United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
and
International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration

EXCELLENCE AND LEADERSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR: THE ROLE OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

7th Global Forum on Reinventing Government
Building Trust in Government
26-29 June 2007, Vienna, Austria

United Nations
New York, 2007

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Acknowledgements

Editors:

Allan Rosenbaum, Director, Institute for Public Management and Community Services, Florida International University, Miami, Florida.

John-Mary Kauzya, Chief, Governance and Public Administration Branch, Division for Public Administration and Development Management, United Nations, New York, New York

The Government Reinvention Series Editor:

G. Shabbir Cheema, Principal Advisor on Governance, Division for Public Administration and Development Management, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations.

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Introduction

Allan Rosenbaum and John-Mary Kauzya *

The volume that follows deals with two separate but very closely related issues that, when taken together, will have a profound impact on the quality of governance of the world's nations during the next several decades. These two topics are how one best achieves true excellence in public administration education and training and how one prepares both the current and the next generation of governmental leadership to most effectively deal with the complex problems which the world's nations face. Clearly, these are issues that are highly interrelated. While it's true that no doubt some leaders are, in fact, born, not made, it is equally true that the quality of leadership found in any government can be significantly enhanced by effective education and training. Such efforts will focus not only on leadership techniques, but also will provide governmental leaders – both political and administrative – with a broader understanding of the critical issues with which all governments are increasingly having to deal.

The question of how one best achieves excellence in public administration education and training is certainly not a new one. Most assuredly, it has been a concern of those involved in the preparing of public administrators ever since public administration education emerged as a distinct academic discipline, now nearly a century ago. Nevertheless, it is an issue that is being addressed with increasing frequency both by individuals and institutions in the field, and by the growing number of international associations in the field – and especially those associations that have schools and institutes of public administration as their principal constituencies.

Public Administration in a Complex Environment

While the questions of how to improve governmental leadership and how to achieve excellence in public administration education are perennial ones, this is a particularly appropriate time to reconsider them for at least two reasons. First, and most important, is the reality that the tasks faced by public administrators in today's world are becoming ever more complex. Every day, public administrators are being challenged to solve problems that range from the technologically highly complex (addressing issues like global warming and the protection of the environment) to such highly ideologically charged issues as promoting a society's economic wellbeing and addressing its problems of crime and delinquency. Indeed, what are perhaps the two most pressing crises currently facing democratic governments – the world's growing inequality and the resultant inability to more effectively address

* Allan Rosenbaum is Director of the School of Urban and Public Affairs and the Institute for Public Management and Community Service and Professor of Public Administration at Florida International University, Miami, Florida, U.S.A. and John-Mary Kauzya is Chief of the Governance and Public Administration Branch, Division for Public Administration and Development Management, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations

issues of widespread poverty and the threat of terrorism – will require the most skilled of public administrators. They will also require new and creative leadership on the part of both government officials and public administrators.

As the United Nations has recently noted, the wealthiest 20 per cent of the world's population receives 80 per cent of the world's annual income. Approximately half the world's population, nearly three billion people, live in a state of poverty on an income of less than $2.00 a day. Two billion people lack clean water. Eight hundred million people are seriously affected by hunger. Five hundred thousand mothers die each year in childbirth. Clearly one of the great challenges of the next decade is going to be how the governments of countries around the world address these critical problems. This is going to require the development of highly skilled government administrators who have received the most excellent possible education and training.

Likewise, the issue of terrorism is providing the public sector with new, different and perplexing challenges. Once again, this is not a new concern. The United Kingdom has experienced the reality of terrorism over the course of the past three decades – in many instances due to the ongoing conflict in Northern Ireland, but by no means limited to that very complex situation. Likewise, France, Italy, Japan, the Philippines, and Indonesia, among other countries have known their share of terrorist tragedy over the course of the past decades. However, the events occurring on September 11[th,] 2001 in the United States and, since then, in Madrid, London, and many other places, reflect the fact that terrorism, sparked by a variety of conflicts, has reached a whole new level of severity.

This new reality has placed even greater pressure on governments to put in place effective public programs to combat such threats. In so doing, this has called attention to the need for more effective public administration and the ability of public administrators to meet new and more complex challenges. Indeed, it is not by chance that in the face of the 9/11 tragedy, and despite 20 years of emphasis on lessening the role of the national government, the first response of the United States government was to move the responsibility for airport safety from the private sector (the airlines) to a newly created national government agency. Obviously, this was yet another step that increased the demand for the most competent of public administrators and, in turn, raised the stakes for excellence in public administration education and training even higher.

The UN/IASIA Initiative

A second reason to again turn to the twin issues of achieving greater excellence in public administration education and training and enhancing governmental leadership is that interest in these subjects has become very wide-spread and moved well beyond the academic community. It is now about three years ago, that the United Nations Division for Public Administration and Development Management (UN/DPADM) approached the then President of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA), Allan Rosenbaum, to engage in

discussions about the issue of achieving greater excellence in public administration education and training and strengthening governmental leadership.

These discussions led to the creation of the joint UN/IASIA initiative on enhancing the excellence of public administration education and training and strengthening the capacity of both current and future generations of senior governmental leadership. This joint initiative, as is described in essays that follow by the Director of the UN's Division of Public Administration and Development Management, Mr. Guido Bertucci, and by the Chief of the Division's Governance and Public Administration branch, Mr. John-Mary Kauzya, has led to numerous activities jointly sponsored by the two organizations.

There were two reasons why UN/DPADM approached IASIA to discuss these matters. First, it had received inquiries from public administration education and training programs in many parts of the world about whether it might initiate a process for accrediting such programs as a means of enhancing excellence. Second, it had received a number of inquiries from governments around the world regarding the issue of enhancing senior governmental leadership and it felt that, for upper level officials, the broader perspective of a worldwide academic organization could be of especial value.

The issue of accrediting programs of public administration education also has been an important factor in stimulating the growing interest in the issue of achieving greater excellence in public administration education. In the United States, the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) has been, for almost three decades, very successfully involved in the accreditation of Masters degree programs in public administration. In addition, over the past half dozen years, it also has received numerous requests from institutions outside the United States that it consider accrediting them.

Indeed, the issue of accreditation was not a new one for IASIA when it was approached on this matter by UN/DPADM. By that time, IASIA, in response to requests from institutions around the world, had been discussing whether to undertake accrediting activities for at least a decade. Furthering interest in this issue was the emergence of a Netherlands-based organization which accredits programs of public administration education throughout Europe. While, as of this point, it has only accredited a few European institutions, the emergence of this organization (and its need to develop accreditation standards applicable to the many different types of public administration educational programs found on the European continent) further stimulated the discussion about excellence in public administration education and training.

As a result of this growing concern about the quality of public administration more generally, and the increasing ferment surrounding the area of accreditation of public administration academic programs, UN/DPADM and IASIA, within the framework of the joint UN/IASIA initiative, have created a Taskforce on Standards of Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training. As part of the work

of this taskforce, several papers have been and are being commissioned around the issue of achieving excellence in public administration education and training. The taskforce itself will interact with both individual programs and associations of public administration educators around the world as part of the process of developing standards of excellence for public administration education and training, which will then be published by the UN.

The intention of this joint effort is to develop objective standards regarding the nature of excellence in public administration education and training. The hope is that such standards will enable individual institutions to assess themselves and, in so doing, determine both the resources that are necessary to achieve excellence in their public administration education and training programs and develop their own strategies for the achievement of that end. The papers found in the first half of this book, which were presented at a joint UN/IASIA conference in Rio de Janeiro, reflect that goal.

The second part of the joint UN/IASIA initiative, the enhancement of the leadership capacity of current and future generations of senior government officials has also been pursued vigorously with the result being, among other things, the holding of conferences for top governmental leadership in both Africa and Central Europe, with additional activities currently being planned. The papers found in the second half of this book were presented at a conference on this subject, held in Kampala, Uganda. It is our hope that both these papers, and the ones from the Rio conference that are also included here, will serve to stimulate much discussion on matters related to enhancing the quality of public administration education and training and strengthening the capacity of governmental leadership.

As with all books of this type, they are the product of the efforts of a number of individuals in addition to those who have written papers for it. Bianor Cavalcanti, the Director of the Brazilian School of Public Administration of Fundacao Getulio Vargas, hosted the Rio meeting and played a major role in its successful organization. John Kiyaga-Nsubuga, the Director of the Uganda Management Institute, played the same role for the Kampala meeting. From the United Nations, Guido Bertucci played a major role in facilitating both events and Yolande Jemai was especially helpful in guiding the development of the Rio meeting.

The projects that led to this book began when Allan Rosenbaum was serving as President of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration. Subsequently, the presidency of that organization was assumed by Turgay Ergun, the Director of the Public Administration Institute for Turkey and the Middle East, who has continued to enthusiastically support this effort. Finally, Allan Rosenbaum would like to especially thank Rebecca Fernandez for her considerable efforts in the typing and re-typing of the manuscripts that follow and, of course, his wife, Judy, for her ongoing support of his efforts to produce this book.

Strengthening Public Sector Capacity for Achieving the Millennium Development Goals

Guido Bertucci *

Eradicating poverty is one of the greatest challenges our world faces today. Despite the best intentions of the United Nations and its Member States, over the last few decades, the reduction of poverty has not been as significant as one would wish. There is virtually no country without a single pocket of poverty. Unfortunately however, there are many countries in which poverty is less the exception and more the common plight of a large number of citizens. In particular, developing countries face a number of challenges.

The Millennium Development Goals: At the United Nations Millennium Summit in the year 2000, heads of Government and State gathered together and resolved to commit their energy and efforts to achieving a number of broad goals. These are contained in the United Nations Millennium Declaration, and they include:

• Upholding human rights, and fostering democracy and good governance;
• Ensuring peace, security and disarmament;
• Promoting development and poverty eradication;
• Fostering environmental protection;
• Protecting the vulnerable; and
• Meeting the special needs of Africa.

As highlighted in the United Nations Millennium Declaration, the promotion of democracy and good governance, including an efficient and effective public administration, is among the best ways to ensure that the values of freedom, equality, solidarity, environmental protection, and shared responsibility are respected. Democracy and good governance are goals in themselves because of the values on which they rest. At the same time, they are also the most critical means to achieve the United Nations Millennium Development Goals, which set very precise objectives, targets and indicators to achieve the broader goal set out in the Millennium Declaration related to development and poverty eradication. In fact, although many studies have not been able to show that democracy per se will lead to greater economic growth, there is evidence that democracy ensures greater redistribution of resources. As Amartya Sen has pointed out, one of the consequences of democracy is that it generates political incentives for decision makers to respond positively to the needs and demands of society. The more active democracy is, the greater and more effective will be the pressure of these incentives on the decision makers.

The Role of Public Administration: Having in place a democratic system, however, is not sufficient. Government institutions need to be based on clear and

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* Director, Division for Public Administration and Development Management, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations, New York, New York, USA

widely accepted rules; to have committed leaders and qualified people to undertake appropriate reforms in the economic and social spheres; to be able to mobilize resources and manage expenditure; and to operate in the most cost-effective way possible by making use of new information technologies.

Reforming and innovating public administration systems is thus essential to ensure that "the Millennium Development Goals, including poverty eradication, become national goals and serve to increase the coherence and consistency of national policies and programmes". It is important to underscore that, at the global level, monitoring the goals' progress is entrusted to the Statistical Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, and an annual report is prepared for the Secretary-General. As of September 2002, 12 countries had prepared a Millennium Development Goal report, and 40 others were in the process of doing so.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which are derived from the Millennium Declaration and are to be met by 2015, include achieving the following:

1) Halve the proportion of extreme poverty and hunger
2) Achieve universal primary education
3) Promote gender equality and empower women
4) Reduce child mortality
5) Improve maternal health
6) Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, etc.
7) Ensure environmental sustainability
8) Develop global partnerships for resource mobilization

What are the demands imposed on public administration by the tasks related to implementing the Millennium Development Goals? It has been pointed out that governments of developing countries have overwhelming responsibilities and chronic resource constraints, not only vis-à-vis their citizens, but also vis-à-vis the international community. As clearly stated in paragraph 2 of the Millennium Declaration, heads of states recognize that, "in addition to our separate responsibilities to our individual societies, we have a collective responsibility to uphold the principles of human dignity, equality and equity at the global level. As leaders we have a duty therefore to all the world's people, especially the most vulnerable and, in particular, the children of the world, to whom the future belongs".

In general terms, mainstreaming the goal of poverty reduction within the Millennium Development Goals will require public administration to be more engaging and receptive; more skilled and visionary; more open and transparent; more facilitating and guiding; and more just. The overall imperatives of MDGs and the implications for public administration are thus multiple. First, it must be said that the MDGs are a complex package of goals and targets requiring a great deal of harmonization, re-organization and re-orientation in the public sector. Second, in terms of goals and targets, a clear focus on social development is at the basis of both the United Nations Millennium Declaration and the road map towards the implementation of the MDGs, stressing the need for a social or "pro-poor"

orientation to all aspects of development management. Third, there is an increased need to gather data, conduct analyses, to promote policy advice and to establish results-oriented monitoring systems.

Fourth, new options, strategies and tools are needed on the one hand, to generate more resources internally and on the other, to use existing resources in a more efficient way. In particular, new means, options and technologies are needed to (1) harness better the resources at the national level, e.g. through improved taxation; (2) to maximize returns on invested resources; and (3) to engage people into the monitoring process to ensure quality in service delivery – through the "score-card" system. Furthermore, continuous dialoguing at the international level for enhanced resource mobilization, debt relief, improved financial deals and measures to attract foreign direct investments (FDIs) will also be necessary.

Fifth, in order to achieve the MDGs, governments should promote a value or culture shift from sector-oriented planning to socially-oriented goal-based planning; and from over-emphasis of macro-economic stabilization to pro-poor policies. For this purpose, it is necessary to promote the internal re-alignment of institutions to ensure connectivity in order for public officials to work as a whole, and not in a fragmented way. Moreover, it is of great importance to foster more engaging governance arrangements to allow civil society organizations, the private sector and the community to participate more fully in the policy processes of the government.

Last, but not least, it is necessary to build the capacity of the public sector staff in analytical and policy advising work; create an incentive structure that can attract the best talents to the public sector; and protect civil service from politicization and political interferences. These are among the most important imperatives in order for countries to meet the MDGs. As the United Nations Committee of Experts on Public Administration noted in its first and second reports, strengthening, good governance is about capacity-building through institutions and people[1]. The knowledge, skills, networks and attitudes of people in the public sector are at the heart of the performance of States, for it is through people and by people that services are planned and delivered, critical innovations conceived and realized, and needed reforms carried out.

The Role of Public Sector Human Resources: Governments all over the world need to face the challenge of having in place adequate public sector human resources in order to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate policies and strategies for achieving the Millennium Development Goals, including poverty eradication policies. At the national level, the quality of public sector human resources is crucial in enabling the state to provide leadership in defining a home-grown governance framework and national appropriation of the Millennium Development Goals. The state needs to provide leadership in this process through law-making,

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1   Report of the First Session of the Committee (E/2002/84) and Report of the Second Session of the Committee (E/2003/44)

regulatory and security-related functions, as it is the ultimate guarantor of life, liberty and property.

Developing strong leadership and adequate human resources in the public sector is a crucial task in order for any country to prosper and undertake programmes that are aimed at reducing poverty. In fact, the quality of government leadership has a great impact on the quality of governance, which in turn is often closely related to the level of development of a region. Finally, an effective public sector is essential in creating an enabling environment for private sector development and economic competitiveness.

Strengthening public sector human resources capacities is, however, not an easy task and many are the difficulties that need to be overcome. Although all countries around the world are facing a number of challenges in modernizing their public sector, developing countries are facing even greater difficulties due to a number of factors, which include:

- the changing role of the state due to national and international factors;
- the erosion of public sector human resource capacity; and
- the constraints in recruiting highly qualified personnel.

The reform of the public sector in developing countries has been greatly affected by constraints in recruiting high-quality personnel. The main factors to which this phenomenon may be attributed are: a loss of pride within and credibility outside the public service; brain drain to the private sector and to more economically advanced countries due to better salaries and career opportunities; and a gradual decay of national governance structures in stagnating countries. Human resources reform in the public sector has also been particularly difficult as the core competencies needed in the public sector have evolved and changed in a number of ways as a result of the changes taking place at the national and international levels, requiring new skills and behaviours among public officials at all levels.

Given this extremely complex situation, what the public sector needs more than ever is its fair share of the best talent in any given country to respond effectively to evolving traditional functions of the state, as well as the challenges of globalization and other social changes. Moreover, it is important to underline that improving human capacity in the public sector also requires sound public institutions and good governance. In other words, strengthening public sector capacity requires a holistic approach, which should begin by rebuilding trust in the public sector and promoting high-quality leadership.

There are key measures that need to be taken in order to promote adequate capacities among public servants, including:

- reinforcing human resources planning and management systems and units;
- reinforcing core public service values, such as:
- low tolerance for corruption and crime;
- stress on meritocracy; and
- growing sensitivity towards and respect for citizens' needs;

- fostering a political culture that places emphasis on the respect for institutions and norms over personal interest;
- promoting professionalism and competence in the public service;
- creating a culture of learning;
- introducing incentive structures, such as:
- fair remuneration systems; and
- systems of reward for industry, loyalty, accomplishment and merit;
- increasing recognition of the value of cross-cultural and international links as means towards the improvement of the professional image and performance of the public service;
- tapping the best talent from underrepresented groups, including women; and
- promoting the knowledge and use of ICT tools.

The Role of Education: Taking into account the present political environment in an increasing globalizing world, new areas of public sector competency also need to be strengthened, in particular diversity management; knowledge management; horizontal management; resource and information management; partnership-building and negotiation skills; communication and ICT skills. Given the diversity of administrative cultures and based on a variety of societal environments, each country has to be open-minded and look at all the potential solutions to its own problems. The key element is to develop a sense of direction for the public service of a given country which takes into account its history, its environment and its position in the global world in a realistic manner.

These realities create greater needs for effective public administration education and training. Such education and training is critical to both the immediate and the long-term well being of the world's people since the quality of public administration education and training has a very significant relationship to the quality of governance. In those regions where public administration education and training is the most advanced, the quality of governance is normally the most highly developed. The quality of governance, in turn, is often highly related to the level of development of a region. Most assuredly there is no country in any region of the world which can be absolutely satisfied with the quality of its governance. Nevertheless, it is very clear that in those countries where governance is strongest and most transparent, economic development is greatest and poverty is neither as widespread nor as oppressive.

While it is widely recognized that education and training is an important precondition for effective public administration and governance, more often than not, its impact is a long-term one rather than immediate. The reason for this is obvious. In most cases, the recipients of education and training initiatives are frequently the next generation of governmental leadership – students at university preparing for careers in government or, beginning career as civil servants. However, the current situation is such that many countries – especially countries that are making the transition to democratic governance, or to a market economy, or both – cannot wait to improve the quality of public service in the next generation.

The reality is that there is a great need to improve the quality of education and training for today's governmental employees and leaders, as well as for tomorrow's. In response to this critical need, the Division for Public Administration and Development Management of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs and the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration initiated a four-year effort to improve the quality of education and training in public administration worldwide, but with particular emphasis on Africa, Asia, Central and Eastern Europe, Latin America, and the Middle East. The joint UN/IAISIA initiative is designed to prepare the next generation of government leaders and to assist top level-government leadership to adapt most effectively to the many complicated problems that are facing contemporary governments in a globalizing world.

The joint UN/DESA/DPADM and IASIA initiative is a two track one. The first important, and often overlooked, element of this effort will be to focus upon the education and training needs of the current generation of governmental leadership – particularly in those areas of the world which are undergoing significant governmental or economic transition. The second part of this initiative will involve focusing on the next generation of public servants and the improvement of their education and training opportunities.

A number of activities have been undertaken as part of the initiative and many others are being planned. Meetings have been held in Turin, Italy; Bratislava, Slovakia; Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; and New York City, which have focused on the development of a strategy for the improvement of public administration education and training. At the Expert Group Meeting on "New Challenges for Senior Leadership Enhancement for Improved public Management in a Globalizing World, which took place in Turin, Italy, the participants made efforts to define governmental leadership, to categorize the UN/IAISIA initiative in terms of target groups and to review key issues facing governmental leadership.

The seminar on "Improving the Quality of Public Administration Education and Training: New Needs, New Approaches", co-sponsored by IAISIA, the Brazilian School of Public Administration, Fundacao Getuluio Vargas, and UN/DESA/DPADM and held in Rio de Janeiro, resulted in the development of a set of ideas and techniques that are appropriate for the education and training for the next generation of governmental leadership. It focused on both education and training activities and, most importantly, on the ways to make them relevant to newly developing civil servants. Within the framework of the joint UN/IAISIA initiative, a publication on leadership capacity enhancement in a globalizing world has been published. The next step will involve the development of globally applicable standards of quality and excellence in public administration teaching and training.

Key Challenges Facing Senior Public Sector Leadership: The UN/IASIA initiative is premised on the belief that public administration education and training programs must be conceived and implemented with the aim of making current and future public sector leaders capable of effectively addressing the key issues facing

the world today and that its planning and implementation must be interdisciplinary, international and inter-sectoral (involving public and non-profit organizations).

The following issues were singled out at the Turin Expert Group meeting as some of the critical ones facing current and future leaders in the world:

(i) **Understanding globalization:** Globalization needs to be understood in its nature, its impact, in the way it can be harnessed to limit its negative impact, and how benefits can derive from its positive effects on development. This is especially relevant for countries of the South, which have difficulty to influence globalization.

(ii) **Developing strategic approaches to poverty alleviation:** Leaders have to develop cross-sectoral approach to solving problems to reduce poverty, such as concentrating on developing civic engagement and on improving service delivery – especially in the areas of water, health, HIV/AIDS, education, and the environment.

(iii) **Developing conflict prevention and resolution strategies**: Countries emerging from conflict need to develop special strategies to ensure that the seeds of conflict are not planted again.

(iv) **Building legitimacy of state institutions:** Creating legitimacy and trust is critical. This can be done by establishing strong participation mechanisms and by defining in a transparent manner the roles and relationships of different spheres of government. It includes also the development of an administrative culture based on the rule of law and a system, which ensures security to attract investment and encourage property ownership.

(v) **Learning to lead in a world of increasing interdependency:** Taking into account the present political environment in an increasingly globalizing world, new areas of leadership competency need to be strengthened, in particular: diversity management, knowledge management, horizontal management, resource and information management, partnerships and negotiation skills, communication and ICT skills.

(vi) **Learning to lead large-scale transformations:** Current and future leaders need to learn how to work with stakeholders in the society in order to balance and manage long term and short term objectives at the time of change; and to empower employees to take initiative and achieve results.

(vii) **Learning to lead with contradictions and paradox:** The world is changing so rapidly that many contradictions emerge continuously. It is incumbent on leaders and all employees to be able to deal with more ambiguity. These require being able to manage change while ensuring stability and security.

Whether it is called training, competency enhancement, skill development or by any other name, leadership training needs to be undertaken with a clear understanding of the ultimate purpose it is pursuing, as well as the impact of culture on leadership.

The basic guideline regarding strategies, approaches, techniques and methodologies for leadership capacity development is that in each situation, the needs it

imposes, as well as the composition and nature of the targeted audience, should dictate the approaches, techniques, thematic content and training methods to be adopted. In designing, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating education and training, and leadership development programmes – whether they be in the immediate, short term, medium term or long term – one must adopt a participative approach involving the beneficiaries and the target groups of such programmes.

Conclusion

In the process of public sector leadership capacity development, both colleges and universities, and management development institutes, have critical roles to play. They constitute the infrastructure in their respective countries for management development; they have human resources capable of doing management research and training, and providing technical advisory and consultancy services. Governments must count on them for taking new initiatives. From training needs assessments, human resource policy design, personnel development, program formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, these institutions should play a leading role. It is understood that some of them, perhaps most of them, will need to have their capacities reinforced, but this does not in any way minimize the role they must play. In addition, they have networks at national and regional levels through which they can pool expertise, facilitate exchange of successful practices and share innovative practices. For this they should play a leading role in the public sector leadership capacity enhancement initiative.

Part I

Enhancing the Quality of Education and Training for the Public Sector

Excellence in Public Administration Education: Preparing the Next Generation of Public Administrators for a Changing World

Allan Rosenbaum *

The concluding years of the 20th century witnessed dramatic change in the political, economic and social systems of many countries. In most instances, these system transformations resulted in the emergence of both more democratic and more responsive governance. In some instances, these changes occurred with great rapidity; in other cases, the changes are still very much in process. Stimulating, underlying and shaping many of these changes have been two major developments – globalization and decentralization.

Complicating and threatening this process of democratic evolution has been the emergence of rapidly growing problems of resource and income inequality in many countries. These developments, along with the process of democratization itself, place many new demands on public administrators, and especially upon those who educate them. This essay will examine both the implications of these developments for public administration education and training, as well as review some of the ways in which these developments have encouraged new approaches to the achievement of excellence in public administration education and training.

As many recent events suggest, the process of democratic transformation and development is still very much underway and has yet to be consolidated in many places. This is not surprising for at least two reasons. First, democratic governance, and especially the transition to democratic governance, is always a difficult and, frequently, a very fragile process. Second, democratic governance is inevitably a "work-in-progress". All democratic countries must build and strengthen their institutional structures. Moreover, from time to time, even the most committed countries will regress in their progress towards more democratic governance.

Nevertheless, from the growing independence of legislative bodies, to the increasing mobilization of neighborhood organizations, to the intensifying citizen demands for openness and accountability, progress is being made in making governments all around the world more responsive to the popular will[1]. This, in turn, places significant new pressures and expectations upon civil servants. Increasingly, they find themselves having to respond to many more demands from a growing number of constituencies, often seeking conflicting goals. These demands routinely

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* Allan Rosenbaum is Professor of Public Administration and Director, School of Public and Urban Affairs and the Institute for Public Management and Community Service at Florida International University

1 As data compiled by both the United Nations and the World Bank has indicated, the number of democratic governments throughout the world has nearly doubled over the last quarter century. See for example Allan Rosenbaum and Arne Svensson, Responding to Citizens Needs: Local Governance and Democratic Development New York: United Nations, 2002.

challenge the professionalism, capability and, in some cases, even the ethical standards of both elected government officials and civil servants. This, in turn, presents profound new challenges to those who are involved in the education of the next generation of public administrators, as well as those responsible for the continuing education of those currently in the field. However, before turning to some of the implications of these developments for public administration education, it is useful to examine them a bit further.

Globalization and Democratic Development: Certainly, a key factor in both encouraging and shaping the recent processes of democratic development has been the phenomenon characterized as globalization. In actuality, globalization is the result, and a composite, of many developments, including major innovations in communication and information technology; greatly expanded, and new approaches to, international trade, commerce and finance; and the increasingly rapid dissemination of cultural phenomena from one country to another. Of special importance in this regard have been developments in communications and the sharing of information.[2] These have made it increasingly difficult to sustain dictatorial forms of governance and, in so doing, have helped to encourage the spread of democratic institutions throughout the world.[3]

In fact, many aspects of what has come to be characterized as globalization, while sometimes having negative consequences, do generate significantly increased expectations by, and new opportunities for many people throughout the world. In so doing, they encourage both collective and individual demands for greater economic security and personal freedom. Consequently, it is not surprising that, when taken together, these phenomena raise many significant issues for government administrators – both in terms of creating new problems with which they must deal and profoundly impacting the manner in which they approach and manage almost all of the traditional activities of governments.

Of particular relevance to public administrators is a key factor that has encouraged globalization – the rapid development of information technology. This has had at least two significant consequences for governmental officials. First, it makes information which, in the past, may have been very limited in its distribution, much more readily available to citizens and public managers alike. Second, in so doing, it helps to flatten the organizational, and operational, structures of most public organizations.

When one combines the demands of effectively analyzing ever greater information, with the realization that the problems with which governments now must

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2   See for example Elaine Ciulla Kamarck and Joseph S. Nye, Jr., eds, Democracy.com?: Governance in a Networked World: Hollis, NH; Hollis Publishing, 1999.

3   Nevertheless, as recent news stories have suggested, governments in both developed and transitional parts of the world have been able to intervene with technology companies in ways to slow down, if not totally stop, the spread of democracy. See for example Whasun Jho, "Challenges for e-governance: protests from the civil society on the protection of privacy in e-government in Korea": International Review of Administrative Sciences, vol. 71, no. 1, March 2005.

routinely deal have grown greatly in number, are becoming ever more complex and frequently lack a clear cut solution, one can better understand the new realities facing not only public managers, but those who are responsible for their education and training as well. Whether it is a highly technical problem, such as estimating the causes of global warming, or one that is a bit more susceptible to ideological interpretation, such as the impact of rates of taxation upon economic productivity, contemporary policy problems are increasingly difficult to analyze, let alone solve. Thus, public administration educators are faced with the task of providing education and training that enables one to deal simultaneously with complexity and ambiguity – in an environment of ever great uncertainty.[4]

Moreover, the unfortunate reality, and perhaps the central truth of a globalizing world, is that there are rarely simple solutions (and sometimes not even complicated ones) to the most complex problems. In part, this is because efforts to solve many of today's multifaceted public problems often must rely upon the taking of coordinated collaborative action in many places and jurisdictions, the utilization of new and complex technologies and the changing of traditional values. The result is increasing pressure upon governments to solve what often appear to be, and sometimes really are, unsolvable problems. Needless to say, these challenges serve to add even more complexity, not to mention difficulty, for those involved in the processes of preparing the next generation of public administrators to deal with them.

A Growing Threat: Emerging Inequality: Further complicating the tasks facing government administrators having to deal with the processes of globalization is the growing gap between the rich and the poor in both developed, industrialized countries and the less economically well-developed, transitional countries. As was noted in the UN's *World Public Sector Report; Globalization and the State, 2001*; "Eradicating poverty and ensuring sustainable development should form the *raison d'être* of public administration. Half the world, nearly 3 billion people, lives on less than US $2 a day while the richest 20 per cent of the global population receive more than 80 percent of the global income." The UN further notes that two billion people lack clean water. Eight hundred million people are seriously affected by hunger and five hundred thousand mothers die each year in child birth – principally due to a lack of adequate medical care.[5]

This growing inequality, which has been well documented in the United States, China and several western European countries as well, can conceivably serve at one and the same time to both encourage and discourage the development of social, economic and governmental turmoil. On the one hand, growing economic discomfort can often lead to the emergence and growth of class-based political

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4   Allan Rosenbaum "New Challenges for Senior Leadership Enhancement for Improved Public Management" in Leadership and Social Transformation in the Public Sector – Moving from Challenges to Solutions, New York: United Nations, 2003. pp. 103 – 113.

5   United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2001. World Public Sector Report: Globalization and the State. New York, NY, United Nations.

organizations and movements designed to represent the interests of the poor which in turn, place new and special demands upon governments. On the other hand, as the poor get poorer, it lessens their capacity to participate, if not necessarily their interest in participating, in the processes of governance and, thus, makes them more susceptible to anti-democratic political manipulation.

Decentralization and the Public Sector: Equally profound in its impact upon public administrators (as well as the education of them) is the rapidly growing movement for the decentralization of previously highly centralized governments and national ministries and the simultaneous efforts to broaden and strengthen local governance capacity. From Bolivia, where the "Popular Participation Law" has encouraged the movement of the rural poor into the nation's political mainstream through the building and/or strengthening of local institutions; to the Peoples Republic of China, where the granting of greater degrees of local autonomy has produced major economic development (including in Shanghai, the largest amount of new construction activity in a single urban area in human history); one witnesses the emergence of new needs, and demands, to strengthen sub-national government.[6] Complicating this, however, is the fact that, while there is new leadership and creativity at the sub-national level, many of those involved are relatively inexperienced and, as a consequence, a high level of professionalism is not always the norm for many of the world's rapidly developing sub-national governments. This obviously has profound consequences for those involved in public administration education and training.

Decentralization, when real, serves to open up new civic space and, in so doing, provide the opportunity for new political elites to emerge; while, at the same time, fragmenting, at least to a minimal degree (and sometimes to a very substantial degree), highly concentrated and centralized political power. Typically, this is so in terms of both the vertical decentralization of power from national, to regional, to local governments, and with regard to what one might characterize as the horizontal decentralization of power from centralized executive branches to independent bureaucratic organizations, legislative bodies and judicial authorities. Thus, decentralization is connected in very significant ways to the movement to democracy throughout the world.[7] It also, however, puts many new demands upon public administrators as it raises the expectations of local citizens for new, expanded and more responsive service delivery.

How one prepares new public administrators, and equips current ones, to deal with this new reality of decentralized governance has both political and economic consequences. In fact, decentralization is critical to economic development – as is evidenced by the clear correlation between the strength of local government and the relative level of a country's economic developments. This can be seen by examining the differing proportion of governmental expenditure and employment found at the sub-national level across various regions of the world. In North America

6   Allan Rosenbaum and Arne Svensson, Local Governance, New York; United Nations, 1997.

7   ibid

and Europe, an average of 50% of all governmental expenditure and 57% of all governmental employment occurs at the sub-national level. By comparison, in Asia – the scene of rapid economic development over the past decade – the figures for expenditure and employment by sub-national government are 30% and 37%, respectively. In Africa – the least economically developed region of the world – the percentages of governmental expenditure and employment at the sub-national level are only 10% and 6%. Latin America falls somewhere in between Africa and Asia with 19% of governmental expenditure and 21% of governmental employment at the sub-national level.[8]

The reasons for the correlation between level of economic development by region and governmental activity at the sub-national level are obvious. Economic development does not spring magically from the environment. It depends on several factors such as local initiative, adaptability and capacity; the existence in a community of the basic infrastructure necessary to facilitate business, commercial or industrial activity; a supportive legal framework; and the ability to mobilize necessary resources and respond rapidly to an ever-changing environment. These requirements are most easily met when local authorities have the capability to cooperate with private entrepreneurs – be they local or national – to initiate new economic development.[9]

Decentralized government inevitably requires new modes of behavior on the part of public managers. It requires greater independence and entrepreneurialism on their part, while also providing the opportunity for a closer balance between the service needs of individual communities and the actual distribution of goods and services within that community. All of these developments require a new and more responsive form of governance. This requires a new type of public administrator and that, in turn, requires that those who will be educating the public administrators of the future bring fresh, new approaches to that task. Public administration education and training must equip both new and current civil servants with the skills necessary to build new institutions and redefine existing ones. It must give them the ability to assess new and different realities in an ever-changing environment.

