distant sites would require upgrading resources—such as library, advising, and standardized examinations—at those locations.

Aided by the grant, UAPA began implementing a pilot MPA degree program in 2001—arguably the first in Russia. Ten students were accepted into this first class and seven graduated in spring 2003. All 10 of the students who began the program in 2001 were UAPA graduates with four-year baccalaureate degrees. In 2002, a second class of 12 students was accepted into the MPA program, and as of early summer 2003 a third class of approximately seven students had been accepted. Students with baccalaureate degrees who enter the MPA program do not personally pay for their education; their tuition and other costs are covered through the Russian federal budget. In actuality, the budget appropriated funds

for 12 students per year in the pilot MPA program, and UAPA policy allows for an additional 12 paying students to enroll in the program. Thus the maximum number of students in any one MPA cohort would be 24. Current policy allows only baccalaureate students to have their fees paid by the federal government but allows students with the five-year standard degree to enroll in the MPA program if they are willing to pay their own fees. In the first two classes in the program, all students had baccalaureate degrees and all were paid for with government funds. In the third cohort, students with standard degrees began to be accepted into the program but it was unclear as of the summer of 2003 what the mix of students in this third class would be and how this change in admissions would work out.

The admissions procedures for students applying to the MPA program are not unlike procedures in the U.S. or European nations. An admissions committee reviews all applicants' grades, participation in conferences, publications, and other information and interviews students with a baccalaureate degree in management or economics. Students with baccalaureate degrees in fields other than management or economics and all standard five-year degree students must pass an exam in general management in order to be considered for admission. The admissions committee then ranks students on the basis of three factors: undergraduate grades, a subjective score assigned by the committee after examining other factors (such as publications), and the results of the interview or examination.

#### STRUCTURE OF THE MPA DEGREE AT THE URALS ACADEMY

The MPA degree at the Urals Academy was developed to conform to the Ministry of Education's standards for the specialization in management, adopted in May 2000. The standard calls for a four-year course of study leading to the baccalaureate degree in state and municipal management and a two-year specialized program for the master's degree. The master's degree requires components approved by the federal Ministry of Education (federal components), requirements approved at the regional level (regional or academy component), and electives selected by the individual students. Scientific and research work are also required.

The federal component of the program includes problems in management theory, strategic management, organizational behavior, methods of applied social research, and management information systems. The regional/academy component includes philosophy, pedagogy and psychology of higher education, a foreign language, and the sociology of management. The student research requirement is fulfilled by the presentation of a paper at the end of the first year of master's study, scientific and research work in the first and second semester, a scientific/research internship in the second year (12 hours per week), a teaching internship in the second year (12 hours per week), and the presentation of a professional paper.

The teaching internship includes preparing teaching materials and conducting classes as part of the management curriculum. MPA students at UAPA can intern at various institutions of higher learning in the Yekaterinburg area. Interns must deliver classes in the disciplines including management, municipal management, human resource management, and political science.

The scientific/research internship includes

- tracing the performance of any local organization; an agency; a self-governing authority; a state agency involved in education, public health, social work, or training of personnel; political parties; and religious organizations;<sup>2</sup>
- conducting special research such as public opinion polls on policy issues;
- theoretical analysis of a selected problem development of a research methodology, etc.;
- participation in theoretical seminars on the problems of a selected piece of research. These seminars are held twice per month with students and scientific area supervisors.

A final assessment at the end of the two-year program involves the state-mandated interdisciplinary exam for the master's degree, exams in philosophy and a foreign language, and presentation of the professional paper. The state exam is aimed at evaluating student performance according to the student's selected specialization. The philosophy and foreign language exams are the equivalent of exams given to graduate students at the candidate level in Russian classical universities.

Presentation of the master's paper is conducted publicly before an examination committee appointed by the UAPA rector. To present a master's paper, a student must have the recommendation of at least one faculty member who has a scientific degree and specializes in the area of the student's paper. The student's paper should include a review of literature on the topic, problem definition, methods of research, research results, and analysis.

The UAPA's experience in delivering this pilot MPA degree is instructive of the generalized situation of public administration in Russia. For example, while the scientific/research internship for the master's degree requires the student to work in an agency and to collect information on that agency, the experience has been less straightforward. Students have had difficulty in obtaining the approvals necessary to conduct research in these organizations and have also had difficulty in getting information on agency performance from the organizations they are studying.

In June 2001 a group of U.S. professors was fortunate to be able to witness the first paper defenses conducted at the UAPA. Three of the seven students presented the abstracts of their papers in English. The remainder of the defenses was

conducted in Russian, but the U.S. professors had access to an excellent translator and so were able to follow the proceedings. The topics the students presented were well formulated and researched. The proceedings were conducted as if the students were presenting research at an academic conference—the students presented abstracts, problem definitions, methodologies, and findings and then were asked questions about their research by the board of examining professors. All seven students passed their defense and moved on to graduation.

#### MPA DEGREE IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES

UAPA now has two years of experience in implementing the MPA degree. Cooperation between UAPA and Western educational institutions has also allowed U.S., British, and other European professors to visit the UAPA, observe the functioning of the program, and provide feedback for the potential improvement of its delivery. Issues surrounding the implementation of the program include design of the program, recruitment and placement of students, staffing of the program, pedagogical issues, and issues surrounding distance education and information technology.

#### *Design of the Program*

The professional side of public administration is not fully reflected in the design of this MPA program because, as Hajnal (2003) observes, the former communist world had a strongly legal character, given the communist era's adherence to the Continental Public Law approach. The Ministry of Education standards promulgated in 2000 established a very traditional program of study. The standards tend to emphasize mastery of the Russian legal code rather than the acquisition of skills and knowledge needed to function successfully in a modern bureaucratic state. The lack of support by the Russian government for building a  model of public administration, as contrasted to the support for a traditional program emphasizing mastery of the legal code, appears to come from the immediate social, economic, and political challenges faced by the federal government, which in turn limit discretionary funding and the number of areas to which attention can be focused. In addition, a distinctly new approach looking to governance rather than government would call for a reexamination of fundamental beliefs about the nature of the Russian state.

In any event, faculty and administrative officials at UAPA are seeking to go beyond the Ministry of Education standards and to educate students who not only can fulfill the requirements of the Ministry but who also can manage successfully and ethically in modern Russia. The rector of the Urals Academy has indicated his preference for an MPA program that would not be limited by the stereotypes for such programs in Russia. At the current time, an innovative program is evolving, but the goal of a Western-style MPA program has yet to be achieved. Part of this problem may be the Ministry's standards themselves—if students must

fulfill the requirements of the standards and then go beyond them, the students must do more work than the Ministry originally intended for them to do. This issue in turn leads to another problem.

#### *Recruitment and Placement of Students*

At the current time, it is difficult for UAPA faculty to identify the most attractive jobs for MPA graduates. The program is graduating well-trained, professional administrators who find the Russian civil service unattractive as a career for the reasons identified earlier. In addition, the baccalaureate and master's degrees are not well known in the Russian public and private sectors, so students with either of these degrees might not receive the same consideration as students with standard five-year degrees when they apply for the same positions. This also leads to few students choosing the baccalaureate route as opposed to the traditional five-year degree route.

Early on in the evolution of the program, faculty discussed the idea that graduates of the program might gravitate to the private sector, where their administrative and management skills would command the higher salaries that international corporations were paying in Russia. But in these types of positions, MPA graduates are competing with graduates of the newly developed MBA programs in Russia that are much better known to the public and to upper-level executives in private companies. Faculty therefore concluded that many of the first graduates of the MPA program would tend to go into international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) that would both value the skills that these graduates would possess and also reward them financially for their advanced level of training. Actually, the first group of MPA students has been treated as if they were academic, rather than professional, graduate students and are perceived as likely to go into Ph.D. programs and return to teach at UAPA or similar institutions.

This problem is partially reflected in the organization of the MPA paper defense and the theoretical topics on which students choose to work. One might argue that training MPA students to be municipal administrators or policy analysts would require them to learn to analyze the practical problems that administrators face daily and to be trained in how to present analysis to elected or appointed officials, many of whom do not have the same level of academic training as the students themselves do. This type of training would involve making the analysis less academic—not less rigorous but more transparent—than one might experience in a typical professional conference. Such training might rely more on advanced presentation skills—the use of Microsoft PowerPoint, for example—to make complex ideas clear to individuals who do not have advanced academic training. In this respect, the role of the MPA graduate is much like the role of the architect or the attorney who possesses advanced substantive knowledge in his or her field and does a great deal of research on the topic under investigation but then is

required to develop a presentation that appeals to the typical layperson who does not have the same levels of education and training as the presenter.<sup>3</sup>

The situation thus becomes somewhat circular—how can the MPA degree be recognized as a valuable, professional degree that trains students who can make a real contribution to the professionalization of the Russian public service without requiring a first generation of students to forego higher-paying jobs or easier paths to success in order to make these real contributions? And where will these students come from?

Faculty and administrators at UAPA agree that the best undergraduate students are not applying to the MPA program but, instead, are seeking to enter professional career work immediately upon receiving the five-year degree. This is not an unusual situation in Russian higher education, where the best undergraduate students often do not go on for graduate work leading to academic careers, just as in some other countries.

#### *Staffing of the Program*

At the current time, most UAPA faculty members have advanced academic degrees in a variety of fields. Their academic training is rigorous, scientific, and research oriented. This leads them to emphasize the same scientific and theoretical rigor in the courses they teach. While this is, of course, an admirable approach, professional administrators need some grounding in practical administration and management. Several of the faculty have come to the UAPA from business or from administrative or management careers and bring with them the practical administration knowledge that MPA graduates need to be successful in real-world administration. UAPA administrators have spoken on several occasions of the desirability of bringing additional practitioners (who also have an academic background) into the UAPA teaching staff.

#### *Pedagogical Issues*

Three pedagogical issues that arose are familiar to faculty at many academic institutions: case studies, educational materials, and grading.

*Case Studies.* The traditional approach to teaching public administration in Russia is one that deals more with fundamental knowledge than applied knowledge and practical skills, as noted above. In addition, Russian pedagogy tends to deal more with general models rather than with concrete cases. UAPA faculty and administration have recognized this shortcoming in the academic program and have sought vigorously to import case studies into the MPA curriculum. These cases can be both historical and current in nature. Experiences in the first year of the MPA program at UAPA showed that once the students understood what the case study approach demanded of them, they rapidly became aware of what kinds of knowledge and skills they needed to analyze and solve real-world problems. This

had the longer-term goal of causing them to become more interested in studying policy issues.

Unfortunately, the use and development of case studies in Russia is not particularly well developed or simple, although the usefulness and heuristic potential for such cases is well appreciated. First, uniquely Russian cases are difficult to develop because few faculty have the training to be able to produce cases for use in the classroom. Problems exist in collecting the data necessary to develop the cases: the statistical data either do not exist or are not available for academic use; Russian bureaucratic agencies tend to treat data as state secrets and often refuse to release data to outside users; there are too few official publications on agency and government policies; and the distribution network for the publications that exist is not well developed. In addition, case studies developed in the United States or Europe are often inapplicable to the Russian environment.

Russian textbooks offer very few examples of policy formation and implementation that can be used as cases for teaching purposes. This is the result of two factors: first, the absence of a tradition of case-based analysis in Russian political science, and second, the enclosed, isolated character of the Russian bureaucracy. UAPA faculty members have therefore been working with students to build cases in the class context.

Two approaches to case building are used in class, depending on the subject under study. For policy formation, four or five policies are defined and the students then create a database about the formation of each policy. The students collect information from any source, including official documents, newspapers, academic reviews, television news, statistical publications. Classes are scheduled by the stages in policy formation, and each time a class meets one stage of the policy formation process is discussed based on one or two policies. For policy implementation, the process of building cases is somewhat different. An individual policy or program to study is assigned to each student, and the student creates a database on the topic. General discussions in classes then cover concrete examples of a method of policy evaluation (cost-benefit analysis, social equality analysis, etc.) and differences between programs viewed from the same approach (how cost-benefit analysis was used in several different programs, for example).<sup>4</sup>

This method also presents additional advantages if we keep in mind some specific characteristics of Russian institutional arrangements. Many institutions and policy goals change quickly in Russia. In this environment, any established base of cases would be only of historical interest, without clear links to today's issues. The described way of introducing cases into the classroom permits UAPA faculty to update topics each time a course is taught. The information sources also change rapidly—some are dying and others are being created. Students have to manage these information flows, and one of the most important goals to meet is learning to find and manage relevant information.

*Educational Materials.* Problems also exist in the availability of educational materials for Russian students. Few Western public administration textbooks have been translated into Russian, so mastering the classical literature in public administration theory requires Russian students to learn several foreign languages. Although the UAPA requires this of MPA graduates, the level of reading skills in the foreign language is, of course, not equivalent to the reading level in Russian, and so it is difficult for students to read and use foreign language texts in their coursework. In addition, there are currently few Russian studies bearing on the field of policy analysis, for example. One solution to this problem is for UAPA to use very extensive syllabi. Syllabi for courses are often the size of small books and contain excerpts (in Russian) of material published elsewhere. In addition, UAPA partners in other countries are providing donated volumes and grant money to increase the holdings of the Academy library.

*Russian Grading System.* A third pedagogical issue is the traditional Russian grading system. The traditional system uses four numbers—from 2 (bad) to 5 (excellent)—to evaluate student work. But this evaluation is based solely on student performance on the final exam. Several UAPA faculty members are experimenting with an alternative system of grading that weighs the final exam 50 percent of the grade but include an ongoing assessment of student performance as the remaining 50 percent. However, the final grade is still required to be reported on the 2 through 5 scale.

The project did influence pedagogical approaches at UAPA. Overall, the idea of the partnership created interest among some faculty who consciously conferred with and learned from visiting U.S. faculty. Twenty-one people from UAPA visited the United States, and many participated in U.S. classroom activities that provided significant professional development experiences. Several of the teaching techniques that were emphasized in the MPA project, such as use of case studies, encouraged the use of those tools in the MPA program and in courses in other areas of UAPA.