Approaches to Achieving Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training

Performance Assessment: Over the course of the past decade, the area of performance measurement has been the subject of much attention in the field of public administration. The growing concern of governments all across the world towards a "results orientation", combined with demands for greater accountability and responsiveness have placed new demands upon public administrators to demonstrate the value and effectiveness of the services that they provide. These demands have

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8   ibid

9   Allan Rosenbaum "Frontiers of Development: Local Governments in Latin America Play an Important Role in Promoting Economic Growth and Democracy" in Hemisphere, Vol. 8, No. 2, Miami, Florida (March 1998) pages 18-22

focused on the ability to quickly and effectively assess whether the programs that public agencies, or their contractors, are delivering are, in fact, meeting the needs of their clientele in the most effective possible manner. Increasingly, governments are developing systems of performance measurement in which significant indicators of program performance or consequence are used to assess success, both in terms of the effectiveness of the services delivered and, in comparison, to other agencies and governments.

Performance assessment has been widely used in education programs generally, as a means of facilitating evaluation and accountability. Recently, it has begun to find its way into public administration education in the United States as discussions have begun about the possibility of the development of a national test in the field of public administration education. Similar discussions have taken place in other countries. Also, as accreditation systems have emerged in different parts of the world, there has been a growing interest in the development of comparative assessment data.

This general development has given rise to a number of new techniques, which are increasingly being used in order to facilitate programmatic assessment. These include the development of institutional effectiveness matrices, programmatic rubrics and, most recently, academic learning compacts. In each instance, these approaches are based on the development of specific student learning objectives and involve the assessment of whether, in fact, the students' performance reflects their achievement. The implementation of such systems requires the careful specification of both desired student outcomes and the criteria for assessing whether those outcomes have been achieved. This, of course, requires the development of course and/or program objectives that are measurable and/or observable, and clearly specified for both faculty and students. It is then necessary to collect data on whether these objectives have been achieved, and of course, optimally feed that data back into course and program development.

In addition to these formal efforts at program assessment, various other innovations are under way in different academic programs to attempt to encourage increased academic excellence. These include the introduction of "capstone courses" that are designed to provide an overview of a student's total academic program. The requirements in such courses are often structured in such a fashion as to emulate the kind of activities in which a professional public administrator would engage. Thus, rather than doing a regular course paper, a student might prepare a report addressing an actual public policy problem.

While many of these innovations are institutionally based, there have also been some efforts to initiate externally based program assessment activities designed at enhancing excellence. Efforts have been made, especially in Europe, to apply these ISO 2000 process to public administration education and training. In the United States, proposals have been made to establishing nationwide prizes to reward outstanding programs. Finally, in the United States, and increasingly in Europe and

in other parts of the world as well, growing attention is being given to specialized accreditation in the field of public administration.

Accreditation: Certainly, one of the most frequently used approaches to seeking to improve the quality of education and training in public administration is through developing standards for improving the quality of public administration education generally, and promoting excellence in particular. The ministries of education of a number of countries in Africa, Asia, Europe and the Middle East have established standards for all academic programs, including those in public administration.[10] However, in many cases those standards are not very demanding, and, in some instances, more progressive institutions within a country have found in applying them that they are quite counterproductive in that they encourage highly traditional curricula and discourage programmatic innovation.

A somewhat different approach to encouraging excellence in public administration education emerged in the United States, (as well as in Europe a few years ago). This involves a peer institution defined and driven process of self-assessment and accreditation. In the US, some four decades ago, the country's major schools of public administration came together to create the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA), which not only advocates for excellence in public administration education generally, but has also established a peer review accreditation process designed to achieve that goal. When established in 1977, this process of voluntary peer review was based upon the application of certain specific criteria for curricula in public administration education programs. Thus, a high quality program was expected, for example, to have certain specific courses, such as financial management, human resource management, etc. as part of its curriculum.

More recently, NASPAA's approach has changed to one that is characterized by the organization as "mission driven" (an approach that has likewise been adopted by the European accrediting association).[11] Such an arrangement is designed to allow for a good deal more variation in the curriculum of individual programs. This new approach requires that each program define its specific mission and then justify its particular curriculum in terms of its relevance and appropriateness to the effective achievement of its mission. Thus, the process allows for considerable variation in curriculum between programs which may have very different goals or purposes. For example, the curriculum of a program focused on training public administrators for local government positions may be quite different than the curriculum of a program which focuses on training policy analysts to work in the national government. What is critical, however, is that the curriculum is appropriate to meet the objectives of the program.

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10 Theo Van der Krogt "Quality Standards in Public Administration Education and Training: Issues, Models, and Contemporary Evaluation Policies", unpublished paper prepared for the UN/IASIA Taskforce on Standards of Excellence in Public Administration Education and Training, 2005.

11 ibid

This "mission driven" approach requires the assessment of an institution's performance on a number of different criteria, including: the nature of the program's mission; program jurisdiction in terms of autonomy of governance and budget; the nature and relevance of the curriculum; the professional competence of the faculty; the adequacy of standards and procedures for the admission of students; the provision of high quality student services; and the quality of the facilities available to the program (library, class room facilities, computers, etc.).

Currently, there are about 500 four year or more higher education institutions that offer some sort of program in public administration in the United States. NASPAA has a membership of approximately 250 institutions throughout the country which offer graduate and/or undergraduate degrees in public affairs and administration. Of those 250 institutions, 139 of them have applied for and been successful in receiving accreditation by NASPAA.

The process through which the accredited institutions have passed involves the institution initially undertaking a self study, which includes the collection of large amounts of data on its students, faculty, alumni and community relationships. A typical self study document may run to as much as 200 pages. Upon completion, the document is submitted to NASPAA's Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation (COPRA), which does an initial review of it and then appoints a three person (typically two academics and one government practitioner) site visitation team that visits the institution seeking accreditation for a period of two to three days.

Following the site visit team's report is then made available to COPRA which can then deny accreditation or accredit the program for up to seven years. In making its decision regarding accreditation, COPRA reviews both the self-study document, as well as the institution's response to questions that COPRA may have put to it following the review of the self-study document and, of course, the report of the site visit team (which the institution being reviewed has had a chance to examine and comment upon). Following accreditation, annual reports have to be made by the program to COPRA for the purposes for assessing any significant changes that may occur.

It seems evident that NASPAA's peer review accreditation process has played a significant role in improving the quality of public administration education and training in the United States, and insuring generally high standards of education in the field. However, it is also clear that the application of the peer review process does not in and of itself guarantee true excellence in public administration education. Moreover, while it is agreed that a program that successfully navigates the NASPAA accreditation process will be a good one, there is almost no agreement on how that process can be strengthened to ensure that it truly produces excellence. Thus, there continues to be ongoing debate and experimentation among US public administration education programs as to what is the best way to achieve real excellence in public administration education.

The issue of accreditation as a means of strengthening academic programs in public administration is one that has been attracting significant attention in other parts of the world. In Latin America and Asia, various academic associations have been considering the development of accreditation programs as potential vehicles to strengthen public administration education in those regions. Europe has gone the furthest in this direction with the establishment of the European Association for Public Administration Accreditation. It has established its own quality standards for public administration education and has developed an accreditation process quite similar to the one utilized by NASPAA. At this point, around a dozen European institutions have undertaken the accreditation process.

Focusing on "Competencies": Some institutions within the United States, and other parts of the world, are experimenting with other approaches to guide their efforts to build excellence in their programs. Currently, one of the most frequently discussed approaches in the U.S., and one that is not incompatible with NASPAA's "mission driven" focus, is the redesigning of the public administration curriculum to emphasize core public sector "competencies". The underlying rationale for a competency-based approach to public administration education and training is the assumption that there are certain fundamental or core competencies that a successful public administrator must possess and that educational excellence requires that the curriculum of a public administration program be built around the provision of these competencies.

While a number of American and European institutions have been concerned with the development of such competencies, only a handful actually have begun to organize their entire curriculum around them. One of the institutions that has gone the furthest in this regard is Indiana University's School of Public and Environmental Affairs, which has developed a set of 14 core knowledge competencies which fall into five major areas. These five major areas and the competencies upon which they are based, are:

1. globalization, which involves an understanding of the economic, political, social and ecological dimensions of globalization and of the shifting of national responsibilities towards both international and locally based institutions, as well as the private sector.
2. governance which involves an understanding of the institutions of governance, the legal framework in which they operate, and the interaction of governmental institutions with each other, as well as the private, and the non-profit sectors.
3. strategic analysis and action which involves an understanding of the financial, political, and economic environments in which government operates, the ability to manage complexity and change, and a knowledge of the technical and quantitative skills necessary to assess policy formulation evaluation and management.
4. organizational management, which involves an understanding of individual and organizational behavior, as well as such matters as the organization's relationships to client groups, the managing of diversity, the ability to work as a team, and the development of effective leadership capacity.

5. professionalization, which focuses upon ones relationship to the public, the role that values play in governance, and the development of appropriate ethical practices and professional excellence.

Certainly the growing movement towards greater concern about the competencies required for effective public administration represents a further step in the process of building excellence in public administration education and training. Nevertheless, in the end, it is most likely to be a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition for the achievement of real excellence in public administration education and training. While the utilization of such competencies and, for that matter, processes of peer review accreditation as well, are important; in truth, they are still not at the heart of the process of achieving excellence in public administration education and training.

Building a Community of Excellence: Although there is no real empirical evidence as regards what does or does not produce true excellence in public administration education and training, it is possible through experience and systematic observation to get at least a reasonable sense of what may be the most important characteristics of truly excellent programs in public administration education. In that regard, if there is one single factor that seems to characterize the best programs, it is the existence of a vibrant and a challenging intellectual community – one where there is a true, free clash of ideas and a commitment to their fullest examination.

Such a community is one that is constantly debating the critical issues of the public sector and the relevant processes of administration and policy formation and evaluation, as well as the efficacy of the various approaches to problem solving implicit in public administration education and training. Such communities represent the most progressive of academic environments. Unfortunately, the reality is that such communities are much fewer than one would hope and might normally assume. If that is so, it, of course, raises the question of what is required to build such a community.

In fact, there are at least six qualities that one can identify as being a prerequisite of such communities. The first such condition involves an absolute commitment to the conduct of the highest quality research and scholarship on the part of all members of the community. It is not uncommon to hear reference to the truly dedicated and highly effective teacher whose total preoccupation is his or her students, but who doesn't actively engage in research. The reality is that such people are few and far between and in truth only exist as very, very rare exceptions. In almost every case, the good teacher is first and foremost a good researcher who is totally committed to advancing the intellectual environment and knowledge of his or her discipline. Such individuals are an absolute prerequisite for a community of excellence in any area of higher education.

The second critical element of a vibrant and challenging intellectual community is the full empowerment of all its members. Whether one is a beginning faculty

member or a well established senior scholar, ones ideas and status as a full and equal participant is an absolute necessity since one never can predict from who or where path breaking ideas will come. Consequently, such empowerment is absolutely essential to the maintenance of an environment in which the free and open clash of ideas can both occur and be sustained.

A third key element of the community environment that will produce excellence in public administration education is a commitment to diversity – both of ideas and of the participants in the community. Inclusiveness is much more important than exclusiveness. Indeed, as past practice has shown, uniformity and/or a monolithic approach to the educational enterprise is almost certain to ensure an over reliance upon tradition and a lack of openness to new and important intellectual developments.

A fourth characteristic of a vibrant and challenging community of excellence involves a commitment to the values of human progress and individual advancement. Public administration, in and of itself, represents a key means by which society attempts to both sustain and improve the quality of the human condition. A commitment to such an effort, indeed in its simplest form, the making of the world a better place, is central to any real efforts to achieve excellence in public administration education. This is especially so in a world that must confront issues of poverty, inequality and the building of responsive and participatory democratic institutions.

A fifth necessary but not sufficient characteristic of a community of excellence is the availability of adequate resources. The development of excellence in public administration education, or any other academic field, requires a considerable commitment of time and energy on the part of those who are members of the intellectual community responsible for a program's growth. Without question, the ability to commit that time is very heavily influenced by the ability of those involved to earn a level of income that will sustain them and the members of their immediate family in an acceptable middle-class lifestyle. In addition, other resources are required to facilitate research and intellectual exchange.

Finally, any real community of excellence is in certain ways a highly competitive community. Individuals within such a community, while they may cooperate on many things – including research, teaching and training activities – do compete with one another in terms of the prevalence of both key ideas and new approaches to intellectual exploration. In the end, one approach, or set of ideas, may not necessarily be better or more relevant than another set. However, the reality is that the commitment to advocate on behalf of ones approach is absolutely essential to the achievement of excellence.

Likewise, competition between communities of excellence is an essential stimulant to the continuation of their commitment to excellence. The U.S. experience in higher education is highly illustrative in this regard. While there are many areas of public services in which the country falls remarkably short of meeting the high-

est standards given its wealth, higher education is not one of them. By almost all standards (Nobel Laureates, research productivity, numbers of foreign students, etc.) higher education in the U.S. routinely ranks among the best, if not the best, in the world. While many factors, including the availability of adequate financial resources, have contributed to that, without question the ongoing competition among institutions, and departments within institutions, has been absolutely central to the development.

On the Need for Education, Not Just Learning: As noted earlier, the complexity of the problems which public administrators face in the contemporary world requires that, especially in their formative years, they have experiences which prepare them to deal effectively with highly complex issues involving very complicated problems of social and economic development. In terms of current approaches to the education of public administrators, there is no doubt that in many places in most parts of the world they learn a great deal in their academic programs. Indeed, at present, most newly minted public administration education graduates have learned much about many different things. They have studied how organizations function (at least in the abstract); they learn about the budgetary processes of government; and also about personnel management and the legal framework within which public administrators must function. In some cases, they have been taught about leadership and ethics and how to carry out complex policy analysis techniques.

The key question for public administration educators, however, is that while current students of public administration may learn much during their academic experience, do they leave their programs as educated individuals, ready to become dedicated and competent public servants in a world that is changing with extraordinary rapidity? The reality is that, in many cases, we may be paying less attention to the "education" of our next generation of public administrators than we are to their "learning". To clarify this point, it is useful to draw a distinction between "learning" and "education".

Learning is, for all intents and purposes, a highly individualized activity. The typical student learns, in most cases, because they want to do so and they do this in what essentially is a highly individualized way. Usually, what they learn is directly applicable to perceived job requirements. While they may take classes, often with many other students, their experience of learning in these classes is, in almost all instances, a highly personal one. The typical student reads, listens and absorbs information. Their efforts are almost always driven by their realization that learning a body of information represents a significant step in their preparation for a professional career, and their work is motivated by that goal. In public administration, students do, as we have noted above, learn a variety of different things, including some subjects that are quite complex and sophisticated. Thus, the student is provided with and, usually, acquires many of the skills needed to succeed in his or her career. However, in today's world, skills are not enough.

What is required is the analytic ability that comes not simply from learning, but rather as a product of education.

Education, and the educating of the student, is a rather different matter than simply learning skills. The educated individual not only possesses knowledge of particular administrative skills and techniques, and subject matter expertise, but is also someone who understands the need to, and has some capacity to, recognize the many subtleties of the social, political and environmental context within which his or her skills must be applied. The educated person has the insight to appreciate the nuances of the situation in which he or she is functioning. Such an individual has an understanding of why things function as they do; why institutions work as they do; and even more importantly, how to improve those processes and institutions with which they must work. Most significantly, the educated individual understands how the institutions and processes within which he or she must function interact with the values of the group or groups with which they must deal, and with the society as a whole.

In truth, as one examines how students are prepared for governmental service, all to often, it appears that a much greater degree of attention is given to the processes of student learning, rather than to the educating of the student. Too often public administration education is really more like the learning that is, quite appropriately, at the heart of much training activity. It is skill focused and often pays little or no attention to preparing the student to adapt to a world in which required skills are rapidly changing. That this is so, is in many ways not surprising. Learning, in the end, is highly individually based, while education requires a vibrant community setting – indeed, a community of excellence. It is community based, because it relies not so much on the individual's own ability to learn, but rather on the individual's ability to interact with others in order to better understand the subtleties of complex issues and problems and the nature of their interaction with a changing world. Thus, to promote education in its broadest sense, it is necessary to build a community in which education is not only valued and encouraged but, most importantly, is experienced by those who are a part of that community.

It is for this reason that effective education requires the successful development of real educational communities of excellence. Unfortunately, the creation of such communities requires time, commitment, creativity and considerable investment of human and financial resources. Moreover, in a very subtle way, the processes of change going on in many parts of the world have tended to undermine the development of such educational communities. Rather, they have tended to emphasize, sometimes in not so subtle ways, learning at the expense of education. This is because in far too many places, one of the unintended consequences of the triumph of democratic capitalism during the course of the past two decades has been to place a much greater emphasis upon the development of the individual at the expense of the community. When combined with the understandable desire of those in transitional societies to acquire the skills of those in more developed ones, we have seen the emergence of great emphasis upon learning, often at the expense of real education.

Consequently, the issue of how we train civil servants, and the need to facilitate not only their learning, but their education as well, is one that is becoming ever more critical to the future of good governance. Moreover, as public issues have become more complex over the course of the past two decades, increasingly, public administrators have found themselves in situations where they must, as the saying goes, "speak truth to power". This is not an easy thing to do, and certainly in many countries, there have been many unfortunate consequences as a result of the inability of public administrators to engage in such action. However, clearly the future of democratic governance depends upon the ability to develop such public administrators. Indeed, this is one of the great challenges facing those who are committed to public administration education and training. Without question, this requires the building of educational communities that are committed to excellence in public administration education and training. It requires a special kind of institution building; it requires the creation of learning environments in which the education that comes only from real understanding can take place. It also requires the creation of academic programs in which the ideas of democracy, and free give-and-take, underlie the academic community. Building such communities is not an easy task, but it is a worthy one.

Conclusion

The world of the 21st century will inevitably be a world of rapid change and much complexity. The last fifteen years of the 20th century was certainly that, and there is no reason to think that the degree of change, and the complexity of problems that governments will have to address in the 21st century, will be anything less. Indeed, the likelihood is that change will come more rapidly and that the problems will be more complex. In part, this is because the dominant trends of the 20th century – globalization, decentralization, democratization and rising inequality – show no signs of decreasing in their prevalence and consequence. These developments obviously place major burdens on the public administrators of the future, and especially on those who will bear the responsibility of educating them.

In the course of addressing the question of achieving excellence in public administration education, it has been useful to at least briefly review certain institutionalized systemic efforts designed to encourage the building of excellent public administration educational programs. However, in the end, excellence in public administration is truly a function of the commitment of individuals within a community to work towards such a goal. Like all important human endeavors (such as the building of a democratic society), the achieving of excellence in public administration education will inevitably be a work in progress. In fact, it is doubtful that one can ever achieve complete excellence in public administration education or any other human endeavor for that matter. However, the continued striving for it is undoubtedly the most likely way of achieving the highest quality of public administration education.

The Management Competencies of Senior Managers: A Look at Some OECD Countries

Mohamed Charih, Jacques Bourgault,
Daniel Maltais and Lucie Rouillard *

Since the beginning of the 1980s, public administrations have experimented and undergone reforms to varying degrees (Peters and Savoie, 1998; Pollitt and Bou-kaert, 2000; Barzelay, 2001). This reform movement, inspired by the new public management, has led to new challenges as regards governance: separation of policy and operations, introduction of quasi-market mechanisms in the public sector, the questioning of financial and human-resource management procedures, the contractualization of public services, etc. (Charih and Daniels, 1997; Aucoin, 1995; Peters and Savoie, 1998). All these changes combined with the new demographic profile, globalization, the rapid development of new information technologies, the importance of knowledge-based employees and the citizens' expectations with regard to better services are creating a different work environment for public managers, in general, and for senior managers, in particular.

In this context, human resources are considered as the ultimate leverage for public administrations that want to get the most out of the situation. But how to go about doing this? In his report, Silguy (2003), whose mandate was to put forward a reform of the École Nationale d'Administration de France (ENA), summarizes in these terms the relationship between the issues the public administration will face and the competencies required to do so:

> "Proposing a reform of ENA implies the identification of the administrative competencies needed by the country in the next twenty-five years…These are linked to demographic evolution, internal (the role of the State and the public powers) and external (European and global context) transformations already underway in the last few decades: decentralization, redefinition of the scope of government action, the transfer from authoritarian relationship to contractual partnership, the increasing importance of arbitration and regulation, the building of Europe, globalization…In this context, the qualities expected of public administrators evolve. Beyond their traditional abilities (sense of what is in the general interest, integrity, power to analyze and synthesize, long-term vision…), the immediate search for new skills is essential (imagination, management of change, human-resource management, multilateral negotiations, risk management…)" (Silguy Report, 2003, p. 3)

Before Silguy, several authors and organizations insisted on the importance of management competencies as a factor in future success. Management competencies, a combination of knowledge, know-how and personal skills and attitudes,

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* Mohamed Charih is a professor and Director of Studies at the École Nationale d'Administration Publique (ENAP), Canada; Jacques Bourgault is a professor at Université du Québec à Montréal and an associate professor at ENAP; Daniel Maltais and Lucie Rouillard are professors at ENAP

are used to recruit persons having the necessary requirements for the position, to develop a career and succession plan, and to evaluate the performances of an employee (Bourgault, Charih et al. 2003; Aventur François, 1998; Office of Personnel Management, 1998; Horton, 2000; Aucoin, 2003). However, an extensive review of the literature dealing with the competencies of senior managers in the public sector was able to uncover only a few articles dealing with this subject, and even those often focused on one country and provided no comparative study involving different countries.

This article seeks to deal with this gap by examining the challenges that five OECD countries must face in the future and the competencies sought after to meet them. In so doing, the researchers basically tried to respond to three questions: What are the issues facing each of the countries under study in the next five to ten years? What are the new competencies considered to be fundamental by each country for the future? How do the competency profiles differ from each other?

In order to get a better grasp of the issues and new competencies for the future, research was conducted within the administrations of five countries: the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, France and Canada. The reason for choosing these countries is because they are all members of OECD, because they have all recently undergone major reforms, and because their level of development is relatively comparable.

This research is fundamentally inductive, based on a variety of methods: interviews (58 individuals), discussion panels and documents, a longitudinal data bank on the strategic issues of Canadian public administrations, and a conference on senior managers' management competencies for the future organized within the framework of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration.

The United States

The research in the United States was conducted after the 9/11 terrorist attack. This context probably influenced the future issues pointed out by the American managers. The fact nonetheless remains that the respondents identified six major issues that seem to preoccupy the American public administration: national security and the rediscovery of the virtues of the State, the increasing influence of the media and interest groups, the retirement of a large number of senior managers, the resorting to new information technologies, the complexity of the management environment and the difficulty in retaining younger employees.

According to the people met, since the events of September 11, 2001, questions of national security have become a major issue for the United States. This event also resulted in a positive view of the State and the importance of its role in society, notably with regard to national security. Moreover, 9/11 raised many questions about the compromise between freedom and security that constitutes an issue for several public policies.

American managers find that the impact of interest groups on the development and management of public policies will increase since the influence that was once felt, mainly at the highest levels, has now reached the lowest levels, like small projects. Does this phenomenon really benefit democracy? How can general and individual interests be reconciled?

The media seem to examine more and more closely the government's actions and programs. They exercise a great deal of influence on the political and administrative agenda. In addition, the number of American media will continue, on the one hand, to increase thanks to new information technologies, and, on the other hand, to become more and more concentrated. The way of treating the news is also changing. In addition to examining the government's actions, the media have gone from news to analysis and then to opposition. In this context, senior managers will have to know how to come to terms and deal with them.

With regard to public-service demographics, it is estimated that more than 50% of senior managers will be eligible for retirement over the next five years within the American federal administration and it will be very difficult to ensure adequate replacements (GAO, 2003). Presently, senior managers are mainly recruited from among personnel already in place, and the quality of the people coming up through the ranks would appear to be rather mediocre because the public service did not succeed in recruiting and retaining the most talented candidates during the 1980s and 1990s. It seems that the public service is less attractive to young Americans than in the past and that it has not been able to adapt itself to meet the expectations of new generations with regard to work, whether it be in relation to salary or other aspects of work such as the variety of challenges. Not only will the public service be younger, but it will also be more diversified with regard to age, race and professions.

Another issue consists in ensuring the hiring and retaining of talented new employees. Part of the solution lies in the systems set up to manage personnel in the whole of the public service. These include better information about careers and job openings, advantageous working conditions, competitive salaries, greater career flexibility, the possibility of lateral entry, etc. In addition to the government's efforts, public managers will have to be able to attract and keep the best elements by establishing, for example, a personalized relationship with potential recruits, by allowing young recruits to show off their skills, by providing for mentoring activities, by allowing flexibility in work schedules and in the use of vacation time, etc.

The use of information technologies is an important issue. In the United States, government-on-line occupies an important place in the government agenda. Following the example of other OECD countries, the federal government is looking to facilitate on-line access and transactions. In this area, partnership projects involving the public and private sectors are often relied upon, and the management of such projects must be mastered. In addition, e-commerce raises various issues, in particular, national and on-line security. Certainly, the Internet poses the challenge of managing an ever-increasing volume of information that may become excessive.

Finally, one of the great challenges to meet is management in a more complex, uncertain and risky environment. Senior managers are faced with urgent, varied and, in certain cases, contradictory requests and are under much pressure while they must demonstrate that they are able to obtain results that correspond to a high level of performance. Senior managers have to be capable of increasing employees' contribution while, at the same time, offering the latter a workplace where they can feel fulfilled without wearing themselves out.

In the opinion of the American respondents, the competencies needed to be developed to face these challenges are:

1. adaptability, to face new challenges, to offer appropriate responses to new situations, to have useable skills for both the private and public sectors;
2. the capacity to negotiate, whether it concerns the agency's performance contracts, contracts with the private sector, or relations with interest groups and the media;
3. the correct assessment of managers' performance, such as the ability to retain talented recruits, manage change, obtain good results, etc.;
4. leadership, including relations with the community, employees and peers, and the ability to work in teams, etc.;
5. the management of knowledge, such as the ability to manage information, to use the abilities of those who have the expertise and the intelligence skills with a view to assuring security;
6. personnel management, including the ability to identify candidates needed by the public service;
7. the ability to handle the complexity of the management environment.

The United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, the public administration's new focus fits in with the reforms undertaken upon Margaret Thatcher's arrival to power, in particular, *Operation Next Step* that consisted of transforming the units responsible for supplying services to citizens into executive agencies, the ministries being responsible for the elaboration of policies, as well as with earlier initiatives that put emphasis especially on the service to citizens (Metcalfe, 1993; Campbell and Wilson, 1995; Pollitt and Boukaert, 2000).

The White Paper on the modernisation of government (1999) and the Wilson Report (1999) set out the issues for the future in the United Kingdom. In the White Paper, the Blair Government announced a new series of reforms that basically emphasize the improvement of services to citizens. These reforms concern accessibility to services 24 hours a day, seven days a week, when such a request is expressed, the ability of the citizen to deal with the government on-line, the elimination of useless regulations, the setting up of testing laboratories permitting the experimentation of new ways to offer public services, the creation of new incentives for State employees, including financial incentives, and a better delivery

of public services by integrating more persons from the outside into the public service, and by encouraging the quicker advancement of younger employees.

Through these reforms, the government wants to ensure that public policies include concrete, strategic commitments, that the services are centred on the needs of the citizens, that the citizens quickly use the new technologies, that these services are of high quality, and that they are produced at a competitive price. The government also wants to promote, rather than degrade, the public service.

Sir Richard Wilson (1999), the person responsible for the public service, identified five major issues in his report: 1) the strengthening of the leadership that must be visionary and embody the values of the modern public service; 2) better planning at all levels of the public service; 3) better performance management; 4) a big improvement in diversity in the public service; and 5) a public service that is more open to people and their ideas.

The implementation of the reform raises a certain number of difficulties or challenges. First, the emphasis put on the delivery of services means that, from now on, it will concern just as much the senior public service that has precise targets to reach. This brings into question the division that was established between the development of policies and their implementation. Is the senior public service, motivated by substantial bonuses, going to neglect the policy development while appropriating the responsibility for the completion of projects and exercising greater control over the agencies? A second challenge concerns the mobility between ministries and agencies that is encouraged and the arrival of people from the private sector into the public service. If this contributes to a questioning of how certain things are done, this mobility leads to problems at the operational level. Finally, it is noted that, even if the hiring of managers to manage the agencies on a contractual basis has proven to be successful, this system creates the problem of keeping these people in the public service.

The issues relating to the modernization of the British Government have led to defining the necessary competencies as well as the behaviour to be encouraged or discouraged. The list of the competencies to be developed, according to the Cabinet Office, is as follows:

1. to propose a goal and a direction (by creating and communicating a vision for the future);
2. to have a personal impact (by preaching through example);
3. to think strategically (by taking advantage of ideas and opportunities to accomplish objectives);
4. to get the best out of people (by motivating them and by ensuring their development in order to achieve high performance);
5. to learn and improve (by capitalizing on experience and new ideas to improve results);
6. to put the emphasis on the delivery of services (by producing results and by using public funds in order to create value).

Australia

According to the respondents, a large number of future issues will follow from the reforms undertaken in the 1980s. In fact, the Australian public administration has experienced several important changes, in particular: the revision of the role of the Federal State, the redefining of the ministries' mandates and the elimination of several organizations, the creation of agencies with a Chief Executive Officer at their head, the withdrawal of the government from the direct delivery of public services, the presentation of public-policy advice based on the principle of contestability, the adoption of a more business-like management approach, and the emphasis put on budget and results-based management.

The main issues identified by the persons interviewed are: the continuation of the redefining of the role of government, the competition for policy advice, market testing, new information technologies, the aging of senior public servants, the recruitment and retaining of younger employees, the questioning of loyalty toward the organization, and the exposure to the global context.

What is the role of government? The debate on this question is not over. According to the managers met, the government's role must not be static; it must adapt to the times. The public now believes that the private sector has improved to a greater extent than the public sector, and, if the government wants to win back the public's confidence, the role of the Federal State must be repositioned according to present and future issues. But the pursuit of the redefining of the role of the State in Australia is often thwarted by the federal government's political mandate that is only three years. The Australian government is trying to deal with this serious shortcoming by prolonging the mandate to govern from three to five years.

On the heels of its reforms, the Australian government has greatly reduced the pre-eminent position of public servants concerning policy advice by opening up this field to competition from consultants, not-for-profit organizations and the private sector. In the opinion of Australian observers, the Australian federal government is seeking, through this change, to open the way to other sources of advice and to reduce the power of public servants in this area. However, Australian public servants are trying to maintain their influence in the area of policy advice. The public servants have reacted by developing new strategies aimed at maintaining their privileged status with regard to public policies. Among the strategies in question is the anticipation of the requests of the ministry's or organization's clients.

This has had several consequences for the public service. Public servants are faced with competition at two levels: the development of policies and their implementation. In this way, they pay more attention to this task in order to remain credible in the eyes of the ministry and the government. In this context, the ministries and organizations must deal with competitive sources of policy advice, and these sources often have more resources at their disposal.

In the opinion of the Australian respondents, the introduction of market forces into the Australian public administration was a major change emanating from the reforms of the 1980s. The ministries are no longer in a monopolistic position; they are in competition with the private sector and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). As a result, public servants must adapt to the competition and develop a management style similar to that of their counterparts in the private sector. More specifically, this means that public organizations must become as competitive as the private sector, rapidly handle clients' requests and respond to them, attentively manage the resources that are available to them, while at the same time, obtaining significant value added for the clients. Winning a contract by being more competitive than the private sector has become a standard of the measure of the quality of management in the Australian public service.

The advent of new information technologies is seen by Australian senior managers as one of the important issues for the coming years. At this time and over the course of the next four years, the Australian federal government is trying to put the majority of its services on line. In addition to democratizing the access to information, the new technologies are going to change the relations with elected officials, citizens and the public administration. Although the persons met consider that the information technologies are very promising, these same technologies worry Australians who value discretion and the protection of privacy. Australian managers also think that the new information technologies are going to change the style of management of their institutions by eliminating the dividing line separating organizations and even the boundaries between countries. Australians also wonder about the competence of the public servants who will be called upon to manage in the context of new information technologies and about the impact of the latter on human resources and their management.

According to the managers met, the Australian public service is also faced with the aging of its senior public servants. About 50 % will retire in the next ten years. This situation will cause a loss of experienced managers. Australian managers see this problem as a very serious issue that requires urgent measures. Within this context, Australia has already begun to prepare for the replacement of senior managers.

As in a good number of western countries, the Australian federal public service is preoccupied with replacing its aging personnel. However, recruiting and retaining young workers also seems to be a challenge. Young people are better educated and more demanding and accord more importance to the quality of life. Moreover, the government is in competition with the private sector for the best candidates. To deal with these issues, Australian public managers think that it is necessary to change the internal environment and the management style in order to keep new recruits, to identify the new factors that motivate today's generation and to offer them an interesting and stimulating job.

Drastic cuts in the public service following the vast reforms had provoked a questioning of loyalty toward the government as employer. In the opinion of the

managers questioned: "The concept of loyalty has changed today and people make little distinction between the public service and the private sector. The person first considers his own interests and the advantages he can obtain from his job."

Australia is a country isolated by its geography; this seems to have given Australian public servants an extreme sense of self-sufficiency. However, several events, such as the Aboriginal people resorting to international organizations in order to be recognized in the Constitution, the flood of immigrants and the 9/11 terrorist attack have led Australians to realize the consequences of international issues on their country. This being so, Australian senior managers today are trying to catch up by using study trips, exchanges and training programs.

According to the Australian managers, the competencies to be developed are as follows:

1. policy advice and policy development: to remain the principal policy adviser, to know the machinery of policy development and management, to be on the look-out for the expression of needs, to appreciate the impact of policies on the people involved and the consequences on the ministry;
2. management approach: to master the public-management context and approaches, to be familiar with management in the private sector, to be interested in results-based management, to know how to manage in a context of partnerships and networks, to know how to manage contracts;
3. adapted leadership: to have a global vision of the government and the ministry, to develop a relevant, motivating and realistic ministerial agenda, to appreciate organizational risk, to anticipate the replacement of workers and to manage mobility, to be an active member in the networks affecting the public service;
4. interpersonal relationships: to know how to manage human relations, to know colleagues and subordinates, to know how to get the best out of employees, to know how to face conflicts and to resolve them quickly;
5. external relations: to appreciate Australia's place in the world, to be familiar with international issues and their impact on the government and the ministry.

France

In France, the managers foresee that the public administration will face the following nine important issues in the coming years: the consequences of European integration, the shift toward the customer-based approach, results-based management, the public service being open to prosecution, the advent of new information technologies, demographics, organizational culture and human-resource management and, finally, serving an increasingly pluralistic population, in both ethnic and cultural terms.

Brussels makes more and more policies. The national administrations must work in the preparation and application of the collective decisions. With European integration, there is increasing cooperation among the countries; the future of policy development is increasingly vast and complex. France is open to the influence of public servants from other countries of the European Community. European

integration will be a factor of change for administering policy development: there are common laws, exchanges of practices and comparisons.