#### *Distance Education and Instructional Technology (DE/IT)*

Another strong influence on UAPA pedagogy has been the rapid development of distance education and instructional technology, to which the MPA project provided a major stimulus. UAPA's DE/IT in the 1990s was typical of much of Russian higher education. Resources were limited after the governmental changes and currency devaluations of the early to mid-1990s; only limited amounts of hardware or software could be purchased, even given frequent software upgrades and hardware obsolescence. As a result, institutions relied on writing their own software and on creative uses of existing software and hardware. Underpaid technology staff frequently took their well-honed skills to private firms as the Russian economy improved. The limited resources were strained by the size of the

UAPA service area, which stretches from the Arctic Ocean to the southern border and almost as wide west to east.

UAPA had certain strengths that allowed a broad DE/IT project to be launched. The Academy is not wholly dependent on government funding as a result of successful student recruitment, aggressive continuing education, and careful use of resources, and thus was able by the end of the decade to purchase key hardware and networking support. The academy also focused on developing a cadre of long-term staff who could craft a technology infrastructure from low-cost, stock hardware and software and who worked in close collaboration with the faculty. In addition, senior administration identified DE/IT as a top priority.

UAPA technology staff and MPA program faculty identified three fundamental DE/IT goals. The first goal was creating a new generation of public administrators in Russia, and thus the need for massive retraining. As a result, the use of new information and communications technologies became one of the most important tools for achieving success in this area. In Russia, the importance of these new information and communications technologies is even more important, because public administration is shaping the new Russian conceptualization of the Russian state, the values and skills of a new generation of Russian officials, and a new conceptualization of public administration in Russia, one example of which is e-government.

The second goal was bringing students in contact with actors far beyond their day-to-day lives. Students themselves were seen by UAPA as requiring a dramatic expansion of the sphere of scholastic processes beyond the campus and outside of the traditional limits of the academic calendar. Students wish to use the interactive and virtual electronic capabilities of modern information and communications technologies to establish new links with teachers, libraries, and other sources of information.

Third, UAPA technology staff set a goal of retraining faculty to operate in an electronic environment. The traditional Russian approach to education has been very incremental and structured, both in the delivery of material and in the adoption of innovations. As a result, staff saw the need to start first with making electronic versions of lectures and scholastic enhancement such as slides and color graphics. Then staff moved to the use of Web-enhanced and Web-supported courses, and then started to shift to Internet and Intranets.

UAPA staff had identified four barriers to reaching those goals. The first was a limited involvement by faculty and staff in modern DE/IT activities. Second, and related to the first, was a limited amount of interest by faculty in information technologies in general. The third barrier was the limited amount of time devoted by faculty to their professional activities. Most faculty in fact are employed at more than one institution as a result of low salaries. Fourth, students had restricted access to the Internet because of the high cost of connection time (as opposed to the relatively lower cost of personal computers).

UAPA has addressed reaching its goals and overcoming barriers via the implementation of what is informally referred to as the Web Project. This project involves the development of three interrelated Web-based software systems. This process of development has been supported by the NISCUPP grant and has been driven in part by the vision of the first Russian MPA program.

*Web Exam System.* The first step in the Web Project was the development of a system of remote testing. In part, this was driven by the traditional need to provide a reliable, standardized, and short turnaround method of student assessment. The Web Exam system was designed to accept questions in HTML. The system was designed to pull random samples from a universe of test questions and partition the questions in thematic units. Tests could also be limited in time for either the whole exam or for individual questions. There also is the availability of giving multiple right answers and for creating a database of answers that enabled sophisticated analysis of student responses.

The most popular feature for the teachers has been the ability to prepare test materials in a Microsoft Word format with a minimum amount of time spent in identifying files, changing formats, and other tasks usually required to edit material on the Web. The introduction of this system immediately increased the number of faculty using computer labs as part of their teaching. The benefits of the system identified by faculty included the speed of the system, objectivity, and student acceptance.

*Web Podium System.* The UAPA staff then focused on developing course support software. The staff addressed five challenges: (1) gain acceptance of faculty members unfamiliar with course support software; (2) develop academy-wide faculty training; (3) institute a desktop user support; (4) develop faculty, administration, and staff agreement on implementation; (5) address vast differences in student access to computer hardware, software, and the Internet; and (6) develop the software. For many small schools, the challenge of developing and successfully implementing school-wide a course support software package (similar to much of WebCT or Blackboard) would not have been considered. In part, the willingness of senior management to authorize development of Web Podium is a significant indication of the strength of the senior management backing of the information technology team at UAPA.

The Web Podium system was intended to provide faculty with a system of course support software without forcing them to develop extensive skills in Web technology. Web Podium provides a means for teachers to present Web-based pages similar to a faculty Web site. In addition, Web Podium provides a means for teachers to place their own syllabus, lectures, support materials, tests, dictionaries, and links to Web resources. It is also used to organize feedback from students from posting to bulletin boards and thematically organized discussions on Web forums. Teachers also can learn about the content of other courses by searching across all courses in the Academy to identify information that would

be appropriate to link to their course. While UAPA could not utilize WebCT or Blackboard because they were cost prohibitive, they also believed that their own system was more flexible, offered certain features not found on WebCT or Blackboard, and was better integrated into the local IT infrastructure and the Russian culture.

*Web Library System.* UAPA technology staff saw the Internet as a source of information fraught with problems such as the lack of structure, differences between methodologies in the classroom and those found on the Internet, and out of date materials. As a result, staff saw a need to focus student attention and assist them with evaluating sources of information. In a similar manner, faculty required assistance in identifying resources, creating links, and maintaining collections of Internet-based information. Copyright considerations are minimized, because the focus in the Web library system is on links rather than downloading and maintaining documents. That said, the issue of copyright on downloaded documents apparently has not been given detailed attention in part because of the heavy load on staff created just in taking on the UAPA Web project.

The Web Library system was created to organize electronic resources. The Web Library is a means for the faculty member to create annotated directories of links for the student as part of the faculty member's Web Podium system. The directories can be divided into sections and subsections at any level. One of the interesting features is that students in senior courses, under the direction of faculty, can shape the directory by adding links and annotations. This participatory development will add to the quality of the Web Library, assist buy-in by students, and stimulate teachers who are less motivated to become more active. The system also includes the ability to trace visits and the use of links by students, verification of the accessibility of links, and even rate the teachers who are the most active in shaping the directory. In addition, each student can comment on each link.

Three components of the UAPA Web Project were implemented during the 2002-2003 academic year. During 2003-2004, enhancements of Web Project and evaluation are continuing. The preliminary conclusions regarding teaching public administration at UAPA so far appear to include the active involvement of faculty, strong administrative and financial support, and success in the development of inexpensive and efficient software.

### *DE/IT Results and Implications*

The DE/IT changes at UAPA, introduced concurrently with the U.S. State Department NISCUPP grant supporting the new MPA program, brought substantial changes in UAPA's internal processes. In addition, the DE/IT changes may increase linkages between undergraduate, MPA, and continuing education students at UAPA and knowledge about the crucial nature of public administration needs in Russia and the situation in public administration in other countries. An implication that we have drawn after several years of experience with UAPA is

that this increased DE/IT-driven exposure may lead to more students declining jobs in the private sector in favor of employment in public sector positions with less pay and usually harder working conditions. For example, the Web Library and Web Podium tools of the Academy are opening windows on an outside world that have been closed in many rural areas of western Siberia. This combination of internal changes and increased linkages may lead to improved recruitment of students with a career interest in public administration; most fundamentally, these increased linkages may lead to a broader vision of public administration by the 300-plus UAPA faculty, who in turn will be more successful in imparting a vision of a new public administration to their students.

#### DIFFERENCES BETWEEN RUSSIAN (UAPA), EUROPEAN, CHINESE, AND AMERICAN APPROACHES

A comparative analysis of UAPA versus European, Chinese, and American approaches requires a far broader foundation than presented in this essay, considering the difficulty of a comparison based on a very small, brand new, rapidly evolving program. However, the question is often asked and deserves a response. Differences are clearly apparent when we do even cursory comparisons of the curricula (as more complex comparisons would be too tenuous) of UAPA and NASPAA-accredited programs. The NASPAA focus on flexibility, innovation, and accommodation to diversity of students (both in their backgrounds and concentration interests) encourages curricula far different than the UAPA approach, which focuses on mastery of the legal code and largely lacks professional leadership and action-focused education. The European approach to public administration is diverse, as the meaning of the term itself is very ambiguous, and how the discipline itself is conceived is subject to varying paths of development (Hajnal, 2003) because of differences in the conceptualization of the state. In addition, public administration education is evolving rapidly under European Union pressure; this is commonly termed the Bologna Process. However, UAPA's curriculum certainly is more closely related to the legally oriented curricula of Southern European and some post-Communist countries rather than the Nordic business-oriented approaches or the political science-oriented approaches (see Hajnal, 2003). In China, the MPA curriculum is newly created and is likely to evolve, as Tong & Straussman (2003) point out. Unlike UAPA, the Chinese approach is oriented much more to practical solutions rather than legalistic. The Chinese approach also appears likely to be open to understanding other systems as evidenced by a language requirement and an eclectic interest by the Chinese government, similar to the creation of the Chinese MBA program.

This case provides an interesting insight into Russian public affairs education. Although a great deal is known about public affairs education as it has been taught in the past 10 years, relatively little empirical evidence is available about where Russian public affairs education may go in the next 10 years. UAPA

provides some indicators. Although our analysis is admittedly impressionist, we think Russian MPA efforts will tend to continue along the legalistic approach and will deviate only in very small, incremental steps from the historical pattern oriented to a classic university education, despite the overwhelming need for the reinvention of public administration in Russia. The creation of the program at UAPA and similar developments in one or more other Academies of Public Administration indicate that not only will the steps be small and incremental but that introduction of the MPA is unlikely to follow the Chinese approach of creating a class of programs throughout the country and setting a high goal for the production of a new type of administrators. The UAPA situation also supports the Hajnal's (2003) theory that countries with statehood established prior to the transition to post-Communist life tend to have a public administration culture that is strongly legalistic, given that public administration was intended to serve the purpose of the Communist Party. Adding to that culture are the current political, social, and economic changes in Russia. Those changes and the resulting stress create a far more difficult climate for bringing about widespread public affairs education changes; perhaps, until Russia's course becomes more settled, there will not be an evolutionary change in public affairs education.

#### CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FROM THE CASE

It thus became important for the U.S. and Russian faculty and administrator partners to work on two aspects of MPA education at the Academy—moving the UAPA curriculum from one that is based solely on the Russian standards to one that is more in conformance with NASPAA or other external standards; and moving UAPA faculty from their current mode of pedagogy (which relies to a great extent on communicating knowledge of Russian laws and regulations) to a form of pedagogy based on problem-solving and flexibility in thinking. Thus the new UAPA pedagogy is more based on interactive professor-student relationships in the classroom than is the older model. This experience certainly indicates that generalizing NASPAA standards to Russia is certainly impossible as such; even a program of activity such as this one, where no external model was brought to UAPA for adoption, illustrates the difficulty of transferring many components of the NASPAA standards to just this particular Russian academy of public administration. The case is certainly instructive in the difficulties of generalizing Western instructional standards to other parts of the globe; in some areas, such as use of cases, there was great enthusiasm, while in other areas, the Western instructional approaches were simply inapplicable. As McKenna (1997, 101) pointed out, “the direct transfer of the American public administration experience to the former Soviet bloc is problematic at best.”

The case provides guidance for others who might wish to participate in developing or reforming education programs in Russia. As McKenna (1997), Nelson (1997), and others have noted, new techniques or content must be perceived

as having a fit within the new context; teaching American public administration research, for example, with a grounding in positivism and theory testing does not easily translate into a normative, descriptive environment. The project underlying this case study itself was written specifically to provide technical assistance for Russians themselves to create the first MPA in Russia rather than to help them adopt a model from elsewhere. In this project, critical elements were the quality of the specific individuals acting as links between the partner and the Russian institution and a thorough understanding of the purpose of the project in advance by both parties.

Whether the pilot MPA program offered at UAPA will become the norm for future programs in Russia or whether the program represents an innovation that will die on the vine is something that is currently unknown. The program represents true innovation in the Russian system of higher education in several ways: the simple fact of its creation shows that Russian educators are moving beyond the idea that graduate education is solely for the purpose of educating future academics; its philosophy demonstrates that Russia is willing to invest resources in the future generation of public administrators and is thus seeking to influence the national choice to move toward Europeanization or modernization rather than Latinization; and its implementation demonstrates both the promise and the problems with the development of new concepts of education in a post-communist society with long traditions of centralized authority.

Two other implications need also to be addressed. In 2004, UAPA received a grant from the British government to expand and improve its MPA program. The number of students accepted into the program would grow from its current size to approximately 50 per year. Much like the U.S. grant discussed herein, the British grant is oriented toward technical assistance, encouraging UAPA to go its own way in further developing the MPA program rather than adopting a British (or any other national) model of such a program. Second, and more importantly, Russia became a participating nation in the Bologna Process in 2002 (European Commission, 2005) and is making progress toward redesigning its programs of higher education to come into conformance with European Union norms (Kassevitch, 2005). The recent Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe annual conference in Moscow showcased a panel discussion with three participating Russian academicians discussing in detail the problems Russia was facing in meeting the Bologna Process requirements with respect to public administration (Genai, 2005). Changes that Russian higher education may need to implement include revising the current five-year diploma program into a four-year baccalaureate degree program. For more typical academic programs, the Bologna Process presents many challenges. For public administration education programs—with their emphasis on graduate programs with a practical orientation—the Bologna Process presents special obstacles. In this respect, Russia may be strangely fortunate; because its system

of public administration education is only currently beginning, the system can be designed from its start to conform to European Union norms, thus ensuring Bologna compliance. UAPA's experience with the 'four plus two' baccalaureate/master's program discussed above may result in an advantage over other Russian institutions specializing in public administration education.