The interviewees consider that September 11 demonstrated the importance of the role of the State. In their opinion, it is necessary to be wary of the simplistic solutions of the new public management. The limitations of this approach were seen in the United Kingdom with regard to water and trains and in the United States concerning airports. The role of the State will remain important, but the ways of exercising that role will evolve. If the activity of the State changes, the role of its leaders will also change.

The law pertaining to budget reform creates an approach based on performance and results. As it concerns an organization act, it touches upon all administrations and all sectors, including human-resource management. It was the subject of a large political consensus in the two chambers of the French parliament and among all the political parties. The budget reform lowers constraints because it creates tangible means to support programs and to raise the level of accountability. There will be more results-based management with performance indicators. Controls carried out after the fact will be more present. Administrations will be made more accountable for their own internal control work, and this will lead to changes in work methods within the *corps d'inspection*. In France, it is said that everything is too controlled and badly controlled, and these controls waste money and energy; it will be necessary to do a better job identifying what is sought, and the work of the numerous controllers must be better coordinated. The interviewees believe that the leaders will have to accept that their performance be judged by staff, users and parliamentarians: they will no longer be able to cut themselves off from the rest of the world. Moreover, there is now more parliamentary review and the targets of this review are increasingly becoming more specific.

As far as administrative organization is concerned, rather significant changes have been noticed; these include the appearance of an increasing number of relatively autonomous, statutory agencies, as well as the modification of the role of prefects who have become organizers more than executive directors.

The profile of the French population has radically changed over the last thirty years. It is expected that the State reflect this profile in its workforce and that the senior public service become more inter-community. That will require new approaches to manage diversity and to encourage tolerance and a deep understanding of minorities. The managers who were interviewed indicate that the massive retirement of managers, about 40% in the next ten years, will open the way to a younger public service and an important renewal of this service. This situation is seen as a golden opportunity to bring about profound changes in the management culture and in staff profile.

The new information technologies destroy the uniquely hierarchical positioning of senior managers for information is instantly accessible to the entire organization and the employees can evaluate their superiors using this information. Requests are directly

forwarded to all sorts of political and administrative sites and there is a danger of encroachment, errors and confusion if speed wins over analysis. That creates additional pressure to work together in a network and to change work methods. Everyone's expectations are higher. This faster process results in non-performance being seen immediately. Technological development is changing hierarchical relationships, mentalities and people's expectations; more networking and teleconferencing take place. It is estimated that the breakthrough is still recent and that there is catching up to do as seen in the following comment: "Most of my deputy directors do not use computers. And still very few senior public servants can surf the Web or the Internet!"

Senior managers are personally responsible from a legal standpoint (for example, the "contaminated blood" affair). It is a way of balancing the power of the public authority; however, this trend threatens to make managers more cautious and to put a damper on their willingness to take risks. According to the leaders interviewed, the public service seems to have lost its sense of fundamental, common values: from a moral perspective, a rise in individualism is being witnessed. The organizational culture is a rather holistic way of thinking with a very specific internal structuring; it is not a simple sticking together of ways of thinking and acting. According to the respondents, the organizational culture has not changed everywhere. The *grands corps* say that they agree to develop a managerial approach, but, in reality, they believe themselves to be above that and believe that this approach is for others! This culture was based more on the law than on management and more on tasks to accomplish than on the results to achieve.

Up until very recently, the culture of the senior public service did not place emphasis on the obligation to undergo professional training during one's career, but this situation would seem to be changing. There are now several departmental and interdepartmental training institutions, and internal competition with regard to training has even been observed within the public service.

According to the managers met, there is no real integrated human-resource management policy. Personnel policies are simply quantitative employment policies. Performance- and competency-evaluation policies are simply pro forma; they are not routinely used and the evaluation form does not refer to them. Up to now, the human-resource management approach has not been widely accepted or put into practice in the French administrations.

France does not have an officially endorsed competency profile. There are, however, a number of points on which many of the interviewees agree with regard to the competencies needed for the future. These competencies are as follows:

1. adaptability, including the ability to react quickly and efficiently, to be proactive, to question established truths, to gather varied experience, and to demonstrate a flexible attitude;
2. the ability to negotiate as a program manager and in relations with users;
3. the assessment of performance, including the ability to set operational objectives;

4. leadership including charisma, audacity, determination, pragmatism, a sense of moral values, entrepreneurship, a critical perspective, openness to change, and a strong sense of identity;
5. management of knowledge;
6. human-resource management, including frankness, openness, lucidity, good judgement, interpersonal skills, and courage;
7. management of networks, that is, knowing how to run them, to work in teams, to anticipate issues, and to share information;
8. the ability to innovate, including open-mindedness, creativity, strategic vision, and risk-taking;
9. continuous learning;
10. the ability to manage projects, to organize, to follow up results, and to correct the course of action when needed;
11. communication, including the ability to be frank and honest, to share diagnostics and to persuade.

Canada

In 1989, the Canadian government undertook a renewal of the public service known as *Public Service 2000*. The main objectives of this initiative were the improvement of services to citizens and the granting of greater room to manoeuvre to federal managers. In 1994-95, the Canadian government undertook a reflection on the role of the State within the framework of *Program Review*. Following this exercise, the government withdrew from several activities, and 55,000 public servants were let go. Certain activities were privatized, while others were transformed into partnerships with Canadian provinces or the private sector, with the goal of a better integration of services.

The preoccupation with improvement of services led to other reviews such as *Quality Services* in 1995 and *Service Improvement Initiative* in 2000, whose objectives were to increase, by at least 10% in five years, the rate of satisfaction of Canadian citizens toward the principal services offered by the government. Results-based management was introduced, with the ministries obliged to account to Parliament for objectives pursued, particularly with regard to service standards and results or performance obtained. It is also to be noted that the Canadian population expects more accountability and transparency. In 1999, the federal government also proceeded with the modernization of the comptroller's role. Modern comptrollership empowers and supports ministerial managers and gives them responsibilities through a delegation mechanism combined with *a posteriori* control.

The changes in public management constitute a significant trend influencing Canadian public administration whose effects will continue into the future. They pose numerous challenges for public administrators; these include the management of partnerships and alliances and the ability to use results-based management and to be accountable in the context of demands for accountability and transparency,

and, finally, to develop a culture of service within public administration based on a new ethic and new values.

A second trend concerns the contribution of the new information and communication technologies. In 1999, the Canadian government, through its *Government-On-Line* (GOL) initiative, set about to be known as the best-connected government by giving on-line access to information and government services to its citizens. The Canadian government's accomplishments in the field of on-line administration are significant, but they must still be developed considerably more. Often, they challenge the silo effect in management and the traditional limits of organizations. The impact of the new technologies on public-sector management is therefore considerable, and it is necessary to learn how to manage knowledge-based employees as well as to master horizontal management.

A third trend is related to demographics. First of all, the Canadian population has increasingly diversified roots, and the management of this diversity emphasizing tolerance will continue to be a preoccupation for the public service. Moreover, the average age of senior managers is relatively high, and this group decreased by almost 40% in numbers between 1991 and 1998. This represents a loss of part of the collective organizational memory and competencies. It is thus necessary to prepare for the replacement of those people in a context where the recruiting and retaining of the best elements represent a problem in an increasingly competitive market and in a context where a work environment conducive to reconciling the expectations of the candidates and those of the organization must be created.

Finally, a last issue rests on the ability to develop public policies. In the last few years, the emphasis put on three policies, the reduction of the size of the public service, the elimination of the deficit, and the improvement of services to citizens, has marginalized the traditional function of the formulation of public policy. The ability to elaborate and analyze these policies must be improved.

The Canadian federal government is trying to respond to these various issues by developing competency profiles for deputy ministers and senior managers, by evaluating the present competencies and by calling upon the Canadian Centre for Management Development to develop training programs. The competency profile for deputy ministers and senior managers includes the following elements:

1. intellectual competencies, including cognitive capacity, creativity and the ability to shape the future (vision);
2. management competencies, including action management comprising the formulation of strategies, the understanding of the organization including the workings of the government apparatus as well as one's own organization, teamwork and the management of partnerships in order to offer better service to citizens;
3. human-relation competencies, including interpersonal relationships and communication skills;

4. personal qualities, including vitality and resistance to stress, ethical and moral values, a personality that includes perseverance and self-control, flexible behaviour, that is, the ability to adjust one's behaviour to each particular context, and, finally, self-confidence.

Comparing the Issues

Before comparing the issues and the competency profiles (see Tables I and II), it is important to underline the fact these elements have to do with the interviewees' perception of the issues that affect their public administration and the competencies required in the next five to ten years. Secondly, it must be taken into account that certain countries are further advanced than others in the field of change and reform and in terms of experience with competency-based management. Thirdly, all the competencies mentioned are not necessarily new.

Table I
The Management Issues of the Future

	THE UNITED STATES	THE UNITED KINGDOM	AUSTRALIA	FRANCE	CANADA
I S S U E S	National security and the rediscovering of virtues of the State Increased presence of interest groups Increase in media influence Massive departure of managers (in the next 5 years) Difficulty in retaining young people Wide use of information technologies Complexity of the management environment	Improvement of public services Reinforcement of leadership Better planning Better performance management Improvement in the representation of diversity A public service more open to citizens	Continuation of the debate on the role of the State Competition for policy advice Competition with the private sector (results) New information technologies Departure of 50 % of the managers in the next 10 years Recruitment and retention Questioning of loyalty Opening to the world	European integration Shift toward the customer-based approach Results-based management The increasingly litigious nature of the public service New information technologies Departure of 40 % of the managers in the next 10 years Representative nature of the public service Organizational culture Human-resource management	The quality of services to citizens Government-on-line Results-based management Aging of senior managers Preparation of the replacement personnel Ability to develop policies Ethical challenges

By comparing the issues, it was observed that the improvement in the delivery of services to the citizens will continue to be a preoccupation for three countries: the United Kingdom, Canada and France. It seems that the quality of the delivery of services to the citizens is a persistent issue and will continue to be so. In the United Kingdom and Canada, the best delivery of services began in the 1980s and was followed by the charter of citizens and standards of quality (Seidle, 1995; Office of the Auditor General of Canada, 2001; Government of Canada, 2000). On the other hand, France has just made the shift to customer service. According to Bechtel, the former director of the French ENA, the French senior public servants resisted the move toward the

new public management because they did not see its validity. France has therefore not imitated English-speaking countries with regard to reforms.

Interviewees in four countries perceive results-based management as an issue: Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and France. In the United Kingdom and Australia, where the delivery of public services has been handed over to agencies in the former and privatized in the latter, the central administration tries to better serve the citizens, on the one hand, and to hold a multitude of agencies, private organizations and not-for-profit organizations accountable, on the other. As for Canada, a results-based management having to cover federal ministries and organizations and intergovernmental initiatives (Government of Canada, 2000) is mentioned. Once again, results-based management is a management approach that is in the process of being set up in France. The difficulties in recruiting and retaining the young are an issue shared by all the countries under study, with the exception of France. It is necessary to point out that the French senior managers undergo a very demanding selection process and generally form a part of an administrative group (*corps*) like that of the French ENA.

Comparing the Competency Profiles

When the competency profiles are compared (see Table II), it can be observed that there are not always close links between the issues and the competencies sought. It is highly possible that, in the respondents' minds, certain issues require political skills or that the identified challenges can be met by bringing competencies to the forefront.

Table II
Future Competencies of Senior Managers

	THE UNITED STATES	THE UNITED KINGDOM	AUSTRALIA	FRANCE	CANADA
C O M P E T E N C I E S	Adaptability Ability to negotiate Evaluation and performance of managers Leadership / management of knowledge Personnel management Management of networks and partnerships	Propose a goal and a direction / the future Have a personal impact (example) Think strategically Get the best out of people Learn and improve Emphasize the delivery of services	Be the principal policy adviser Master public and private management Be centred on results Know how to manage contracts and networks Adapted leadership /global vision Interpersonal relationships External relations	Adaptability Ability to negotiate Evaluation of performance Charismatic leadership Management of knowledge Human-resource management Management of networks Innovation and continuous learning Ability to manage projects Communication	Intellectual competencies: cognitive ability, creativity and the ability to shape the future (vision) Management competencies: taking action, organizational understanding, teamwork, and the management of partnerships Human-relation competencies: interpersonal relationships and communication skills Personal qualities: vitality, ethical values, personality (perseverance and self-control), flexibility, and self-confidence

In order to compare the focus of competencies, four variables have been retained: governance, management techniques, administrative leadership, and policy leadership. It is understood that governance refers to a competency profile that emphasizes the global management of government and its workings, the relationships with the external players like partnerships and alliances, and centralization/decentralization. Management techniques refer to approaches inspired by what is called the new public management and best management practices (Pollitt, 1995). Administrative leadership concerns the position of senior managers in the management of public affairs. Finally, policy leadership refers to the role that senior managers would like to play in the field of policy analysis and advice. Leadership, whether administrative or policy-oriented, is at the centre of public-management competencies. It is often the most sought-after competency by both public and private organizations (Hackett, M. and P. Spurgeon, 1998; Dunon, 2002).

Table III
Focus of Competency Profiles

COUNTRY	GOVERNANCE	MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES	ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP	POLICY LEADERSHIP
THE UNITED STATES		X	X	
THE UNITED KINGDOM		X		
AUSTRALIA		X		X
FRANCE		X	X	
CANADA		X	X	

No competency profile is based purely on governance. Thus, competencies like knowing how to share the power to administer and to govern, being open to the participation of citizens, being able to manage decentralization and devolution are absent. That can be explained in at least three ways. First, it is possible that the respondents consider that it has to do with collective, rather than individual, competencies. Second, they might think that competencies relating to governance are a matter for the political domain. Finally, seeing that the five countries (the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, France and Canada) have already undertaken reforms in the field of governance, the respondents do not see governance competencies as essential in the future.

All the profiles put an emphasis on management techniques that are similar to those of the private sector. With the exception of France, the other four countries have witnessed fundamental reforms touching upon the role of government, structures, the processes of human-resource and budget management (Aucoin, 1995; Halligan, 1997; Ferlie et al., 1996); France stands alone in this area. The other countries have already gone through the process of questioning the appropriate models of governance, and it seems that they intend to concentrate on best management practices in the future. Although France has seen several reforms over the last decade, such as a reflection on the role of the State, decentralization and closer ties between the public administration and citizens (Postif, 1997), it has remained

resistant to the prescriptions of the new public management. In four countries, the United Kingdom, the United States, France and Canada, the competency profile also emphasizes the administrative leadership of their senior managers. This is no trivial observation, and it is compatible with the teachings of the new public management in that public servants play a more active role in the management of public affairs by becoming entrepreneurs who innovate and take risks. That does not mean that the senior managers of the countries in question do not participate in the development of public policies. At least, they do not publicly admit that policy leadership is a crucial competency.

Australia is a separate case. Its competency profile is focused on both management techniques and policy leadership. As has already been seen, in Australia's case, the reforms liberalizing the process of influencing government policy within the framework of privatization of public services forced senior managers to develop approaches to maintain a pre-eminent position in the field of policy analysis and advice.

Conclusion

The initial objectives of this article consisted in identifying and comparing the issues that the public administrations of the five countries of the OECD must face in the next five to ten years, the management competencies required of senior managers to face these issues, and the focus of the competency profile. In order to do this, the following countries were selected: the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, France, and Canada. In order to find the issues of the future and to identify the competency profile of each country, different research methods were used: interviews (58 persons), study trips to each of the selected countries, discussion panels, documents, and a bank of longitudinal data on the strategic issues of Canadian public administrations.

Although the issues in each country are affected by the national culture, history, geography, the political system, and the administrative culture, it appears that the five countries under study share several of the future issues, including the improvement of the delivery of public services, the adoption of results-based management, resorting to the massive use of information and communication technologies, the retirement of 40% to 50% of senior managers in the next five to ten years, and the difficulty in recruiting and retaining young people. With regard to the last issue, France does not seem to have a problem thanks to its *grands corps* approach. The graduates from the French ENA, for example, generally occupy senior positions right at the beginning of their career and benefit from several advantages in terms of salary, challenges to meet and work environment.

As for the comparison of the focus of competency profiles, two trends were found: "management techniques" (or best practices) and administrative leadership. They are the competency profiles of the United States, the United Kingdom, France and Canada. All in all, it seems that the competency profiles of the countries in

question are influenced by the new public management: creativity, quality of services, partnerships, results-based management, entrepreneurship, etc.

Only the Australian competency profile encompasses management techniques and policy leadership. Policy leadership has become important since the Australian government has opened up the field of policy analysis and advice to competition from the private sector, associations and NGOs. In this context, Australian senior managers would like to remain the government's main policy advisers.

Finally, none of the profiles of the countries studied has a governance focus. This could be explained by the fact that the debate on the role of the State, the repositioning of the missions of ministries and organizations, administrative restructuring, decentralization and devolution occurred at the beginning of the 1980s in England, Australia and the United States. Canada followed suit during the 1990s; two of the revision criteria dealt with governance and subsidiarity. Because of this, the managers are looking for management tools for the future to better manage the organizations and the changes that resulted from the earlier reforms.

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High Performing Schools and Institutes of Administration: The Role of Standards of Excellence

Blue Wooldridge *

Today's turbulent public sector environment increasingly requires managers to adopt innovative approaches to solve emerging problems (Berman & West, 1998). Agencies are asking how to bring about dramatic process improvements, organizational culture shifts, and agency overhauls in response to increasingly complex environments (Van Wart, 1994). Certainly, Schools and Institutes of Administrations (SIAs) are not immune from these forces for change and higher expectations.

It has been suggested that what the public really cares about is high quality performance by their public organizations (Altshuler, 1999). The public in demanding more and higher quality services at a time when most governments face tighter budgets (Altshuler, 1999; Popovich, 1998; Shafritz & Russell, 1999). At the same time, there are many other forces urging public organizations to enhance the quality of their performance. For example, the privatization movement has raised the performance stakes in the public sector (Wooldridge, Amagoh & Menefee, 2002). Workers have also forced organizations to change. Today's workers are searching for job satisfaction in five areas: salary, accomplishments and rewards, learning and challenge, career advancement and enjoyment (Price & Chen, 1995).

To assist SIAs in responding to these forces, it is necessary to review the various definitions of high performing organizations (HPOs) and describe the attributes of these HPOs identified through organizational research. This will lead to the offering of Standards of Excellence which are suggested by the attributes of HPOs that could be used for assessing and improving SIAs.

High Performing Organizations: Definitions and Attributes

Almost every scholar and researcher in the study of HPOs has created their own definitions of this phenomenon. Each of these perspectives add to the understanding of the purpose and characteristics of such organizations. Senge (1990) describes HPOs as groups of people who are continually enhancing their capacity to create the results they want. This statement has two parts to it: first, one must know what one wants to create, so one must continually reflect on their sense of purpose/vision and, second, one must continually develop the capability to move in that direction.

A HPO has also been defined as a group of employees who produce desired goods or services at higher quality, with the same or fewer resources than others. Their productivity and quality improve continuously, from day to day, week to week, and year to year. "…leading to the achievement of their mission," (Popovich,

* Associate Professor, Public Administration, The L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, USA

1998, p. 11). HPOs focus on effectiveness rather than efficiency. Their leaders believe that the people in the organization are its greatest assets and the key to its success (White, 1998). Others have suggested that a high performance organization is one that has a sustained track record of success in the pursuit of its mission. These organizations achieve competitive advantage by providing superior customer service through their people.

While there are many approaches to defining HPOs, research has suggested that HPOs share common attributes. The components listed in the literature have a common theme: 1) enhancing effectiveness by focusing on employee skills/motivation; and, 2) organization communication/technology (Gardner, A., Churchill, L., Souza, P., & Willmarth, M., 2001). Timothy Hoerr (1999) provides a succinct and comprehensive mechanism for evaluating an HPO with his seven (7) fundamental foundations: Principle-Centeredness, Purpose, People Focus, Customer Focus, Process Excellence, Learning and Leadership.

Another attempt to identify the attributes of HPOs was made by Popovich (1998). He identified HPOs as characterized by the following qualities: 1) are clear on their mission; 2) define outcomes and focus on results; 3) empower employees; 4) motivate and inspire people to succeed; 5) are flexible and adjust nimbly to new conditions; 6) are competitive in terms of performance; 7) restructure work processes to meet customer needs; and 8) maintain communications with stakeholders.

In reviewing several studies, one can conclude that high performance organizations: 1) have a commitment to a clearly defined statement of vision and mission; 2) focus on quality services for the customer or client; 3) practice continuous improvement and prevention versus inspection and rework; 4) manage by data; 5) empower employees; 6) accomplish organization work through teams; 7) train and develop employees; 8) have motivated and committed employees; 9) depend on management and leadership that create shared values and commitment; 10) use technology appropriately; 11) value diversity; 12) respond effectively to changes in the environment; 13) create trust; 14) communicate effectively; and 15) practice strategic planning (Wooldridge 2003a).

As Hoerr concludes, "While the specific values of high-performing companies may vary somewhat, there is remarkable similarity among entities that consistently demonstrate superior results" (1999, p.1). While every attribute of HPOs may not have implications for Standards of Excellence for SIAs, many do. These include:

Commitment to a Clearly Described Vision and Mission: This attribute defines vision as that to which we aspire to become, and mission as that which we do. "Vision is not just important—it is crucial to any organization achieving consistent and sustainable superior performance" (Quigley, 1994, p. xxiii). But for the vision to be effective, it must grow out of the needs of the entire organization and be owned, understood and widely shared by all the important stakeholders (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Nanus (1992) suggests that a good vision: is future oriented;

is utopian; appropriate for the organization's culture; sets standards of excellence and reflects high ideals; clarifies purpose and gives direction; inspires enthusiasm and encourages commitment; reflects the uniqueness of the organization; and is ambitious, but not overly so.

A value may be defined as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (Steers and Black, 1994, p. 44). A value is that "which is explicitly or implicitly desirable to an individual or group and which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action" (Adler, 2002, p. 18). Value statements can especially make an impact when the value represents changes in behavior required for the organization to achieve its vision and deliver its mission (Zairi, 2002).

Goal setting theory (Locke and Latham, 1990) suggests characteristics of an organizational mission statement that enhances performance. It is possible to identify six relatively distinct task-goal attributes that facilitate task performance in a goal-setting environment: 1) goal specificity; 2) goal difficulty; 3) participation in goal-setting; 4) feedback on goal effort; 5) peer competition for goal attainment; and 6) goal acceptance. (Steers, 1984, p. 171.). Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Ahearne, (1997) point out that the performance enhancing impact of goal acceptance is magnified by strong group cohesion.

Such an attribute would, in an educational setting, call for a Standard requiring a vigorous strategic planning process – which includes the participation of all key stakeholder such as representatives of relevant governmental ministries, actual and potential employers, faculty and staff, alumni, and current students/participants.

Focus on Quality Services for the Client: One definition of quality is meeting the expectations of those we serve, exactly, the first time, and every time (Federal Quality Institute). A vigorous, visible commitment to quality is the first priority in an HPO environment (Deming, 1986; Crosby, 1979; Juran & Gryna, 1988). HPOs focus on their clients by providing quality goods and services. They are better organized to meet the needs of those they serve so that they are either more innovative in anticipating customer needs, more reliable in meeting their expectations, better able to deliver their product or service more cheaply, or some combination of the above (Hoerr, 1999; Hunt, 1992).

In an educational setting a Standard would, at least, require, well-constructed courses that are up dated frequently to be compatible with the changing needs of professionals and with the demands of advance study. It would require clearly identified student-oriented behavioral learning objectives (Wooldridge, 2000), clearly stated assignments, and courses that are offered at times and places that are convenient to the clients.

Continuous Improvement and Prevention: The attitude that, "If it ain't broke don't fix it" has no place in a high performance setting. Everyone must be unremitting in the search for a better way of doing things (Crosby, 1979, Hunt, 1992). Attention is paid to the series of actions taken in providing a service in

order to identify those actions that cause the production of goods or services that cause "non quality." This greatly reduces or eliminates the need for inspection and rework (Deming, 1986).

Manage by Data: In HPOs, all decisions are based on data, not intuition (Deming, 1986; Cornesky, McCool, Byrnes, & Weber, 1991). HPOs practice management by data, continuous improvement and competitive benchmarking. According to Lawler, et. al, (1995), HPOs use data for planning daily operations and performance improvement. HPOs gather data on:

Customers or clients and their preferences
Products and services performance history
Internal operations
Process and performance measures
Actual vs planned outcomes, outputs, efficiencies
Costs and fiscal responsibility

High performing organizations also utilize data on:

Overall operating results
Unit operating results
New technologies that might affect them
Organizational plans and goals
Competitors' relative position
Critical types of data that are of special value to HPOs results from undertaking:

a) *Performance Measurement and Results Orientation:* Such analysis requires the use of appropriate performance measures. Performance measures can be defined as any method of objectively determining how well services are being performed (Epstein, 1984). Performance measures can measure the output produced by the organization or the outcomes created in the community which results from organizational output. The data provided by performance measures helps the organization evaluate the efficiency and effectiveness of government activity and evaluate whether the program meets its strategic goals and objectives. Performance measurement increases the accountability of the organization since performance measures shows the organization's stakeholders the efficiency and effectiveness of its operations. HPOs integrate their many data types into the planning process.

b) *Competitive Benchmarking:* The purpose of competitive benchmarking is to strive to be better than the best competitor. High performing government entities compare the results of their performance measurement to other entities – both those entities they are in competition with, and dissimilar organizations that do not pose any direct competition. Good benchmarking involves five steps:

1. Decide what aspect of performance should be benchmarked.
2. Select the competitors who are the best in this aspect of performance, and who will be benchmarked.

3. Decide which performance measures should be used to compare performance between the two organizations.

4. Determine the other organization's strengths (based on their performance on established performance measures) and assess these strengths against one's own performance.

5. Develop a plan to apply the other organization's strength to one's own organization.

By using competitive benchmarking, the comparison of performance allows SIAs to determine whether the organization is excelling in its performance or whether steps need to be made to correct poor performance. In addition, the benchmarking process allows organizations to adapt their performance to incorporate the strengths of other organizations.

Schools and Institutes of Administration must have performance data, especially student outcome data, data from the evaluation of programs, and perceptions of how their stakeholders view them. They must identify other academic programs who might be performing better, find out what they are doing, and then do it better. This must be a continuous process.

Empowerment of Employees: High performance results require the participation of employees at every level in the organization (Crosby, 1979; Juran & Gryna, 1988). Employee involvement goes beyond what is usually meant by "employee participation." The role of those who perform the processes expands from doer, to trouble shooter, problem solver and planner--all roles essential to quality improvement (Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Crosby, 1979; Deming, 1986; Juran & Gryna, 1988).

Empowerment involves pushing problem-solving and decision making to the lowest appropriate level in an organization. The process gives employees a greater sense of ownership, and calls on them to work in new, more flexible ways (Carnevale & Stone, 1995). Bowen and Lawler in "The Empowerment of Service Workers: What, Why, How, and When" (1995) explain that a decision to empower employees assumes that 1) most employees can make good decisions if they are properly socialized, trained, and informed; 2) employees can be internally motivated to perform effectively; 3) that employees are capable of self-control and self-direction; and 4) that employees can produce good ideas for operating the organization. They cite four key features that must be pushed down in the organization to create empowered employees:

- Information about organizational performance (e.g., operating results and competitor performance);
- Rewards based on organizational performance (e.g., profit sharing and stock ownership);
- Knowledge that enables employees to understand and contribute to organizational performance (e.g., problem solving skills); and
- Power to make decisions that influence work procedures and organizational direction (e.g., through quality circles and self-managing teams).

The degree of empowerment can range from contributing ideas, to deciding how work is done, to participating in work-unit management decisions.

Work Through Teams: *Teamwork* is how processes and systems are improved in an HPO environment. It requires commitment and cooperation. In response to changing environmental and/or economic conditions, organizations recently have embraced new structural forms designed to reduce costs, while simultaneously maximizing flexibility and responsiveness to customer demands. To a much greater extent than more traditional hierarchical and centralized organizations, the resulting flatter, more decentralized organizational forms tend to be built around groups and depend on rich synchronous communication provided by teams and task forces. In addition, groups have become important vehicles for identifying high-quality solutions to emerging organizational problems (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999).

A high performance team may be characterized as follows (Blinn, 1996):

- It has a common focus, including a clear mission, vision, goals, action plans, and success measures.
- It has clearly defined roles and responsibilities for team members.
- Members have clearly defined expectations of one another.
- It utilizes all its resources, both within the team and externally.
- Members value their diversity and deal with differences in a healthy and productive way.
- Members are able to effectively give, receive, and solicit feedback.
- The team manages meetings efficiently and effectively.
- It achieves results.

Training and Employee Development: There are many different definitions of training and development. Dessler (1997) defines training as "the process of teaching new employees the basic skills they need to perform their jobs" (p. 248). Schuler and Huber suggest that "Employee training and development is any attempt to improve current or future employee performance by increasing an employee's ability to perform" (p. 512). Mondy and Noe (1987, p. 256) refers to training and development as "planned continuous effort by management to improve employee competency levels and organizational performance." DeNisi and Griffin (2001) divide training from development by defining training as "a planned attempt by an organization to *facilitate* employee learning of job-related knowledge, skills, and behaviors," whereas development, "on the other hand, usually refers to teaching managers and professionals the skills needed for both present and future jobs" (p. 266).

The following definition is one that has proven useful: "training is an organized learning experience designed to enhance the ability of current or future employees to achieve the desired levels of performance in specific jobs necessary in order for their organization to achieve its strategic mission" (Wooldridge, 2003b).

A Standard of Excellence flowing from this attribute would require SIAs to describe their faculty/staff development policies and practices, and justify them in light of the mission and curriculum.

Motivated and Committed Employees: Employee motivation and commitment to the organization is influenced by the organization's implementation of rewards and recognition that are valued by the intended recipients (Lawler, 2000, Vroom, 1964). Steers and Black (1994), suggest that one managerial implication of the research guided by motivation theory is the need to:

> Match rewards to employee desires. Different employees often want different rewards or outcomes from their jobs. Although some employees may place a high value on receiving additional income, others may prefer time off either for vacation or for receiving additional training for a future promotion. Managers can improve motivational levels by offering a variety of rewards for employees (p. 184).

Management and Leadership: Management must provide a vision, listen, promote team-work, be committed to quality and customer needs, avid but patient for long-term ends, and orchestrators and enablers of improvement. Burns (1976) is credited with first introducing the models of transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership, which derives power from hierarchy and position, differs from transformational leadership – which creates power from understanding and trust. It is suggested that good leadership lies in effectively combining the two approaches. Leadership is critical to the achievement of high performance. It is also essential in helping others aspire to and attain high levels of performance for themselves and the organization.

Use of Technology Appropriately: Technology refers to anything that involves either the mechanical or intellectual processes by which an organization transforms input (raw materials) into output (a finished product) in the pursuit of organizational goals (Steers and Black, p. 382). We know that the "appropriate" use of "appropriate" technology can enhance the learning experience (Wooldridge, 1995). Jackson and Schuler (2003) point out, "...technology makes it possible to combine many formats and deliver them as an integrated learning system that combines, for example, computer-based quizzes, video, inter-active simulations, and so on," (p. 372).

Perhaps a Standard might require that an SIA identify what technologies would be most effective in delivering its instruction and what technologies are actually being used, and justify its response.

Value Diversity: Diversity of faculty, and staff is important for high performing SIA for at least three reasons. First, several studies (Chatman, et al., 1993; Watson, Kumar, and Michaelsen, 1993) have shown that, when diversity is managed properly, diverse work teams are more effective, efficient, and produce higher quality solutions than their homogeneous counterparts. Tsui, Egan and O'Reilly (1992) do an excellent job of reviewing the available literature on this issue. They

point out that there is evidence that diverse work groups are beneficial for tasks requiring creativity and judgement (Jackson, 1991), but there is also evidence that homogeneous groups are more likely to be socially integrated and experience higher satisfaction and lower turnover (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989).

How does an organization create a situation where the functional consequences of workforce diversity are manifested instead of the dysfunctional? One suggestion is to look at the organizational culture. Chatman, et. al., (1993) concluded that in organizations that were characterized by the collective dimension of Hofstede's Individualistic-Collective Dimension of Culture (Hofstede, 1980), heterogeneous work groups performed better in terms of creativity, having beneficial conflict, degree of interaction and participation and timeliness of task completion. In "Individualistic" organizations, however, heterogeneous groups did not perform as well as homogeneous work groups. Hernandez (1992) reports that one characteristic of organizations that maximize the potential of their diverse workforce is the presence of effective "Valuing Diversity" programs.

Secondly, the concept of *"representative bureaucracy"* (Dolan, 2002; Dolan 2000; Riccucci and Saidel, 1997; Kranz, 1976; Meier, and Nigro, 1976; Krislov, (1974); Kingsley, 1944) holds that the demographic composition of the staff of an organization should mirror the demographic composition of the general public. In this way, the preferences of a heterogeneous population will be represented in organizational decision making (Riccucci and Saidel, 1997). That is, a female faculty member with dependent children is more likely to hold values and be sensitive to the experiences of a female student with the same responsibilities.

Finally, high performing SIA's need a diversified faculty and staff because of the need for *vicarious self-efficacy.* Bandura (1977) speculates on what are the sources of information for the development of self-efficacy (the belief that one has the capacity for producing a desired result or effect). Self-efficacy is an important element in individual performance, since the belief that one has the capacity for producing a desired result is vital for motivation (see Vroom's Expectancy-Valancy Theory of Motivation, 1964), and performance is, in part, a function of motivation (Steers & Black, 1994).

Bandura (1971) believes that the most important source of information concerning self-efficacy is personal performance and accomplishment because it is based on personal mastery experiences. Successes raise mastery expectations. However, people do not rely on experienced mastery as the sole source of information concerning their level of self-efficacy. Many expectations are derived from *vicarious* experience. Seeing others perform activities successfully can generate expectations in observers that they too will improve if they intensify and persist in the efforts.

If people of widely differing characteristics can succeed, than observers have a reasonable basis for increasing their own sense of self-efficacy. "Central to this theory is the concept of vicarious learning. Vicarious learning is learning that takes place through the imitation of other [*role models*]. That is, we observe and

analyze what another person does and the resulting consequences. As a result, we learn without having to experience the phenomenon firsthand" (Steers and Black, 1994, p. 105). Vicarious self-efficacy calls for organizational diversity in order to promote the development of all groups of individuals. If a specific SIA has a diverse student/population, it is especially important that it tries to mirror that diversity in its staff and faculty. According to Bandura (1971) less influential sources of information for increasing expectations of self-efficacy are *verbal persuasion* and *emotional arousal*.

Integrating these insights into hiring practices is important since many Schools and Institutes of Administration operate in an environment of increasing diversity of residents and of workers. Such diversity includes race/ethnicity, gender, age, family status, sexual orientation, religious beliefs, learning styles, work-related values, organizational roles, levels of literacy, levels of physical and psychological ability, and diversity in compensation (Wooldridge, 1996).

These situations suggest the need for Schools and Institutes of Administration to develop curricula that would enhance their participants' Cultural/Diversity Competence and Social Equity Skills. Skills in the area of Cultural Competence are reflected:

in the process by which individuals and systems respond respectfully and effectively to people of all cultures, languages, classes, races, ethnic backgrounds, religions, and other diversity factors in a manner that recognizes, affirms, and values the worth of individuals, families, and communities and protects and preserves the dignity of each" (National Association of Social Workers "Standards for Cultural Competence in Social Work Practice, 2001).

Another definition describes this concept as: "the attribute of a(n).... organization that describes the set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, skills, policies and procedures that enable its caregivers to work effectively and efficiently in cross/multicultural situations at all of its organizational levels" (Siegel, Haugland and Chambers, 2002).

Social Equity has been defined and described as: "the fair, just and equitable management of all institutions serving the public directly or by contract, and the fair and equitable distribution of public services, and implementation of public policy, and the commitment to promote fairness, justice, and equity in the formation of public policy" (National Academy of Public Administration, Standing Panel on Social Equity).

And "Social Equity is fairness in the delivery of public services; it is egalitarianism in action – the principle that each citizen, regardless of economic resources or personal traits, deserves and has a right to be given equal treatment by the political system,"(Shafritz and Russell, 2003, p. 395).

Several US accrediting associations have developed standards regarding "Cultural/Diversity and Social Justice Competencies" for schools and institutions preparing professionals in their fields. For example the Committee on Accreditation, of the American Psychological Association (APA) requires that programs

should always engage in actions that indicate respect for and understanding of cultural and individual diversity. Throughout its documents, the phrase "cultural and individual diversity" refers to diversity with regard to personal and demographic characteristics. These include, but are not limited to, age, color, disabilities, ethnicity, gender, language, national origin, race, religion, sexual orientation, and social economic status. Respect for and understanding of cultural and individual diversity is reflected in the program's policies for the recruitment, retention, and development of faculty and students, and in its curriculum and field placements. The program has nondiscriminatory policies and operating conditions, and it avoids any actions that would restrict program access or completion on grounds that are irrelevant to success in graduate training or the profession.

Under Domain D: Cultural and Individual Differences and Diversity, the APA requires that:

> The program has and implements a thoughtful and coherent plan to provide students with relevant knowledge and experiences about the role of cultural and individual diversity in psychological phenomena as they relate to the science and practice of professional psychology. The avenues of which these goals are achieved are to be developed by the program.

These goals are reflected in the Council on Social Work Education accreditation standards. For example, Under Educational Policy: 1. Purposes of the Social Work Profession 1.2 Achievement of Purposes:

> Prepare social workers to practice without discrimination with respect, and with knowledge and skills related to clients' age, class, color, culture, disability, ethnicity, family structure, gender, marital status, national origin, race, religion, sex, and sexual orientation. Preparing social workers to alleviate poverty, oppression, and other forms of social injustice.

Perhaps a Standard of Excellence in this regard for Schools and Institutes of Administration would be similar to one recently proposed to the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration's (NASPAA) Standard's Committee (as modified from the Planning Accreditation Board):

> The program's goals shall reflect the program's intent to achieve and maintain diversity in its student body and faculty and to incorporate into its curriculum the knowledge and skills needed to serve a diverse society. Consideration shall be given to a broad definition of diversity including race, ethnicity, sex, disability, sexual orientation, economic status, and other factors pertinent to the program's mission. The program's goals shall include the development of competencies that lead to the understanding of the forms and mechanisms of oppression and discrimination and the ability to apply strategies of advocacy and social change that advance social and economic justice. The program shall describe how these goals relate to its mission and to the mission of public affairs education in general.

Respond Effectively to Changes in the Environment: HPOs seize new opportunities and react to change instantaneously, optimize customer satisfaction and organizational excellence and accommodate change (Rouse, 1994). HPOs embrace the concept of continuous learning, which leads to change in the relationship between people and their work, change in the relationship between the organization and those it serves, and change in the relationship between the organization and its external environment. In a turbulent environment, sometimes the entire organization must change to provide higher quality and more appropriate services at equal or reduced costs (Popovich, 1998).

High-performing organizations are able to achieve their objectives and outpace the competition because they have created the right conditions for their success. In doing so, their initial focus is not on measuring operating results such as error rates, cycle time, or inventory control. Rather, it is on careful consideration of the environment in which they are operating and identification of the changes that will have to be created if they are to be successful in the future (Hodgetts & Kuratko, 1999, p. 7).

For a SIA to be able to respond effectively to changes in its environment, it must maintain close contact with its key stakeholders. This can be done through a "Strategic-Contingency Approach to Training and Education" (Wooldridge, 2003b) which describes how faculty and staff of SIA's must know the results of the strategic planning efforts of their stakeholders and re-design their instruction accordingly. To provide quality products to their clients requires members of SIAs to be constantly in touch with those in their professions. Strategies such as the establishment of advisory boards, consulting with governments and non-profit/NGOs organizations, and active participation in professional associations, would assist in establishing these contacts. *This might call for a Standard that requires SIAs to describe and defend their process for keeping their curriculum responsive to the changing needs of their clients.*

Create Trust: Trust is an essential ingredient, not only for improving performance, but also for sustaining performance during turbulent times. Trust is defined as a positive expectation that another will not act opportunistically (Robbins, 2001). The more trust an organization engenders among its people, the more those people will be committed to the mission, goals, and bottom-line results of the organizations. "Organizational trust is a feeling of confidence and support in an employer; it is the belief that an employer will be straightforward and will follow through on commitments" (Gilbert and Tang, 1998).

Four key characteristics essential to building trust can be identified:

- Integrity: Acting in a forthright and truthful manner. "We mean what we say"
- Consistency: Maintaining a compatibility between words and actions. "We do what we say."
- Reliability-Dependability: Keeping promises. "You can count on what we do and say."
- Interdependence: A sense of two parties relying on each other and accordingly acting in each other's best interest. "We are all in this together."

The more trust an organization engenders among its   people, the more those people will be committed to the mission, goals, and bottom-line results of the organizations. Organizational trust is established when members of the organization's community perceive that policies, procedures, and rewards are fair.

Trust can be enhanced by following the research findings relevant to the three components of *Organizational Justice*. Organizational Justice can be defined as "People's perceptions of fairness in organizations" (Greenberg and Baron, 2003, p. 201), and is said to be composed of the components of *distributive justice* (people's perception of the fairness of the distribution of resources between people); *procedural justice* (which focuses on the processes used to make those resource-allocation decisions); and *interactional justice* (which focuses on the quality of the interpersonal treatment accorded people).

This perception is especially important in dealings with faculty, staff, students, alumni and external clients. Trust and perception of "fairness" are enhanced through greater transparency and accurate communications.

Standards of Excellence might require SIAs to: *Demonstrate that all hiring, staff development, and promotion decisions are based on job relatedness and bona fide occupational qualifications determined through careful, and professionally implemented, job analysis (Jackson & Schuler, 2003). That all resource allocation decisions – including salaries, salary adjustments, and decisions regarding possible reductions in force – follow clearly defined and known criteria. That all information provided to perspective and current students/participants are compatible to actual instructional content and policies and procedures.*

Communicate Effectively: Communications can be defined to be the transference of meaning within and outside of an organization (Robbins, 1984). "Communication is the glue that holds organizations together" (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1993, p. 632). Also, "effective communications can vastly improve organizational performance" (Wheatley, 1996, p. 8.). Communication can be the source of many organizational problems, and can also magnify the existing problems of the organizations. HPOs exhibit good communications capability with those both inside and outside of the organization (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; Coyle, 1993).

Practice Strategic Planning: Strategic planning may be defined as:

1) "A systematic process by which an organization anticipates and plans for its future (Gordon, 1993, p. 1).
2) "A disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions that shape and guide what an organization is, what it does, and why it does it" (Bryson, 1995, p. 5); and
3) Being "vitally concerned with the intersection of an organization with its environment and with the creation and maintenance of a dynamic balance between the two, ensuring that the fullest feasible use is made of actual and potential organizational resources in taking advantages of environmental opportunities and repulsing threats" (Dodge & Eadie, 1982, p. 2).

A Standard of Excellence, recognizing the importance of this attribute of HPOs might require that SIAs develop a formal strategic planning process, and periodically revisit and update this Strategic Plan.

Conclusion

The prior discussion suggests that Standards of Excellence can be grouped under the following four headings:

- INPUTS such as number and quality of instructors, library resources, computer facilities, etc.
- PROCESSES such as what steps were taken in deciding upon the purpose/mission of the program/institute; what stakeholders were involved; what data are gathered to assess the accomplishment of these purposes; and, from whom and how used to "guide performance."
- OUTPUTS such as length of program, number of participants, number of courses offered, and,
- OUTCOMES, such as competencies gained by graduates, impact on the community, etc.

Clearly these categories of standards will be modified and expanded upon by further input and interaction. However, they do provide a place to begin in the process of developing effective standards of excellence for schools and institutes of public administration.

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Enhancing the Quality of a Public Administration Training Plan through Knowledge Management

Shih-Hsien Chang *

Introduction

In the time-to-market quest, the competitive advantage has shifted from the product cycle to the knowledge cycle for most organizations (Krell, 2001:41). Now it is the time to use knowledge management for enhancing the quality of public administration training plans. Training is very important to public organizations for increasing the capabilities of human capital.

Knowledge management involves making a direct connection between an organization's intellectual assets—both explicit (recorded) and tacit (personal know-how)—and its positive results. Its basic processes are to increase, to capture, to refine, to share and to apply knowledge.

The basic processes of knowledge management are to increase, to capture, to refine, to share and to apply knowledge. To increase knowledge includes to discover, to research, to read and to study knowledge. To capture knowledge includes to write and to record knowledge. To refine knowledge includes to verify, to correct, to update, to augment, to clarify and to generalize knowledge. To share knowledge includes to present, to publish, to distribute and to discuss knowledge. To apply knowledge includes to plan, to decide, to design, to build and to solve problems (Horton, 2002).

Applying processes means how we can affect the basic process of knowledge management. In increasing knowledge, it adds to the knowledge of individuals. In capturing knowledge, it makes human knowledge easier to share. In refining knowledge, it improves the quality and usability of knowledge. In sharing knowledge, it multiplies individual knowledge. In apply knowledge, it translates existing knowledge into wise decisions (Horton, 2002).

The training plan is the launch pad for the design and implementation of training programs. A training plan is a practical document which takes into account identified training needs and outlines training programs to meet those needs (Stout, 1993:41). This, in fact, represents the first key steps of the training function – identifying training needs, and formulating (ie planning and developing) required training.

In preparing to write training plan, it is important to outline key stages. The key stages of the training plan are (Stout, 1993:42):

(1) Identification of training needs.
(2) Description of the required training programs.

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* Professor, Department of Administrative Management, Chinese Culture University, Taiwan

(3) Determining the appropriate training methods to be used.
(4) Selection and training of trainers.
(5) Detailed costs and benefits of training.

If this is done, one can use knowledge management to enhance the quality of public administration training plans. In figure 1, the inner circle presents the basic processes of knowledge management, each process is used in the stages of training plan.

Figure 1
Knowledge Management in the Training Plan
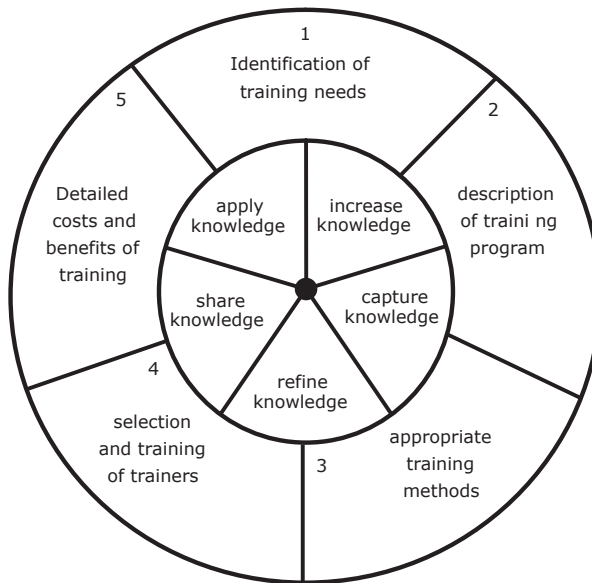
I. Identification of training needs

In recent years, knowledge management (KM) has commanded much lofty thought and impressive posturing as an idealized prospect. Systems have been designed, databases created and intricate strategies concocted under the brave banner of KM. More often than not, however, such efforts have failed when deployed in the real world. Knowledge and information aren't static commodities to be packaged and managed. They're living forces that connect to the way people think, learn and communicate—which means organizations have to design knowledge management efforts not around technology, but around the way human beings actually filter, shape, use and add to what they already know (Brown, 2000). Then, knowledge management can be used for the identification of training needs, as well as for other stages in the processes of training plan.

It is important to identify all the training needs within an organization as they will vary according to employee, job position, job responsibilities and department. A thorough analysis of training needs is a prerequisite for the design of any training plan, and ensures that each individual employee is sent on the appropriate training courses.

A training need is usually defined as a gap – the gap between the requirements of a particular job and the capabilities of the employee currently holding the job. (Mayer, 1985:127), as figure 2 shows.

Figure 2
Training Need

Requirements
of the
particular
job

Training need

gap

Current Capabilities of the employee
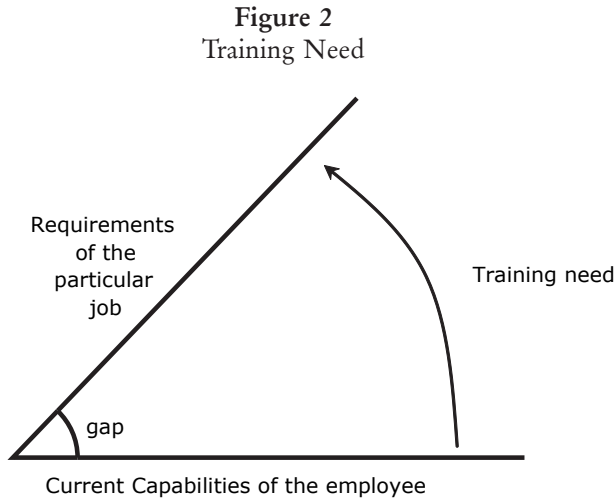
There are two basic types of training needs: 1.Organizational, and, 2.Individual.

1. Organizational training needs

A careful analysis throughout the organization is essential to assess the sum total of training needs. This is to ensure that training will improve performance of the organization as a whole and ensure organizational objectives are met. The gap between achieved results and targeted goals is the training gap.

Determining training needs for the organization involves four basic steps. This process is illustrated in Figure 3.

(1) To analyze whether organizational targets have been met.
(2) To determine what knowledge, skills and attitudes are contained within the organization.
(3) To analyze the actual performance of employees.
(4) To analyze organizational performance.

2. Individual training needs

Training needs analysis for individuals often begins with an assessment of the job description. Training on an individual basis concerns three key areas:
(1) knowledge
(2) skills
(3) attitude