## NOTES

1. Two of the academies are located in Moscow and are operated under the auspices of the Russian Academy of Public Administration. The other nine are regional academies, operated directly under the auspices of the President of the Russian Federation. The nine academies are located in Yekaterinburg, Khabarovsk, Nizhny Novgorod, Novosibirsk, Oryol, Saint Petersburg, Saratov, Rostov-on-Don, and Volgograd.
2. The inclusion of internships in political parties in this mix of administrative internships is indicative of the lack of distinction in Russian between the words 'politics' and 'policy.' Both English words have been traditionally translated in most Russian dictionaries as 'politika.'
3. See Patton and Sawicki (1993) or Bardach (2000) for further development of this point.
4. An example of this is the large policy area assigned to one class—federal intervention and regulation in Chechnya. Each student is then required to choose a more limited policy problem within this broad area; these include topics such as human rights protection, military operation efficiency, and infrastructure repair.

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# Diffusing Information Technology Education in Korean Undergraduate Public Affairs and Administration Programs: Driving Forces and Challenging Issues

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## ABSTRACT

Public management information systems has been one of the core subjects in most South Korean undergraduate public affairs and administration programs since the late 1980s. Since the late 1990s, many e-government and various information policy subjects have been rapidly added to the PA curriculum. This paper examines the rapid diffusion of undergraduate-level IT education in Korean PA programs and focuses primarily on the implication of lessons developed in and drawn from Korean PA programs. The authors explain how the PA curriculum has been affected by changes in technologies, socioeconomic contexts, and government policies in South Korea; review the literature of IT education and classify IT courses taught in Korean PA programs; describe data and methods; summarize major findings on IT courses and instructors; examine driving forces behind the diffusion of IT education; and discuss the academic institutional isomorphism and challenging issues in IT education. The paper concludes with several suggestions for IT education in PA programs.

Information technology (IT) has permeated contemporary life.<sup>1</sup> Organizations in the public and private sectors have invested substantial resources in IT and its applications. Business schools have aggressively developed various IT courses such as management information systems (MIS), electronic commerce (e-commerce), and telecommunications. Similarly, public affairs and admin-

istration (PA) programs have added public management information systems (PMIS) and electronic government (e-government) curricular offerings.

In 1986, the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) recommended that computers and information systems be recognized as a sixth skill/knowledge component in the PA curriculum (NASPAA, 1986). (NASPAA's IT standard was further broadened in 2004 to encompass consideration of the managerial and public policy implications of information technology.) However, only 15 percent of American master of public administration (MPA) programs required IT courses in 1985, 31 percent in 1989, and 56 percent in 1995 and 1998 (Kiel, 1986; Brudney, Hy, and Waugh, 1993; Waugh et al., 1995; Brown and Brudney, 1998). The slow pace of development and incorporation of IT curricula indicates that NASPAA standards and guidelines failed to fully impact American MPA program curricula as intended, at least through the 1990s.

In South Korea, by contrast, PMIS has been one of the core subjects in most undergraduate PA programs since the late 1980s. Despite a lack of guidelines comparable to NASPAA's in the United States, PMIS became widely diffused as a standard in South Korea in a relatively short period of time. Since the late 1990s, many e-government and various information policy subjects have been rapidly added to the PA curriculum as well. In 2002, 86 percent of PA programs offered at least one IT course and 76 percent offered PMIS in their curriculum.<sup>2</sup> The average number of IT courses per PA program has doubled since 1998. The number of faculty members specializing in IT has not, however, increased in proportion to the rapid growth of IT courses. This unusual constellation of diffusion factors characterizes IT education in Korean PA programs.

The purpose of this paper is to answer the following questions: How can we understand the rapid and countrywide diffusion of the undergraduate-level IT education in Korean PA programs? What were the major driving forces of this diffusion? How have PA programs responded to transformed educational and public policy environments? How have such responses affected Korean PA education as a whole? What implications for IT education can we draw from this case?

This paper does not focus on which subjects should be taught and how, but rather primarily on the implication of lessons developed in and drawn from Korean PA programs. We have a general view that PA programs need to meet social demands, and IT course offerings, as Jennings (2002) has commented, depend on the resources available and specific institutional settings.<sup>3</sup> Not all IT subjects need to be taught in PA programs, but IT course offerings must address IT fundamentals related to management issues. In addition, it is natural, if not inevitable, that IT-related topics be integrated into substantive courses throughout the curriculum (see NASPAA, 1986, 599-560; Kraemer and Northrop, 1989, 452).<sup>4</sup>

In an effort to build a conceptual framework, we explain how the PA curriculum has been affected by changes in technologies, socioeconomic contexts, and

government policies in South Korea; review the literature of IT education and classify IT courses taught in Korean PA programs; describe data and methods; summarize major findings regarding IT courses and instructors; examine three driving forces behind the diffusion of IT education; and discuss the academic institutional isomorphism and challenging issues in IT education. We conclude with several suggestions for IT education in PA programs.

#### TECHNOLOGIES, SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONTEXTS, AND GOVERNMENT POLICIES

Public affairs and administration (PA) programs must be responsive to changing environments. The PA curriculum and specifically IT course offerings reflect technology changes, socioeconomic contexts, and government policies (NASPAA, 1986). Management tools and areas of necessary mastery continuously change as technologies progress.

IT has fundamentally altered modes of production and transaction in the information age (Davenport, 1993). The widespread and extensive uses of IT applications have significantly affected all levels of governments in various ways (Kraemer and King, 1986; Kraemer and Dedrick, 1997). Accordingly, public managers must know how to use IT applications and understand the managerial and sociopolitical implications of emerging information technologies (NASPAA, 1986; Kraemer and Northrop, 1989; Perry and Kraemer, 1993).

The PA curriculum also mirrors socioeconomic conditions. As IT and its applications become widely employed in business and social life, they come to be seen as a crucial social infrastructure, so that IT education and training become necessary in PA programs. IT education, however, is not likely to be evenly diffused through such programs. Well-resourced PA programs tend to be innovators who build exemplary models for followers. In short, resource endowments and other socioeconomic factors will affect the rate and breadth of diffusion of IT education.

PA programs and their curriculum are considerably influenced by government policies, particularly in a centralized society such as that of Korea. If governments support initiatives for public IT projects, PA scholars will be more likely to conduct IT research. More importantly, PA programs depend heavily on civil service recruitment systems, because most PA students pursue government jobs after graduation. For instance, recruitment through open, competitive examinations has been a longstanding tradition of Korean bureaucracy since the 10th century in the Goryeo Dynasty. The Civil Service Examination for Grade Five (CSEG5) has been the gateway through which higher-ranked public managers are recruited into contemporary Korean government. In order to be successful public managers, PA students have to acquire certain necessary knowledge and skills. In response to this demand, PA programs need to prepare their students for careers as public managers by incorporating relevant education and training into their curriculum.

#### INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION AND CURRICULUM

In 1986, NASPAA identified three levels of computer literacy that PA programs must provide: computing appreciation, use, and management (NASPAA, 1986; Kraemer and Northrop, 1989). Specifically, NASPAA recommended that PA programs deliver such IT courses as introduction to computing; computer applications for public managers; management of computers and information systems; analysis and design of information systems; organizational and social impacts of information systems; and information systems projects. In recognition of the differences between private and public sector MIS, NASPAA recommended that PA programs develop their own IT curriculum to respond adequately to emerging IT-intensive task environments (Bozeman and Bretschneider, 1986; NASPAA, 1986). A NASPAA ad hoc committee on the subject also recommended integrating IT knowledge and skills into traditional courses in the PA curriculum.

NASPAA guidelines in 1997 proposed strategic information resource management (IRM), IRM planning methodologies, information policy, and IRM internships (Brown and Brudney, 1998). Kim and Layne (2001) proposed adding e-government issues to the current curriculum and creating an advanced e-government curriculum. Jennings (2002) insisted that e-government be integrated into courses throughout the PA curriculum, depending on specific settings. More recently, Dawes (2004) has suggested that five IT competencies are needed for successful public managers: strategic thinking and evaluation, systems-oriented analytical skills, information stewardship, technology concepts, and complex project management.

These scholars uniformly recommend that special attention be given to the organizational, political, social, and cultural aspects of IT rather than strict attention to the technical ones. Such an integrated socio-technical view, despite variations in emphases, has come to dominate IT education in PA programs (see Bostrom and Heinen, 1977, Kraemer, Dutton, and Northrop, 1981; Bozeman and Bretschneider, 1986; Norris, 2003). Although two decades old, NASPAA's 1986 guidelines were far-reaching in drawing a comprehensive picture of IT education that is consistent with extant sociotechnical perspectives and thus still valid as a whole. The fundamental questions relating to IT and public affairs education remain essentially unchanged, although specific skill sets and applications and pending issues have varied across countries over time (Pavlichev, 2004).

#### DATA AND METHODS

This paper principally examines undergraduate-level IT education in the PA programs of South Korean universities,<sup>5</sup> because Korean PA education has focused more on undergraduate than graduate programs. PA programs in two-year colleges and police administration departments were excluded from the

analysis. We investigated IT course offerings, IT faculty members, and the establishment of PA programs. IT faculty members here are defined as those who majored in IT-related fields (e.g., PMIS and GIS) or who explicitly identified their specialties in the IT field. We classified IT instructors by looking at their curriculum vitae, publications, and reputation.<sup>6</sup>

We first examined the existing literature to trace historical changes in PA programs, with a focus on IT curriculum and instructors. The literature includes several articles published in *Korean Public Administration Review* (KPAR), the PA program list produced at Korea University, and a germane brochure issued by the Korean Association of Public Administration (KAPA) in 1997.<sup>7</sup> Our Web research utilized search engines (Simmani, Google, Yahoo, Lycos, and Naver) to identify 105 PA programs from a total of 215 universities as of December 2002. The list is comprehensive insofar as all of these universities have Web-available information of interest to our research; findings from the Web research were consistent with the existing literature.<sup>8</sup> Finally, we corresponded with instructors in Korea to confirm recent trends in e-government and information policy subjects.

We have grouped IT subjects offered in Korean PA programs into four categories based on course titles. Specific titles might vary slightly across programs, and specific topics addressed under the same title may differ depending on programs and instructors. These four groups are labeled as electronic data processing systems (EDPS), public management information systems (PMIS), information policy, and electronic government (e-government).<sup>9</sup> No PA program offered or required subjects such as systems analysis and design, database management systems (DBMS), geographic information systems (GIS), or computer programming (e.g., C and Java), even though these topics might be sporadically touched upon in the four categories. We have excluded highly IT-integrated subjects such as data analysis (statistics) and management science (operations research). Table 1 illustrates how the Korean IT courses we have classified correspond to American courses.

Table 1. Comparison of Korean and American IT Courses

Korean IT Courses (2002)	American IT Courses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Electronic data processing systems (EDPS)</li> <li>- Public management information systems (PMIS)</li> <li>- Information policy</li> <li>- Electronic government</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Introduction to computing (NASPAA, 1986)</li> <li>- Computer applications for public managers (NASPAA, 1986)</li> <li>- Management of computers and information systems (NASPAA, 1986)</li> <li>- Organizational and social impacts (NASPAA, 1986); Information policy (Brown and Brudney, 1998)</li> <li>- Electronic government (Kim and Layne, 2001)</li> </ul>

IT courses and instructors were analyzed according to geographic regions and types of institutions (private versus public). Provinces and cities were geographically grouped into six regions: Seoul Metropolitan, Gyeonggi (Incheon), Gyeongsang, Jeolla, Chungcheong, and Gangwon (Jeju) provinces. Note that the population and economy are largely concentrated in Seoul Metropolitan and Gyeonggi (Incheon).

**FINDINGS**

As of 2002, there were 105 PA programs in 97 universities, including local campuses.<sup>10</sup> Eighty-six percent of PA programs (N=84) offered at least one IT course, and about 52 percent (N=44) of them were located in Seoul Metropolitan and the Gyeongsang province (Table 2). The 78 private PA programs, accounting for 74 percent of the total, outnumbered 27 public programs.

**Table 2. PA Programs by Region (2002)**

PA programs	Gangwon (Jeju)	Gyeongsang	Seoul	Gyeonggi (Incheon)	Jeolla	Chungcheong	Total*
Total PA programs	8	26	25	14	14	18	105 (78)
PA programs with IT courses	5	22	22	12	11	12	84 (61)

\* Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of private PA programs.

**Table 3. IT Courses in 98 PA Programs by Region (2002)**

IT Subjects	Gangwon (Jeju)	Gyeongsang	Seoul	Gyeonggi (Incheon)	Jeolla	Chungcheong	Total*	%
EDPS	1	2	3	2	3	3	14 (9)	10.4
PMIS	5	22	19	12	11	11	80 (57)	59.7
Info. Policy	1	10	11	1	2	1	26 (20)	19.4
E-GOV	2	3	4	3	—	2	14 (11)	10.4
Total	9	37	37	18	16	17	134(97)	100.0

Note: Excluded were seven PA programs whose curricula were not available on the Web.

\*Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of IT courses offered in private PA programs.

*PMIS Dominates IT Education*

PMIS, first offered by Moon Suk Ahn at Korea University in 1982, has been widely adopted and recognized as a core subject in Korean PA programs. It accounted for 60 percent (N=80) of a total of 134 IT courses (Table 3). Seventy-six percent (N=74) of PA programs, or three out of four, offered at least one PMIS. Ninety percent (N=76) of the PA programs that offered at least one IT course had a PMIS or EDPS.

Seoul Metropolitan and Gyeongsang province held 55 percent (N=74) of the total IT courses, indicating significant regional differences (Figure 1). Unlike other subjects, PMIS was widely and proportionally distributed across the country. Private PA programs accounted for 72 percent (N=97) of all the IT courses, offering an average of 1.33 IT courses, slightly less than 1.48 of the public counterpart.

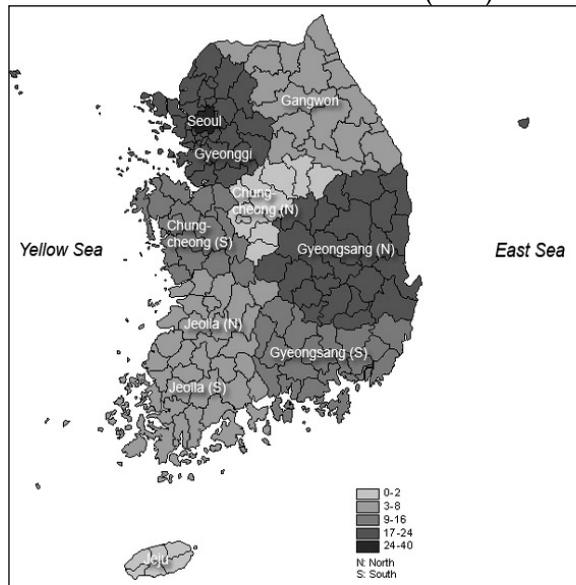
Tables 3 and 4 suggest that the IT curricula of PA programs lack topical balance and are “thin” in their number of IT course offerings. Most IT courses (70 percent) were EDPS and PMIS, whose components might overlap to some extent. The remaining 30 percent (N=40) were e-government and various information policy courses. However, it was not until the late 1990s that PA programs began to teach these new IT subjects. Furthermore, 70 percent (N=28) of e-government and information policy courses have been offered in Seoul Metropolitan and Gyeongsang province. As mentioned earlier, no PA program has offered systems analysis and design, DBMS, or GIS, as some American MPA programs have.

Seventy-seven percent (N=75) of 98 PA programs have had one or two IT courses, whereas only 9 percent (N=9) have offered three or more IT courses (Table 4).<sup>11</sup> Among the nine programs with a rich IT curriculum, seven are located in Seoul Metropolitan and Gyeongsang province; only one was public, and four did not have any full-time IT instructor. These observations consistently reveal an unbalanced and sparse Korean IT education that, we contend, is closely related to the lack of IT instructors.

*Lack of IT Faculty Members*

There were a total of 652 faculty members, an average of 6.21, in the 105 PA programs in 2002 (Table 5). We identi-

Figure 1. Regional Distribution of 134 IT Courses: Unbalanced and “Thin” IT Curriculum (2002)



fied 30 full-time IT instructors in the 105 PA programs, an average of .29 per program, accounting for 4.6 percent of total instructors.<sup>12</sup> These IT instructors were, however, in charge of 134 IT courses, with an average of 4.47 courses per instructor. Seoul Metropolitan alone accounted for 37 percent (N=11) of IT instructors. There was no significant difference in the number of IT instructors between the private and public PA programs.

In 2002, Seoul Metropolitan and Gyeonggi (Incheon), on average, had fewer than four IT courses per IT instructor, whereas Jeolla and Chungcheong provinces had more than eight courses per instructor (Table 5). It seems inevitable that most PA programs without sufficient IT instructors have had to rely on part-time IT instructors and concentrate mainly on PMIS. Also, these PA programs were less likely to develop various IT subjects and to offer all IT courses on a regular basis.

Table 4. PA Programs According to the Number of IT Courses (2002)

# of IT courses	Gangwon (Jeju)	Gyeong-sang	Seoul	Gyeonggi (Incheon)	Jeolla	Chung-cheong	Total*	%
None	3	3	3	1	1	3	14 (12)	14.3
1	1	13	11	7	6	8	46 (36)	46.9
2	4	6	7	4	5	3	29 (17)	30.0
3	—	3	4	1	—	1	9 (8)	9.2
Total	8	25	25	13	12	15	98 (73)	100.0

Note: Excluded were seven PA programs whose curricula were not available on the Web.

\*Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of private PA programs.

Table 5. Full-time IT Instructors by Region (2002)

Full-time faculty	Gangwon (Jeju)	Gyeong-sang	Seoul	Gyeonggi (Incheon)	Jeolla	Chung-cheong	Total
Full-time faculty	51	155	189	75	79	103	652
Faculty per program	6.38	5.96	7.56	5.36	5.64	5.72	6.21
IT faculty members	3	6	11	6	2	2	30
IT faculty per program	.38	.23	.44	.43	.14	.11	.29
IT courses/IT faculty	3.00	6.17	3.36	3.00	8.00	8.50	4.47

*Summary*

IT education in Korean PA programs grew rapidly as a core component in the PA curriculum during the 1990s. Included as a required subject in the CSEG5, PMIS has swept through IT education in PA programs. Since the late 1990s, IT course offerings such as e-government and information policy have grown quickly in number. However, the IT curriculum has focused on a narrow range of IT topics—in particular PMIS—that were closely related to the CSEG5. Most PA programs offer one or two IT courses, resulting in a “thin” IT education, as previously suggested. In addition, the number of IT instructors has increased very slowly compared to the growth of IT courses.

How can we explain this peculiar diffusion of the Korean IT education? What were its driving forces?

WHAT DROVE THE DIFFUSION OF IT EDUCATION?

Three forces have directly and indirectly contributed to the diffusion of IT education in Korean PA programs: the National Information Infrastructure Projects, the Civil Service Examination for Grade Five, and the new College Entrance Policy.

*National Information Infrastructure Projects (NIIPs)*

Beginning in the late 1970s, the Korean government implemented a series of National Information Infrastructure Projects (NIIPs): the Administration Computerizing Project (1978-1986), the National Information Infrastructure Project (1987-1996), the Information Superhighway Infrastructure Project (1995-2000), and the Administration Informatizing Project (1996-2006) (MIC, 2003; Kim and Choi, 2001). During the past two decades, these NIIPs not only have dramatically improved wire/wireless telecommunications and Internet infrastructure, but also have developed the Korean IT industry enormously.

Telephone subscribers increased from four million in 1982 to 15 million in 1992 and to 33 million in 2002, an annual growth rate of 11 percent (MIC, 1991, 1993, 2003) (Table 6). Wireless telecommunication subscribers increased explosively from three million in 1996 to 33 million in 2002, an annual growth rate of 48 percent. Since the late 1980s, PC communication users have also continuously increased in number along with the private bulletin board system (BBS) boom that broadened the pool of Internet users long before the World Wide Web (www) became popular. PC penetration increased annually by 24 percent to reach approximately 50 percent in 2002. In addition, there were about 21,200 “PC Bangs” (or Internet cafés) that allowed citizens to enjoy Web surfing and PC games (<http://kosis.nso.go.kr/>).

Kim Dae-Jung’s administration (1998-2002) launched a strong initiative for Internet-based public services, and the Presidential Special Committee of Electronic Government opened the Korean e-government portal ([http://](http://kosis.nso.go.kr/)

//www.egov.go.kr) in 2002. A series of IT-related laws have been enacted since 1996.<sup>13</sup> The Korean government also invested more than nine billion dollars between 1998 and 2002 for nationwide informatization (MIC, 2003). The completion of the information superhighway infrastructure in 1998 persuaded the citizenry to access the high-speed Internet at offices as well as at home. Internet users were estimated to be one million in 1996 and 26 million in 2002, an annual growth rate of 82 percent (Table 6). In particular, the number of broadband Internet subscribers exploded from 14,000 in 1998 to 10 million in 2002, marking a skyrocketing annual growth rate of 422 percent. In 2002, Korea ranked third in terms of the number of Internet users per 1,000 people among the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (NCA, 2003). About half of the total population was wired to the Internet.

Wire/wireless telephones and the Internet have become indispensable to Korean life. Being familiar with IT and its applications has enriched the sense of belonging to Korean society. This knowledge has created a common language group to which citizens belong (Lee, 2003). This unique Korean culture expedited the wide and rapid spread of telecommunications and the Internet during the 1990s. As a result, citizens generally recognized the key role of IT and its applications in the information era. Public managers, PA scholars, and students have also turned their attention to the Internet and e-government. Knowledge and skills in IT have become essential for careers in government.

**Table 6. IT Indices of Korean Information Infrastructure, 1996-2002 (Thousand)**

<i>IT Indices</i>	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	Growth (%)
Telephone subscribers	19,691	20,959	20,725	22,861	24,355	32,147	32,975	9.0
Wireless subscribers <sup>a</sup>	3,131	6,910	13,982	23,443	27,541	29,046	32,524	47.7
PC comm. users	1,568	3,131	4,870	8,803	16,807	17,101	16,453	48.0
PC penetration	6,304	6,931	8,270	11,530	18,620	21,500	22,490	23.6
Internet users	731	1,634	3,103	10,860	19,040	24,380	26,270	81.7
Broadband Internet <sup>b</sup>	—	—	14	365	3,870	7,806	10,405	422.1

Source: MIC, 2003; NCA, 2003.

<sup>a</sup>Cellular + PCS + IMT-2000 subscribers; <sup>b</sup>DSL + Cable modem + LAN + Satellite subscribers

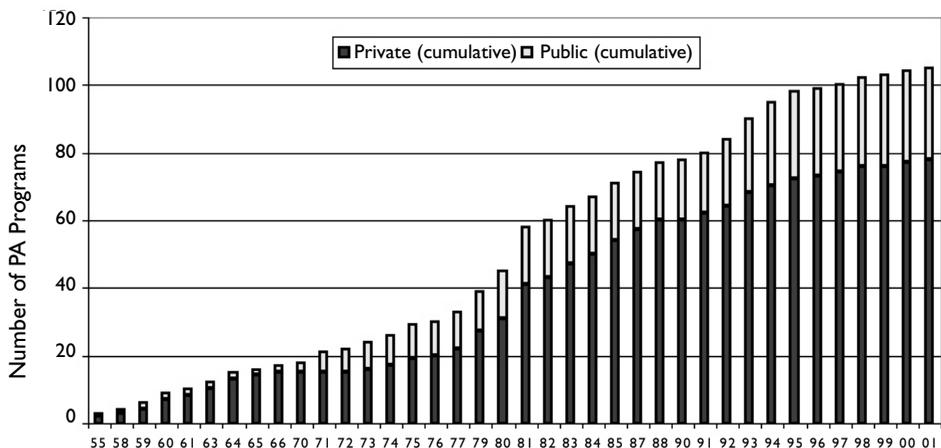
In sum, the NIIPs have boosted IT industry and changed perceptions and attitudes concerning IT and its applications. Citizens have come to realize that IT literacy has become a core competency in a new environment in which Internet-connected computers are highly accessible across the country. Government has had an increasing need for IT-knowledgeable public managers, and PA students have wanted to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills in PA programs. Consequently, PA programs have had to provide IT education and training to meet this new demand. The NIIPs also have provided PA scholars with financial incentives and opportunities, motivating them to become involved in IT research and the development of IT courses. In this congenial climate for IT, PMIS has become a required subject of the open competitive civil service examination.

*Civil Service Examination for Grade Five (CSEG5)*

Another important driving force for IT courses has been the Civil Service Examination for Grade Five (CSEG5), which has been very attractive to students who want to be public managers in powerful positions. Because of substantial benefits for successful examinees, the CSEG5 has been extremely competitive. Most students have chosen PA programs largely because they believe that the programs can provide efficient ways to prepare for the CSEG5. In other words, the CSEG5 has affected students' decisions to select certain departments and universities over others. Thus, universities have had strong incentives to establish PA programs capable of recruiting many students. It is notable that 20 percent (N=21) of a total of 105 PA programs were established between 1990 and 1995, when PMIS remained a requirement in the CSEG5 (Figure 2).

Which particular subjects are included in the CSEG5 has had a substantial impact on the PA curriculum. Major PA courses correspond precisely to subjects of

Figure 2. Growth in the Establishment of Korean PA Programs



Source: Yoon (1987), Lee, Jung, and Kim (1990), and Web research.

the CSEG5.<sup>14</sup> Until the mid-1990s, PA programs had rushed to offer PMIS or its equivalent, because PMIS had become a required subject in the first round examination of the CSEG5 in 1988.<sup>15</sup> A corresponding push, particularly for e-government and information policy, occurred in the late 1990s when the government was considering one IT subject for the CSEG5. As a consequence, there was a substantial increase in average number of IT courses in the four years since 1998.<sup>16</sup> There were 51 IT courses in the 68 PA programs surveyed in 1998, an average of .75 per program (Kim, 1998). By 2002, 98 PA programs offered 134 IT courses, an average of 1.37. Universities and PA programs could benefit from offering IT courses that attracted many CSEG5 examinees who would otherwise choose other universities or find private tutoring institutes.

In brief, inclusion of PMIS in the CSEG5 not only accelerated the establishment of PA programs, but it also drove PA programs to add IT courses to their curricula. Although PMIS became an optional subject in the second round examination of the CSEG5 in 1996, it continued to create a bandwagon effect in IT education. As Ahn (1991) concluded, the diffusion of IT courses in Korean PA programs, particularly PMIS, was directly stimulated by the CSEG5.

#### *New College Entrance Policy*

The new College Entrance Policy (CEP) that became effective in 1999 also prompted and facilitated the development of new IT courses, specifically e-government and various information policy subjects. The CEP allows students to select their departmental major at the end of their sophomore year. This new policy has created competition for survival among such departments as political science, economics, and sociology (Kim, 1998). If a department failed to recruit a sufficient number of students, it could lose its student quota or even be closed down. Consequently, PA departments faced an urgent need to make their programs more attractive, in order to maintain their student enrollments.

A couple of observations indicate the impact of the new CEP. First, the number of IT courses per program approximately doubled within four years, jumping from .75 in 1998 to 1.37 in 2002 (Kim, 1998). Second, most e-government and information policy courses (78 percent) were offered in private PA programs, whose flexibility made it relatively easy to add new IT subjects quickly. Finally, PA programs, promoted by the e-government project, strategically developed e-government courses, hoping that the subject would soon become a new requirement of the CSEG5. E-government and information policy seemed quite appealing to students who would pursue future government jobs.

Kim and Choi's (2001) analysis of IT-related articles indirectly, but dramatically, illustrates how the NIIPs, the CSEG5, and the CEP affected the diffusion of IT education. The fluctuation in the number of IT-related articles published

in *Korean Public Administration Review* (KPAR) and *Korean Policy Studies Review* (KPSR) corresponds by and large to the just-recounted series of germane events that occurred during the 1990s. Interestingly, more articles were published in the early and late 1990s, with fewer articles in the middle (Table 7). This finding contrasts markedly with IT-related articles in *Public Administration Review* (PAR) during the same period that show no apparent correlative pattern.

DISCUSSION

This section discusses the academic institutional isomorphism between the adoption IT courses in Korean PA programs and the unfolding of challenging issues of IT education as characterized in the preceding analysis.