Figure 3
Organizational Training Needs

```
Step 1        ┌─────────────────────────┐
              │         Analyze         │
              │   Organization target   │
              └─────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
Step 2        ┌─────────────────────────┐
              │        Determine        │
              │   employee's knowledge  │
              │     skills & attitudes  │
              └─────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
Step 3        ┌─────────────────────────┐
              │         Analyze         │
              │  employee's performance │
              └─────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
Step 4        ┌─────────────────────────┐
              │         Analyze         │
              │ organization performance│
              └─────────────────────────┘
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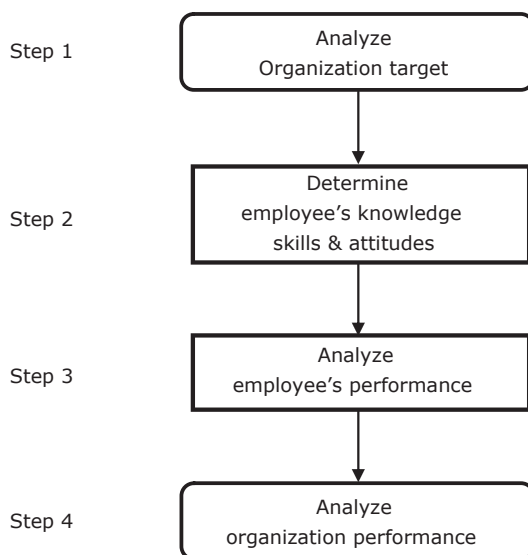
Figure 4 shows the inter-relationship of knowledge, skills and attitudes and their effect on individual performance.

The planner should use knowledge management to check the following items to identify training needs for the organization and the individual. It is divided into general questions about training within the organization, and specific question about individual performance (Stout, 1993:48).

1. General

(1) What staff training records are available?
(2) Have staff training records been assessed?
(3) Who maintains employee training records?
(4) Are training records regularly updated?
(5) When was a skills inventory last done for each area or department? (i.e clerical, technical, skilled labor, unskilled labor, staff managers, line managers, senior managers, etc)

(6) When should a skills inventory be implemented?
(7) How can one best balance organizational needs against current employee skill assets?

2. Individual

(1) What tasks, knowledge, skills and attitudes must be performed to do each job?
(2) What knowledge is required (eg. company or product knowledge)?
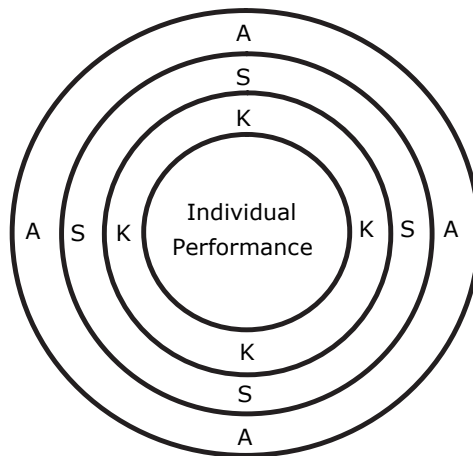(3) Which skills are lacking (eg. operator, technical, computer, sales, supervisory, management, coaching, training skills)?
(4) What shortcoming are there in attitude (eg. angers quickly, too timid, too aggressive, speaks before thinking)?

Figure 4
Knowledge, Skills and Attitude
(Stout, 1993:47)

II. Description of the Required Training Programs

The second step in preparing the training plan is the application of knowledge management in the selection and design of training programs, which demands much preparation and planning. However, for any training program it is important to take account of the motivation or drive of the trainees. Typical motivating factors might be (Stout, 1993:48-49):

(1) Desire for expertise or success
(2) Feelings of intimidation or inadequacy
(3) Fear of failure or rejection
(4) The need for approval, recognition, or endorsement
(5) Desire for material gain

(6) Sheer curiosity or interest in a new challenge
(7) Standards of training rooms and facilities
(8) Quality of trainers and training programs

The planner should use knowledge management to check the following items, in four stages, in the planning and preparation of the training programs (Stout, 1993:49-50):

1. Stage One

(1) Draw up a summary of training needs – to establish the main areas and priorities for training.
(2) Do planners have job specifications for each job position?
(3) Which individuals and which groups need training?
(4) Have planners involved line managers and staff managers at all stages of planning?
(5) How will participants be consulted and briefed about the training?

2. Stage Two

(1) What training programs already exist?
(2) Which new training programs need to be designed?
(3) What are the aims, objectives, and program content?
(4) Which training methods are to be employed?
(5) What are the planners' resources (amount available to spend)?
(6) What specialized training is required? (eg supervisory, assertiveness, management, etc)

3. Stage Three

(1) Who are the trainers who will deliver the training?
(2) What will determine the content of the training programs?
(3) Who will be responsible for the design of new courses?
(4) Where will the training take place?
(5) Who is responsible for monitoring the results of training?
(6) How will the training be evaluated and assessed?

4. Stage Four

(1) Who will co-ordinate the administration for the training courses?
(2) Who is responsible for the schedule of dates and timing for the training programs?
(3) Which programs will be held on-site and off-site?
(4) What training equipment is available?
(5) What additional training equipment needs to be purchased or hired?
(6) Who is responsible for the training budget?

We can discuss using knowledge management for training programs. According to Dale Zwart, founder of Generation 21, "Knowledge management is the structured and intentional collection and distribution of information to support

learning."(Lamont, 1989). From its inception, Generation 21 has used a "Total Knowledge Management" (TKM) system to integrate training and knowledge management. TKM is based on a process of breaking down knowledge into chunks of information called dynamic learning objects. The learning objects are then stored in a relational database and are searchable when employees need an answer. Some clients are already using wireless capability to access reference materials and common troubleshooting information from the field (Lamont, 1989)

As to curriculum development, knowledge management plays an important role in training curriculum designs (Lamont, 1989). Curriculum developers work with subject matter experts to identify training requirements, design learning objectives, and develop courses. For example, using Generation 21's TKM product, the curriculum developers are able to enter the content directly into the system; the process is template driven, and development does not require programmers. Video clips and graphics can be pulled in easily.

"It is a natural evolution in the training field to recognize the value of information that is in the enterprise, storing it and making it available to everyone," says Cox, manager of training at Cape Canaveral.. An initial phase of performance support has been completed which links documents that relate to safety with the training curriculum. That step ensures that the individual not only understands procedures but can also access related policies. "We are starting to identify all the pieces that support the work once our students are on the job," says Cox. "Then we expand our performance support resources to include technical information," he adds, "Our workers will have access to a comprehensive repository of materials to assist them in performing skilled tasks."(Lamont, 1998)

The organization is now working on training for the next generation of Cape Canaveral launch vehicles, the Atlas V, to create a program that manages all of its resources electronically. The system will be able to verify training and certification of employees, track relevant documents and manuals, and monitor workload to be sure human resources are available for the required tasks. It will be the next step in the move toward integrating training with knowledge management.

In fact, automation is not required for either training or knowledge management. However, if an enterprise has automated its processes, e-learning can be integrated in ways that support organizational objectives. And if training content and enterprise knowledge both flow from the same source, the organization can achieve a level of responsiveness and consistency that will give it a strong edge over its less well managed competitors (Lamont, 1998).

III. The Appropriate Training Methods

A training plan describes the training methods to be used in delivering training within the organization. The number of training methods available are many and varied, and certain methods may be better suited to training programs. The most appropriate form of training depends on the following variables (Stout, 1993:50-52):

(1) The training objectives
(2) The skills, experience and expertise of trainers
(3) Available training facilities and materials
(4) The learning abilities of trainees

Trainers should work with the training methods which are best suited to them individually. An alternative is to use team-teaching, or to recruit an external training consultant if a trainer is particularly uncomfortable with a particular teaching method (eg role-playing).

However, a variety of methods will ensure successful and interesting training programs, and is more likely to satisfy the needs of the organization and the individual. A fairly comprehensive list of what is available to trainers is the following:

(1) a lecture
(2) a demonstration
(3) a participative lesson
(4) individual coaching
(5) a tutor-led group discussion
(6) role-playing
(7) critical incident
(8) training games
(9) distance learning
(10) computer-based training (CBT)
(11) interactive video
(12) self-teach training manual
(13) case study
(14) on-job instruction
(15) packaged programs
(16) programmed instruction
(17) an assignment, task or project

Among the above methods, the preferred might be computer-based training with knowledge management – although the debate over whether computer-based training is more effective than classroom training has subsided, with an apparent consensus that each approach has its place. So-called "lended learning" uses a combination of instructional techniques, depending on the situation. The Socrates Learning Performance System from LearningFramework (learningframework.com) can be used to augment classroom training by providing a channel for new information and enabling a dialog among members of the learning community. The philosophy advocated by LearningFramework is that content provides the foundation for learning, but that optimal learning occurs only in the application of knowledge. The emphasis on dialog stems from the belief that it is an important catalyst for application (Lamont, 2002).

In June 2001, Socrates was selected by the Energetic Materials Research and Testing Center (EMRTC) at the *New Mexico Institute for Mining and Technology*

(USA) to deliver information to first responders such as law enforcement officers and firefighters. The training, sponsored by the US Department of Justice, consists of one week of classroom instruction, with subsequent follow-on information and discussions with colleagues. Over time, the dialogs become part of an up-to-date knowledgebase that is organized by subject area and builds on the shared insights of participants. Although classroom training is part of the program, Socrates can also deliver e-learning content and an associated online learning community (Lamont, 2002).

A learning management system can leverage existing content and business processes to streamline training administration and also ensure achievement of training goals such as compliance with regulatory demands. *Alza*, a U.S. based drug delivery technology company, has stringent FDA certification requirements for training staff on equipment and procedures. The company implemented the Plateau LMS from *Plateau Systems* more than five years ago to track qualification training (Lamont, 2002).

"The system houses all our training information, including course records and each employee's current status with respect to training requirements," says Cathy Harnett, a learning and development associate at Alza. Integrated with *PeopleSoft*, the system is populated with human resources (HR) data such as employee name, title and job code. The job code and training qualifications indicate the training required at any given time.

"Since the Plateau LMS is also integrated with *documentum*," Harnett adds, "the system knows when a control document changes and whether the associated qualifications have also changed." If new training is required or new forms must be filled out, the Plateau LMS alerts the employee and tracks completion of the task (Lamont, 1998). In short, e-training methods are very appropriate in a training plan.

IV. Selection and Training of Trainers

Training plans describe the tactics and methods to be used by trainers, but the selection of methods depends on trainer ability and expertise.

A training plan should describe each trainer's ability to select, design and deliver training programs to meet organizational needs. This will be affected by the following key factors (Stout, 1993:61-63):

(1) The type of training methods to be used
(2) Current expertise and skills of trainers
(3) Trainers' training needs
(4) The constraints of the training facilities
(5) The investment of time and money in trainers

Trainers are required to be competent and proficient in a number of different areas. An analysis of trainer competencies will define what knowledge, skills and attitudes are required by trainers, and what are their training needs (Stout, 1993:61-63):

1. Knowledge competence

The trainer's role demands competence in many areas of learning. For example, product knowledge, technical proficiency and computer know-how will all depend on the demands of the organization.

The following topics are suggested areas of competence for trainer knowledge.

(1) Motivations for learning
(2) How learning can be effective
(3) Barriers to learning
(4) Training methods
(5) Product and technical expertise
(6) Use of training aids
(7) Design of training courses
(8) Methods to evaluate and validate training

2. Skills competence

The following list suggests general skills competence levels.

(1) Analysis of jobs and tasks
(2) Evaluation of training needs
(3) Preparation and design of courses
(4) Design and use of visual aids
(5) Presenter and manager of training programs
(6) Facilitator of learning
(7) Production of course handouts

3. Attitude competence

Part of a trainer's role is to observe and evaluate the behavior of trainees. Trainees can be as strongly influenced by the attitudes of the trainer as by their work environment and corporate culture. However, the trainer's perception of the training role can be biased due to the organization's support (or lack of support) for the training function, and the trainer's attitude to the following:

Organizational features

(1) The culture of the organization
(2) The style of management
(3) Leadership effectiveness
(4) Attitudes of management and colleagues to training
(5) Support given to training

Personal attitudes

(1) Personal aims and goals
(2) Individual motivation factors
(3) Personal commitment to the job and to the organization

(4) Ability to change and adapt to situations and people
(5) Background and experience
(6) Individual trainer personality

What is most important is to constantly evaluate the effectiveness of the training team, and analyse feedback gained from both trainers and trainees in post-training debriefings. Trainers and training team can be evaluated through the use of knowledge management.

V. Detailed Costs and Benefits of Training

Any training plan should include a final section on (Stout, 1993:53-54):

(1) The financial costs of your training programs
(2) The available finances and structure of the training budget
(3) The benefits of training to the organization and its employees

1. Costs

Armstrong (1988) noted that the basic costs for training are: remuneration and expenses of trainers and trainees; preparation and maintenance of training programs; training materials, equipment and premises; lower performance of trainees until fully trained.

These costs can be broken down into seven specific cost areas to be considered in the training plan:

(1) Salaries, wages and expenses of trainers
(2) Trainee expenses (eg. travel costs, meals and accommodation)
(3) Costs to prepare training programs
(4) Support and upkeep of training programs
(5) Cost of training materials, equipment and premises
(6) Training of trainers to improve their knowledge, skill and job performance
(7) Financial losses to the company due to continuing inadequate employee performance.

If it is necessary to save money, e-training or online training is cheaper than traditional training or classroom training. For example, in salesperson training, Jacksonville, Fla. (U.S.A.) based PSS/World Medical is renowned for its sales training, especially in its PSS medical supplies business unit, which employs 700 of the company's roughly 1,000 salespeople. Until early last year, almost all of the company's training was instructor-led or done on the job, but a review of how and where training dollars were spent prompted the addition of an online learning component. "We found that about 80 percent was being spent during the saleperson's first year within the company," says Susan Parker, Director of Career Development, Center for Career Development, PSS/World Medical. "Since a 25 percent turnover is normal with straight-commission salespeople, we started questioning how we could get more value for our training dollars by spreading them out over the salesperson's career." (Ellis, 2002:34)

The result was CCD Online, a Web site that incorporates training resources with other employee-related information. Parker remains selective in determining which curricula are suitable for online delivery. A course on blood-borne pathogens, for example, is well suited to e-learning. Every PSS rep is required to take the course to learn safety procedures to follow when calling on physician offices and labs. Employee orientation also is now online. In the past, the company flew new hires into Jacksonville every month or two for four days of training. Now, new salespeople receive the same information during their first day on the job by spending a few hours online. "That was a big decision for us given our culture. But by putting it online we're able to use those training dollars later in the salesperson's career," Parker says, adding that more leadership training for seasoned salespeople is one way the company is spreading out those dollars (Ellis, 2002:35).

2. Benefits

The benefits of training can be plotted in terms of benefits for employees and benefits for the organization (Stout, 1993:54).

Individual benefits:

(1) More job satisfaction
(2) Improved job performance
(3) Better career prospects
(4) Greater salary expectations

Organization benefits:

(1) Improves work performance
(2) Increases safety at work
(3) Reinforces staff motivation
(4) More consistent customer satisfaction

Conclusion

In this paper, the training plan has been identified as a practical document which details the tactics used to design and implement training with the use of knowledge management. The training plan outlines what training programs and methods can be used to meet organizational and individual training needs, as it combines with knowledge management. But it is not so easy.

KM doesn't convey that organization's need to do more than just manage knowledge. There is a need to create environments that are conducive to knowledge management. Such an environment includes: (1) knowledge ecology, (2) knowledge sharing, (3) building a knowledge system or culture, and (4) a learning culture (Sindell, 2001:21). Knowledge ecology means studying the flows of knowledge and information within an organization, including examining the knowledge ecology, problems in "knowledgedland", reengineering knowledge flow, and merging parallel flows (Horton, 2002).

The analysis of knowledge ecology includes (1) identifying people whose actions matter, (2) analyzing what roles they play, (3)analyzing what prompts and

informs their actions, (4) analyzing how knowledge is transmitted, (5) analyzing who initiates the transfer, (6) analyzing how all this should really happen (Horton, 2002). If a training planner builds an appropriate knowledge ecology, then a good knowledge system or culture will be established and there will be a culture of knowledge sharing in the organization.

1. Build appropriate knowledge ecology

What follows are some suggestions to help the training planner implement knowledge management seamlessly into training plan (Sindell, 2001:21):

(1) *Identify goals and barriers:* Identify the overall goals of the KM initiative and the smaller goals that build up to larger objectives. Also, identify potential change obstacles, which may include lack of leadership support, not communicating a compelling need for KM and elements within the organization's culture.

(2) *Consider KM as a competency:* Individuals and organizations need to identify the technical and sociological aspects of KM. They can do this by first identifying what tools and processes are already in place and then defining the gaps that need to be addressed. Part of developing KM as a competency is defining the appropriate language or terminology to use to inspire collaboration.

(3) *Create an environment that encourages knowledge sharing:* Do this with formal processes, such as creating a compensation structure that measures and rewards how much employees share and collaborate. Encourage knowledge sharing through informal processes by developing communities of practice in which the members share what they know about a specific discipline.

(4) *Use existing communication structures:* Don't reinvent the wheel. Use what's already in place (email, intranet, and other online collaboration technology) to reinforce the KM component and the practice of cross-functional work teams. KM becomes a part of team meetings when you request individual project updates and require input from team members. Once a month, initiate casual learning forums and cover a different topic each month.

2. Encourage efficient knowledge management performance

Organizations that complement their training plans with equally efficient knowledge management in training commonly employ four key strategies: early involvement, a conducive organizational structure, innovative knowledge delivery and breadth of content (Krell, 2001:42).

(1) *Early Involvement:* The earlier one uses knowledge management for the training plan, the better.

(2) *A Conducive Organizational Structure:* Training teams and service development teams should keep close to each other. Organizational structure plays an important role in the alignment of knowledge delivery with service delivery. Training programs must work very closely with the service delivery teams because both groups are part of the same organization.

(3) Innovative Knowledge Delivery: Organizations that successfully align service and knowledge cycles use a variety of delivery mechanisms—classroom training, online learning, knowledge management portals, computer-based training and even webcasts—to inform and educate the workforce. (Krell, 2001:43).

(4) Breadth of Content: Regardless of planners' favor, the present enthusiasm for knowledge management is rooted in computer networks. This, obviously, is because of the new opportunities they offer not just for storing and codifying information but for allowing people to communicate more easily regardless of where they work.

Because KM efforts depend so heavily on computer systems, they often are controlled, or influenced to a great degree, by computer experts, the people in the organization's information-technology (IT) department (Gordon, 1999). But while knowledge management operates via computer systems, it isn't about computers-and it can not be if it is to be effective. It has to be about learning. More than that, it has to be about learning that is directly useful for the training plan, learning that enables better performance. At its heart, KM isn't about technology, it's about culture. And unless people with some insight into human behavior get involved, it isn't going to work (Gordon, 1999).

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Providing Support for Senior Public Officials: The Role of Professional Associations

Michael Brintnall *

Introduction

Senior government officials are pivotal in almost all aspects of reforming the state. Good ideas in the public service are unlikely to emerge unless shaped by contributions from senior officials, are unlikely to be sustained without their management direction, and are unlikely to advance without their leadership. Senior officials must master a complex technical understanding of the challenges society faces, be agents of change and be managers of its consequences.

The technical challenges for public administration are greater than ever. Globalization, rapid technological change, ever-expanding calls for democratic participation and a litany of many other developments all capture attention. The temptation in response is to focus primarily on the technical dimensions of the problems we face and on the new legal and management tools that are emerging in response: public-private enterprises, performance management models, cross-sector partnerships and on and on. Training and guidance for senior officials on these questions is important.

But the situation of senior officials has added dimensions too. Senior leaders in the public sector operate in a complex and multi-tiered environment balancing political, managerial, technical, and leadership roles. Effective strategies for public sector reform in turn then need to include ways to prepare and support senior officials in this complex and transformative role.

One important resource that can help is the independent professional association for public administration and management. The role that such associations can play in supporting the work of senior government officials in public sector reform is often overlooked and underappreciated.

A variety of institutions do exist that help prepare and support senior officials in public administration. National schools such as Ecole Nacionale d'Administration (ENA) in France, or degree programs such as those accredited by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA), offer preparatory training relevant to these conditions. Training institutes offer mid and advanced career assistance in policy, ethics, and management. Think tanks can offer detailed policy information and intensive analyses, often in a politically neutral way.

But these entities, taken alone, have limitations as a resource for supporting professional development of senior public officials. Some are entry oriented – they are not a resource for mid or advanced career development or for on-going support

* Executive Director, American Political Science Association, Washington D.C., USA

for officials. Others may support officials throughout the life of their career, such as the newly formed Canada School of Public Service or the Federal Executive Institute in the United States, but may have formal curricula or programming that doesn't fit with the scheduling or status needs of senior officials. Few can cut through the problems of status, position, pressures and information mentioned above. Think tanks offer information but don't provide the enhanced opportunities for individual development often identified as a significant need for senior officials.

Professional associations provide a complement to these other institutional resources. They provide an independent, open, and transparent environment in which individual leaders can interact with peers to share information, identify and test ideas and gather knowledge. These assets of professional associations are often taken for granted, and the development, cultivation, and support of such associations are not often included in agendas for public sector reform.

The following discussion examines some of the distinctive challenges that senior government officials face and describes what professional associations are and ways they are ideally suited to respond. It ends with recommendations for steps donor associations and other communities can play in strengthening such professional associations and the role they can play.

Training and professional development for senior officials in the public service can occur at three levels – for the individual, within public sector institutions and the workplace, and within the larger professional environment. Much of the attention to advancing senior leadership focuses on the first two levels – strategies to improve individual skills and to reform public institutions and the capacities of senior leaders to direct them. Obviously this is critically important, and by suggesting a different strategy I mean to complement these efforts not supplant them.

The pressures and circumstances faced by senior leaders in the public service have characteristics very different from those addressed by conventional training and professional support initiatives. Senior officials face an additional set of issues that inhibit their opportunities for effective training and development, and compound problems of confronting successfully the challenges listed above at individual and workplace levels. Some of these issues are related to professional status itself, some to aspects of their position, some to peculiar pressures they face in their work, and some to specialized information needs that they confront.

Particular challenges for senior officials in the public service that raise special challenges for training and professional development include the following:

Status: Senior officials may risk losing face when undertaking conventional training. The appearance of a "need" for training can undermine perceived authority with staff. Status considerations, if not time and workload, may inhibit participation by senior officials in conventional training regimes.

Fraternization. Closely related to status concerns are those we might call the problem of fraternization. Senior leadership needs both to work closely with line staff in public agencies and also maintain the distance necessary for authority rela-

tionships. This is hard to arrange within the workplace itself, where much training and professional development is directed. Yet if senior officials receive training and other support completely independently from regular staff, opportunities for shared understanding of roles and responsibilities, and for simple information exchange, can be lost.

Position: Similarly there are aspects of the professional position of senior leadership that constrain their options to improve skills or prepare for new challenges. Senior leaders cannot usually experiment with new ideas or express doubts or ignorance. Their views are unavoidably taken as policy, not as speculation. They tend to make policy by what they say or do, and so a common learning path of trial and error tends to be closed, as is any path that might convey ignorance or indecision (such as signing up for training.) Senior officials need different, somewhat more protected, ways to get up to speed on new and difficult topics.

Pressures: Senior officials also operate in a political web. Even within a strict civil service setting, senior officials have some accountability to political leadership and need political goodwill to be effective. They may indeed need to play a subtle and discreet role of helping to steer political change without tipping that hand. For these reasons, training and policy analysis delivered within the workplace or provided jointly with regular staff sometimes must be tempered to fit political realities, and thus rarely can be provocative or challenging enough to give senior officials new tools or perspectives.

Information: Senior officials have voracious information needs – but often are constrained by short-term pressures that preclude lengthy investments in themselves. Also, within the work setting, they may have very narrow sources of information, and they need access to a broad range of alternative perspectives rapidly and without the threat of appearing to undercut the so-called "party line"

Policy expertise and knowledge: Senior officials in the public service may not themselves be policy experts in one area or another. Indeed, many are trained in policy neutral fields such as management or law. But they are called upon to make complex and detailed decisions about highly technical subjects, and often to initiative new directions in public policy where little is at hand to work with – whether transportation planning, water systems, nuclear power or children's health. Oftentimes their effectiveness will depend on having information that can be obtained independently of those who report to them or make demands of them, so they can play a role in changing direction of existing policy and systems. It is a challenge of public administration to provide resources for senior officials to learn, independently and reliably, outside their day-to-day working environment.

Independence and Accountability: Senior officials have a difficult balancing act between their allegiances to political leadership, their obligations to be responsive to citizens, and their frequent need for independent thinking as agents of change. Senior officials need guideposts, and occasionally allies to balance these cross-pressures. Some resources come from training. Ethical standards, established in public settings of high legitimacy, can help too, as can peer review and support.

Management: Finally, senior public officials usually need to be effective managers as well, to steer, and often reshape, the complex organizations that they head. Policy creativity is of little value if it can't be implemented to reach citizens. Senior officials need support in basic techniques of management, indeed often in being reminded that management is part of their responsibilities. They need tools for interpreting and assessing successful performance of the organizations they lead, and guidance on how to steer to more effective levels of operations.

We can't expect individuals to resolve these multiple expectations alone, or to be able to obtain the professional development they need from conventional training and professional development strategies in the workplace. Nor can we always expect the public sector employer for whom these officials work to provide all of the necessary supports – indeed some of the help that senior officials need may be in developing perspectives that arise from outside the public agency itself. So, to make senior public officials effective, we need to envelope them, and the systems in which they work, in a network of supporting institutions that reinforce and strengthen these capacities.

The Professional Association.

Professional associations are important social and political institutions that can offer resources in response to the unique demands faced by senior officials. Associations have a long historical role underlying the growth, autonomy, integrity, and effectiveness of many professional communities – medicine, law, academic scholarship, engineering, and so forth. Their role in support of public administration is underdeveloped, and warrants more attention.

In a sort of pure form, professional associations have some combination of the following characteristics: self-governing membership by the professional community; independence from formal public authority; grounding in specialized knowledge; a service responsibility; and a code or tradition of ethics. In the case of public administration, and in the more fluid and networked days of the twenty-first century, these characteristics may not appear in quite the same structured ways as they have historically, such as in the development of law, medicine, engineering and so forth. But the principles and practices are still highly significant. The core elements of professional associations relevant to senior public management are the following:

Self-governing and independent membership: a critical and defining feature of professional associations is that their operations are independent of formal public authority and are guided by members themselves. This combination is critically important to their effectiveness – professional associations provide an independent source of authority for the actions of their members other than the state or the private market. This authority derives from the professional qualifications of the members themselves. This helps meet the status needs of senior officials, and provides resources to counteract political pressures and assure independence and accountability.

Specialized knowledge: hand in hand with the concept of independence, professional associations tend to be knowledge driven. Classically this knowledge has rested in science (e.g. in the case of medicine) or law. But consistent with this concept is a knowledge base drawn from diverse sources of scholarship and from practice grounded in experience. Such a knowledge base both constrains and lends legitimacy to the independence of the association, lifting it out of, for example, partisan concerns.

The aptness of specialized knowledge for the purposes of the association and its members is measured by peer judgments of the members themselves. This provides both independence and accountability, and in the case of public administration also provides judgment grounded in real experience and fitness to purpose. Peer review within professional associations allows participants a means for making judgments about qualities of policies and management approaches that is independent of specific organizations or contexts (or ones superiors.) It allows for a framework in which new ideas can be tested credibly and with accountability – at least on policy merits, if not political ones. This feedback can be invaluable for senior public administrators who may not always have reliable sources of evaluation or criticism within their work setting

Service responsibility and ethics: professional associations often play a powerful role in society – for instance by organizing important professionals such as lawyers and doctors. One might wonder why the state would permit such independent sources of influence in key areas of public life. One explanation is that an implicit bargain can be struck between associations and the state – the state will allow such organizations significant freedom to operate independently in the interest of their members, if the associations will regulate the behavior of such officials in the public interest and will commit to focusing its work in the public interest and in the name of public service.

In the public administration community worldwide, some examples of associations that reach or come close to these criteria are the following: the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration, the Network of Schools and Institutes of Public Administration of Central and Eastern Europe, International Institute of Administrative Sciences, the American Society for Public Administration and the incipient InterAmerican Network for Public Affairs Education.

How Can Professional Associations Help Senior Officials?

Some of the special circumstances that constrain opportunities for training and professional development of senior officials, including the limitations on conventional individual and workplace training, were described above. Professional associations can surmount many of these obstacles, greatly enriching opportunities for senior officials to develop professionally and gain new knowledge and skills. Some of the ways this can happen are the following:

Mixed Perspectives and Mobility: a characteristic of professional associations is that members come from a common professional background, but not from

a common work place or location. In some associations there may also be different career strata represented – e.g. practitioners and scholars concerned with similar issues. This creates an environment in which senior officials can get new information and feedback from others who understand the specifics of the task and the political climate, but are not embedded within the workplace or institutions themselves, without raising status or fraternization issues. This setting also provides officials with opportunities to learn about service in different levels of government and nonprofits or agencies, permitting career mobility and consequent sharing of approaches and insights.

Independent Accountability and Assessment: Not enough can be said about the importance of an independent voice within professional associations. It is a place to regain a moral compass after working in the rough and tumble political and administrative workplace, by engaging with peers who can speak independently and authoritatively, but without threat to ones allegiances to political leadership.

Professional associations can help senior level administrators in a number of complex ways – as a resource for training, as an environment in which new ideas and perspectives about policy and administration can arise. They can lead to a change in the climate of thinking about these issues, as a means of counterbalancing pressures in work from political or bureaucratic sources, as a tool for setting of evaluation standards, and as a resource for long-term change.

Training and Information: Participation in the programs of professional associations can be a significant training experience and source of new knowledge, without participants facing the status issues of submitting to training. Learning comes from peers and from the open discussion of papers and reports of practices by others, and perhaps most significantly by preparing papers and contributions oneself.

Climate Changing: Associations, with their independent basis of authority, can be a factor in changing expectations about what is good public administration and policy practice. They can model ways to analyze and interpret policy or conduct evaluations – even ways to manage. Associations have the independence to propose new ways, and the legitimacy to make an influential statement on practices in the public services.

Response to Political and Bureaucratic Pressures: Professional associations can help bolster senior public officials against attacks and criticism. They provide a collective voice that is often easier to raise against strong forces than an individual one.

Factor for Long-Term Change: Associations develop codes of ethics and other modes of long-term planning that can have lasting effects in shaping behaviors of public officials. They are often also in a position to monitor development of the community of public administrators and take steps to strengthen its development. Associations, for example, have often been forums to identify important groups that have been excluded or underrepresented in public service, such as women or ethnic minorities, and to take steps to rectify these imbalances.

Collective Action: Finally, the professional association becomes a tool for collective action by public administrators across levels of government, agencies, and even nations. The American Society for Public Administration has used this capacity, for instance, to lobby government officials for increased funding for public affairs research.

Active involvement in professional associations by senior level administrators can lead to professional enrichment, outreach and lobbying, training, and better management. Professional associations can significantly improve individual skills and knowledge levels, improve management talent (and awareness that management matters), and enrich the whole public administration community by stimulating more sharing of program issues and structure. Associations can enrich the pool of policy ideas; set and model application of high ethical and performance standards, and highlight good management approaches – all by providing senior level administrators with a place where they can interact with others as peers.

Strengthening the Role of Associations

It remains then to ask how the role of professional associations can be strengthened across the globe in support of senior level public officials. There are three different areas in which attention is needed. The first is steps to be taken within professional associations to improve their operations and increase their capacities to make a difference for senior leaders. The second is recognition of some of the liabilities under which professional associations can operate and identification of steps to protect against them. And the third is actions that the donor community, and all other parties interested in improved public administration and reform of the state, can take to promote the role of professional associations.

Improved Operations.

Management. Professional associations are managed organizations just like the public sector, and their reach, breadth, and depth are significantly influenced by the quality of leadership they have – from both elected member leaders and from professional staff managers. The role of professional staff managers in particular needs to be acknowledged and supported more fully.

Programming. Professional societies can also suffer from the same stagnation that sometimes plagues the public service – a persistent focus on the status quo and defense against change. For professional associations to play the role called for here, they too must be triggered to innovate, to stimulate diverse ways of thinking, and to draw in numerous different perspectives. This will take resources and all the usual stimuli.

Ethical Principles. While professional associations can be the defender and propagator of ethical standards – in fact may be the only institutions that can do this – this role too is not automatic and can become moribund. The value of this ethical role cannot be overstated and needs to be emphasized at every turn.

Allegiance. Perhaps the greatest challenge facing professional associations is expressing their legitimacy to senior officials who face so many pressing demands on their time. More fundamentally, increasingly senior officials are no longer engaged in public service as a career, but as a temporary position drawn from other sectors, such as business or law. This weakens the incentives for allegiance to public service oriented professional societies, since a long-term career benefit from involvement is less clear.

Liabilities. Professional associations can operate with liabilities as well as benefits. There are weaknesses and threats to the effectiveness of senior administrative officials as well. They can threaten party allegiances. They can be forces that defend an old orthodoxy – themselves refusing to innovate or to advance innovative ideas. They can become a "guild" with greater focus on protecting interests of officials themselves, rather than on advancing the quality of the work. And with even greater impact, they can become defenders of conventional values, not just practices. Some argue professional societies in Germany in the 1930's and Hungary in the 1940's joined with other institutions in advancing illiberal policy and providing support for political persecutions.

There are protections against these threats – steps to assure open and transparent association leadership, inclusion of a diverse array of members from different settings and sectors, and, of course, application of the good management principles identified earlier as a product of such associations.

Policies to support Professional Associations

Donor agencies, and others with influential voices, can consider steps related to creating an expectation that it is important to be involved in the work of professional associations; encourage the development and recognition of ethical standards and more general codes of good performance conduct; allow staff time to participate in professional society meetings and governance; and include association development in their budgets for programs in a region.

Leadership from those senior officials who understand the importance of professional associations is also needed to show the way to participation. The best lure to active engagement in professional association is the example set by influential others.

Finally, all development and training projects should include a percentage set aside for the support of professional associations – allocated at the discretion of the donor, but provided independently and without strings attached for relevant associations. This will provide the seed money for independent, peer driven, and creative training and professional development for senior officials in public service for generations to come.

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Public Administration Education and Training in South Africa: New Needs and the Implementation of New Approaches

Hendri Kroukamp *

Introduction

We are living in an age of transformation heading towards the knowledge society. Traditional productive factors seem to provide less and less added value, whereas knowledge is perceived to be the main production factor of the future. The increasing importance of knowledge is supported from the economic point of view by the high growth rates of knowledge focused organizations, for example, consulting institutions, software houses and training and research institutions.

In South Africa, the ability of the public service to deliver and expand basic services will decide whether the country becomes a stable political economy driving development in Africa or remains a volatile country beset by massive inadequacies in service delivery. The political leadership and management skills of its political office-bearers and the professionalism of its corps of public servants will also be decisive. This, in turn, will depend on the quality and appropriateness of their education and training[1].

Unfortunately, the conventional pattern of adult education and training does not meet particular objectives such as promoting opportunities for skills development in social upliftment initiatives and assisting new entrants into employment. The systems and practices of education and training in respect of the government should therefore appropriately address the increasing demand for high-level, up-to-date knowledge and skills. In order to achieve this, new approaches need to be explored.

Environment of Contemporary Public Administration

One of the characteristics of public administration is that it is aimed at the future, that is actions to be taken in the future. According to W.A. Robson (1967) the point of departure for any attempt to foresee the future of public administration is the fact that public administration has been, is, and always will be closely bound up with the shape of society. The aims, intentions, preoccupations, values, problems, difficulties and knowledge of a community will largely determine the purposes and the methods of its system of public administration.

To a large extent, all countries, whatever their stage of development, pursue similar aims. They are all trying to become 'modern' or, if they can claim to be

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* Professor, Department of Public Management, University of the Free State, Republic of South Africa

1 For purposes of this paper, education and training are seen as two equally weighted components of a holistic capacity building process.

modern, to remain in that supposedly happy condition. This involves the downgrading of values, habits and institutions and the upgrading of frequent and continuous changes in technology, morals, standards, habits, fashion and style. Change is now regarded as a goal in itself, and is, according to Wessels (2000:311) *inter alia* being brought about by the growth of the world's population; urbanization (affecting the accessibility of all types of government services); industrialization (impacting on the worsening world environmental situation); technological developments (leading to a net loss of jobs and contributing to economic insecurity in the workforce); integration of national economies into global market mechanisms (bringing about increased insecurity, unemployment, inequality and poverty to due increased competition and flexibility); the spread of new epidemics such as HIV/AIDS (necessitating the adoption of new methods of health care and delivery) and social instability (a result of wars in various regions in the world).

All countries therefore

- try to train, acquire and use an ever increasing proportion of scientists and technologists and to provide them with necessary equipment for their work;
- seek eagerly a high rate of economic growth and a higher average *per capita* income, which are broadly equated with material well-being;
- are committed to an unlimited degree of urbanization and industrialization;
- are anxious to provide the major social services, particularly education and public health, at as high a standard as possible for the whole nation or that part of it which falls below a certain level of income;
- endeavour to provide better housing to eliminate slums, squatting and to re-develop the obsolete or worn out parts of towns;
- try to regulate urban growth in one way or another;
- hope to achieve an improved environment by means of town and country planning; and,
- are anxious to avoid mass unemployment (Kroukamp 2002:3 and compare Laegreid 2001:2).

The new spheres of public administration which are likely to emerge from these changes may be directed towards more positive and more complex objectives than some of those which absorb the attention of public authorities today. The bearing of all this on public administration is that the future concerns and interests of nations are likely to be very different from what they are today; and that these changes will have an important impact on public administration.

One certain feature of the future trend of events is that public institutions will continue to grow all over the world. The more highly developed countries will expand their existing services, particularly those concerned with education, highways, housing, public health, physical, social and economic planning, and urban development, and will embark on new tasks such as those mentioned above. The low-income countries are fully aware that the ambitious plans of economic and social development which they have drawn up, and are pledged to carry out, can only be realized with an efficient system of public administration.

Whatever appropriate means chosen by the government to deliver services and address the abovementioned, the ability of the government to achieve its social objectives must therefore be strengthened. This might mean working more closely with the private sector which can assist to achieve lower tariffs, greater investment and coverage, and better quality services, thus improving the general welfare of the inhabitants. The predicted development will blur and perhaps eventually eliminate the clear-cut distinction between public administration and private administration or what can more accurately be called non-governmental administration.

Distinction once so serenely drawn between the private sector, in which the individual could do as he/she pleases, and the public sector, in which common choices must be made, is shrinking towards vanishing point as the private sector is frequently required to cooperate with the government in applying public policies which are considered desirable or necessary for the general welfare. Individual transactions are now known to have consequences which extend far beyond the parties to the transaction; and it is this which has led to the insistent demand that the public interest, as formulated by the government, should be and must be accepted as a guide by private interests. This infusion of public policy into the elaborate network of transactions, decisions and attitudes in the private sector is one of the most familiar features of the mixed and regulated economy which a large majority of nations have adopted (Saarelainen 2002:24).

A much more important development is that both the new tasks of government and the new spheres of public administration outlined will demand new visions on the part of political leaders. It will also demand new types of skills from public servants and, from both Ministers and officials, specialized knowledge of various kinds which they do not at present possess and may not be able to acquire. In this regard, training can play a meaningful role in adopting to the future.

Perspectives on Training

It can certainly be accepted that training is not a miracle cure by which all management and administrative problems can be solved. It is, however, one of the human resource development practices which, in an integrated manner, can be used to obtain meaningful change and renewal. Training will assist the government to develop the professional capacities of politicians/public servants and to promote institutional change. In this manner, training can contribute to:

- equiping all public servants with the necessary knowledge, skills and competencies to carry out their jobs effectively in pursuit of the vision and mission for the public service;
- enhancing the process of making the public service more representative;
- the reorientation of the values and practices which officials might have acquired under a previous dispensation; and
- the anticipation and facilitation of the introduction of properly conceived and structured institutional changes within the public service. Training should thus become a key component of the institution-building process and, for