*Academic Institutional Isomorphism*

Largely due to the NIIPs and the CSEG5, citizens and students take it for granted that PA programs will provide apt IT education and training. IT education has become a so-called institutional rule that people consider proper, adequate, and necessary in PA programs (Meyer and Rowan, 1977). PA programs in effect had to abide by this rule in order to maintain legitimacy for survival. The leading scholars in Seoul Metropolitan, with its superior education resources, established an “implicit standard” for instructional materials and components of IT courses. This standard became a source of good practice for followers or late-adopters who were confronted with uncertainty in IT education. Most PA programs without sufficient resources and IT faculty have tended to model what leading scholars have been doing. It is not surprising, for instance, that the pioneering PMIS textbook written by Ahn (1989) has been widely used in PA programs. This diffusion of IT education can thus be viewed as an institutional isomorphism based on a mimetic process (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983).

However, there appears to have been less concern with the availability of IT instructors and the quality of IT education. Universities and PA programs appear to have focused more on advertising their IT courses offerings rather than on the quality of their IT education. What PA programs have needed most is to convince students of their merits in helping them prepare for the CSEG5.

Table 7. IT-Related Articles Published in the Major PA Journals

Journal	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	00	Total
KPAR	11	5	1	3	2		2	1	4	3	6	39
KPSR*	-	-	-	1	1		1	4	9	2	4	22
Total	11	5	1	4	3		3	5	13	5	10	61
PAR	3	1	1	1	2	2	2		2			14

Source: Adapted from Kim and Choi (2001) and Northrop (1999)

\*Korean Association of Policy Studies (KAPS) published the first issue of KPSR in 1993.

In this vein, recently added IT subjects such as e-government and information policy courses have seemed exercises in academic and marketing rhetoric. It is likely that these IT subjects, despite various titles, have fundamentally addressed the same topics, have been taught by the same instructors, and/or have not been offered regularly. The gap between the published IT curriculum and actual IT education has come from isomorphism with legitimated institutional rules, rather than stemming from the real availability of IT instructors and quality IT education. Nonetheless, PMIS and other IT courses have generally enriched the PA curriculum and satisfied students and PA programs.

#### *Double-edged CSEG5*

The CSEG5 has substantially influenced the diffusion of IT courses, in particular PMIS until the mid-1990s and e-government since the late 1990s. Ironically, however, the greatest barrier to minimizing the gap between aspiration and reality in IT education has also been the CSEG5. The PMIS section of the CSEG5 has tested examinees' conceptual understandings of IT but rarely their practical abilities in using IT applications. In order to prepare for the "memory-testing" examination, examinees need only to practice multiple choice questions about IT jargon without knowing what the terms actually mean.<sup>17</sup>

As such, PA programs have not had a strong incentive to emphasize practical aspects of IT education. Most IT courses have focused on conceptual aspects likely to appear on the examination. The technical and practical subjects such as systems analysis and design, DBMS, and GIS have rarely been offered in Korean PA programs. By the same token, students have been unwilling to take these courses and have not taken them—even if offered—because such skills and practical knowledge are not necessarily helpful for the CSEG5. On the one hand, the CSEG5 has played a key role in diffusing IT education, but, on the other hand, it has prevented PA programs from balancing conceptual and practical IT education. In short, the CSEG5 has been a double-edged sword for IT education in Korean PA programs.

#### *A Bias Toward PMIS*

IT courses have become popular in PA programs since the late 1980s. However, IT education has been limited to some subjects closely related to the CSEG5. Despite e-government and information policy emerging since the late 1990s, PMIS has dominated IT education in PA programs so far. PA programs have seemed to be more interested in adding PMIS coursework or its equivalent, regardless of how appropriately these subjects are taught. This bias toward PMIS has been closely related to the dependence on the CSEG5, lack of IT instructors, and lesser willingness to collaborate with other disciplines.

First, the PA curriculum has been influenced by the CSEG5 and, accordingly, IT education has centered on PMIS that was tested in the CSEG5. Most IT

courses have relied on only one or two textbooks written by the leading scholars in Seoul Metropolitan, who have frequently served as examiners of PMIS in the CSEG5. This dominance of PMIS has produced an unbalanced and sparse IT education.

Second, the number of IT instructors is insufficient. This problem, of course, is not unique to Korea, but it is common to some extent in other countries (Kiel, 1986). As we noted earlier, in 2002, a total of 30 IT faculty members were in charge of 134 IT courses, an average of 4.47. This lack of full-time and part-time IT instructors inhibited PA programs from offering various IT courses. Furthermore, more than half of the IT faculty members taught in Seoul Metropolitan and Gyeonggi (Incheon). As a result, most PA programs, particularly in local regions, had no choice but to depend on part-time instructors and/or not to offer IT courses regularly.

Finally, PA programs, despite their interdisciplinary nature, appear not to collaborate actively with other disciplines such as information science, computer science, and telecommunications. Business schools, for instance, have aggressively adopted subjects from other disciplines to develop the management information systems (or MIS) concentration that includes various IT courses such as telecommunications, DBMS, and computer programming in its curriculum. In contrast, the PA program has taken a relatively passive attitude toward adopting and developing IT courses. Disciplines have, at least to some extent, a tendency for their scholars to lock themselves into their own discipline, making collaboration more unlikely. This tendency, of course, varies across disciplines and countries.<sup>18</sup> Like business schools, PA programs need to collaborate actively with other disciplines. This interdisciplinary collaboration would facilitate empirical research on the organizational impacts and management implications of IT, which is indispensable for developing applicable theories and methods.

### *Conclusion*

Information technology education in Korean PA programs has grown dramatically since the early 1980s, making public management information systems (PMIS) one of the core subjects in the PA curriculum. PA programs developed e-government and various information policy subjects during the late 1990s. However, IT courses and instructors have been unequally distributed across regions and concentrated in Seoul Metropolitan. We found no statistically significant difference in the number of IT courses and instructors between private and public programs. The PA program has suffered from a bias toward PMIS, unbalanced and thin IT education, and a lack of IT instructors.

Three major driving forces have contributed to the rapid and country-wide diffusion of IT education in Korean PA programs. First, a series of National Information Infrastructure Projects (NIIPs) have provided PA scholars with strong financial incentives, attracting them to IT research and education. The projects

have also changed perceptions about IT and telecommunications, making IT education in PA programs a feature of public affairs education that is taken for granted. Second, the Civil Service Examination for Grade Five (CSEG5) decisively affected the diffusion of IT education by including PMIS as a required subject in the first round examination. Third, the new College Entrance Policy (CEP), because it boosted competition among academic departments and disciplines, forced PA programs to make their curricula more appealing to students.

These three factors have transformed the external environments of Korean PA programs and thus contributed to the diffusion of IT education. In order to survive in a transformed institutional and social context, PA programs have had to adapt their curricula. In the meantime, the leading PA programs and IT scholars, particularly in Seoul Metropolitan, have provided an exemplary model (particularly in regard to curriculum and textbooks) that followers could imitate in order to obtain institutional legitimacy.

We concur with Brown and Brudney (1998), who concluded that PA programs must broaden IT course offerings. In response to developments such as digital convergence and interactive communication, IT courses need to introduce such emerging technologies as wire/wireless telecommunications and GIS. E-government, for example, may not be productive without a basic appreciation of systems analysis and design, telecommunication, and GIS.<sup>19</sup> IT education also needs to maintain a balance between the technical aspects of IT and its managerial, political, and social dimensions. Given resource limitations, however, it seems inevitable for the time being that PA programs will depend on other departments, such as ones in business administration, for some IT courses; greater interdisciplinary collaboration rather than simply expedient reliance on other disciplines would better serve IT and PA education.

More effort needs to be devoted to enhancing theoretical and methodological rigor in IT research.<sup>20</sup> In particular, Korean IT education should be more practical so that students are able to acquire specific skills and knowledge along with a solid understanding of the wider implications of IT and its applications. For practical learning, internships in government or the nonprofit sector have been frequently recommended (Lee, Jung, and Kim, 1990; Kim, 1998; Brown and Brudney, 1998; Dawes, 2004). Of course, more qualified IT instructors should be recruited to develop diverse IT courses and enhance the quality of IT education.

Finally, it is important to understand that the most crucial element of the PA curriculum is the civil service recruitment system. The formats and individual subjects of the CSEG5 should be improved so that examinees' practical IT knowledge can be properly tested (Lee, Jung, and Kim, 1990). In this regard, open-position recruitment needs to be expanded in order to hire competent public managers and specialists from universities and the private sector.

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## NOTES

1. This paper prefers information technology (IT) to information and communication technology (ICT). As technologies converge, many PA scholars, in an attempt to emphasize interactivity and two-way (tele)communication technologies, seem to be more comfortable with ICT rather than IT (Bellamy and Taylor, 1998). We examine, however, historical changes in general IT education without any predilection for communication issues. It should be noted, however, that the concept of stagewise innovation-diffusion on which this paper relies was pioneered by Everett M. Rogers in the context of communications theory.
2. Not all IT courses were officially required, but most PA students took IT courses, in particular PMIS, at least for their career. Thus, PMIS was virtually required in Korean PA programs.
3. Forty-five percent of the highest ranked 20 MPA programs had e-government or IT concentration and 50 percent referred PA students to other departments for taking IT courses (Pavlichev, 2004).
4. About half of the survey respondents preferred the integration of IT courses into the existing curriculum and did not believe that IT courses should become a requirement for MPA students (Kiel, 1986). Fifty-seven percent of PA programs in 1989, 70 percent in 1995, and 79 percent in 1998 integrated computer knowledge and skills into such courses as data analysis, management science, and financial management (Brudney, Hy, and Waugh, 1993; Waugh et al., 1995; Brown and Brudney, 1998).
5. The exception is the Graduate School of Public Administration at Seoul National University, which does not have an undergraduate program.
6. Some PA programs did not provide faculty curriculum vitae and publications. Thus, the number of IT faculty members here is considered a conservative measure.

7. See <http://www.korea.ac.kr/~igskorea/office/department.html> (Accessed March 1, 2003).
8. However, seven PA programs either did not have workable Web sites or did not provide their course offerings through the Internet; so, they were excluded in analyzing IT courses. The exclusion does not seem to affect the analysis substantially, because they were not known as outliers in terms of education resources.
9. We classify information processing, administration and computer, and practice in information management/computing as EDPS. PMIS includes MIS and government information systems. Information policy includes telecommunication policy, internet and telecommunication, and knowledge management in information society. PA programs use almost the same course title for e-government. Despite this grouping, there must be a blurring of boundaries, especially between PMIS and information policy/e-government.
10. Six programs were established at local campuses, and two universities have two PA programs with different names. These programs were treated as an independent department for the purpose of analysis.
11. In 1995, 18 percent of American MPA programs offered only one IT course, while 38 percent had two courses and another 38 percent offered three courses (Waugh et al., 1995).
12. Waugh et al. (1995) reported, in contrast, that three out of four American MPA programs had IT faculty members. Eighty percent responded "not difficult at all" to recruit faculty with an IT specialty, while only one percent answered "very difficult."
13. Examples include the Information Facilitation Basic Law of 1996, the Digital Signature Law of 1999, the Electronic Transaction Law of 1999, the Knowledge Information Resource Management Law of 2000, and the Electronic Government Act of 2001.
14. Kim (1998) reported that the 68 PA programs offered on average 2.74 law subjects, 2.26 local administration, 2.06 principles of public administration, and 1.99 policy studies. Constitutional law and administrative law were required in the CSEG5, while the remaining three subjects were optional. IT course (PMIS) ranked 14<sup>th</sup> with an average of .75.
15. Yoon (1987) placed EDPS/PMIS at the bottom of the list of subjects that less than 25 percent of PA programs offered in 1986. Lee, Jung, and Kim (1990) reported that eight PA programs have EDPS/PMIS; that is, 35 percent of the 23 programs surveyed in 1989. Kim (1998) found that 68 PA programs offer an average of .75 IT courses. We estimated that about 68 percent of PA programs offered IT courses, assuming 1.1 courses per program with IT courses.
16. Because many PA programs at that time offered EDPS/PMIS, the increase since the late 1990s seemed largely due to e-government and various information policy subjects.
17. Some questions on the first PMIS exam, for instance, asked about IT terminologies such as MODEM (Modulator-demodulator) and fourth-generation computer languages.
18. For instance, about 87 percent (72/83) of the articles published in KPAR in 2004 were written by PA scholars, while only 45 percent (27/60) were in PAR. Non-PA scholars including practitioners accounted for 6 percent (N=5) in KPAR and 32 percent (N=19) in PAR. Collaboration of PA and Non-PA scholars held 7 percent (N=6) and 23 percent (N=14), respectively.
19. E-government courses offered in the 20 MPA programs covered a small portion of the technical aspects: data mining and DB management (6 percent), GIS (6 percent), and others (7 percent) (Pavlichev, 2004).
20. Despite the positive effects on IT research and education in PA programs, NIIPs also had an adverse effect in that research became project- rather than theory-oriented, with an emphasis on supporting national projects (Kim and Choi, 2001).

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# Comparative Program-Performance Evaluation and Government Accountability in New Mexico— Some Applied Lessons for Intergovernmental Relations

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## ABSTRACT

In *Strategies for Using State Information: Measuring and Improving Program Performance* (2003), Shelley Metzenbaum poses a series of “key questions” about the federal-state performance reporting relationship. Metzenbaum asks whether there should be a uniform accountability system across the American states and whether it should be required of the states by the federal government. Ancillary questions include what uses should be made of state performance information and whether federal agencies should publicly report such information.

These questions are important in light of the burgeoning performance-management movement in contemporary public administration. The extension of performance measurement and reporting systems to state governments is largely due to the impact on states of the federal Government Performance and Results Act of 1993 (GPRA), and generally to the ascendancy of new public management perspectives in governmental practice.

The experience of the State of New Mexico with regard to intergovernmental performance reporting in recent years, under both Republican and Democratic gubernatorial administrations, suggests that closer integration of federal and state performance reporting is necessary, that more comprehensive performance-based systems (that include *comparative* performance measurement and strategic planning frameworks) are essential, and that new evaluative models are needed to address the sometimes cooperative and sometimes adversarial nature of intergovernmental relations. Lessons from the MPA classroom arising from these interrelated concerns and from the authors’ applied research with state government are addressed at the conclusion of this study.

## INTRODUCTION

Recent work bearing directly and indirectly on intergovernmental performance management has begun to provide an analytical framework for comparative performance measurement. Typical of this emerging body of work, in addition to Metzenbaum's *Strategies*, are the following:

- Agranoff's seminal network-theory research on comparative intergovernmental administration, for instance Agranoff and McGuire, *Collaborative Public Management: New Strategies for Local Governments* (2004), and Agranoff, "A New Look at the Value-Adding Functions of Intergovernmental Networks" (2003).
- *Comparative Performance Measurement*, by Elaine Morley, Scott Bryant, and Harry Hatry (2003).
- "Comparative Performance Measurement: Insights and Lessons Learned from a Consortium Effort," by Mary Kopczynski and Michael Lombardo (1999).

This body of research typically stresses the complex quality of performance accountability in the context of intergovernmental relations (IGR), the mutuality associated with *collaborative networks* and *communities of practice*, and the synergies that may be attained through cooperative efforts toward sustained performance and accountability in the public sector.

## PERFORMANCE ACCOUNTABILITY IN NEW MEXICO

The authors' experience with intergovernmental issues in New Mexico led them to raise their own questions for the performance accountability literature. These queries arise from Rivera's recent tenure as an advisor on performance management and budgeting to the State's Legislative Finance Committee, and Heady's earlier service as an advisor to New Mexico's Constitutional Revision Commission. Our questions were as follows:

- Is it possible to successfully implement performance-based accountability in state government absent strategic frameworks that are explicitly integrated with federal reporting requirements? Should such requirements be formalized in state statutes or even in amendments to state constitutions?
- Is it possible to adapt collaborative models to IGR when federal-state relations are constrained by asymmetries in information and authority?
- Could the gap between performance measurement and program evaluation be closed by folding evaluation's emphasis on causation into performance measurement?
- Could comparative performance measurement address substantive problems with program design and implementation? Would "comparative program-performance evaluation" (or simply "comparative performance evaluation") or other hybrid constructs help in this regard?

The authors have been addressing these questions as in *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective* (seventh edition, Taylor and Francis, in progress, with Marc Holzer as the third coauthor), particularly as they pertain to the incorporation of comparative performance measurement (CPM) in the corpus of comparative public administration theory and practice. Although performance measurement, and in particular its comparative variant, have matured as analytical tools, serious challenges remain. These include, prominently, the following concerns:

- While CPM stresses evaluative comparison, or comparative evaluation, across divisions or programs of the same or similarly situated organizations, state performance management is most often marked by “stove-pipe” assessments conditioned by GPRA and related federal reporting criteria, such as those found, prototypically, in Workforce Investment Act (WIA) and Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) programs. These are themes struck in Metzenbaum’s work in particular.
- While the collaborative-network literature, prominently Agranoff’s research, highlights the mutualistic quality and synergistic potential of collaboration, the federal-state relationship around performance accountability is inconsistent. That relationship oscillates between the high level of mutuality found in communities of practice to the gaming and resistance typical of an adversarial and politicized relationship.

As already suggested, a hybrid construct emphasizing not only comparison but also evaluation, one addressing causal features of the intergovernmental relationship, might come closer to doing justice to the vicissitudes of the contemporary intergovernmental relationship than mere performance measurement. A hybrid approach might be better able to address the wide range of federal roles Metzenbaum identifies, from *prescription* (GPRA, WIA, IDEA) to *influence*, and from adversarial positioning to collaborative partnership.

From 1994 to 1995, Heady, as senior advisor to the State of New Mexico’s Constitutional Revision Commission, was among the experts who recommended the enactment of a state counterpart to GPRA. The Accountability in Government Act (AGA) of 1999, amended in 2004, was the eventual result. Upon joining the Legislative Finance Committee (LFC) in 2003 in his own advisory role, Rivera set out address a major shortcoming of the AGA—one that could have been avoided if the State’s Legislative Council and the Legislature had more literally replicated essential features of GPRA in New Mexico’s AGA. At issue in particular was failure to include a requirement that state performance systems be embedded in strategic planning frameworks.

Although the AGA did call for a statewide performance-based budgeting, measurement, and reporting system, it failed at first to include the extensive strategic planning and reporting requirements that GPRA provides for federal agencies

and programs. In its original version, the AGA only required the rudiments of a strategic framework of state executive agencies, and it only required that strategic plans be specified in these executive agencies' first yearly report.

In July 2001, the State's Legislative Finance Committee (the audit staff agency for the legislators' standing committee of the same name) and the Department of Finance and Administration (DFA, the state counterpart to the Office of Management and Budget) entered into deliberations about whether the AGA should be amended to require ongoing reporting of strategic planning frameworks or whether an administrative option might be identified as a stopgap. An inter-agency working group led by then DFA Secretary James Jimenez (now Governor Bill Richardson's chief of staff) met during the fall of 2003 in anticipation of the January-to-February 2004 30-day legislative session (New Mexico alternates between 30- and 60-day annual sessions).

The DFA secretary determined that an administrative directive would fill the gap pending possible statutory amendment, requiring state executive agencies to report performance outcomes quarterly rather than yearly and asking them to characterize their strategic planning frameworks for performance measurement with every performance report to the DFA. The directive also allowed state agencies greater flexibility in reporting formats. During the 2004 legislative session, the AGA was in fact amended to define performance reporting more fully, to specify quarterly reports, and to require a brief annual synopsis of operative strategic frameworks.

In leading or coleading three major performance reviews for the LFC between 2003 and 2005, Rivera identified instances of misalignment between federal and state performance assessment mechanisms for (1) the state's teacher evaluation and licensure; (2) Fire Service performance reporting in relation to both state and federal accountability systems; and (3) the privatization of mental health and substance abuse services, through a newly formed New Mexico Behavioral Health Purchasing Collaborative. In several consultations, Rivera recommended the institution of a statutorily required system of performance assessment that would rely on (1) the amendment of the AGA (albeit a more thoroughgoing one than was enacted in 2004, and one more fully consistent with GPRA and other federal provisions), and (2) performance assessment predicated on mission-based strategic planning across all programs and agencies of the state executive branch.

Though separated by a decade, there were commonalities in the authors' efforts at helping reform accountability systems in New Mexico. Their work coincided in two ways:

1. in favoring statutory change aimed at creating *mission-based* performance accountability, and
2. in pressing for a more fully delineated model of programmatic and legislative evaluation commensurate with the complexity of the intergovernmental relationship.

As the authors pursued their work in Santa Fe, they brought their experience to the classroom and learned from their graduate students in the process. These lessons are considered in the concluding section below.

#### CONCLUSION: APPLICATIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

The previously outlined questions concerning IGR and accountability have been posed to master of public administration (MPA) students in the School of Public Administration at the University of New Mexico, especially in two courses: Comparative Public Administration and Performance Measurement. The students are given access on a class Web page (currently [www.unm.edu/marivera](http://www.unm.edu/marivera)) to previously noted Legislative Finance Committee studies, to dozens of primary and secondary documents used in their preparation, and to supportive documents from the state legislature, including fiscal impact assessments and drafts of legislation and agency directives. The intent is to provide students with experience in using both primary and secondary research resources. (Two students have in fact gone on to write their capstone professional papers using these extensive research materials.) About 90 percent of the MPA students at the university are practitioners or in-service students who bring considerable experience with state and local agencies and nonprofit organizations to their courses. The questions posed to them in the classroom are the same ones indicated this study, i.e., questions concerning the sufficiency of performance measurement methods and systems to their evaluative function and their adequacy to the full dimensionality of intergovernmental relations today.

One approach taken in these courses has been to focus instruction on strategically based value-added approaches to performance assessment, ones that broaden and deepen the functionality of performance assessment. In response, students have written on various comparative and value-added approaches to program performance evaluation. Typical efforts include assessments—

1. of intergovernmental collaboration in New Mexico, asking (as one student did in a class paper) whether divergent goals “can be brought together in a ‘coherent alignment’” by meeting the tests suggested by Mark Moore’s ‘strategic triangle’ (Moore, 1995, 70-71);
2. of the state’s Fire Protection Fund, using Web-posted documents, stressing the need to find reconciling aims in the state’s funding disbursement formulas;
3. of the state’s K-12 education programs (in relation to No Child Left Behind and teacher licensure in New Mexico), with proposals for moving away from scorecards toward substantive evaluation of the causal impact of schools, educational programs, and teachers on learning growth among students;

4. of youth workforce training programs in the state, questioning whether multiple streams of goals, objectives, and performance criteria coming from the federal and state departments of labor, the state legislature, and the Department of Finance and Administration could be made to cohere;
5. of behavioral health privatization in the state, with its multiple goals and network design, building on process elements of the *evaluability assessment* sequence first developed by Wholey (1983).

In the end, the emphasis on the part of students and faculty in these courses is on movement from the tracking and scoring concerns of performance measurement—comparative performance measurement included—toward more comprehensive questions about (a) intergovernmental alignment of strategic goals and objectives, and (b) the incorporation of causal analysis, traditionally proper to program evaluation, into performance measurement. The recommendation, again, is for hybrid forms of comparative performance evaluation.

These inquiries also consider what would make for movement from (a) conformity to federal performance directives among state legislatures and agencies, toward (b) greater cooperation, greater accountability based on policy and constitutional responsiveness, and more effective leadership. Consistent with criteria for civil service professionalism and leadership proposed by Heady (1996, 220), policy guidance and programmatic intervention on the part of state officials should build, first, on strategic awareness and articulation of mission, and, second, on identification with mission.

Finally, it is here indicated that only the probing questions associated with policy and program evaluation can overcome the limitations of performance measurement in intergovernmental contexts. As with all evaluation, performance assessment is inherently comparative, and more conscious attention to that comparative dimension is necessary in order to attain meaningful accountability.

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## People in Public Affairs

### University at Albany

**Jeffrey D. Straussman** has been appointed dean of the Rockefeller College of Public Affairs and Policy, succeeding **Frank Thompson**, who has returned to the faculty after serving as dean for more than 15 years. Straussman will also serve as a professor in the Department of Public Administration and Policy. Straussman previously taught at the Maxwell School at Syracuse University for more than 25 years and most recently was associate dean and department chair.

### American University

School of Public Affairs Professors **Daniel Dreisbach** and **Alan Levine** were awarded fellowships from the Madison Program in American Ideals and Institutions at Princeton University for the 2006–07 academic year. The fellowships promote teaching and scholarship in constitutional law and political thought.

Dreisbach, who teaches in the Department of Justice, Law, and Society, will be a William E. Simon Fellow in religion and public life at Princeton. Levine, a professor of political theory in the Department of Government, will be a visiting fellow in the Department of Politics.

Distinguished Professors **David Rosenbloom** and **Suzanne Piotrowski** were unanimously selected to receive the 2005 Best Article Award from the *American Review of Public Administration* for “Outsourcing the Constitution and Administrative Law Norms” (35(2):103-121).

### Augusta State University

**Augustine Hammond** joined the MPA faculty at Augusta State University in fall 2006. Originally from Ghana, Hammond is a graduate of the University of Akron and specializes in research methods. His research interests include evaluating the effectiveness of economic development efforts in developing nations.

### Arizona State University

**Debra Friedman**, formerly the associate provost for academic planning at the University of Washington, has joined ASU as dean of the College of Public Programs.

**Rick Shangraw** is the new executive director of ASU’s Decision Theater. Shangraw previously held a tenure-track appointment at the Maxwell School of

### Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University

**James Svava** has joined ASU's faculty as a professor of public administration and director of the Center for Urban Innovation. Svava previously was chair of the Department of Political Science and Public Administration at North Carolina State University.

New professor of practice and associate director of the School of Public Affairs **Martin Vanacour** is the former city manager of Glendale, Arizona, one of the largest cities in the Phoenix metropolitan area.

Associate Professor **Nan Ellin**, the author of *Postmodern Urbanism and Integral Urbanism*, will direct the School's new program in Urban and Metropolitan Studies.

Four new assistant professors have recently joined the faculty in the School of Public Affairs: **Khalid Al-Yahya**, from the University of Connecticut and Harvard University; **Billy Fasano**, from the University of Delaware, **Joanna Duke**, from the University of Texas–Arlington; and **Edgar Ramirez**, from Florida State University.

Distinguished scholars **Anne Schneider**, author of *Policy Design for Democracy* and *Deserving and Entitled*, and **Afsaneh Nahavandi**, author of *The Art and Science of Leadership*, have accepted affiliate appointments with the School of Public Affairs.

### Boise State University

After 16 years, **James Weatherby** has retired from his position as the director of the Public Policy Center in the Department of Public Policy and Administration at Boise State University. Professor **Stephanie Witt** is the new director of the Public Policy Center. Witt previously was the associate vice president for academic affairs at Boise State.

### Indiana University School of Public and Environmental Affairs

SPEA has made eight new faculty appointments. **Melissa A. L. Clark** has been appointed lecturer for the environmental science program. Clark works closely with the Indiana Clean Lakes Program on water resources and water quality.

**Burnell C. Fischer** has been appointed clinical professor. Fischer previously has served as president of the National Association of State Foresters and has worked with Congress, federal agencies, and NGOs on national forestry issues. Associate Professor **Todd V. Royer** is teaching in the areas of aquatic biogeochemistry and watershed processes, water quality, and the development of nutrient standards.

Clinical Professor **Christopher Hunt** is teaching international nonprofit administration with a focus on opera and other performing arts. Hunt is the former director of the *Alte Oper* in Frankfurt, Germany, and previously served as president of the British Association of Concert Agents.

**Michael McGuire** is a new associate professor teaching in the areas of intergovernmental and interorganizational collaboration and networks, federalism

and intergovernmental relations, and public management. Prior to his current appointment, McGuire served as director of the MPA program at the University of North Texas.

**Nicole C. Quon**, acting assistant professor, is teaching health policy and health politics. Associate Professor **Michael Rushton** is teaching cultural economics, policy and administration, nonprofit and public organizations and management, and tax policy.