this reason, cannot be developed in isolation and must be integrated within the overall strategic plans of public service organizations (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service 1995:64 and compare Kuye 2001:5).

Such skills, and the competencies to be acquired to deal with these changes, will not only be occupational, technical and professional in nature, but should also relate to problem solving, innovation and leadership in order to enable public servants at all levels/spheres to take advantage of the opportunities for open and participative management, team building and decision-making. When dealing with the South African situation in this regard, the following issues should be taken into consideration:

- South Africa has a severe shortage of professional managers and technicians, compared with industrialized countries, as there are only 3 million skilled people, as opposed to the 7 million in semi/unskilled work;
- of the 4 million people who are unemployed, some 50% are young people who have completed more than nine years of schooling. Youth unemployment is aggravated by the inadequate provision of technical and vocational education and training opportunities. In the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, 50% of secondary school students are in technical and vocational education programmes;
- many small businesses in South Africa are informal and fall outside regulatory and taxation arrangements. In practice, many are trapped at the low-value-adding end of the production spectrum. The challenge is to assist these enterprises to climb the value chain and this will require skills;
- public services at national, regional and local spheres of government need the skills to implement the policies and programmes that have been introduced to improve living standards and reduce levels of poverty. Hilliard and Msaseni (2000:67) note that in 1991 it was estimated that 16.6 million South Africans lived below the poverty line; in 1993 it was 32% of the population. In 2000, these statistics looked even worse; 65% of South Africans were said to live below the poverty datum line; and
- although skills development opportunities are provided for staff, a commitment to training has not characterized the South African labor market (compare Kroukamp 1998: 90). An International Labor Organization Country Profile of South Africa reported that although 87% of a sample of manufacturing companies claimed to provide skills development opportunities', 70% in practice offered only induction and initial training. The same report suggested that 40% of employers provide no training at all (compare Mbere 1996:7).

In fact, unemployed people, as well as employers seeking skilled workers, seldom turn to training as the answer – they want their needs met immediately and they do not want to wait for the returns on training to materialize. Besides, from the employers' point of view, if a person is trained, they could leave and get another job with more money from a competitor. From the point of view of individuals, too often they feel the market has failed them – they are de-motivated. Employers

and workers need to be persuaded that training today is an investment in tomorrow. Whilst the returns may not be immediate, they will be substantial and are worth the investment and the wait (Skilling SA 2001:3).

In order to face these challenges, particular objectives need to be achieved:

* the development of a culture of high-quality life-long learning by encouraging employers to accept skills development as an investment rather that a cost;
* fostering skills development in the formal economy to ensure productivity and employment growth;
* stimulating and supporting skills development in the small, medium and micro-enterprise sector;
* promoting opportunities for skills development in social upliftment initiatives; and
* assisting new entrants into employment (Kroukamp 2002).

The crucial question for public administration professionals, however, is whether the conventional pattern of adult education and training provide a practical, contextualized form of rationality to meet the abovementioned objectives and if it makes learning of the necessary competencies possible. In South Africa, the answer to this question is unfortunately negative. The reason being that the systems and practices of education and training with reference to the government do not appropriately address the increasing demand for high-level, up-to-date knowledge and skills. There are problems of mission and purpose, criteria for success and learning structures (Wessels 2002:2).

A paradigm shift is therefore needed in respect of the purpose of the education and training practices where (i) learning should produce needed skills, not merely the provision of instruction; (ii) student discovery and construction of knowledge should be elicited, rather than the transfer of knowledge to students; (iii) powerful learning environments should be created, as opposed to the offering of courses and programmes; and, (iv) quality of learning should take place, rather than mere instruction. If this does not happen, the rapidly changing nature of the environment, and the rate at which knowledge can become outdated, is not taken into consideration (compare Barr & Tagg 1995:16 – 17).

Subsequently, the criteria for success should reflect (i) achievable or realistic learning and student outcomes, not inputs and resources used; (ii) the quality of existing students, not the quality of those entering the courses or programmes; (iii) the aggregation of learning growth and efficiency, not of enrolment and revenue, and (iv) the quality of students, not lecturers, and the quality of learning, not instruction.

The characteristics of the specific teaching and learning structures should (i) be of a cross-disciplinary or interdepartmental nature, not independent disciplines and departments, (ii) comprise specified learning results, not complete study packages; (iii) be externally evaluated, not only internally; and (iv) constitute pre/during/post-assessment, not only end-of-course assessments (compare Wessels 2000:314).

If these issues are not addressed, institutions teach what they think is necessary for students to know, implying that the profession agreed on the competencies of the particular programme and that assessment and evaluation are open for inspection by the particular profession. This, however, is normally not the case in South Africa regarding institutions that provide the education and training of public servants/politicians. New approaches should therefore be adopted to rectify this situation.

New Approaches to Education and Training of Public Servants/Politicians

The development of new approaches goes hand in hand with innovation, which in turn depends on the sharing of knowledge, skills and the commitment of multiple groups and role-players (Scarbrough *et al.* 1999:56). Innovative processes thus become increasingly interactive, requiring simultaneous networking across multiple participants (compare Gibbons 1998:4). In the field of public administration, the South African Management and Development Institute (SAMDI) is currently charged with building the capacity of public servants in the work sphere. The assistance of tertiary institutions, however, is necessary to equip potential public servants with relevant skills before they get to the work sphere.

The various efforts that were made to establish networks consisting of academics, researchers and practitioners in the field of public administration and related disciplines to promote the transformation of public administration in South Africa, for example the New Public Administration Initiative (NPAI) in 1992, the Joint Universities Public Management Education Trust (JUPMET), the Association of Southern African Schools and Departments of Public Administration and Management (ASSADPAM), the KwaZulu Natal Regional Forum, NAPISA and PASA, however, did not bring to fruition the required results (compare Cloete in Theron & Schwella 2000:23). Urgent attention should therefore be paid to this aspect.

Apart from the abovementioned observations, there furthermore seems to be a need for the following actions:

- to establish legitimate vehicles to promote the interests of the discipline of public administration and its teaching and research staff in South Africa;
- to, as part of long-term training programmes for newly recruited public servants, make provision for short-term secondments to leading national private sector organizations;
- to contemplate a period of residence or study in an adjoining country;
- for sectoral management training capacity in priority sectors such as public enterprises and public utilities management, rural development management, international affairs and foreign trade management, local level development management. Increasingly more training capacity should be allocated to these areas, with the assistance of the particular sectors;
- for learning processes or learning experiences to be programmed whereby different programmes may then be offered for different contextual or occupational needs;

- for the inclusion of academically-oriented practicing administrators from the public and private sectors in part-time public administration programmes; and
- for refreshment courses to supplement the knowledge of the public servants on a regular basis in order to meet the challenges of a constantly changing work and world environment (Kuye 2001:8).

These training programmes should, however, be supplemented with so-called 'aftercare' programmes. This requires the implementation of a step (undertaken by training providers themselves) that goes beyond the traditional monitoring and evaluation of training. It is about performance, not only focused on the learner or trainee, but at the component where the work is done. Aftercare programmes could be useful in various ways, namely by:

- indicating whether the training need analysis was done properly; in other words, whether the identified needs were indeed those that made the employees not to perform as expected or that caused shortcomings in service delivery;
- providing proof of the ability of training providers, not only in terms of the subject knowledge, but in essence, of their ability to make it relevant to the world of work, thus serving as a mechanism to distinguish between professional training providers and fly-by-nights;
- providing information about the readiness of the system to create a culture that would be conducive for the application of new knowledge and skills by graduates and employees who successfully completed training courses. Employees can only perform to the degree that the system allows them to do so. Stumbling blocks that may hamper high level performances could either be people (the old guard), the corporate culture or the organizational structure; and,
- taking corrective measures in instances where goals were not achieved. The apparent lack of courage to undertake such measures are, in many instances, caused by a result of the strong degree of politicking in the public sector and the absence of clear definitions of the roles of politicians and public servants (Bekker 1999:16).

The slow development in South Africa of public administration and management as an academic discipline should be improved significantly by recent developments in the course content and teaching methodologies. Within the framework of the information society, the adoption and exploitation of information technology and communication applications and services is expected to have a significant impact on the educational and training strategies of institutions of higher learning. The new strategy must fulfill the requirements of continuous training or life-long learning (Kroukamp 2002). It requires a decision regarding the manner in which learning is organized, as well as the innovation of teaching methods in order to make training attractive and within reach of learners. The strategy furthermore needs to increase the efficiency of training and should provide the answer to the question of which basic skills and competencies learners should acquire in order to become adequately active in the knowledge and information society (Karagiannis *et al.* 2001:5).

In achieving these objectives, alternative solutions to the conventional training method (C-learning) should be analyzed. Interactive distance learning, intranet-based training, technology-based learning, web-based learning, online learning – all appear as different types of learning technologies with different capabilities – offer such alternatives. However, the distinctions and capabilities that once separated these categories are made fuzzier by advances in technology. Though there are particular differences between them, for instance in bandwidth, user interface, or interactivity, they share a common strategy to deliver flexible learning (Roffe 2002:40). Moreover, these online learning platforms have begun to converge around common technology standards (the vehicle, according to Singh *et al.* (2002:62), that will bring flexibility to content and infrastructure solutions) and a delivery infrastructure, the Internet as a means of enabling learning.

E-learning as a medium of delivery for education and training enables institutions of higher learning to progress considerably in the adoption of information and online technologies. As opposed to distance learning, where a lack of interaction and communication between the educators and learners/trainees exist, online learning allows both the educator and learner to draw on the strengths of traditional instruction and combine it with new technology and virtual tools, leading to the creation of online or virtual institutions of higher learning (Turban *et al.* 2002:420). It thus offers the opportunity of producing a learning experience tailored to the strengths and learning style of each learner or trainee, i.e. perhaps the most crucial factor in the success or failure of education and training.

Conclusion

Although all countries are pursuing similar objectives, the pace of change in South Africa will of necessity have an impact on public administration in the future. New approaches and specialized knowledge will be required, not only from politicians, but also from the corps of public servants. In this regard, training can fulfil a meaningful role. Institutions of higher learning providing learning opportunities will be expected to facilitate the integration of knowledge (information, concepts, theories and methodologies) together with skills and values, into the learners' practice in a participatory and reflective manner. This, however, has yet to be demonstrated in South Africa.

To address the situation, new approaches to education and training of public servants and politicians have been discussed. It was indicated that *inter alia* legitimate vehicles should be established to promote the discipline; learning processes and experiences should be programmed; refreshment courses should be presented and attended on a regular basis; and secondments to private sector organizations should be provided. Aftercare programmes should supplement these training programmes to determine whether the training needs analysis was properly done; the training providers were able to do the training and to institute corrective actions. Furthermore, institutions of higher learning, in adapting e-learning as an alternative mechanism to the conventional c-learning, can fulfill the require-

ments of continuous training or life-long learning, thus offering the opportunity of producing a learning experience tailored to the strengths and learning style of each learner or trainee.

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Enhancing the Quality of Public Administration Education: The Case of India

R. K. Mishra *

The Indian polity is passing through critical times. Not only is the socio-economic and political structure of the country undergoing phenomenal change, but also the expectations of people in terms of the availability of greater opportunities and superior goods is repeatedly echoed in different forums repeatedly. Added to this, is the dilemma of rendering efficient and effective administrative support to people by a sprawling bureaucracy which has been labeled as "status-quoised" and obstructive to the factors which could be harbingers of change.

The recent Constitutional amendments in India have been intended to give power to the people. This has resulted in creating forces against the present excess of power, thus, seeking a change in the real relationship between the executives and people. The Country has reached a stage where it has been widely felt that what is important is the more effective running of it. The disintegration of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s has given rise to new perspectives, in the background of which the whole question of the functioning of the public administration system in the country needs to be examined, lest the Country is torn apart into pieces.

It is in this context that public administration education in India assumes a critical dimension. This paper seeks to present the genesis and growth of public administration education in India; the status of teaching, training and research in this realm, its pitfalls, and the challenges it faces in the path of its emergence as a well-established discipline in the field of Social Sciences, for its research methodology, contribution to knowledge, and relevance to the people in their day-to-day business.

Genesis

Public administration education owes its great legacy to the ancient Indian period of history. It was about 3000 years ago that Kautilya wrote the "Arthashastra" which discussed the statecraft of administration, the functions of the king, the role of his advisers, the methods of recruitment for bureaucracy, the penalties for non-implementation of the state directives, etc [1] In medieval India, Akbar the Great, in his treatise the "Ain-e-Akbari" laid down the principles of state administration, the methods of preparation of state budgets, and the relationship between the Centre and its constituents.

In the period of British India, measures were taken to provide sound public administration to the masses including various enactments, such as the Indian Penal

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* Senior Professor and Director, Institute of Public Enterprise, Osmania University, India

1 Arora, Ramesh, K and Kaushik, S. L. (Ed), The Universe of Public Administration: Essays in Honour of Professor Sharma, Associated, New Delhi, 1994.

Code, the India Companies Act, the Reserve Bank of India Act, etc. However, public administration education in its earliest form had its first seeds sown in the Department of Politics and Public Administration at the University of Madras in 1939, with the introduction of a diploma course in public administration[2].

In 1938, the University of Allahabad launched a diploma course in local self-government. In 1945, the University of Lucknow started a diploma course in Public Administration in the Department of Political Science. In 1949, the University of Nagpur started, for the first time, a full-fledged two-year programme in public administration under the auspices of a separate department called the Department of Public Administration and Local Self – Government. By 1973, 24 University Departments and several affiliated colleges had started under-graduate and post-graduate courses in public administration. In 1995, the number of University Departments had gone up to 50.

Public administration was first a part of the history department in some universities. In other places, public administration became an integral part of the political science Departments in the universities and was taught mostly as a compulsory course at the post-graduate level. In the 1950s, a separate Department of Public Administration was set up for the first time at the University of Nagpur. Another feature of the 1950s was that in some universities, public administration teaching was organised in their departments of economics. In 1955, in the University of Rajasthan, the Department of Economics was renamed as the Department of Economics and Public Administration to impart teaching in public administration as a separate degree.

It was in the 1960s that public administration began to be recognized as a full-fledged separate discipline, public administration being handled by "autonomous" departments within the faculties of social sciences. During this period, the University of Rajasthan, Osmania University, Punjab University, Sagar University, South Gujarat University, Himachal Pradesh University and Utkal University started separate Departments of Public Administration. In the 1980s, and in the current decade, there are two clearly discernible trends, one is the teaching of public administration as a part of post-graduate courses in political science, and the second, the organization of the teaching of public administration by a full-fledged department in this area.

In the 1950s, another important development, which gave a great boost to public administration, was the Appleby Committee Report on Public Administration, and subsequently the establishment of a separate institute known as the Indian Institute of Public Administration (IIPA) at New Delhi. The objective of the setting up IIPA was to provide a forum for exchange of knowledge and experience among practitioners and teachers of public administration. In 1960, IIPA started a one-year post-graduate diploma in public administration which is mostly attended by the civil servants who are in the mid-point of their career.

2   Barthwal, C.P. Public Administration in India: Prospect & Retrospect, Ashish, New Delhi, 1993, pp.1-70

The participants of the programme are also taken to some countries to have a perspective on comparative public administration. In the 1950s, the Administrative Staff College of India was set up to, among other things, train public administrators. In the various States of the Indian Union, State Academies of Administration were also set up. These institutions from time to time were strengthened by way of financial support from the centre and their respective State Governments. In the 1980s, the training of civil servants was initiated in a very large measure by the central government which gave a big boost to public administration education.

Teaching of Public Administration

Public administration is organized at the post-graduate level as a part of instructions given in the political science departments in some universities. Fifty-six universities teach public administration at the Master's level in political science degree programs. Of these, forty-seven universities have public administration being taught as a compulsory/elective course. Eight universities teach public administration as a compulsory subject, and nine universities provide public administration as an elective.

It is also interesting to note that most of the universities provide one course in public administration in the compulsory stream at the MA Political Science level. This course mostly deals with the principles of public administration. However, there are universities, which provide more than one paper in the compulsory stream. The University of Madras has two compulsory papers, namely, Principles of Public Administration and Modern Government. It is equally interesting to see that there are some universities, which do not have a compulsory requirement in their scheme of teaching Political Science. Among these are the Jawaharlal Nehru University, Madurai Kamaraj University, and the University of Mysore.

Some of the universities which have full-fledged courses in public administration at the post-graduate level, however, organise teaching in two streams. Some papers have been labeled as compulsory papers, whereas the students have the freedom to select optional papers from the various groups. Mostly, the course study is restricted to eight papers and the viva-voce examination. The students are given the freedom to opt for undertaking a project work in lieu of one optional paper. The students are given the freedom to take one of the two groups as electives. Group I includes Studies on Rural Government and Administration. Group II contains electives on Planning. Administration and the Public and Rural Development Administration. The students have to take one paper from the courses on Research Methodology, Political Sociology, Politics and Development in India, and Development Administration.

In similar fashion, at the Sri Venkateswara University, Tirupathi, four compulsory papers are taught in MA (Previous) in the nature of compulsory papers. These include Comparative and Development Administration, Comparative Political Systems, Administrative Theories, and Local Government in UK, USA and France. In MA (Final), the courses taught include Local Government in South

Asia, Financial Administration in India and Policy Studies. There is an option offered to the students between Urban Local Government in Andhra Pradesh or Panchayati Raj in Andhra Pradesh.

A suggestion has been made that public administration education at the post-graduate level should be organized in the form of core courses and optional papers. The core courses could include Administrative Theory including State Theories, Administrative System of India, Public Personnel Administration, Comparative Public Administration, Public Policy Analysis, and Research Methodology. The optional papers could include Indian Constitution; Bureaucracy: Theories, Functions and Role; Administrative Thought; Rural and Agricultural Development Administration including Irrigation, Health, Labour and Social Welfare Administration; Educational Administration; Financial Administration; State Administration; Rural and Urban Local Administration; Development Administration; Crisis and Emergency Administration; Organization of the Public Sector; Sociology of Administration; and Politics and Administration.

To strengthen the quality of research at the post-graduate level, the M. Phil teaching started in Public Administration in the 1970s. Nine Universities provided for public administration in their M. Phil Political Science Programmes[3]. The MS at University of Baroda has three papers in their M.phil programme in the elective group, which include Public Administration and Social Change, Development Administration and Issues in Local Government. Dibrugarh University follows the same approach by including three papers on Social Administration in India, Management of Public Enterprises in India, and Rural Development in India. The Jawaharlal Nehru University provides two papers in the elective stream, namely, Bureaucracy: Its Institution, Function and Changing Roles, and Leadership: Problems of Recruitment, Socialization, Role and Function. The Marathwada University provides in its electives a course entitled Recent Advances in Public Administration.

The teaching of public administration had percolated down to the under-graduate courses. At the under-graduate level an effort is made to provide a general background of public administration dealing with the knowledge and information on local administration, state administration, and the administrative set up at the centre. This started in the 1960s when public administration was either allowed to be offered as an elective or it figured as a component of political science electives at the under-graduate level. There are about 39 Universities having courses in public administration at the under-graduate level.

A study of the organization of teaching at the various levels point out that at the post-graduate level public administration lacks a strong theoretical base. It continues to place its emphasis on structures and organizations instead of providing insights into the administrative problems and the realities of organizations. Further, there is no agreement about the core and periphery in terms of papers that are taught. The disciplines which have made a great headway have a solid core and a strong

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3 Bhattacharya Mohit, Crisis of Public Administration as a Discipline in India, EPW, 22(48), 28 November, 1987, pp.M139-M42.

periphery.[4] In the case of public administration, the general opinion is that both are weak. Further, there is a lack of agreement on what constitutes the core.[5] The syllabi of some universities tilt towards economics, while other institutions have a heavy bias towards management.

The study of policy analysis has been generally neglected. There should be three or four electives so that a student could specialise as per their interest. In most of the Universities no systematic effort has been made to group electives. The focus is more on administration and the "Public" component has been widely ignored in the syllabus-making exercise by the Universities. The universities which have public administration at both the under-graduate and post-graduate levels have not taken the University Grants Commission (UGC) syllabus seriously. Most of the Universities give a heavy dose of Administrative Theory in the under-graduate programme. At the M. Phil level, no systematic effort has been made to organize instruction in Research Methodology. As public administration lacks its own research tools and the contribution of its teachers has been minimal, in this respect instruction on research methodology lack credibility. Further, the electives taken at the M. Phil level are not geared to the topic of research as most of the students choose optional papers without any bearing on their topic of research.

Public Administration has become more popular as a course for students acquiring their degree through distance education and private appearance modes. In 1987, the Union Public Service Commission, in its scheme of examination, approved public administration as one of the subjects. Each year about 100,000 students appear in the Civil Service Examination at the center, and an equal number of applicants write the Civil Service examination conducted by the State Civil Service Boards. Most of the examinees in the competitive examinations prefer to take public administration without having had any background of it as they come from non-political science/non-public administration streams. Though this speaks volumes about the popularity of public administration as a subject of study, it also points out the weakness of the discipline in that people, without acquiring any specialised knowledge of public administration, pass these examinations offering only a few papers in this subject.[6]

Research

Research in public administration has been undertaken at the universities for obtaining a Ph.D. degree. On the other hand, some institutions such as IIPA and the Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR) have been engaged in the publication of research on public administration respectively. The number of Ph.D. theses submitted between 1979 and 1989 amount to 246 as detailed in Table 1.

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4   Bhattacharya Mohit, Public Administration in India: A Discipline in Bondage, Indian Journal of Public Administration, 32(2), April-June 1986, pp.19-29.

5   Bhattacharya Mohit, Recent Advances in the Discipline of Public Administration, Indian Journal of Public Administration, 36(1), January- March 1990, pp.1-15.

6   Datta Prabhat Kumar, Public Administration- Old Issue and New Challenges, Indian Journal of Political Science, 48(1), January-March 1987, pp.42-59.

Table 1
Ph.D. Theses in Public Administration (1979 – 89)

SL. No.	Area of Specialization	No. of Ph.D. theses completed
1.	Rural Development Administration/Panchayati Raj	41
2.	Urban Local Government/Administration	34
3.	State Government/Administration	29
4.	Public Sector Administration	22
5.	Personnel Administration (including Civil Services) and Industrial Relations	20
6.	Central Government/ Administration	13
7.	Police/Law & Other Administration	12
8.	District Administration	10
9.	Welfare/Tribe Development Administration	10
10.	Development Administration	10
11.	Health Administration	9
12.	Financial Administration	9
13.	Centre-State/ Administrative Relations	9
14.	Administration ideas/Concepts	5
15.	Comparative Administration	4
16.	Labour Administration	3
17.	Agriculture/Food Administration	3
18.	Forest/Environment Administration	3
	TOTAL	**246**

It is clear from the table that a wide range of topics have been researched in public administration[7]. The areas of specialisation attracting major attention are Rural Development Administration/Panchayati Raj, Urban Local Government/ Administration, State Government/Administration, Public Sector Administration, Personnel Administration(including Civil Services) and Industrial Relations, Central Government/Administration, Police/Law and other Administration and Development Administration, Welfare/Tribal Development Administration, and Development Administration.

The emerging areas in the field of doctoral research included health administration, financial administration, center-state/administrative relations, administrative ideas/concepts, comparative administration, labour administration, agriculture/food administration, and forest/environment administration. The ICSSR have surveyed trends in research in public administration thrice.

The first survey covered the period up to 1969, the second survey 1970 – 79,[8] and the third survey related to 1979 – 89.[9] The first survey concluded that as an

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7   Kumar, Umesh, Koutilya's Thought on Public Administration, National Book Organization, New Delhi. 1990, pp-1-80.

8   Maheshwari Shriram (Ed), Education in Public Administration in India, The Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi, 1992.

9   Maheshwari, S. R, Study of Public Administration in India, Lakshmi Narain Agrawal Educational Publishers, Agra, 1973, pp.7-35.

academic discipline, public administration was still in the formative stages of development. According to the survey, contributing input to the formation of public policy, such as famine policy, flood relief policy, agricultural policy, and public health policy, should have been research priorities. The survey suggested to accord priority to research on relations between the legislature and administrative behavior, and comparative studies. The survey concluded that the discipline as a whole was not showing a sense of buoyancy of achievements either in the academic or the practical worlds or of being of continuing relevance to the needs of the country.

A lurking doubt in the academician and even in the practitioner existed as to whether, as a field of study and inquiry, public administration could develop as a useful and relevant independent discipline as well as a practical and applied science. One of the most important issues facing the discipline of public administration in India, according to the survey was the development of a set of properly tested and validated theoretical constructs. The survey suggested interpenetration between theory and practice.

The second survey by ICSSR noted the limitations of the discipline. It noted that the most familiar paradigm guiding research in the field continued to be that of Max Weber. It noted that little attempt was made to develop alternative conceptual frameworks even though this was the exhortation of most academics and professionals during the period. The second survey categorised the trends for research in public administration in five major areas and it found that whereas there was a pool of work on Rural Development Administration and Indian Bureaucracy, some important areas like Urban Administration, Administration of Law and Order and Justice, and Trends in Administrative Reform, did not receive the required amount of attention.

The most recent survey of research on public administration analysed about 25 major areas. Some new areas making their place in the survey include disaster management, management of environment, gender issues, etc. the survey is still under print. The broad conclusions that emerged from the trends in research in public administration hint that the results of the surveys conducted by ICSSR have not received serious attention. Academic researchers lack financial support, whereas practitioners have not given serious attention by the research. Further, the research is conducted in narrow bounds, totally losing sight of the fact that multi-disciplinary research is the need of the day. The researchers have chosen to tread conventional areas and have failed to undertake studies on contemporary socio-political issues. Interestingly, while a massive exercise is underway in regard to economic liberalisation, privatisation, setting up new regulatory frameworks, and environmental interface with administration, researchers have shown their diffidence to move into these areas of research. [10]

A study of the 1550 papers published in the Indian Journal of Public Administration during 1961 – 1990 throws interesting light on the issues researched in

10 Mathur (Ed), A Study of Research in Public Administration 1970-1979, ICSSR, New Delhi, 1986.

public administration during these three decades. Of the more than 1550 papers published, nearly 60% were focused on planning, administrative structures and systems, agencies and management of public enterprises, and other governmental organisations. The remaining 40% were spread over nearly 40 sub-areas of public administration. Of these, slightly more than 37% dealt with administration/organisational/development theories and critiques of bureaucracy.

An important sub-area of public administration, like public policy analysis and evaluation, did not cross the 29% mark in the three decades. Studies on public participation, voluntary social action, and representativeness also made a poor appearance in the journal, only 11%. Studies on public accountability and responsiveness to the public also yield a poor picture (about 18%). The percentage of studies on local organisations, democratic decentralisation, and administrative development came down from 9.23% during 1961-70 to 4.38% during 1981 – 90. Articles on evaluation of the implementation of development programmes and on administrative reforms also dwindled to 4.21% during 1981 – 90 from 6.61% in 1971 – 80. A grossly neglected area is labor relations and industrial management. In the same way, studies on financial management, inter-governmental relations, management of technology production, and personnel administration did not get their expected share.

It is clearly visible that normative empirical, structural and organisational studies overshadow others in the Journal. It is further seen that theorising about administrative practice is a highly backward sub-field of research in the public administration. It was further revealed that studies on the review of literature of public administration required serious attention. The general approach of the research papers was descriptive, narrative and information-oriented. The empirical analysis was confined to the method of simple observation. The correlation or cross-sectional analysis, relational and attitudinal studies and structural or system analysis studies constituted a negligible percentage.

Training

Most university departments are not involved in training – though they do extend their support to the training institutions conducting programmes in areas related to public administration. In fact, university faculty in the Country could contribute a great deal to training in public administration for Indian Civil Service personnel who abound in number. According to one estimate, the total employment in the public sector in India is about 70 million.[11] The State Academies have tried to fill in the gaps. Among the State Academies, the ones in Karnataka, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan have done a splendid job. In terms of infrastructure, they offer a wide range of programmes. However, innovation in terms of the addition of new training programmes to the already existing ones is not very commendable. These academies, which are operated by the State Governments, mostly train the

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11 Rao, V. Bhaskar, Paradox of Public Administration in India: Emerging Issues, Indian Journal of Public Administration, 40(3), July-September, 1994, pp.479-86.

civil servants employed in the various departments of the State Government and operate through their sub-offices in the respective States.

They do undertake programmes for bureaucrats in the State Governments as per needs analysis. They often join hands with the Central Government Departments/IIPA to launch training programmes. Despite their huge infrastructure, the training effort undertaken is not proportionate. The faculty of these institutes is mostly manned by civil servants and, to that extent, they lack academic inputs, which amounts to weak delivery in the classrooms. Further, the relations between the faculty drawn from the civil services in such institutes and the Academy staff coming on deputation or absorbed on permanent basis, is not congenial for achievement of the objectives.

For policy-makers, IIPA became a nucleus of training in Public Administration from its very inception. It also started considerable training for public administration practitioners dealing with district administration. Later on, it created unique strengths in the areas of economic administration, financial administration, project administration, management accounting, and social administration. It promoted training programmes based on its own researches and also commissioned many such programmes sponsored by the central government and the State Governments.

A lot of ground has to be covered in the area of public administration training. There is a need to create a strong institutional framework as the existing system is not in a position to cope with the requirements. Training has to have a user-orientation.[12] Need-based training programmes should be mounted in place of general training programmes. The methodology of training should change from lecture to interactive mode. In case of training where a change in practice needs to be effected, the workshop method could give the best results. Further, the training programmes dealing with delivery systems which need to be more effective should require action research or field research. Finally, the Country's vast number of non-governmental organizations need to be involved in training.

The Agenda for the Future

Public administration is in quest of an identity in India.[13] This identity could be achieved if professionals in public administration take the responsibility of committing themselves fully to the growth of the discipline and greatly intensify their research effort. They have to create a sound, vital, theoretical base. In order to do this, the members of the profession should discard their aversion to drawing upon the social sciences. Public administration should come out of its narrow shell and see the world outside. It should define both the core and its periphery. The core should address itself to the issues relating to public which could be both publicness and the accountability of academics and practitioners to the public.

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12 Report of the Curriculum Development Centre in Political Science, University Grants Commission, New Delhi, 1991.

13 Varma, Vishwanath Prasad, Perspectives and Challenges of Public Administration: Role of the Indian Institute of Public Administration, Bihar Journal of Public Administration, 1(1), Spring 1984, pp.13-17.

Public administration in India has to redefine its scope. Any discipline, to justify its existence, has to keep on growing and adjusting its direction, giving due cognizance to the environment. The time has come when public administration should take up the challenge of addressing itself to the current societal issues concerning efficient and effective delivery of public services. It should help in the transformation of the bureaucracy to a great managerial order. It needs to give due regard to the mode and method of its conduct in the present stage of the economic transformation, including privatisation, deregulation and globalisation of the country.

Public Administration has to add to its kit of tools and techniques. Interacting with the masses is one thing but satisfying the masses based on effective decision-making is another thing. Public Administration has to increase its use of the tools and techniques of information technology. The teaching of public administration has to improve substantially at the under-graduate level which should have a knowledge-orientation. Post-graduate level courses in public administration should be problem-focused and should have an interconnection with real problems that need to be researched. At the M. Phil level, the courses assigned should have an interconnection with the problems to be researched. A heavy input of research methodology could be provided at this stage. This should go beyond the mundane details of cross-sectional analysis, multi-variant analysis and to the application of existing software.

To improve the teaching standards, qualified staff need to be recruited. Strangers to the public administration discipline should not be allowed to make it their home and then desert it when they see greener pastures elsewhere. Teachers must develop a basic programme for their research and teaching, and identify their contribution in terms of the standards laid down there. The research directions should change fundamentally. Issues in ecology, environment, public distribution, defense management, comparative administration, education, health, irrigation, infrastructure management, center-state relations, financial administration, optimisation of the number of personnel in government departments, work flow, disaster management, gender issues, privatisation, reconstitution of ministries and departments, should receive greater attention. The training institutes should change their basic character. They should promote need-based training programmes and formulate their training goals on the basis of the product approach. They should promote the concept of networking to pool faculty resources. They should make better utilisation of their infrastructure. The pedagogy should shift in favour of field research/action research.

Prior to making public administration an inter-disciplinary exercise, it is essential that the rivalry and/or indifference between the practitioners of public administration and academicians in this field is removed. The two should work hand in hand.
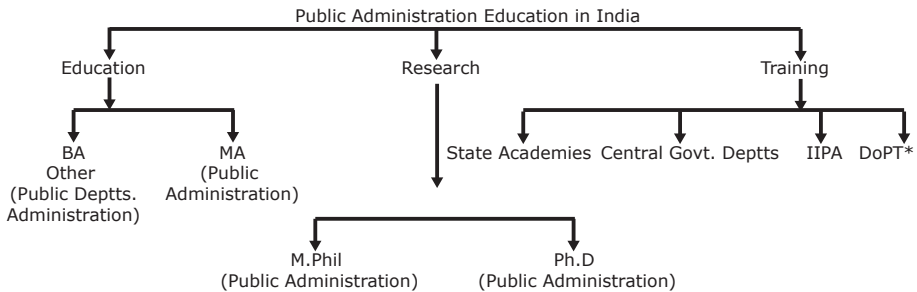
Conclusion

Public administration education made its first appearance on the Indian scene in the 1930s. From modest beginnings, it attained the status of a full-fledged post-graduate course on university campuses in the 1950s. Today public administration education has made its mark at the under-graduate, post-graduate and M. Phil levels.

It has become an attraction for doctoral research among students. More than 50 Universities teach public administration at the post-graduate level, either through a separate department or as a part of programs offered at the post-graduate level in departments of political science.

Besides teaching the principles of public administration in the compulsory stream, the electives on public administration include administrative theory, rural administration, financial administration, urban administration, and management of local self- government. Research has been mostly related to the theoretical aspects of administrative theory, rural administration, and local self government. Important areas such as public policy, personnel administration, budget/finance, and technology have not attracted the attention of researchers.

Training efforts have been minimal at the university-level. However, some specialised institutions such as IIPA and the State Academies of Public Administration have done significant work in this area. There is a need for such institutions to streamline their training plans, giving due regard to the socio-economic transformation which the country now is experiencing. The content of such training also needs to be improved. Public Administration in India is in quest for its identity. Both its core and periphery needs to be strengthened. It has to live by itself, though it needs to increase both the speed and scope of interaction with the other disciplines in the Country. This will be possible only when public administration education is taken as a serious matter by the academicians and the rift between them and practitioners is overcome.

Diagram 1

Public Administration Education in India

Education — Research — Training

Education: BA Other (Public Deptts. Administration), MA (Public Administration)

Research: State Academies, Central Govt. Deptts, IIPA, DoPT*

Research: M.Phil (Public Administration), Ph.D (Public Administration)

Training: State Academies, Central Govt. Deptts, IIPA, DoPT*

* Department of Personal and Training, Government of India

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The United Arab Emirates Experience in Developing Standards of Excellence in Public Sector Education & Training

Yousuf Essa bin Hassan Al Sabri *

Introduction:

Interest in the development of standards of excellence in public sector education and training has heightened over the past few years due to the concerted efforts of both scholars and regional and international organizations involved in the business of education and training. Especially salient among such efforts have been those of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA), the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA), the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) and the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA). The contributions of numerous individual scholars have added focus and illumination to the issue.

In this contribution, an attempt is made to reflect on the experience of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) in search of standards of excellence in public sector education and training. This experience is represented by UAE's Institute of Administrative Development's efforts in looking for appropriate indicators for evaluating its training activities with an eye on improving the provision of training to a level commensurate with the standards of excellence accepted elsewhere.

The UAE experience in developing standards of excellence in higher education more generally will not be dealt with here because this falls within the domain of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research and the UAE University. The Ministry has developed a set of criteria for accrediting higher education institutions that conform to the international standards by which accredited institutions should abide.

The focus here will be mainly upon the efforts of the UAE's Institute of Administrative Development as the sole government organization entrusted with administrative development in the country. Following an overview of the past two decades of those efforts, an attempt will be made to provide a classification of the standards of excellence in public sector education and training along the lines proposed earlier in this volume by Professor Blue Wooldridge under the following four headings: *inputs*, *processes*, *outputs* and *outcomes*.

The UAE Experience: An Overview

The UAE experience referred to here is represented by the Institute of Administrative Development's efforts towards developing and applying standards of excellence in its training activities. The Institute of Administrative Development (IAD) in the UAE was established two decades ago to provide training to public

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*   Director General, the Institute of Administrative Development (IAD), the United Arab Emirates

sector organizations in order to improve their effectiveness while functioning in an environment characterized by significant change.

In this context, IAD has acted as an agent of change to promote administrative development in the UAE and to contribute to the process of integrated development in the country. IAD has played an important role in training public sector employees at all levels through its various training activities including – conferences, seminars, leadership development programs, in service training for middle management, executive training and preparatory training for new employees.

Annual training plans are designed in collaboration with government organizations to cater to their training needs and to provide support within the policies chartered by the Board of Directors of the Institute. For the purposes of offering high quality training, IAD employed qualified instructors, provided suitable facilities and sought the support of visiting trainers well known for their professional competency, both from within the country and abroad. Contracting visiting trainers provided additional help to permanent technical staff and enabled the Institute to expand its training activities to cover the needs of more government organizations.

Through its general and special training programs, IAD has been able to provide training services for more than twenty thousand public sector employees over the past two decades. This has meant surviving in an age characterized by change and competition at the global level and in a culture subscribing to total quality management (TQM) motivated by Dubai Government initiatives at the local level.

Since the mid nineties the Dubai's Government has pioneered in the area of total quality management. Several awards were initiated by the Government of Dubai – and then by the governments of the other Emirates comprising the Union of Arab Emirates. Those awards were directed to encourage both private and public sector organizations to comply with the international standards of quality in service provision and the production of goods. Those awards included: Dubai Quality Award and Dubai Award for Excellence in Government Performance.

The latter award actually incorporated three awards: one for a high performing organization; a second for a high performing department or project or team within the organization; and the third for the high performing individual employee. Standards of excellence for each level of the award have been developed along the lines of international standards and awards such as the U.S. Baldridge award and the Japanese Deming Award.

Along the same lines of the pursuit of excellence, the Federal Government in the UAE required all federal government organizations (ministries and public corporations) to qualify for ISO (9001-2000) within a specified period of three years. This represented the first of three initiatives. The other two relate to application of electronic transactions in the business of government (e-government) and the training of leadership at Harvard University (John F. Kennedy School).

IAD recognizes that qualifying for ISO (9001-2000) is just a beginning and not an end in itself. It is the beginning of a movement of continuous improvement in the provision of training, consultations and other services to its clients, both in the public and private sectors.

Collection of data for the purposes of evaluating the quality of training in the IAD moved from an emphasis on efficiency to an emphasis on effectiveness, i.e. from focusing on inputs and the utilization of resources in the training process, to focusing on the outcomes of this process. Evaluation of training included both formative and summative assessments. Data generated from the evaluation of training is used as an input for improving the training process on a continuous basis.

Three types of evaluations are currently conducted by IAD namely: *Evaluation of the Training*, *Evaluation of Trainees* and *Evaluation of Instructors*. Data is obtained via written questionnaires using the following indicators in each case:

A. Evaluation of Training:
1. Attainment of programs objectives as stated in the annual plan.
2. Meeting individuals' training needs as expressed by their organizations in the nomination forms.
3. Suitability of duration of providing the training as specified in the program's brochure and decided upon by participants.
4. Knowledge and skills gained as a result of training conducted.
5. Applicability of that knowledge and skill to the work place.
6. Suitability of training facilities to the proper functioning of a learning environment.
7. Cooperation of the IAD staff with the trainees.
8. Need for future improvements of the programs.
9. Type of improvements needed.

B. Evaluation of Trainees:
1. Attendance.
2. Participation.
3. Evidence of behavioral change (the learning that took place).