**Henry K. Wakhungu**, full-time lecturer, is teaching courses related to the development of growth simulation models for sustainable management of indigenous community forests and experimental designs in tropical forestry research.

Professor Emeritus **Robert Agranoff** received the 2005 Daniel Elazar Distinguished Scholar Award from the American Political Science Association's Section on Federalism and Intergovernmental Relations, for contributions in intergovernmental relations and federalism. Professor **David Audretsch**, Ameritech Chair of Economic Development, received the Achievement in the 2006 Arts Award from Drew University in Madison, New Jersey.

**Lisa Blomgren Bingham**, a professor of policy specializing in conflict resolution, won the 2005 Best Book Award from the American Society for Public Administration Section on Environmental and Natural Resource Administration for *The Promise and Performance of Environmental Conflict Resolution*. Bingham also received the 2006 Jeffrey Z. Rubin Theory-to-Practice Award from the International Association for Conflict Management. Assistant professor **Sergio Fernandez** received the American Political Science Association's 2005 Leonard D. White Award for the best doctoral dissertation in the public administration field.

Professor **Kirsten Grønbjerg** was the recipient of the 2005 Award for Distinguished Achievement and Leadership in Nonprofit and Voluntary Action Research from the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA), given annually for distinguished lifetime achievement for significant and sustained contributions to the nonprofit and volunteer action research field through research and leadership.

Professor **Randall Baker** was named 2005 Distinguished Professor by New Bulgarian University, Sofia, for "outstanding theoretical and practical achievements in the field of social science and administration."

### University of Kentucky

**Juita-Elena (Wie) Yusuf**, a Ph.D. candidate in the Martin School, was selected to receive the Small Business Administration Office of Advocacy Best Doctoral Student Paper Award. Yusuf has also been named a dissertation fellowship recipient by the Ewing Kaufman Foundation. Yusuf's dissertation includes three essays on the policy design of entrepreneurship programs and initiatives that effectively encourage and support entrepreneurs, entrepreneurial organizations, and entrepreneurial activity.

**Scott Hankins** will be a visiting assistant professor in the Martin School this year. Hankins, who received his Ph.D. from the University of Florida, has research interests in health economics, public economics, and public policy.

#### Monterey Institute of International Studies

**William W. Monning, J.D.**, professor of international negotiation and conflict resolution at the Monterey Institute of International Studies and director of the Mandell-Gisnet Center for Conflict Management at the Monterey College of Law, was recently selected for a Fulbright Senior Specialists project in Chile at the University of Tarapaca. The award gave Monning an opportunity to provide training and instruction in negotiation, mediation, and conflict resolution to faculty, professionals, and students at the University of Tarapaca located in Arica, Chile during August 2006.

#### University of Nebraska–Omaha

**Arwiphawee Srithongrung** joined the School of Public Administration faculty in July. Srithongrung recently completed her DPA at the University of Illinois–Springfield. Her areas of teaching and research are public financial management, public budgeting, and public management.

**Jay White** was reappointed to a five-year renewal of the Elizabeth H. Reynolds and Beverly B. Reynolds Endowed Professorship in Public Affairs and Community Service. During the previous five years as Reynolds Professor, White served as a visiting professor at Thammasat University and Burapha University in Thailand and as a Fulbright Scholar at Leiden University in the Netherlands. White's new textbook, *Managing Information in the Public Sector* (M.E. Sharpe) is in press.

**John R. Bartle**, professor of public administration, was named director of the School of Public Administration. Bartle is also chair of the Association for Budgeting and Financial Management, the largest section of ASPA. In April he was elected to the ASPA National Council.

## News, Programs, and Opportunities

#### Radin Publishes New Book

**Beryl A. Radin**, American University School of Public Affairs Scholar-in-Residence, scrutinizes the assumptions of the performance movement in her new book, *Challenging the Performance Movement: Accountability, Complexity, and Democratic Values* (Georgetown University Press, June 2006). Radin argues that evaluation relies too often on one-size-fits-all solutions that are not always effective for dynamic organizations. Radin explores the complexities of creating performance evaluation standards and illustrates these problems by discussing a range of program areas, including the "No Child Left Behind" education program; she devotes particular attention to concerns about government standards.

In his 1948 book, *The Administrative State*, Dwight Waldo challenged the prevailing notion that the best government is achieved through principles of management and business practices. Nearly 60 years later, in *Revisiting Waldo's Administrative State: Constancy and Change in Public Administration* (Georgetown University Press, June 2006), American University School of Public Affairs Professors **Howard McCurdy** and **David H. Rosenbloom** examine the legacy of the scholar's work and look ahead to administrative solutions.

With essays by John Cadigan, Robert F. Durant, Patricia W. Ingraham, Donald F. Kettl, Norma M. Riccucci, Barbara S. Romzek, and Larry D. Terry, editors McCurdy and Rosenbloom offer solutions to "wicked" policy problems and complex issues such as terrorism, global warming, and ecological threats.

### **American University's School of Public Affairs Graduate Students Awarded Bryce Harlow Scholarships**

The Bryce Harlow Foundation has selected three graduate students from American University's School of Public Affairs for the prestigious Bryce Harlow Scholarship Award. MPA candidate **Sara Arnold** and MPP candidates **Elizabeth Frederick** and **Mark Yost** won the scholarship, which is awarded to exceptional graduate students with career goals in public affairs, government relations, or lobbying who demonstrate high academic achievement and leadership skills. Recipients attend school while working full-time in settings that include Capitol Hill, government agencies, and lobbying firms and associations; they also participate in mentoring relationships with members of the board of governors.

### **DePaul University Teaches Master's Courses Abroad**

Graduate students in the Management of Public Services program at DePaul University participated in several intensive courses in management and policy abroad this summer. In partnership with All Hallows College in Dublin, Ireland, 54 DePaul students joined 82 Irish master's students in a program titled Management: Community and Voluntary Services. Their courses included Introduction to Public Services Management, Human Resource Management, Policy Design and Analysis, Strategic Planning, and Leadership and Management. Comparative Health Systems was also offered in conjunction with Sienna Heights University (Michigan).

As part of the Leadership and Management course, All Hallows and DePaul held a one-day International Conference on leadership titled "Where People Count: Leadership for Service in the Community and Volunteer Sector." Conference speakers included the president of DePaul University and public services directors and others from Ireland, Germany, and Croatia.

The DePaul program also offered a course on European food policy in Tuscany, Italy. Eight graduate students collaborated with regional government representatives to study the European Union's food management principles, policies, and

practices, which are regulated by regional governmental agencies and monitored by national and international NGOs.

### **Arizona State Houses Alliance for Innovation**

A new international alliance headquartered at Arizona State University's School of Public Affairs at the Downtown Phoenix campus will focus on innovation in city and county government.

Two of the world's leading organizations dedicated to advancing excellence in local government—the Washington, D.C.-based International City/County Management Association (ICMA) and The Innovation Groups in Tampa, Florida—have chosen the School of Public Affairs as their partner and primary location for the unique Alliance for Innovation in Local Government. ICMA's members include nearly 6,000 appointed managers, administrators, and assistants in cities, towns, counties, and regional entities throughout the world. The Innovation Groups help local governments build and sustain the capacity to be innovative by providing networking opportunities and technology services in all areas of local government.

“This new partnership is a marvelous opportunity for us to play an even more significant role in urban management education, in research on the process of innovation, and in executive education,” said **Robert Denhardt**, director of the ASU School of Public Affairs.

According to Denhardt, the work of the Alliance will range from the study of new practices and technologies and their adaptation and transfer across sectors, to the personal aspects of creativity, problem solving, and receptiveness to change.

The School of Public Affairs has also named **James H. Svara** as director of its Center for Urban Innovation, which will interact closely with the Alliance. Svara is a leading scholar on process, structure, and governance in local government.

### **ASU Announces Several New Programs**

The ASU School of Public Affairs initiated several new programs this fall. The first, the undergraduate Urban and Metropolitan Studies program, seeks to prepare a new generation of urban leaders, many of whom will follow their undergraduate work with graduate studies in public administration, business, law, nonprofit management, political science, and social work.

A new master of public policy program also began this fall, focusing in particular on policy issues faced by rapidly urbanizing metropolitan areas.

In addition, the Marvin Andrews Graduate Program in Urban Management was launched, in cooperation with the Arizona City/County Management Association. The Andrews Fellows will hold internships in local governments in the area and will engage in course-related real-world projects in urban management and urban policy in cooperation with local governments across the Southwest.

### University of Georgia

The University of Georgia's Department of Public Administration and Policy has added three new faculty this fall. **Barry Bozeman** is the inaugural Crenshaw Professor of Public Policy. Bozeman is a well-known scholar and teacher of public management and public policy. **Deborah Carroll**, whose expertise is in public budgeting and finance, has also moved to Georgia. Finally, **Aparna Lhila**, a recent Cornell University Ph.D. economics program graduate, joined the faculty and will specialize in health policy.

**David W. Pitts**, a 2005 Ph.D. graduate of the University of Georgia, and now a faculty member in the Andrew Young School of Policy Studies at Georgia State University, has won the American Political Science Association's 2006 Leonard D. White Award for the best dissertation in public administration. Pitts' dissertation was titled "Diversity, Representation and Performance: Evidence about Ethnicity in Public Organizations."

**Young Han Chun**, a recent doctoral graduate of the University of Georgia's Department of Public Administration and Policy and now a faculty member at Yonsei University in Korea, and **Hal Rainey**, Alumni Foundation Distinguished Professor at the University of Georgia, have won the Beryl Radin Award from the Public Management Research Association for best article published in 2005 in the *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* (JPART). Their study, "Goal Ambiguity in U.S. Federal Agencies," appeared in the January issue.

### University of Kentucky

The Martin School's Institute for Federalism and Intergovernmental Relations and CESifo of Munich, Germany, cosponsored the conference "New Directions in Fiscal Federalism" in September. The conference addressed a range of issues: global changes in institutional structures and economic conditions within and among countries, highlighting the importance of the division of fiscal and political responsibilities among governments; competition among governments and the development and evolution of mechanisms of horizontal and vertical fiscal coordination and cooperation among them; and the fiscal policies and interactions of governments and their institutional and political underpinnings. Featured speakers included Jean Hindriks, Université Catholique de Louvain; Robert Inman, University of Pennsylvania; Peter Birch Sorensen, University of Copenhagen; Barry Weingast, Stanford University; John D. Wilson, Michigan State University; and George Zodrow, Rice University.

### Indiana University–Bloomington School of Public and Environmental Affairs Initiates New Programs/Degrees/Certificates

The SPEA Honors Program nurtures the academic talents and develops the professional skills of SPEA's highest academic achievers. The program, initiated in the fall of 2006, has enrolled more than 30 students. To maintain eligibility

in the program, all students must maintain a SPEA GPA of at least 3.5. All SPEA majors with at least a minimum cumulative GPA of 3.5 at the end of their freshman year are invited to apply to the Honors Program for admission.

The benefits of participating in the SPEA Honors Program include

- the confirmation of a diploma “With Public and Environmental Affairs Honors” notation.
- advanced coursework and opportunities for in-depth research projects with SPEA faculty.
- interaction with like-minded students in the SPEA Honors Program and the Hutton Honors College.
- funding opportunities to support academic-related travel, research projects, and internships through the Hutton Honors College.
- automatic admission to SPEA’s prestigious Washington Leadership Program and IU at Oxford summer program.
- provisional admission to SPEA’s accelerated master of public affairs or environmental science or health administration degree program.
- counsel from an Honors Program Adviser.

SPEA is also offering two new graduate certificates, the first in public budgeting and financial management and another in social entrepreneurship. In addition, environmental policy is a new major field in SPEA’s Ph.D. program in public affairs.

Professor Charles R. Wise and the Parliamentary Development Project for Ukraine (PDP) received \$500,000 in the form of a cooperative agreement from the United States Agency for International Development. The PDP will focus its efforts to advance the role of parliament under Ukraine’s new constitution and proportional system of election set to take place in January 2006.

### **LBJ School of Public Affairs Names Lindsay to Academic Chair in International Affairs**

The Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs has named Dr. James M. Lindsay, vice president and director of studies at the Council on Foreign Relations, as the inaugural Tom Slick Chair for International Affairs at The University of Texas at Austin.

Lindsay is a leading authority on domestic influences on U.S. foreign policy and has authored or edited more than a dozen books on international relations. His latest book, *America Unbound: The Bush Revolution in Foreign Policy* (coauthored with Ivo H. Daalder), was awarded the 2003 Lionel Gelber Prize and was named by *The Economist* as one of the best books of 2003.

Lindsay is also the founding director of the University’s new Robert S. Strauss Center for International Security and Law, which honors the legacy of former U.S. Ambassador Robert S. Strauss as a public servant and statesman in shaping

international law, diplomacy, trade, and energy policy. The Center will promote research and education on international affairs, international law, foreign trade, and multilateral diplomacy.

Lindsay previously served as deputy director and senior fellow in Foreign Policy Studies at the Brookings Institution and on the White House staff as the National Security Council's director for global issues and multilateral affairs from 1996-1997. For more about the Strauss Center, go to [www.robertstrausscenter.org](http://www.robertstrausscenter.org).

### **James Madison University Announces NGO Management Certificate Program**

In 2007, the James Madison University Department of Political Science will launch a new, 18-credit graduate certificate program in the management of international nongovernmental organizations. This innovative and intensive program offers students the opportunity to examine how international NGOs are affected by changes in their operating context. An intensive summer curriculum involves students in a case-based pedagogy requiring them to apply principles central to the management of international NGOs. This focused program of 40 weekly contact hours delivers 12 credit hours of instruction in four weeks during JMU's first four-week summer session (mid-May 2007 to mid-June 2007). This coursework will be followed by a 6-credit internship with an international NGO. This internship is not required of students with sufficient prior work experience in an international NGO.

This certificate program welcomes applications from graduate students currently seeking a degree at JMU, working applicants who have completed a bachelor's degree from an accredited 4-year institution, and current undergraduate students who complete their bachelor's degrees by May 2007. For more information, contact the certificate program's coordinator, Dr. Chris Blake ([blakech@jmu.edu](mailto:blakech@jmu.edu)) or the coordinator of the MPA program, Dr. Doug Skelley ([skellebd@jmu.edu](mailto:skellebd@jmu.edu)).