C. Evaluation of Instructors:
1. Success in attracting trainees' attention.
2. Consistent presentation of subject matter.
3. Encouragement of participation.
4. Subject coverage in terms of both theory and practice.

IAD encourages feedback from both participants in its training program and their superiors in the work organization. A high premium is put on both written and orally expressed opinions. This includes not only the above enumerated indicators of success in training, but also an assessment of the transfer of training to work places. Whether training improved actual performance (as measured by the satisfaction of clients) is an important test for the success of training at the work

place. It is an indicator, and a standard of training excellence at the organizational and community levels.

Classification of Standards of Excellence:

Building on the existing knowledge about standards of excellence in public sector education and training, and the classification scheme provided by Professor Wooldridge, one can suggest additional indicators that may be useful for further development.

The systems approach to standards of excellence in public sector training offers a comprehensive and systemic way of organizing whatever standards are found or utilized or even proposed under the four main categories of: Inputs, Processes, Outputs, and Outcomes. Taking this scheme as an acceptable guideline, and looking back into the UAE experience in public administration, some new data can be proposed under the four main headings as follows:

1. **Inputs:**
    a. Budgetary appropriations / financial resources.
    b. Training needs assessment.
    c. Number and quality of training support staff.
    d. Premises.

2. **Processes:**
    a. Training programs design.
    b. Objectives setting.

3. **Outputs:**
    a. Behavioral change / learning at the individual / group level.

4. **Outcomes:**
    a. Results / improved performance at organizational level.

In addition, more data on standards of excellence in public sector training can be generated though empirical research covering the institutes of administration in the Gulf region and the Middle East. Results of such a study will shed more light on the experience of those institutions with standards of excellence.

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Part II

Enhancing Leadership Capacity Through Education and Training: An African Perspective

A Leadership Capacity Enhancement Initiative for the African Continent

John-Mary Kauzya *

Introduction

The United Nations Millennium Declaration lays out a development agenda for the next fifteen years that if even partially achieved, will represent a significant step forward in socio-politico-economic development. It calls for economic development and the eradication of poverty; the insurance of environmental sustainability; the support of democracy, good governance and human rights; and the maintenance of peace and security. In setting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Member States of the United Nations, including those from Africa, expressed their commitment in this regard.

There are other manifestations of intergovernmental commitment to development and poverty reduction that go in the direction of translating the MDGs into regional thematic actionable strategies. They include the Johannesburg Plan of Action and, most especially, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) as significant commitments at the highest level that show the resolve to get societies out of the claws of poverty. The New Partnership for African Development is particularly relevant to the issues of leadership development on the African continent which this paper seeks to introduce and discuss. In terms of congruency and convergence, the United Nations Millennium Declaration confirms the global community's readiness to support Africa's efforts to address the continents underdevelopment and marginalisation.

However, the unfortunate reality that is becoming more and more imposing as efforts to implement these commitments get under way, is that, in far too many instances, leaders in many countries at various levels, and in all sectors (public, private, and civil society), will not have all of the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and networks necessary to provide the quality of leadership that will translate the commitments made at global and regional levels into national, local and community level strategies, actions and tangible results. The logical conclusion from the above observation is that in many countries there is need for effective leadership education and training to enhance the capacity in this respect and enable them to translate the commitments into strategies and actions as well as concrete positive results.

The United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs (UNDESA) is directly concerned with this reality. It has the UN mandate, expertise, and experience to initiate and engage in activities of strengthening public administration capacity around the world. In this regard it has initiated efforts to mobilize partners around the world to plan and implement strategies and programmes for

* Chief, Governance and Public Administration Branch, Division for Public Administration and Development Management, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations

developing and strengthening leadership capacity for the implementation of the Millennium Goals and other intergovernmental commitments.

Leadership Capacity Enhancement Initiative

One such initiative was a United Nations Ad hoc Expert Group Meeting on "the New Challenges for Senior Leadership Enhancement for Improved Public Management in a Globalizing World" organized in Turin (Italy) on 19 and 20 September 2002 which was co-chaired by Guido Bertucci and Allan Rosenbaum. The objective was to consult a core group of leading experts in public administration and training, with special interest in, and knowledge of, the education and training needs of senior public sector leadership, on the design of an appropriate methodology for enhancing the skills of the current and future generations of senior public sector leaders. The meeting was intended to promote the exchange of experiences and ideas and create opportunity for new thinking in order to produce an output, which would be relevant for guiding countries to provide more effective education and training opportunities for their top-level public sector leadership. The Expert Group Meeting also aimed at identifying the implementation mechanisms of the initiative and the most effective manner of involving relevant regional organizations. Finally, by promoting exchange of country experiences and best practices, the Meeting had the goal of providing guidance to appropriate strategic partnerships and the synergies, which can result from them.

The gist of the conclusions of the meeting was that the strengthening of public administration capacity (especially public sector leadership) is critical for the achievement of the United Nations Millennium Goals. The meeting stressed that leadership is critical to the future of governance, future of democracy and future of people's well being. This message was reinforced by a letter that the Chairperson of the United Nations Committee of Experts on Public Administration, Prof. Apolo Nsibambi, the Prime Minister of Uganda, faxed to the meeting, reiterating the importance of leadership capacity development and calling for particular attention to be placed on the specific problems of specific regions, especially Africa, and underlining the relationship between leadership and governance.

One key conclusion from the meeting – which is of direct relevance and consequence to NEPAD, and which was mostly underlined by the experts from Africa present at the meeting – was that leadership is culture loaded and situation specific. As such the UNDESA leadership development initiative should be, and has been, planned and implemented in close association and collaboration with regional and national training institutes on the African continent. The meeting took this observation to be applicable in all regions where the leadership capacity development initiative will be implemented.

Key Issues Facing Senior Public Sector Leadership

The following six main issues were identified as being key challenges facing the top public sector leadership of developing countries in the next five years:

(i)   Development of future leaders
(ii) Promotion of horizontal management
(iii) Assessing and addressing the impact of HIV/AIDS
(iv) Introducing performance management in the public services
(v)   Managing rapid change
(vi) Designing a strategic vision and developing own-thinking capacity.

It is interesting to note that although these issues and challenges were raised in a global meeting, they echo directly the issues and challenges identified and singled out in the Summary of Nepad Action Plans of July 2002.

The meeting strongly felt that leadership capacity enhancement programs must be conceived and implemented with the aim of making leaders capable of effectively addressing the key issues facing the world today and that its planning and implementation must be interdisciplinary, international and inter-sectoral (involving public and non-profit organizations). Clearly any initiative for leadership development on the African continent needs to be conceived with the aim of enabling African leaders at all levels in all sectors to meet the challenges facing the African people as identified and expressed in NEPAD. It must be recognized that the current political leaders of Africa, in expressing their commitment to NEPAD goals, have already created a base on which leadership capacity development on the continent can be constructed. They have given the ultimate objective that must be pursued by any leadership capacity development efforts on the continent.

The following issues were singled out as some of the critical ones facing the leaders in the world, at least for the next five years:

Globalization: Globalization needs to be understood in its nature, its impact, in the way it can be harnessed to limit its negative impact and how benefits can derive from its positive effects on development. This is especially relevant for countries of the South, which have difficulty in influencing globalization.

Strategic approaches to poverty alleviation: Leaders have to develop cross-sectoral approaches to solving problems to reduce poverty. The following aspects need attention:

- financing development
- developing civic engagement
- improving service delivery especially in water, health, HIV/AIDS, education, environment
- promoting horizontal management

Conflict prevention and resolution: The specific case of countries in conflict or needing rebuilding was discussed and it was recognized that stability and security are key to promoting sustainable reforms. For conflict countries, special strategies need to be in place to ensure that the seeds of conflict are not planted again.

Legitimacy of state institutions: Creating legitimacy and trust is critical. This can be done by establishing strong participation mechanisms and by defining in

a transparent manner the roles and relationships of different spheres of government. It includes also the development of an administrative culture based on the rule of law and a system that ensures security to attract investment and encourage property ownership.

Strengthening leadership in a world of increasing interdependency: Taking into account the present political environment in an increasing globalizing world, new areas of leadership competency need to be developed, in particular:

- Diversity management
- Knowledge management
- Horizontal management
- Resource and information management
- Partnerships and negotiation skills
- Communication and ICT skills

Facilitating large-scale transformations: This challenge involves the following tasks:

- Working with stakeholders
- Balancing and managing long term and short term objectives in the context of change
- Communication skills
- Creating a shared vision
- Empowering employees

Coping with contradictions and paradox: The world is changing so rapidly that contradictions continuously emerge. It is incumbent on leaders (and employees) to be able to deal with more ambiguity. These following areas were singled out:

- Economic liberalism versus social welfare
- People getting poorer but at the same time having more voice
- Managing change while ensuring stability and security

For African leaders who have gone through the process of designing, discussing, agreeing and adopting the NEPAD Action plans, these issues are critical but certainly not new. What may be comforting perhaps is that the concerns on the African continent are actually similar to the concerns expressed by other developing countries.

Strategies, Approaches, and Techniques for Leadership Training Programmes

Whether it is called training or competency enhancement and/or development (or by any other name), leadership training needs to be undertaken with a clear understanding of both the ultimate purpose being pursued and the impact of culture on leadership because the culture of politics varies, often significantly, from country to country.

Given the diversity of administrative cultures, and the great variety of societal environments, each country leadership has to be open-minded and look at all of the potential solutions to their own problems. The key element is to develop a sense of direction for the public service of a given country which takes into account its history, its environment and its position in the global world in a realistic manner.

In this sense, the basic guideline on strategies, approaches, techniques and methodologies for leadership capacity development is that each situation, the needs it imposes as well as the composition and nature of the targeted audience, should dictate the approaches, techniques, thematic content and training methods to be adopted. In designing, planning, implementation, monitoring and the evaluation of leadership development programmes – whether they be in the immediate, short term, medium term or long term – organizers should adopt a participative approach involving the beneficiaries and target groups of such programmes.

Framework matrix for target audiences:

The meeting concluded that, in many circumstances, leadership capacity development programmes need to target the following different levels:

- Potential leaders who are still at University and other tertiary institutions
- Junior civil servants
- Senior civil servants
- Other policy makers such as Parliamentarians and Ministers in central and local governments
- A mixed group of leaders from public sector, civil society, and private sector

Each of the target groups would require a strategy, an approach and methodologies that are congruent with their needs. Even the thematic content for the programme would vary depending on the target group. A framework matrix incorporating target groups, thematic issues and a methodology for a leadership training strategy was proposed in the meeting. It is presented below. The Expert Group emphasized that this can only serve as a framework of analysis whose contents can be specified only after careful participative analysis of target identification and needs assessment

Table 1
Young and Mid-Career Civil Servants to be Prepared for Global Leadership

Target	Major purpose	Methodology	Thematic content
Young Civil servants at Central and local government levels	Enhancement of knowledge, skills, and inculcating attitudes, and values related to Public service	Various including, formal training in management development institutions, universities, seminars and workshops, etc	Various depending on technical fields but with a good mix of public service/administration related subjects. Context and content of the NEPAD goals.

It was emphasized that universities and management development institutions need to be at the leading position in this initiative, especially to determine target groups, methodologies and the thematic content of the training of young public servants on the continent who are going to be the future leaders.

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Table 2
Experienced High Level Civil Servants and Policy Makers

Target	Major purpose	Methodology	Thematic content
(i): Parliamentarians (ii): Ministers (iii): Top Civil Servantts (Permanent Secretaries and other senior ranks.) (iv): Local Government councilors and top leaders	(i): Reinforcing the values of leadership and serving the public (ii): Sharing experiences and best practices (iii): Inculcating the Millennium goals and NEPAD goals, etc. (iv): Enhancement of team spirit	(i): Workshops (ii): Retreats (iii): Exchange visits (iv): Coaching (v): Distance learning (vi): Teleconferencing	(i): Strategic planning and policy making etc (ii): Sustainable development (iii): Globalization (iv): Poverty reduction strategies (v): Public sector reform

For this level, there has to be close consultation with governments and management development institutions at national and regional levels since they are in a better position to determine both the opportunity and necessity for this kind of training, its approaches and methodology and its content.

The Critical Role of the Management Development Institutes

In the process of public sector leadership capacity development, Management Development Institutes have a critical role to play. Especially in Africa, they constitute the infrastructure in their respective countries for management development; they have human resources capable of doing management research, training, and technical advisory work, as well as consultancy services in different aspects of management. Governments should count on them for taking further initiatives such as those addressed by this paper. Right from the start of training; for the purpose of needs assessment, human resource policy design, personnel development programmes formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, these institutes should play a leading role. It is understood that some of them – in fact, most of them – will need to have their capacities reinforced, but this does not in any way minimize the role they must play. In addition, they have networks at national and regional levels through which they can pool expertise, facilitate exchange of successful practices and share innovative practices. As such, they must play a leading role in the public sector leadership capacity enhancement initiative.

Some Suggestions for Starting the Initiative

In a brainstorming exercise, numerous suggestions were made by members of the Expert Group to improve leadership-training strategies and they represent a starting point from which experts from management development institutions in Africa can assess what type of training and for what specific targets is currently required. They included:

- Designing of a week long flagship training course
- Combining regional and national workshops
- Developing training of trainers

- Experimenting with innovative approaches based on real cases based on local experiences
- Disseminating case studies and highlight best practices
- Using role playing as an effective technique
- Developing networks enabling leaders to exchange their views (UNPAN could play that role by creating chat groups on selected issues)
- Adopting a vertical system of training aiming at training organizations rather than individuals
- Further exploring the subject by encouraging researchers to work on the theme; especially on the way culture impacts on leadership and the way various societies may understand the concept of leadership differently.
- Focusing learning on concrete issues, especially for programs targeting senior civil servants.
- The profile of ideal facilitators should be (i) A senior person who has respect of the target audience and (ii) one or two experts recognized for their expertise on the issue at hand. The two should work together and focus on problem solving.
- Supporting the leadership of national and regional institutions to meet the challenges of design, strategy, marketing and ensuring credibility of management development programmes.
- Pooling together institutions inside and outside a particular region including making effective use of the networks created by them.

The Need for Resource Mobilization Strategies and Partnerships

One critical reality is that the kind of leadership capacity enhancement that will enable countries to have a critical mass of capable and competent leaders will require a substantial amount of resources, especially in financial terms. One of the issues that need to be discussed therefore is how such resources can be mobilized and how various linkages and partnerships can be forged to mobilize the needed resources. This should be among the issues that management development institutions on the African continent should be encouraged to discuss.

Finally, participants felt that it would be useful to carry out more research on leadership enhancement and to make an inventory of innovative initiatives done by training institutions in the field. It was recommended to support local capacity development especially in the area of process consultancy services.

Conclusion

What has been presented here is an initiative which is global and involves global actors. However, it must be subjected to both regional and national thinking for it to be translated into strategies and actions that respond to national and regional needs and can be implemented in ways that fit into the specific conditions. The NEPAD Secretariat, and a selection of Management Development Institutions, could hold a session to reflect on this initiative and design an Africa wide strategy for leadership capacity development in the public sector. This draft strategy

could be submitted to a committee of Ministers to consider it and adopt it for implementation. As a point of departure, the UNDESA would support a seminar putting together high-level civil servants (at the rank just below that of Permanent Secretary) during which seminar the NEPAD secretariat and the management development institutions would design and discuss the strategy framework in consultation with the public servants present.

Analyzing the Leadership Capacity Challenge: Towards Potential Intervention Strategies

Patrick Fitzgerald *

Leadership and Leadership Theory

The leadership question is an old, actually, an ancient issue. The stories, myths, fables and legends of pre-history, within the lore of any or all cultures, abound in the narration and interrogation of the leadership role – and its drama.

The development of leadership theory during the course of the last century is both instructive and unhelpful at the same time. Instructive in that various theoretical approaches to leadership such as "trait theory", "behaviourism", "situationalist", "transactional","transformative", and so on, have provided a vocabulary capable of facilitating discussion beyond the merely "great man" or entirely mystical approach.

This is not to say that leadership, and its fostering and nurture in individuals, organizations or societies, is without mystery. Despite the numerous scholarly, semi-scholarly and populist texts abounding in airport and other bookshops, the issues around leadership, and how best to develop it, remain somewhat opaque. To this extent leadership theory has been unhelpful, insofar as it is yet to rise beyond the descriptive grammar of a range of observed leadership-related characteristics and behaviour – without actual cogent or "scientific" explanation of leadership in action or its strategic cultivation.

It is said that in the case of the discipline of philosophy, it is unfair to expect precise knowledge or predictability-orientated explanation, as whenever such paradigm emerges it becomes a fully-fledged discipline in itself. Thus, mathematics, physics, astronomy, history, political science, chemistry, psychology and so on have all emerged from the work of philosophical discourse and speculation.

Leadership theory is in very much the same position in that what can be reliably known and easily replicated is quickly assimilated to management "science", organizational behaviour theory, communication theory, sociology of organizations, social psychology, political science or even constitutional and legal procedure. Leadership itself thus remains in a situation of constantly moving goalposts, continuing to represent contextual applications of implicit knowledge. What we tend to ascribe to "leadership" is precisely those tacit and complex attributes and insights which are constantly eluding our available theoretical and managerial concepts and vocabulary.

Metaphorically then, we are always turning our heads to squint at the leadership concept, having glimpsed seeming coherent flashes of explanatory methodology

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* Director of the Graduate School of Public & Development Management, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa

out of the corners of our eyes. Leadership is a vocabulary on the tip of our tongue, and at the tip of our consciousness. Leadership development is similarly like a lost recipe, which we are only able to cook imperfectly, or on occasion, when all the ingredients come right, almost by accident.

None of the above should be taken to indicate that new understandings of leadership should not be constantly sought, or that leadership development should not be energetically pursued and strategically implemented. It is precisely through such constant activities that leadership knowledge is built, transmitted, developed and consolidated in our individual consciousness; and within the governance and institutional networks of our public management systems.

Leadership is, by definition, always bound up with new and emerging insights related to effectively dealing with the growing complexity, including policy and institutional complexity of the environment(s) in which our governance systems and developmental efforts exist.

African Challenges, Culture, Management and Leadership

In the same way that art or music are universal, so is management. All societies make use of global and generic management knowledge, skills and techniques. Yet, as in the case of art and music, the management craft works best and is most inspired when it is rooted in the conditions and circumstances of its environment.

It is incontrovertible that American, French or Japanese managers do not manage in the same style or manner – yet successful management cultures exist in all these societies. This is because the management tools and techniques have been adjusted, reinterpreted or indigenized to fit in with the cultural and socio-political milieu of that particular society.

A problem for newly emerging economies and previously colonized societies is that an "authentic" or "effective" indigenous organizational and management way of life needs to be achieved. In our circumstances we need to develop an "African Management" approach that would assist organizations in our society to tackle and solve a multitude of problems and challenges.

It is important not to lose direction in overly sentimental, parochial or narrow conceptions of an African Management approach. Management skills are certainly global and generic, but they work best when anchored and related within a strong and committed culture of motivation, innovation and achievement.

Therefore, within the effective ongoing development of a grounded public management capacity, the constant interrogation as to how individuals and organizations are actualizing and deploying management knowledge and skills in the particular governance and developmental situation of African organizational life is useful. In this sense, scholarship and documentation would contribute to rendering much more explicit the implicit or instinctive knowledge which successful management practitioners may be, to whatever extent, already utilizing in the running

of successful public management processes and organizations – as well as giving affirmation and a vocabulary to such endeavours.

The mobilization of management knowledge, techniques and skills is not simply a technical issue. A society needs role models, metaphors, stories and its own language which serves to inspire people to learn management and to relate management concepts and practices to their own daily struggles and aspirations. And much of this is, of course, the work of leadership.

One has to walk a careful golden way here between claiming too much and too little in regard to the significance of the issue of African culture. On the one hand, it seems incontrovertible that a richer and more dynamic African Management culture needs to be developed on our continent in order for "universal", global or, for that matter, particular management techniques and tools to be better fitted and suited to their "local" purpose. On the other hand, the leadership role and function is in any case almost always considered to be strongly contextual and environment-bound.

There is nothing particularly radical or counter-paradigmatic in locating current or potential leadership capacity in African, regional, national or local context conditions. Hence, within the conventional wisdom, leadership is invariably closely bound-up with the cultural and politico-socio life-world in which it is manifested. This is precisely a large part of what renders it cryptic in nature and difficult to transfer through textbook or conventional training formats.

The Public Management Context

Nor is the public management domain the easiest in which to identify and verify leadership hypotheses. The vast bulk of leadership theoretical literature, research and case studies prefer the realms of politics, warfare, sport, exploration or especially the melodramatic neo-warfare of private sector competition in which to forward their paradigms and postulates.

For a lengthy period, the working of public administrative systems were seen as mechanical and routine. Politicians sought mandates and created policies and legislation – public administrators merely implemented accordingly. Max Weber, the founding theorist of bureaucracy, assumed that the bureaucratic mentality would render progressive thinking and innovation virtually impossible within the civil service and made especial methodological provision for forward-looking thinking to come from outside the administrative system.

Unquestionably there is a traceable thread of leadership studies within the traditional public administration literature. The themes explored however, tend to be those of personal integrity, setting good examples, competent stewardship of resources and diplomatic communicative behaviour. In the famous, British TV series, "Yes Minister", the "leadership" role of the civil servant is caricatured as guarding of the status quo, the bamboozling of the politicians and the defense of personal position and prestige.

All of this is very far from the blood and thunder of the leadership role ascribed to politicians, or even more spectacularly, to private sector executives who heroically battle their competitors, the vicissitudes of the market and the inertia of their own organizations.

Certainly the *Reinventing Government* movement and the onset of public management (as opposed to public administration) discourse, has (in a small way) brought some of the management-leadership issues and approaches to the governmental and public milieu. To some extent, senior public servants have also been seen as institutional leaders in the epic struggle to transform intractable institutional environments into sites of efficient customer-friendliness and service delivery.

Even in the developing world, the 1990's saw a new realization of the importance of a "capable state", and the onset of new paradigms of good governance served to highlight the role of well managed public institutions. A rhetoric of leadership development previously reserved for the private sector began to find its way into the collective consciousness of the public management system. The profile of leadership "skills" and "attributes", in terms of career development, as well as attendance at leadership courses and programmes, was certainly on the rise – though whether the concomitant leadership value has been systematically added to the activities and core business of national public services has remained an open question.

Public Servants and Politicians: Partners, Competitors or Accomplices

Politicians, especially those who have come democratically to power, are by definition expert leadership practitioners. Political contestation, effectiveness and legitimacy is predicated on a practical and sure grasp of real world operational leadership concepts and applications.

To what extent then can the robust leadership of the politicians harmonize and synergize with the "functional" leadership expected of senior public servants? This is a matter of fair complexity as even the term used above, "functional", serves to disguise the range and extent of functions carried out (or needing to be carried out) by the management leadership of contemporary government departments and other kinds of state agencies. The rate of change and transformation evident in the strategic and institutional environment, the challenges of nation-building and globalization, as well as the overall complexity of the ongoing developmental challenges, all suggest that a neat and clinical separation of the political and managerial leadership spheres and functions is not always possible.

We do not always see a predominant situation where political leadership and public serviced leadership explicitly understand themselves to be partners in a development mission, each with their own tasks and prerogatives. In certain environments or at certain times political and public service leadership seem to be in competition, whereas at other times they are seen as accomplices in bad governance denying the population their developmental prospects.

A culture of leadership co-operation needs to be facilitated, developed and consolidated, whereby both political and "functional" leadership can be openly and unashamedly manifested. Such a culture needs to embody the democratic principle that the elected, not the appointed, leadership are finally accountable and must therefore finally decide. However, the protocols of mutual respect, the serious consideration of professional advice, and non-interference in purely administrative matters also should apply.

Political and managerial leadership in Africa need to self-consciously see themselves as operating within a strategic partnership for development. In such a partnership, the respective leadership roles would be understood and accommodated. The point would not be to remove tensions, or any possibility of tensions, between the two kinds of leadership. This would probably be impossible and also possibly undesirable. The aim should rather be the creation of a culture capable of handling and resolving such tensions, if and as they may arise, as normal and acceptable challenges within the governance process.

In fact, no coherent and strategic leadership development process can be put in place for public managers unless there is genuine political will from the side of the political leadership that such a programme is a necessity and an operational priority.

Leadership Capacity Approaches

Approaches to leadership capacity building have differed in terms of the perspective adopted as to what exactly it is that is needed to engender and empower leadership aptitudes, skills, attitudes and overall abilities. Some that have occurred in regard to the current African scenario are listed below:

- *Leadership Capacity as Enhanced Management Skills*
  This approach puts emphasis on the need for greater management competency and better management skills. The assumption here seems to be that, if such were in place, then the public service cadre would be able to act as more confident and consummate leaders.
- *Leadership Capacity as Managing Differently*
  This viewpoint sees a significantly different management style as of the essence. A shift to more state-of-the-art, contemporary management techniques would serve to carry along with it a considerably improved leadership paradigm.
- *Leadership Capacity as Formal Knowledge*
  This approach would seek to educate public managers with information and knowledge in regard to a range of issues including globalization, development theory and practice, managerial and institutional benchmarks, and the nature of leadership. The assumption seems to be that such a knowledge input would build leadership stature and ability.
- *Leadership Capacity as Surfacing and Sharing Tacit Knowledge*
  This approach assumes that implicit knowledge possessed by some managers can be surfaced and communicated to the cadre as a whole. This implies a certain

kind of expert facilitation, which brings important tacit skills, networks and approaches to a wider group.

- *Leadership Capacity as Accelerated Experience and Broadened Horizons*
  This approach emphasizes the need for the public management cadre to be exposed to greater world and life experiences in an accelerated manner. This could include travel, placements in other organizations or sectors, professional exchanges, study visits, or even facilitated community inter-actions. Greater volume and quality of experience would broaden the intellectual horizons of the manager and expedite their leadership development.

- *Leadership Capacity as Self Discovery*
  This approach normally takes the form of facilitated leadership programmes where the object is to allow for self-discovery and personal growth. Criticized by some as too "touchy-feely", the objective is to render managers more open and astute to their own (and other peoples) strengths and weaknesses, and to undermine the frequent arrogance and defensiveness characterizing the way managers wield power. The purpose is to build leadership characteristics such as humility, listening skills, and the ability to see a situation from points of view other than your own. Attitudes are expected to change significantly, opening the way to a path of wisdom.

- *Leadership Capacity as the Shaping of Environments*
  This perspective places most importance on socializing an entire organizational environment to enhance leadership growth and development. Teambuilding, opening up lines of communication within an organization and binding all to the shared mission are prioritized. The idea here is that institutional leadership is about trust, common purpose and mutual support.

- *Leadership Capacity as Acculturation to "Chaos"*
  This approach takes an overtly post-modern stance and sees the Post-Modernist management leader as operating within a situation of great diversity, complexity and surprising change. An ability to tolerate ambiguity, to innovate constantly and find an ethical compass amidst contradictory and seemingly chaotic phenomena is emphasized. Heightened and constant strategic alertness and continual readiness for new challenges would define vital leadership characteristics of this new era.

Clearly the above items constitute a semi-arbitrary typology of approaches and potential leadership development interventions could conceivably combine any or all of the above. Often, however, one or other of these approaches is hegemonic and gives a particular direction or spin to the nature of the leadership development programme and process.

Intervention Modalities and Experiences

A body of experience in terms of actual leadership capacity-building exercises certainly exists on the African continent and could be accessed, analyzed and evaluated by applied research. A recent programme to build the leadership capacity of Vice Chancellors of Higher Education Institutions (an initially sceptical and disunited group) is illustrative.

An initial breakthrough occurred during an analysis of the skills profile needed for Vice Chancellors in the current era. A shared revelation took place when the individuals realized through facilitated discussion that the skills required for the task were neither those they had built in their career prior to their appointment, nor those specified in the advertisement for the job and interrogated within the application and interview process. This process involved some not inconsiderable fatalistic humour, as members of the group internalized the need for a major reconstruction of their skills profile and leadership style.

Another leadership development event, which galvanized a group of higher education leaders, was a presentation on "Emotional Intelligence". The group was much struck by the difference in the approach from the kind of academic or analytical intelligence they had been schooled to cultivate and affirm. The group moved from initial criticism of the emotional intelligence concept to an appreciation of its functionality and usefulness in their role as managers of higher education processes (rather than in their previous role as successful disciplinary academics). The group agreed that the session was likely to lead to a fundamental change in their management and leadership styles.

A further example was the positive response of a group of professionals who were exposed to a course on storytelling. Paying attention to the elements and constituent parts of a story, the thinking and techniques needed to tell a story well, and the particular "truths" that could be highlighted or emphasized with the narration of events was described as life-changing by many participants, who stated that their professional communication would be radically improved in future (after all, storytelling is both deeply embedded in African traditions, as well as an extremely durable and useful leadership technique).

These three brief examples are meant to be illustrative of the variety of programme design, which can serve to build leadership capacity within particular constituencies. In the same way that leadership is contextual, innovative and creative – so too must be the design of the leadership development process. The programmes offered should resonate with the felt needs and concerns of the target audience and although a certain generic element may be present, it should be uniquely tailored for each individual group.

Conclusion

Leadership capacity interventions may vary in nature, length and methodology. They may involve an intensive experience outside of a person's usual professional scope or an intensive comparative experience within their professional ambit. They may take the form of a programme with colleagues or else a programme with complete strangers.

Programmes may be self-standing or be knitted into a variety of follow-up actions and activities. Knowledge may be conveyed by experts or, alternatively, the knowledge to be shared may be "mined" from the participants themselves. Formulaic

programmes are unlikely to make much impact on senior cadre, however successful approaches and methodologies can certainly be replicated with other groups.

The activity of leadership capacity development and the building of successful mechanisms and institutional arrangements to sustain such a programme is itself a leadership process. Thus, to some extent, the approach to be pursued will emerge as much through intuition and gut instinct, and a leap of faith, than an academic and abstract sifting of alleged international best practices. The point is to apply our minds and to take account of many views and considerations – but also finally to agree on and plan a course and programme of action, and to do, to act and to reveal.

The Role of Public Sector Leadership in Fostering Socio-Economic and Political Development in Africa

Tag Elsir Mahgoub Ali *

Introduction

The moment of truth for Africa and African leadership has dawned, triggering an awakening in all African societies that see themselves gradually being eclipsed by the giant leaps of developed countries. People throughout Africa are beginning to realize that dramatic words and phrases might provide a platform for temporary crowd pleasing, ego satisfaction and what have you, but they cannot solve fundamental problems nor satisfy aspirations for a better life. What is needed is a philosophy which should both build upon Africa's past and be an intellectual stimulus to its renaissance. Perhaps the only solution to Africa's problems lies in courageously confronting Africa's maladies and the predicaments that manifest themselves in the following:

- Internal and external conflicts that have resulted in devastation of infrastructure and low economic performance due to poor macro-economic management;
- Unbridled lust for power and the growth of unscrupulous careerists;
- Inter-group cleavages that hampered real growth and development;
- Fragile institutions hobbled by traditional tribalism and nepotism that resulted in reduced efficiency and the poor functioning of organizations;
- Growing poverty and deprivation and abysmal ignorance;
- Poor governance systems giving way to a mismanagement crisis of increasing dimensions, due to lack of transparency and accountability;
- Weakened trust in government as an institution;
- Poor service delivery, and increasing endemic diseases;
- Lack of creativity and innovation and aggressive pursuit of excellence.

It is therefore critical for us to tenaciously face up to these inadequacies, engage in objective and sober self-critique and slough off self deception before we start thinking about prescriptions to disentangle us from this messy situation so as not to address symptoms rather than underlying causes.

We need first and foremost to come to grips with the reality of our situation, however harsh it may look, and honestly see the challenges facing us if we are keen to have a place in this turbulent, fast-moving world. The issue is one of survival in this callous world. That is why there is this call for an honest undertaking and an upheaval to revitalize out vision, to reshape our values and hit the track in pursuit of achievement and excellence.

Challenges Facing African Leadership:

The challenges facing Africa and African leadership are enormous, but the most daunting ones are:

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* State Minister of Labor and Administrative Reform, Sudan

1. The challenge of governance, public service reform and bureaucracy;
2. The challenge of consolidating democracy and promoting sustainable human development and poverty reduction;
3. The challenge of conflict prevention and management;
4. The challenge of the development crisis posed by *HIV/AIDS* pandemic;
5. The challenge of human capital drain;
6. The challenge of private sector development;
7. The challenge of regional co-operation and integration;
8. The challenge of external debt burden;
9. The challenge of globalization;
10. Trade flow and the challenge of trade negotiation:
11. The challenge of the information revolution and scientific and technological progress;
12. The challenge of resource flow to Africa;
13. The challenge of tensions within African societies created by increasing demands for recognition of cultural and ethnic diversity in both political and economic spheres;
14. The challenge of facing the growing interest in the decentralization of previously highly centralized governments and the broadening and strengthening of local government capacity;
15. The challenge of addressing the issue of gender equality;
16. The challenge of multinational integration;
17. The challenge of understanding the international political and economic order and responding intelligently to it;
18. The challenge of reshaping and leading organizations and people through a culture that is conducive to excellence to react dynamically to the above challenges.

These diverse and daunting challenges, no doubt, require strategic vision, a clear sense of direction, the ability to plan and organize and the muscle to pursue excellence, which can only be attained through aggressive, hard-nosed leadership that has the capacity to deliver, be it political or executive leadership.

Leadership Defined:

Leadership will continue to be the challenge of the future. Any reform effort is doomed if this aspect is not addressed sufficiently. It is at the heart of the matter, for much of the change or shift in paradigm will depend on how well leadership perceives its role in re-engineering change. Leadership is one of those qualities that are easier to recognize than define. The nature of leadership varies according to the demands of a particular situation, as leaders themselves are divers individuals. Peter Drucker, a prominent analyst of organizational leadership has noted:

"Among the effective executives I have known and worked with, there are extroverts and aloof, retiring men, some even morbidly shy. Some are eccentrics, others are painfully correct conformists. Some are fat and some are thin. Some are worriers

and some are relaxed. Some drink quite heavily and others are total abstainers. Some are men of great charm and warmth; some have no more personality than a frozen mackerel."

Stephen Covey notes, in his book Principle-Centred Leadership:

"Leadership focuses more on people than on things; on the long-term rather than the short term; on values and principles rather than activities; on mission, purpose and direction rather than on methods, techniques and speed."

He goes further on to talk about transformational leadership and transactional leadership, which he describes as follows:

Transformational Leadership:
- Builds on the need for meaning;
- Is preoccupied with purposes and values, morals and ethics;
- Transcends daily affairs;
- Is oriented towards meeting long-term goals without compromising human values and principles;
- Separates causes and symptoms and works at prevention;
- Values profit as the basis of growth;
- Is proactive, catalytic and patient;
- Focuses more on missions and strategies for achieving them;
- Makes full use of human resources;
- Identifies and develops new talent;
- Recognizes and rewards significant contributions;
- Releases human potential;
- Models love;
- Leads in new directions;
- Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals.

Transactional Leadership:
- Build on the need to get a job done and to make a living;
- Is preoccupied with power and position, politics and perks;
- Is mired in daily affairs;
- Is short term and hard-data oriented;
- Confuses causes and symptoms and concerns itself more with treatment than prescription;
- Focuses on tactical issues;
- Relies on human relations to lubricate human interaction;
- Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems;
- Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximize efficiency and guarantee short term results.

But whether it is transformational or transactional, effective leadership is a quality that is very much in demand, particularly in situations where mediocrity

is the least desired. New leadership attributes like setting a strategic vision and direction, challenging old rules and processes, enlisting support, providing good role models and challenging the heart to bring about change and achieve excellent results are crucial. They will make or break any effort at improving the effectiveness of organizations and, in particular, the civil service in the new era. To be able to achieve that, we have to investigate and analyze the critical dimensions of leadership, to grasp its real essence as it is relevant to the modern age and kindles the awareness of the magnitude of African problems and inspires the will and drive of leaders to mobilize human effort and resources.

We have to identify these critical dimensions by answering the following questions:

- Is leadership simply cultural or political innovation?
- Is it essentially inspiration?
- Is it goal setting and goal fulfilment?
- Is leadership the attainment of progressively worthy goals and objectives through the intelligent integration of human and production resources, or is it simply driving the herd?
- Is leadership a process of situation appraisal, problem analysis, decision analysis, potential problem analysis and potential opportunity analysis, or is it fire-fighting and thinking after the fix?
- Is leadership continuously assessing strengths and weaknesses, evaluating opportunities and threats for a clear sense of direction with identified and controlled risks, and thus sound decision-making or is it simply repeating yesterday?
- Is leadership concerned with focusing on contribution and making strength productive or is it concerned with bossing and playing the cop?
- Is leadership concerned with shaping values and instilling them through a culture conducive to achievement and excellence led by the leader or is it paying no attention to organizational values, considering them new-fangled nonsense?
- Is leadership concerned with achieving a major paradigm shift making the public service more mission-oriented, dynamic and resilient in a rapid changing environment?
- Is leadership concerned with exerting big effort in making incremental but significant reforms encompassing not only structural and systems changes, but changes in values and in the mind set of civil service, or is it satisfied with maintaining the status quo?

The answers to these questions determine the roadmap to effective leadership.

The Changing Role of Public Sector Leadership:

The role of modern governments in Africa is indeed very complex, especially with current issues of global interdependence, the communications and information technology revolution and the expectations of the public to be more involved

in the decisions that affect their lives. With the advent of the Internet and open government, we need to acknowledge that the days of policy making behind closed doors might well be numbered.

As the buttress of government, the public service should work towards ensuring an effective administrative framework that delivers goods and services efficiently, maintains security, law and order and ensures access, fairness and justice – all of which are critical to a government that governs effectively. Hence the leadership function within the public service is crucial, while being well informed and able to deal with complex social problems it must recognize that, in the future, technology will have a profound impact on governance; that societies and the organized entities within them must be characterized by the learning mode; and that human resources rejuvenation is the key to renewal of the public sector.

Despite huge strides in socio-economic development, leaders must be ready to continue to address fundamental public policy issues of poverty, education, housing, security and health effectively as these will continue to dominate the public agenda. More importantly they will have to grapple with the dilemma of how governments can remain credible and focused when significant resources are not in their control or are assigned to organizations with limited ability to carry them through and lack accountability to the government. Leadership through good governance must be able to manage diversity, identify and develop key strategic areas, seek and nurture productive partnerships and focus on outputs as well as outcomes. The key leadership role would thus be to seek ways to build the necessary institutional, human resources and technological capacity to support governance

The public sector leadership should equally measure up to the requirements of a quality culture in African organizations, a culture that gradually moves out of its traditional boundaries and transcends them to embrace compelling shifts in structure and content that address issues such as strategic vision and strategic planning, reengineering organizations by leading change, managing knowledge, internalizing quality, entering the digital age, building partnerships, managing for accountability and getting values and ethics right.

Public sector leadership should respond to the real and daunting challenges facing African governments and enhance their capacity to deal with them. The key factor here is to differentiate between leading and managing. Leaders in the public service need to be constantly reminded of the need to go beyond management. In the words of Warren Bennis "management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right things."

Effectiveness is what should be sought in programmes undertaken in the public service, or for that matter in any other field of work. Effectiveness is very much a function of leadership, for effectiveness is not so much about the effort that went into carrying out a plan of action; rather it is whether the effort went into an action plan that is headed in the right direction in the first place. This kind of metamorphosis, that is from management to leadership, is going to have to deal a lot with the intrinsic or personal elements of the individual leader. That is why it

is equally critical to pay a lot more attention to the personal attributes of leaders in hoping to achieve what we want the public service to achieve as a whole.

Personal Attributes of Leaders:

Some of the personal attributes of leaders compiled by Edwin A. Locke developed from an integration of recent works on leadership consist of four key parts:

1 – Vision
2 – Implementing the vision
3 – Motives and traits
4 – Knowledge skills and ability.

1) **Vision:** Vision is a vital leadership component – the leaders' drive, motivation to lead, experience and intelligence provide them with the capacity to:
   • define what their organization should strive to be and to do;
   • articulate that vision succinctly;
   • formulate a strategic visions that specifies the means by which the vision will be attained;
   • promote commitment from their followers by communicating in a manner that is both clear and compelling.

2) **Implementation of the Vision:** Implementation of the vision is a requirement for leadership success. A vision that is not implemented remains only a dream. The effective leader takes steps to ensure that the vision is translated into specific actions, which usually are accomplished with the help of managers and their subordinates.

   Effective implementation actions fall in six categories:
   • structuring;
   • selection, training and acculturating of personnel;
   • motivating;
   • managing information;
   • team building;
   • promoting change.

3) **Motives and Traits:** Effective leaders are:
   • full of drive, energy and ambition;
   • tenacious and pro-active in pursuing their goals;
   • want to lead – they do not crave power for the sake of dominating others but for the sake of achieving an overarching goal;
   • honest and have integrity;
   • have a high degree of self-confidence, which enables them not only to undertake grave responsibilities and generate confidence in others but to cope with many potentially stressful situations with equanimity;
   • often creative;
   • strategically flexible;
   • sometimes charismatic.

4) **Knowledge, Skills and Ability:** Leaders have:
- extensive knowledge of their discipline, technology and the organizational environment in which they are working;
- a variety of skills. Because of the relational nature of leadership, "people skills" are important. These include listening, communication, network building, conflict management, and assessment of self and others. Problem solving, decision-making skills are also vital;
- cognitive ability, especially the intelligence to process a large amount of information, integrate it and draw logical conclusions from it.

The Soft Stuff of Leadership:

And soft is hard! Tom Peters in "*In Search of Excellence*" has summed up the characteristics of excellent performing organizations in the following:

1. Bias for action;
2. Closeness to the customer;
3. Obsession with quality;
4. Instilling unique values;
5. Productivity through people;
6. Encouraging innovation;
7. Stick to the knitting;
8. Simple form, lean staff.

In his sequel "A Passion For Excellence", Peters demonstrates how that passion is borne by leadership that makes excellence real, through real people who are made to deliver, because they want to deliver. It is the organizational culture shaped by those leaders that makes the entire system become obsessed with achievement and excellence.

Here comes the soft stuff of leadership. I have developed a model out of the letters of the word "*Leadership*" in an attempt to get to the heart of the soft stuff of leadership. The model depicts *LEADERSHIP* as:

L = Love
E = Empathy
A = Attention
D = Dedication
E = Enforcement of Values
R = Reward
S = Synergy
H = Hoopla
I = Integrity
P = Perseverance

Love: That is the demonstration of love, real love to the organization one leads, love of vision, love of people to be reciprocated, love of the values one preaches – love that permeates the entire system.

Empathy: The need to adopt a human approach in all actions, to strengthen not just the minds of followers but also their hearts by shoring up confidence in themselves and their abilities, understanding their difficulties and appreciating their contributions, celebrating their achievements and publishing their successes! It is heightening confidence and involvement of followers both in the organizational as well as the national agenda.

Attention: Leaders pay attention to their people throughout the hierarchy. People need to stand out, to be noticed, to be respected. Effective leaders provide that … Examples include being on a first name basis, no reserved parking or skunk works, improvement teams and inverted organizational charts – all are examples of the effort of leaders to mobilize human resources by paying attention to the individual and treating them with dignity.

Dedication: Leaders provide a critical role model in their dedication to work, to the vision they preach, to the values they hold dear. They are very careful that words match deeds; they realize that their one thousand little actions day in and day out are being observed by their people and that they also provide reinforcement to the value system. Otherwise, they become mere show business that results in sarcasm and disbelief in leadership.

Enforcement of Values: Leaders formulate values, and not only preach them but do them. The leader becomes a value shaper par excellence, and he or she compromises on anything except the values set. They exert every effort to instill values throughout the system and engage all people in the organization to rally behind them.

Reward: Effective leadership rewards good contribution, and rewards it immediately. Immediacy creates trust and revitalizes energies. Lack of appreciation creates resentment and triggers anti-creativity. Fairness is also key to rewarding. Leaders make sure that the reward is well deserved. Rewarding could be to all individuals, to a group, or to the entire organization and it could take different forms.

Synergy: It translates to one plus one equals three! Effective leaders seek synergy of ideas in order to perfect decision-making, to create involvement and to ensure commitment.

Hoopla: Effective leaders tend to break the monotony created by daily work routines.. they engineer events to have fun, to make a break, to renew blood and to revitalize the soul… but all this is integrated around the value system so that fun itself becomes productive!

Integrity: To live the people message, to live the leader-as-servant requires total integrity. A leader should always be confident in their beliefs, and to live them with integrity, as Tom Peters says "You don't lose your dignity if you wear coveralls and if you believe in people, you likewise do not lose your dignity if you admit mistakes."

Perseverance: Leaders believe in all of the above; they don't pay them lipservice but do them as role models and persevere in instilling them in all to become bone-deep beliefs in the entire system!

Tackling Capacity Needs: The African Capacity Building Foundation states that for:

"The development challenges for Africa to be addressed and for the enhancement of leadership capacity needs to be decisively tackled… the availability and effective utilization of the requisite capacity will determine the continents' ability to meet these challenges in the new millenium. Therefore sustained structural transformation in Africa in the next two decades requires a significant leap in the quantum of support and commitment to capacity building as well as reforms for effective utilization of such capacity.

Indeed, it is useful to end this analysis with the African Capacity Building Foundation's view on the capacity dimensions of Africa's development challenges on a sectoral basis. It provides some indications as to the breadth and depth of capacity needs that face Africa in the decades ahead, if it is to provide a robust response to the development challenges.

Sectors and Capacity Needs:

African countries fully recognize the need for market-based, private sector-oriented economic systems and policies. They are also aware that an autonomous, vibrant civil society is a key building block of a potent Africa. The public sector, especially, at the central level, must retain a strategic place and role precisely to enable the private sector, civil society and other stakeholders to play their developmental role in a constructive, synergetic and sustainable manner. Given the foregoing challenges, the corresponding capacity implications, especially, at the level of the key sectors are obvious. These are as follows:

The Public Sector: To effectively lead the process of tackling the development challenges, the public sector in Africa must be strengthened to perform the key functions of a capable state in support of poverty reduction, equitable development and participatory governance. Given the present state of the public sector on the continent, it needs enhanced capacity to:

- Successfully design and implement development policies and programmes;
- Provide efficient, cost-effective and responsive public services;
- Promote, through policies and programmes, a sustained environment that will facilitate the emergence of a strong and vibrant private sector and civil society and a policy environment that will allow for a good measure of predictability in the direction of adjustment of socio-economic policies in response to the development challenges;
- Establish and manage an effective and transparent regulatory and legal framework to guide the growth and development of the private sector, reward innovativeness and risk-taking, and adequately protect consumers and the environment;

- Address, more vigorously, the issue of transparency and accountability in public service;
- Enhance institutions that promote and enforce the rule of law for legitimacy, social stability and the protection of property rights;
- Enhance the role of civil society in development policy management, and constructively engage all other stakeholders in dialogue in order to promote participatory development, consensus building and responsive governments;
- Put in place a sound framework for managing public resources and attendant issues such as decentralization, fiscal federalism, debt, poverty reduction and intergenerational equity;
- Manage the changing role of the public sector in the context of globalization, market economy, multiparty democracy, and information revolution, which have significant implications for openness in public sector management, innovation and the spread of best practices in development policy management;
- Cultivate and nurture an environment that will accelerate poverty reduction and sustainable development.

The Private Sector: As regards the private sector, capacity is needed for it to carry out the following, among others:

- Provide efficient and competitive services;
- Compete effectively in the global economy;
- Dialogue effectively with other stakeholders in development, especially the public sector and civil society, in order to influence the policy agenda;
- Perform functions traditionally a monopoly of the state;
- Enhance good corporate governance and social responsibility;
- Establish codes of best practices;
- Improve productivity and output;
- Promote adaptation and application of science and technology;
- Undertake research for development;
- Bridge the digital divide by promoting information technology.

Civil Society: To play an effective role in efforts to address the development challenges, civil society in Africa in the 21st century has to emerge as a strong voice in the development process. It has to play a vital role in mobilizing and articulating social demands and providing countervailing influences to elicit accountable performance and transparency in the public and private sectors. It thus requires capacity to contribute effectively to formulation, implementation and responsiveness/accountability of development policies and programmes. To this end, it will require capacity for the following, among others:

- Independent, professional policy analysis and research;
- Strengthening of non-governmental organizations and their networks;
- Effective interface with the public and private sectors;
- Provision of support to development policies, strategies and programmes for poverty reduction;

- Participation in, and monitoring of, public service delivery in the search for accountable, transparent and efficient government.

Additional Strategic Areas: Beside the foregoing, there are numerous additional areas of capacity needs in which strategic interventions are directly needed in the efforts to tackle the development challenges. Some of these include:

- Conflict prevention, resolution and management;
- Enhancement of governance institutions and practices;
- Improvement of national statistics;
- Strengthening of consultation among stakeholders and participatory development;
- Rehabilitating educational institutions and systems, and reforming curricula for relevance to development challenges;
- Fostering regional cooperation and integration;
- Strengthening of regional institutions for the provision of regional public goods;
- Strengthening of special initiatives geared towards:
- Designing, implementing and monitoring poverty reduction policy strategies and programmes;
- Speeding up the recovery of post-conflict countries;
- Setting up institutional networks, collaborative and exchange programmes;
- Enhancing capacity for international negotiations.

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Leadership Challenges in Mainstreaming Performance Enhancement in the Public Service

John Kiyaga-Nsubuga *

Introduction

The primary function of a public service is to translate the national vision into tangible outcomes. How it does this depends on the clarity with which the national vision is articulated, the resources available to the public service, the competence of its managerial leadership and the partnerships it structures with other players.

A major issue in current development discourse is how to enable public services in Africa to become more effective agents of change in the face of daunting development challenges. Countries must respond creatively to the opportunities and constraints arising from globalization and the rapid changes in information technology. Additionally, they must consolidate nationhood, expand their economies and respond effectively to increasing citizen demands for improved service provision and accountability.

The current debate is occasioned by the disappointing manner in which most public services in Africa have handled the development process in spite of so much earlier promise. The general consensus is that public services in Africa have been weakened by, among other things, inadequate funding, unattractive incentives, exponential growth in size, antiquated regulations and malfunctioning systems; and that they could do a much better job if they are leaner, have adequate tools and funding, and are able to retain higher caliber and better motivated personnel. It is for that reason that most public service reforms have sought efficiency gains through, among other things, creation of new structures, reduction of the overall size of the service, improving incentives, updating antiquated regulations or drafting new ones, and refining systems.

It is now generally recognized that such reforms must be complemented by enhanced leadership competencies if national development visions are to be realized. Initially, the need for enhanced leadership was mostly conceived in terms of the political class, largely because of the political turmoil many African countries have suffered over the years. However, the continuing under-performance of public services across the continent has made clear that leadership competencies must also be developed among the managerial and technocratic class in order to galvanize public employees towards the realization of national goals. This chapter provides a brief discussion of these issues, and illustrates them with an overview of Uganda's experience to show how they relate to concrete reality. A conclusion is provided in which the major challenges are summarized.

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* Director, Uganda Management Institute, Kampala, Uganda

Critical Leadership Competencies for Public Managers

Transforming and directing the energies of others into purposive action requires the right knowledge and information, skills, abilities and attitude. For that matter, effective leadership requires a balanced combination of job related attributes and personal qualities. The following comprise the competencies that are most commonly cited in the literature as being core to effective leadership:

- Ability to inspire a shared vision
- Strategic thinking
- Customer focus
- Decision-making
- Developing organizational talent
- Delegation and empowerment
- Creating and leading teams
- Leading by example
- Personal strength and maturity
- Effective communication
- Resilience
- Innovation/creativity
- Transparency and accountability
- Sound technical knowledge
- Ability to mentor others

Top leaders in the public service require the above competencies for a variety of reasons. Organizational or departmental teams must be directed towards a vision of the future in an inspirational manner; strategic goals must be identified and effectively communicated to all categories of public employees; organisational opportunities and constraints must be identified and appropriate responses developed, proper judgement must be applied in decision-making; and, once made, decisions must be effectively implemented.

The above competencies require strong nurturing in order to become second nature to an individual. Mentoring, in particular, is rarely applied in the public service in a structured manner in spite of the fact that a key requirement of leadership is to groom others for the future. Mentoring involves determining the mentee's performance gaps, establishing a common understanding of these gaps with the mentee, developing (with the mentee) a realistic workplan for addressing these gaps, using personal experience and other relevant methodologies to help the mentee to find solutions to identified bottlenecks, and reviewing performance with the mentee to gauge the extent to which mentoring has achieved its objectives. This process is common in business organisations and needs to be mainstreamed into the public service as well.

Challenges of Enhancing Efficiency in the Public Service

Current public service reform efforts in many African countries have been undertaken for a variety of reasons. Some of them include introducing best management

practices in public management in order to reverse the earlier decline in profession-alism; creating a conducive atmosphere for the private sector to play a leading role in economic development and transformation; improving citizen access to public services; and making government more accountable to the citizenry.

A number of difficulties have been associated with public service reforms across the continent. These include difficulty in generating consensus over the direction and scope of the reforms; mobilising the necessary resources; building effective partnerships with key stakeholders; developing effective systems to ensure proper utilisation of human, financial and material resources; ensuring that political leaders and their technical staff work in tandem rather than at cross purposes; focusing on outcomes rather than on outputs; and, most importantly, developing key com-petencies among the top managerial leadership to ensure that they can develop a strategic vision and direct the energies and creativity of their staff towards the realization of that vision.

Each country has addressed these issues differently owing to differences in history and circumstances. An overview of Uganda's response to these issues is provided below in order to illustrate how the country has attempted to translate its strategic goals into tangible outcomes in the face of significant constraints.

Overview of Uganda's Experience with Public Service Reform

The Poverty Eradication Framework: Uganda faces an enormous development challenge. Approximately 88% of the population live in the countryside, of whom nearly 80% live on subsistence agriculture. The population currently stands at 24.7 million and is growing at an astounding 3.4% per annum; per capita GDP income is US$ 330; and average life expectancy is 43 years.[1] The average female fertility rate is a very high 7%, which is putting pressure on primary health and education, and other services.[2] Furthermore, income inequality bas increased between rural and urban areas and between regions.[3] It is estimated that 68% of the popula-tion in the northern region lives below the poverty line while the corresponding figures for the central, western and eastern regions are 20.3%, 28.1% and 36.5% respectively.[4]

To address these and other related challenges, the Government of Uganda (GoU) has developed a broad policy framework in which poverty is identified as the key element that must be addressed if the country is to overcome its underdevelop-ment. Since 1997 GoU has been implementing an extensive Poverty Eradication

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1 Office of the LTN Resident Coordinator, Uganda: Promise Performance and Challenges for At-taining the PEAP and Millennium Development Goals (October 2003), p.viii

2 Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Developrrient, Background to the Budget, Financial Year 2003/04 (June 2003,), p.6; Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Uganda Poverty Status Report, 2003, pp.7-8.

3 MOFPED, Poverty Status Report, 2003, p. 1 02.

4 Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, The Social Development Sector Strategic investment Plan (SDIP) 2003-2008 – Final Draft (February 2003), p. 4.

Action Plan (PEAP) whose broad goal is to reduce poverty levels to not more than 10% by 2017. It has four pillars: (i) creating a conducive framework for economic growth and structural transformation, (ii) strengthening good governance and security, (iii) increasing the ability of the poor to raise their incomes, and (iv) improving the quality of the life of the poor.

The PEAP is implemented using the Sector Wide Approach (SWAP). Sectors that directly target poverty include: education; health; water and sanitation; agriculture; social development; justice law and order; and transport, housing and communication. Government, donors, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), civil society organisations and other stakeholders determine sector priorities jointly. The partners also plan, budget, monitor and evaluate sector programmes together. Resource ceilings are established through the Mid-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) to facilitate sector planning and budgeting. Financial resources are transferred to local governments from the centre through the Poverty Action Fund (PAF), which comprises GoU funds, donor contributions and savings from the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative. PAF funds constitute conditional, unconditional and equalization grants to local governments and are protected from budget cuts.

Poverty eradication programmes and activities are implemented through a decentralized framework in which popularly elected local governments determine local development priorities, plans and budgets, and implement local programmes using PAF funds and locally generated revenue. NGOs also participate in development activities at the local level and are usually funded by development partners that do not subscribe to basket funding. Poverty trends are monitored through the Uganda Poverty Participatory Assessment Process (UPPAP); the Uganda Bureau of Statistics also conducts national household surveys to keep track of poverty changes at the lowest unit level. A poverty monitoring and evaluation strategy has been developed to review the poverty monitoring scope, indictors, data collection methods, use and dissemination of poverty related data, and institutional roles and scheduled activities. [5] These activities are undertaken with strong support from bilateral and multilateral development partners.

Significant gains have been made in the struggle against poverty as defined within the PEAP, although a great deal of work still remains to be done. Among other things, GDP growth has averaged 6% annually over the last ten years; annual inflation has largely been contained below 5%; and, as indicated above, there has been a sharp decline in the percentage of Ugandans living in absolute poverty. Primary school enrollment has jumped dramatically, due to the Universal Primary

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5 See: Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Poverty Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy (June 2002); Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Deepening the Understanding of Poverty (Second Participatory Poverty Assessment Report, December 2002); Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Uganda Poverty Status Report, 2003; and Uganda Bureau of Statistics, Uganda National Household Survey: Report on the Socio-Economic Survey (November 2003).

Education (UPE) programme, from 2.1 million in 1996, to 7.3 million in 2002 [6]; and HIV/AIDS overall prevalence has dropped from 18% in 1992, to 6.2% in 2002/03 (implying that Uganda is on its way to meet the Millennium Development Goal on this) [7]. Also, the rural population with access to safe water increased from 18% in 1991, to 55% by June 2002 (access varies by district, though), while access to safe water in urban areas had increased to approximately 63%.[8] The proportion of Ugandans living below the poverty line has fallen sharply from 56% in 1992, to 35% in 2002/2003, although this is still unacceptably high.[9]

These developments imply that some of the public service reforms are working, although a great deal of work still remains to be done. Some insight into the nature of these reforms is provided below.

Key Public Service Reforms in Uganda and their Challenges

Uganda has been undertaking, public service reforms since 1989 following the recommendations of the Public Service Review and Re-organisation Commission (PSRRC) of that year, and those of an earlier commission that had been set up in 1987 to review the structure and operations of the country's local government system. The reforms have essentially been driven by the need to improve efficiency in service provision, and to provide a strong foundation for macro-economic stability and growth. Key features of the reform have included, devolution of power to popularly elected local governments, restructuring government ministries and departments, pay reform, introduction of results oriented management into the service and improving public expenditure systems.

Decentralization of power to local governments[10] was undertaken to improve service delivery by shifting responsibility for policy implementation to the beneficiaries themselves; to promote good governance; to develop, broaden and deepen political and administrative competence in public management; to democratize society through inclusive, representative and gender-sensitive decision-making; and to alleviate poverty through collaborative efforts between Government, develop-

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6 Ministry of Education and Sports, Sector PEAP Revision Paper (Paper presented at the National Stakeholder Conference on PEAP Revision, International Conference Centre, November 2003), p. 1.

7 United Nations Development Programme, Uganda Human Development Report 2002, The Challenge of Maintaining the Momentum of Success, p.3, Ministry of Health, The Health Sector PEAP Review Paper (October 22, 2003), p. 19.

8 Ministry of Water, Lands and Environment, PEAP Revision Document: Water and Sanitation Sector Draft Final (10th November, 2003), pp2-3

9 Aide-Memoire, Fourth Poverty Reduction Support Credit (RSC4) – Uganda, (Pre-Appraisal Mission: October 27-November 7, 2003), p.3; John Okidi and Sarah Ssewanyana (Economic Policy Research Centre), Income Poverty In Uganda, 1992-2003, (Paper presented at the National Stakeholder Conference on PEAP Revision, International Conference Center, Kampala, October 28, 2003).

10 There are six types of local governments in Uganda's system of decentralized governance. These are 56 districts, 930 sub-counties, 5 city divisions 13 municipal councils, 34 municipal divisions, 72 town councils. For functions that have been devolved to local governments, see- Republic of Uganda, Local Governments Act, 1997 (Entebbe: Government Printer, March 1997) schedule 2.

ment partners and other stakeholders.[11] Local governments were given powers to make and implement their own development plans, approve and execute their own budgets, raise and utilize resources according to their own priorities, appoint statutory committees, boards and commissions[12], make ordinances and bye-laws, and hire and manage their personnel.

The other reforms were primarily efficiency driven. Restructuring and rationalisation of government ministries was undertaken to eliminate duplication of functions and to get rid of excess staff. Ministries and departments were reduced from 38 to 22 in 1992, and reduced further to 17 in 1998. The size of the public service was reduced from 320,000 in 1990 to 191,324 by March 2001 (although it rose to 218,417 by September 2003 – largely due to the Universal Primary Education programme). Significant increases in pay were made, notwithstanding severe budgetary constraints, in order to attract, retain and motivate public servants. Results oriented management was introduced to re-orient the public service towards measurable outputs; a new staff performance appraisal instrument was developed and applied; and an implementation strategy for the integrated personnel and payroll system was developed.

Public expenditure reforms undertaken include enactment of the Public Finance and Accountability Act in July 2003; introduction of the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) to facilitate forward planning and budgeting; development of an integrated financial management system for central and local governments; introduction of new guidelines on procurement and enactment of the Procurement and Disposal of Public Assets Act 2003; and development of a new chart of accounts.

These reforms have not been without challenges. Some of the major challenges that have been experienced relate to inadequate funding, lack of effective monitoring and evaluation systems, and inadequate leadership capacities to ensure effective and timely implementation of programmes.

Inadequate funds have been a major problem with key reforms. For instance, government has not yet been able to pay public employees at rates that are close to those in the private sector because, among other things, public revenue amounts to only 12% of GDP, well below what is required. The weakness of government's monitoring and evaluation systems is recognized as well. In fact, efforts are under way to strengthen the Office of the Prime Minister so that it can effectively carry out this important function across the entire breadth of government. The weak capacity of both the central and local governments in implementing the reforms is also recognized widely, although the weakness is not uniform across government.

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11 Republic of Uganda, Decentralisation in Uganda: The Policy and Its Philosophy, Booklet # 1(Kampala:Ministry of Local Government, May 1993); and, Republic of Uganda, Decentralisation in Uganda: The Policy and its Implications Booklet # 2 (Kampala: Ministry of Local Government, April 1994).

12 These comprise the District Tender Board, the Local Government Public Accounts Committee, the District Service Commission and the District Land Board.

It is hoped that these weaknesses will be addressed through two comprehensive initiatives: the Local Government Development Programme (LGDP), which is already under way, and the Capacity Enhance Programme (CAPEP), which is still in the preparatory phase.

Another challenge that lies in the way of enhancing competencies in Uganda's public service relates to the political-administrative interface, particularly in local governments. Relations between the two sets of officials are sometimes characterised by tension, which inevitably affects implementation of development programmes and activities. Numerous efforts have been made to resolve this, including review of the Local Governments Act, 1997, and regular issuance of guidelines by various government bodies, but the problem still persists.

Another major challenge to overcome relates to lack of a structured management development programme for senior managers through which they can develop the competencies enumerated earlier as they progress upwards through the public service. Because of this, it is still possible for one to reach very senior ranks in the public service without having developed adequate competencies in critical areas. Fortunately, this problem has been recognized and is being addressed. Among other things, a study has been completed for the Ministry of Public Service to determine the competence needs of all senior public managers from Assistant Commissioners to Permanent Secretaries, and the Ministry of Local Government has taken steps to develop mentoring competencies within the local government system. This initiative could, in fact, be applied to central government as well. Proper sequencing of reform components is another issue of utmost significance in ensuring realization of intended outcomes; otherwise the overall impact might take time to be registered.

Conclusion

The above discussion makes clear that development of core leadership competencies is essential for the success of performance enhancement reforms in the public service. The top managerial leadership must have the capacity to develop a strategic vision and to galvanise their colleagues to translate that vision into tangible outcomes. The challenges that must be overcome in this process include generating broad consensus on the leadership competencies that must be developed for different individuals and cadres, mobilizing sufficient resources and partnerships to successfully undertake leadership development, obtaining commitment to the reforms from all stakeholders, sequencing reform components carefully, and ensuring that political leaders and technocrats work in tandem.

Leadership for Reform and Modernization of Governance

Ousmane Batoko *

A very significant number of problems with which African countries are confronted arise, on the whole, from shortage of capacities of the States to carry out effectively the various reforms introduced as well as those already in progress in the institutional, administrative and economic fields. In implementing these reforms, priority was always given to structural and normative changes, but the human element was often left behind, or even purely overshadowed. In this respect, one deplores the fact that adequate attention is not given to leadership that is to the capacity that responsible officials ought to have at all levels in order to generate, mobilize and channel the energy of others is a given direction, so that these could voluntarily commit themselves to the pursuit and achievement of common objectives.

The persistence of such shortage is the very least curious, since leadership skills in the animal world seem to be a natural phenomenon. Indeed, in any herd of cows, buffaloes or elephants, wild or domesticated animals, there is always a leader who incarnates authority and directs the actions of the group. It is the same in the daily expeditions of ants, or in the seasonal migrations of the cormorants. The defect of taking into account leadership in human resource management in general, and in implementing reforms in particular, does not mean to say that the human space is incapable. Human history tells us of the existence of great leaders who, thanks to the strong influence that they had on their people, knew how to lead them to accomplish great things rather well, both for the good, and, unfortunately, sometimes for evil too.

The problem in undertaking reforms in our countries often lies in the choice of the persons in charge, because not all persons could have the profile of leaders. It also should be emphasized that a leader is not always the official or the public servant who is recruited on the basis of one criterion, that of diplomas. For this reason, within the context of governance reforms, leadership must respond to a certain number of conditions, which would enable the creation of a favourable atmosphere for the achievement of expected results.

Also, it is essential that:

- leadership is marked;
- leadership can not merge with authoritarism;
- the leader must be used as a model;
- the leader is constant.

1) It is necessary that leadership is marked

Administrative reforms can not take place without causing opposition. It is an established fact that one is often constrained by obstacles coming from the mi-

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* Professor of Public Law, University of Benin

lieu, such as, changing structures of traditional institutions (bureaucratic or not), transforming attitudes and behaviours, both individual and collective, or finally, combining several of these measures when improvements in public administration are being introduced.

The questioning of old ideas and habits ineluctably encourages tendencies to resist change. In such a context, the leader shall impose himself as an expert whose knowledge, skills and competence will bring them the respect of others and, consequently, identify him as a significant resource for the desired change.

A leader should find the intellectual, technical and emotional resources needed to enable them to maintain the effectiveness of their actions for a long term perspective, pinpoint delicate stages which could be overcome; stages around which attention should be given to the identification of problems and their causes. With this intention, the leader must demonstrate much patience, tact, social sense of smell, animal like, in order to enable them to approach each individual or each group with the appropriate method. The crux of the matter is to have capacities and resources to convince others, rather than take measures to impose oneself.

2) Leadership cannot merge with authoritarianism

The only way to lead others to accomplish an action is to raise in them the desire for accomplishment. One can force a passer-by to give up his watch by sticking a gun to his temple or by making an employee work until his backaches, or threatening to fire him but these methods can no longer bring about lasting results. Therefore, leadership must not be based on the "method of the whip" or that of force, but on confidence, influence and encouragement. To obtain results from someone, it is necessary to wake in him a keen desire to make the thing according to the Beninois proverb: "To collect good honey, the hive should not be hustled".

The situation of a person in charge of safety in a company is to make sure that employees wear a helmet for protecting themselves. In the past, when the person in charge met the workers with naked heads, he ordered them to obey the rules and did so in such a tone of voice that nobody dared to answer back. One executed unwillingly the order and as soon as the officer turned his back, each took off the helmet from his head. The officer in charge then decided to change his method, and when the occasion arose, he asked if the helmet was a good size. He reminded them, in a pleasant tone, that the helmet was conceived to avoid work accidents and advised that it should always be worn in the work place. Since then, with a good grace, workers conformed to the rules.

On the whole, to change and make grow while innovating and while improving, the leader must have a vision, that is, he or she must scan the future with optimism. However, the leader's vision alone is not sufficient to create an organized movement. The leader needs to involve others in the shared vision by calling on their values, interests, wishes and dreams and to see to it that they recognized it as being theirs.

Because of numerous socio-economic and professional implications, governance reforms require from the beginning select social partners to associate with their design and elaboration. Such social partners include representatives of trade unions and of civil society (including economic operators and religious orders). By doing this, the leader creates an atmosphere of mutual confidence and respect. He forms teams and makes it possible for all of them to feel like partners. He thus develops the forces of others by sharing information and power and by making them visible in what they do together.

If the leader is soaked in his power to the point that he does not seek to make others endorse the change, he will make those consenting to become obsequious followers; little more than profiteers but ready to face out or to turn the back as of the first favourable occasion, and even with the least difficulty.

The long process which led to the holding of a national conference on Strong Forces in February 1990 in Benin is an illustrative example of this. In fact, after seventeen years of a monolithic political regime based on Marxism-Leninism, the then revolutionary Head of State – with a courageous and prospective vision, inspired by the initiative from this conference (which gave convincing results) became today the pride of the Beninois people. We thus assisted in a desired change to which nearly the totality of the citizens adhered. This Beninois example, as each one knows today, gave rise here and there to national socio-political approaches for settling internal crises in a certain number of countries in the African continent.

3) The leader must be used as a model

The true leader should not be satisfied to make professions of faith only. His or her daily social practice must be in perfect appropriateness with the values of change which he or she preaches and advocates.

Psychologically, they must be as far as possible an apt and able leader:

1) their professional qualifications must be unquestionable.
2) his or her social experience in the field of governance should be attractive to all.
3) without necessarily obtaining the unanimity of all people, they must be a person of value whom a great number of the target group respect.

With regard to governance reforms in Africa, the fight against corruption must become a slogan to which all people must stick spontaneously. This is especially so because of the many bad examples that are happening, sometimes even shameful, and this is what we have lived and are still living with.

The leader must absolutely avoid certain behaviours or remarks which may lead to confusion. Each one of his or her collaborators, whatever their level of competence and responsibility, must not pose the least problem which could put into doubt the sincerity of the power and the commitments made by officials responsible to fight corruption.

The trap, in which the leader falls most easily on the matter, either by one's own doing or, more generally because of collaborators and/or close relations, is that of "such is taken who thought of taking". In this respect, the recent examples of Zambia and Benin speak for themselves. The best way of changing others, to help them to accept the reforms for better governance, is to begin with oneself as a source of good example. Henceforth, it is necessary to practice transparency, starting with the leader, in order to avoid obscure zones which could sow doubt in the spirit of targets or partners of change.

Man is not only a logical and rational human being. He is also an emotional being moved by pride and self-esteem; he is sensitive to the model, which incarnates authority, which pushes him to change and make him give the best of himself. In this regard, failure of plans on the fight against corruption in our States is most of the time due to the simple fact that civil servants have the feeling that at the summit of the State, the sacrifices asked of them are not agreed to and carried out.

On the whole, the leader must defend his or her beliefs and convictions by example. He or she develops their credibility by maintaining consistency between words and actions. To make converge energies and commitments, one must align the values of the leader with those of the others. The leader must thus convince all that it is possible to make the impossible by taking the first step, by planning small victories which develop progress and build confidence. This is why leaders must have authority and be sustained.

4) The leader must have authority and be sustained

To undertake governance reforms, it matters that persons in charge enjoy the authority and confidence needed for the way forward. The important matters must come from the Head of the State, or from the Government, in a way that they are never called into question by other members of the government or by lobbies, namely by those whose powers or interests, attributions or competences (and even beliefs or convictions) might be touched or reduced by the reforms. In this logic, certain realities support the idea that governance reforms must come directly from the President of the Republic or the Head of Government.

It is especially important to support the leader who came out with reforms by combining the implementation of the first acts of the new approach of governance with material advantages, financial and moral, obvious and immediate, for the benefit of those targeted by the reform. Without these, even though they may be tiny advantages, the leader would have more difficulty in gradually widening the base of followers to the objectives. For this reason, governance reforms should not only be normative or institutional, but must above all have obvious and immediate material content.

In implementing a programme geared to fight corruption, or to advocate moral standards of public life, it matters that beneficiaries directly or indirectly handle the situation and the majority of the people concerned be rewarded at the same

time with a certain number of advantages without which the programme may risk to fail. As well, it is true that "conditions of existence for a man determine his consciousness".

Governance reforms must be considered today as an imperative challenge which our States must face by putting persons in places, which are appropriate to them. Leadership implies unquestionable qualification, proven experience and unfailing competences.

In view of the involvement of African public administrations in the process of development of States of the Continent today, and undoubtedly again tomorrow, the implementation of NEPAD, whose Africans are supremely equipped, and for which unanimous support was expressed by the international community is urgently required. Without question, its durability and success depends, to a large extent, on the design and place of leadership with regard to governance reforms in our countries. This, it must be recognized, will take some doing.

Part III

Concluding Comments

Public Sector Leadership Capacity Building Through Education and Training

Turgay Ergun *

In order to be successful in this new millennium, which is characterized by a globalizing world, governments must develop clear and well-defined policies concerning the preparation of both current and future generations of public sector leadership. This is especially true in terms of the preparation of senior administrators for the successful implementation of new development policies. Indeed, the training of public sector administrators in the most contemporary techniques of management is important for the realization of all aspects of public policy. In fact, in many parts of the world, a large majority of the public administrators have had little or no training in administration, which, of course, accentuates the problems caused as a result of the inadequacy of the organization of the public sector in many countries. Serious training would not only increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the administration, but it would also make it possible for it to provide its services impartially without being affected by various political influences. As a result of partisanship, governments face the danger of failing to fulfill its functions because of incompetent administrators.

In many developing countries, the personnel systems require no qualification in terms of either a post-graduate degree in public administration, or even administrative training, for appointment to senior positions. In some cases, a certain level of education is required, but a person's ability to effectively administer a governmental program or agency can not be measured solely on the basis of a diploma or the degree achieved at graduation. Appointments to administrative positions or removal from office must be based upon some objective criteria which measures the individual's capabilities. Training which builds one's capacity as a public administrator often is best provided when it is conducted in close relationships with the governmental organization in which the administrator will be working. Consequently, what is needed is specialized training institutions which collaborate with the administration for the purpose of training administrators but which remain independent of the administration to a certain extent.

The rapidity of change in the modern world also required more effective training of our public administrators. The industrial age lasted two centuries and was followed by our current and digital information age. However, we are now beginning a new journey into the "quantum age", which will be categorized by uncertainty and the need to take risks and innovate. Creative and non-linear thinking are important aspects of this new age. Undoubtedly, the most important element defining the direction of change is knowledge. Knowledge is the rising value of our age. As a result, there has been a changing direction in public administration

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* President of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration and Director of the Public Administration Institute for Turkey and the Middle East

around the world. This change has been characterized by a closer relationship and closer cooperation between the public and private sectors, and civil society organizations, a shift from public administration to public management. This can be viewed as a new way of governing, or considered by some scholars to be a new paradigm in public administration.

If our current public institutions are to survive, they will need to adapt themselves to changing conditions. At the same time, there will need to be major investments by the public sector in the building of human resources. Both current and future governmental leadership will have to be sensitive to new approaches to governance, and certainly be aware of the newest information technology innovations, and how they may enhance the overall quality of public administration. Government leadership in the new millennium needs to have a positive attitude towards changes and developments, the administrators need to have acquired professional values, and they need to feel responsible for the achievement of national goals, and demands from the citizens.

Education is the key concept in transporting, interpreting and redefining knowledge. Education and training for the public leadership capacity building and training of administrators at various administration levels is very important for the realization of an accountable, transparent, effective and efficient public service. Whatever the administrative system of a country, these characteristics have to be taken into account in the development and training of administrators. Every administrator has to be effective and his/her attitude towards global and environmental changes must be in harmony with the realities of his/her country. All public administration education and training programs must start from this framework.

Among various institutions of education, public administration schools and institutes often have been considered the best means of solving training problems. In many countries these schools and institutes fulfill a number of functions such as training at various levels, research, consultation, documentation, publishing books and periodicals, and in-service training. In some countries, public administration schools and institutes also have power in the selection and promotion of public personnel. Some schools and institutes establish training centers in various parts of the country to carry out training on a regional basis. The function of education and training is a common function for all public administration schools and institutes. But there are differences in practice. Some institutions undertake only the education of those entering the public service. Some institutions undertake in-service training.

Although some schools and institutes existed for fifty or sixty years in various countries, there is no firm agreement concerning the organization and functions of them. In any event, it is necessary to give many of these institutions a stronger structure by reviewing their training programs, methods of training, the status of their academic personnel, and their institutional relations to the government. While these steps are being taken, strengthening their autonomy in order to make it possible for them to stay unaffected by various political influences should not be neglected.

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The United Nations (UN) Millennium Declaration laid out an agenda which emphasizes economic development and the eradication of poverty; the insurance of environmental sustainability; the support of democracy, good governance and human rights; and the maintenance of peace and security. A unique partnership was established several years ago between the UN and the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) to undertake a joint partnership aimed at enhancing the capacities of both future and current government leadership throughout the world. Thus, the joint UN/IASIA initiative aims to assist government leaders to adapt effectively to the complex problems described in the UN Millennium Declaration. As such, it is an effort to improve the quality of education and training in public administration for both the existing and next generation government leaders. As part of the UN/IASIA initiative an expert group meeting was held in Turin, Italy in September 2003, on "New Challenges for Senior Leadership Enhancement for Improved Public Management in a Globalizing World". In this meeting, the immediate target groups for the programs to be developed were singled out as the politicians at central and local levels, senior civil servants, junior civil servants, and top civil servants of local governments.

The joint UN/IASIA initiative places particular emphasis upon initiating activities in developing countries and has had a special focus on Africa. For most countries of developing world, decision making processes about reforms require highly competent political leadership and highly professional staff. Unlike the negative attitudes of the past, today it is generally accepted that the training especially of senior level people, and of those who are likely to become senior, in administration is of vital importance. The establishment of an effective public administration is dependent, above everything else, upon the training of administrators and approaching administrative problems with scientific research methods. With the systematic approach to and regulation of the training of administrators, the administration will select for training its members who are candidates for higher levels of administration, and will send them to the training institutions established for this purpose. And the training institution which has been put in charge of training administrators will train the persons who will be appointed to higher levels of administration in the future or who are already in those positions with programs designed for this purpose.

IASIA can play its role in confronting the challenges of the new millennium by providing new training mechanisms and supporting member institutions. In this respect holding regional conferences is very meaningful for the discussion of issues concerning leadership capacity development in a globalizing world. The Rio de Janeiro and Kampala meetings, from which the papers found in this volume originated, are two important and fruitful examples of the joint UN/IASIA initiative. Exchanging of good practices and experiences can, and does, create a common ground for the enhancement of public administration education and training.