### **Middlebury College and Monterey Institute Formalize Affiliation; New Administrators Named**

Middlebury College and the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS) recently joined forces following an agreement that made Monterey an affiliate of Middlebury. According to Middlebury officials, several of Monterey's programs—those in translation and interpretation and in second-language acquisition—will complement Middlebury's already renowned graduate language programs, which operate both in Middlebury, Vermont, and at five of the seven Middlebury Schools Abroad. In addition, Monterey's four graduate schools will be able to take advantage of the Middlebury Schools Abroad program to expand and deepen the two institutions' international programs, and draw on Middlebury's strong network of undergraduate and graduate institutions, both in the United States and abroad.

Clara Yu recently became president of Monterey Institute earlier this year. A member of the Middlebury faculty since 1987, and a former vice president of languages and director of the Middlebury Language Schools, Yu is internationally known as a leader in the use of technology in higher education. She is the founder of the National Institute for Technology and Liberal Education (NITLE), a consortium of 81 liberal arts colleges, the largest virtual network in United States higher education devoted to this work.

Monterey's Graduate School of International Policy Studies has appointed Ed Laurence as its new dean. Laurence has worked in graduate education for 34 years and became a professor at the Monterey Institute in 1991. He teaches courses in global governance, security and development, public policy, and program evaluation and has twice been selected as Teacher of the Year by his students and colleagues. Laurence was the architect of the unique and innovative International Professional Service Semester in which GSIPS students serve as junior staff in international organizations around the world

### **University of New Mexico**

The School of Public Administration of the University of New Mexico, which has one of the oldest NASPAA-accredited MPA programs in the United States, founded by Ferrel Heady, is undertaking a search for a new director. The full announcement may be found at the School's Web page at [www.unm.edu/~spagrad](http://www.unm.edu/~spagrad).

### **North Carolina State University**

A new School of Public and International Affairs has been established at North Carolina State University. The former Department of Political Science and Public Administration was split into separate departments, which are now housed in the School. Also included are a masters of international studies program and the Public Safety Leadership Initiative. The inaugural director of the School is Rick Kearney, who was previously chair of the Department of Political Science at East Carolina University, director of the MPA program and the Institute of Public and Urban Affairs at the University of Connecticut, and a professor in the Department of Government and International Studies at the University of South Carolina.

Offering B.A. and B.S. degrees in political science, an MPA, a Ph.D. in public administration, and a graduate certificate in nonprofit management, the School collaborates in public affairs and public policy efforts with various units in its college and across North Carolina State University.

### **Pace University Launches New Not-for-Profit Certificate in Social Entrepreneurship**

Unique in the New York Metropolitan area, Pace University's Not-for-Profit

Management Certificate Program offers a focus on the emerging field of social entrepreneurship. This 15-credit graduate-level program offers cross-disciplinary study, a wide selection of elective courses, the Social Entrepreneurship Enrichment Series in partnership with the Helene and Grant Wilson Center for Social Entrepreneurship, and fully transferable credit toward Pace's master of public administration degree program.

For more information, visit [http://appserv.pace.edu/execute/page.cfm?doc\\_id=8971](http://appserv.pace.edu/execute/page.cfm?doc_id=8971) or contact Susan Daria at 914-422-4298 or [sdaria@pace.edu](mailto:sdaria@pace.edu).

### University of Texas at Arlington

The School of Urban and Public Affairs at the University of Texas at Arlington has welcomed assistant professors Carl Grodach and Thomas Vicino and visiting professor Robert Whelan to the faculty. With specializations in city and regional planning, urban politics, and public affairs, the group brings a wealth of knowledge to the School's various degree programs.

Grodach received his Ph.D. in urban planning from the University of California Los Angeles. In addition to publishing articles in the *Public Historian* and the *Los Angeles Times*, Grodach has presented papers at conferences sponsored by professional organizations such as the Urban Affairs Association, the Association of Collegiate Schools of Planning, and the Association of European Schools of Planning Joint Congress.

Vicino completed his doctoral studies at the University of Maryland Graduate School. His research interests include public policy making, urban politics, social inequality in metropolitan America and U.S. housing policy. Vicino's research findings have been the subject of articles in *The New York Times*, *The Baltimore Sun*, and *The Daily Record*. In addition, he has presented scholarly papers at the Urban Affairs Association Conference, the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management Conference, and the University of Maryland Research Conference.

Whelan, who was awarded his Ph.D. from the University of Maryland in 1971, is author of an important and influential book on urban affairs, *Urban Policy and Politics in a Bureaucratic Age* (Prentice-Hall, 1986), as well as dozens of articles in refereed journals dealing with the economics and politics of urban areas. His study of the economic and social impact of sports stadiums on urban arenas has received nationwide attention in both the scholarly and popular press. He is active in public administration and urban affairs professional associations, having served on the Executive Board of the Intergovernmental Management section of the American Society for Public Administration and the Governing Board of the Urban Affairs Association.

## In Memoriam

Randy Hamilton, a public administration professor and former dean at Golden Gate University whose passion was “to make all the cities in the world run right,” has died from complications from a stroke. He was 84.

Hamilton was an expert in local government and public administration, according to colleagues, and founded Golden Gate University’s now-defunct School for Public Affairs. The public administration program he spearheaded continues today.

Despite a long career that continued until his death on Aug. 4, Hamilton always insisted he “never worked a day in his life,” said his daughter Jill Hamilton.

“He was so committed to work and to improving local government and mentoring students,” she said.

Born and raised in Brooklyn, N.Y., he graduated from the University of North Carolina with a bachelor’s degree in political science and a master’s degree in public administration. His studies were interrupted by World War II, during which he rose to the rank of captain in the Army Air Forces and served as a B-24 pilot flying anti-submarine missions along the Atlantic seaboard.

After the war, his daughter said, he worked as city manager of Carolina Beach, N.C., before moving to Bangkok, where he was the chief municipal adviser to the lord mayor of Bangkok at the Ministry of the Interior. It was during his time in Asia that he met his future wife, Louanne Hamilton, on a flight bound for Saigon.

“I was with the foreign service...we met on Air France at 2:30 a.m.—I was coming from an embassy party in Bangkok, and I poked him in the eye as I was running down the aisle of the plane with a basket,” she said. “When we got to the airport, my car wasn’t there so he offered me a ride.”

The couple eventually moved back to the United States, married, and settled in Oakland. Hamilton worked for a time at the League of California Cities and also helped advise the administration of President Dwight D. Eisenhower on planning the interstate highway system, his family said.

He went on to become founding dean of Golden Gate’s School for Public Affairs and the public administration program. He was dean of the school until his retirement in 1990, said Joaquin Gonzalez, program director for the public administration program.

“He was an institution at Golden Gate University.... He was a very difficult act to follow,” said Gonzalez, who took over Hamilton. “He would tell you things straight and did not play politics.”

After retiring, Hamilton became a visiting scholar at UC Berkeley’s Institute of Governmental Studies, and continued to lecture, conduct research and write papers until a recent stroke, Jill Hamilton said.

“His whole goal in life was to make all the cities in the world run right—it was all he cared about,” Louanne Hamilton said. “He didn’t care about money. He didn’t care about fame.”

In addition to his wife and daughter, Hamilton is survived by a son and two other daughters: Leander of Bangkok, Sarah of Barbados and Jenny of Laurel, MD.

## Interviews & Essays

**Eileen Mason, Senior Deputy Chairman, National Endowment for the Arts**  
*with Maja Holmes, Executive MPA Center Coordinator, NASPAA*

Note: Eileen Mason received her MPA in the Key Executive Program at American University in 1990. Prior to working for the NEA, Mason served as a manager and administrator at the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission and the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission. Her 27 years of public service include the positions of vice president for grants on the Arts and Humanities Council of Montgomery County, Maryland, and music advisory panelist for the Maryland State Arts Council.

*MH: Why should an experienced public service professional pursue an Executive MPA?*

EM: As an experienced public service professional—whether you work in local, state, or federal government, the nonprofit sector, or as an advocate for public service professionals—you understand the practice of public service but not necessarily the theory or concepts behind the practice. When you enroll in an Executive MPA program in mid-career, your classes and classmates will be enriched by your own experience—and those of your fellow students—and at the same time you will be exposed to a conceptual framework for understanding your work, such as why public service has evolved differently from working in the private sector.

*MH: What are the benefits of the program?*

EM: For me the benefits were twofold: I learned theory and concepts about the field of public administration and public policy that, with an undergraduate degree in liberal arts, I had not studied previously; and I developed a network of public service professionals and experts—fellow classmates as well as professors and school administrators—that I can call on for consultation, advice, and friendship.

MH: Which aspects of the Executive MPA curriculum were the most useful to your career in public service?

EM: Most aspects of the curriculum are essential—budget and finance, the history of public administration, legal issues in public administration, quantitative analysis—but a few courses can really make a difference in whether one succeeds as a manager and in effecting public policy. Ethics and personnel administration; politics, policy, and the bureaucracy; and research and evaluation provided me with knowledge and insight that I draw on every day.

MH: What type of professional is suited to get an Executive MPA?

EM: Anyone who has worked in local, state, or federal government or the non-profit sector for at least five years and is interested in both career advancement and acquiring an academic framework for understanding how government works or doesn't work. Don't pursue this field if you do not believe in fairness, representative government, providing public value, and working for a greater good—the basic tenets of public service.■

### Confessions of a Post-literate Professor

by Leora Waldner, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor/MPA Coordinator, Troy University—Atlanta Site

I was doing my daily reading of the editorial page last spring when I came across an op-ed that struck a deeply resonant chord as being relevant to me as a public administration professor. The writer, Jennifer Moses, claims that we have become a “post-literate” society—that though Americans are perhaps the most literate people on earth, that we are “intellectually handicapped” because we do not read (“Reading Muscles Rarely Flexed: Soundbite Culture Gives Books Short Shrift,” *Atlanta Journal and Constitution*, May 15, 2006, A15). I felt Ms. Moses was describing my students and me as well.

She asserts that students, steeped in the Internet, television, and other technologies, “are only able to digest information in tiny, fragmentary bits,” but cannot fully understand context and structure. She says that when we do read, we tend to read junk rather than complex works of history, literature, or economics. She tells of a dean in a New England college, who bemoaned the state of students today: ““They can identify celebrities,” he said, “and do wonders with multimedia presentations. It’s just that they don’t understand anything, and can’t write worth a damn.””

I think Moses’ argument will strike a similar chord with other professors, who may lament how commonplace sloppy writing and poor critical analysis skills

have become. However, it is not only the students who are post-literate; I must sheepishly admit that some professors may be post-literate as well. Discussions among my colleagues from a number of universities suggest that we do not read as much as we used to. We do not require as many full texts of classic public administration texts as we used to, but rather assign summaries or excerpts from texts. Some of our required readings may be pre-digested sources gleaned from the Internet.

I can attest to this from personal experience. Though I read my fair share of journals and books, I don't read as much as I used to a decade ago. My typical reading material would make my mother blush, not for its racy content but because it is completely devoid of any intellectual content. I, too, am wrapped up in a society with a cultural case of attention deficit disorder, finding myself with less patience for long works. For one class meeting, I recently replaced actual readings on implementation with assignments that had students derive the information second-hand from the Internet (and what a woeful experiment that was—students could name all of Bardach's implementation games yet could not tell me what an implementation game was or why it is important). I can blame it on the time demands of profession or growing family, but in honest reflection it seems more like the fundamental nature of my patience for information has changed. This is not for the better.

My argument is anecdotal, of course, as is that of Moses. Yet for the time being, let us accept it as true. If we are indeed a sound bite society, what are the implications for public administration educators?

Teaching post-literate students may require different teaching techniques. If we choose to buck the trend, we can either force them into more and longer readings, particularly complex works and or lengthy texts. We could try to compensate by highlighting basic critical analysis skills they may be lacking. If we choose to accept the trend, we could shape assignments around post-literate information sources such as the Internet, change grading expectations, and learn to communicate in sound bites ourselves. Whatever our technique, we will need to brace ourselves for the next generation of babies raised on 'Baby Einstein' and other infant education videos, babies who some argue are quite literally being pre-programmed for a post-literate society. At some point, there may be no turning back from a post-literate future.

There would also be implications for post-literate public administrators. There may be less analytic capacity to do thorough analysis based on extensive research. Administrators may need to focus much more on executive summaries and will need to learn how to better translate complex issues into sound bites. We would also need to consider how engagement would change in a post-literate society. On the positive side, since more people have basic literacy, more people may be able to access media such as the Internet, newspapers, etc. However, we may

experience continued decreased civic engagement, or decreased depth of civic engagement, if citizens have less interest in a prolonged, sustained, and informed activism.

Thankfully, Moses' argument is only anecdotal. There is no definitive proof that we are truly in a post-literate society. There have been no comparisons of our syllabi to the syllabi of yore, no comparison of our students work to their forefather's and foremother's work, of their learning outcomes to our learning outcomes. However, if her argument is true—and if as indeed post-literacy is affecting professors as well as students—then there will be telling consequences for future public administrators and public administration educators, including changes in curriculum, changes in instructional methods, and fundamental changes in civic behavior and management. ■

## 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 (NISPAce) and the new Inter-American Network for Public Administration Education (INPAE).

NASPAA's annual conference on public affairs and public affairs education is 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](http://www.naspaa.org) *Listserv:* To subscribe to the NASPAA listserv, email your request to [majordomo@s-cwis.unomaha.edu](mailto: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@facpacs.unomaha.edu](mailto:naspaa@facpacs.unomaha.edu).

NASPAA also has specialized listservs for career directors and doctoral program directors. Please see [www.naspaa.org/principals/news/listserv.asp](http://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](mailto:jpae@naspaa.org).







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The *Journal of Public Affairs Education (JPAAE)* 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, *JPAAE* 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.

*JPAAE* 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, *JPAAE* is affiliated with the Section of Public Administration Education of the American Society for Public Administration.