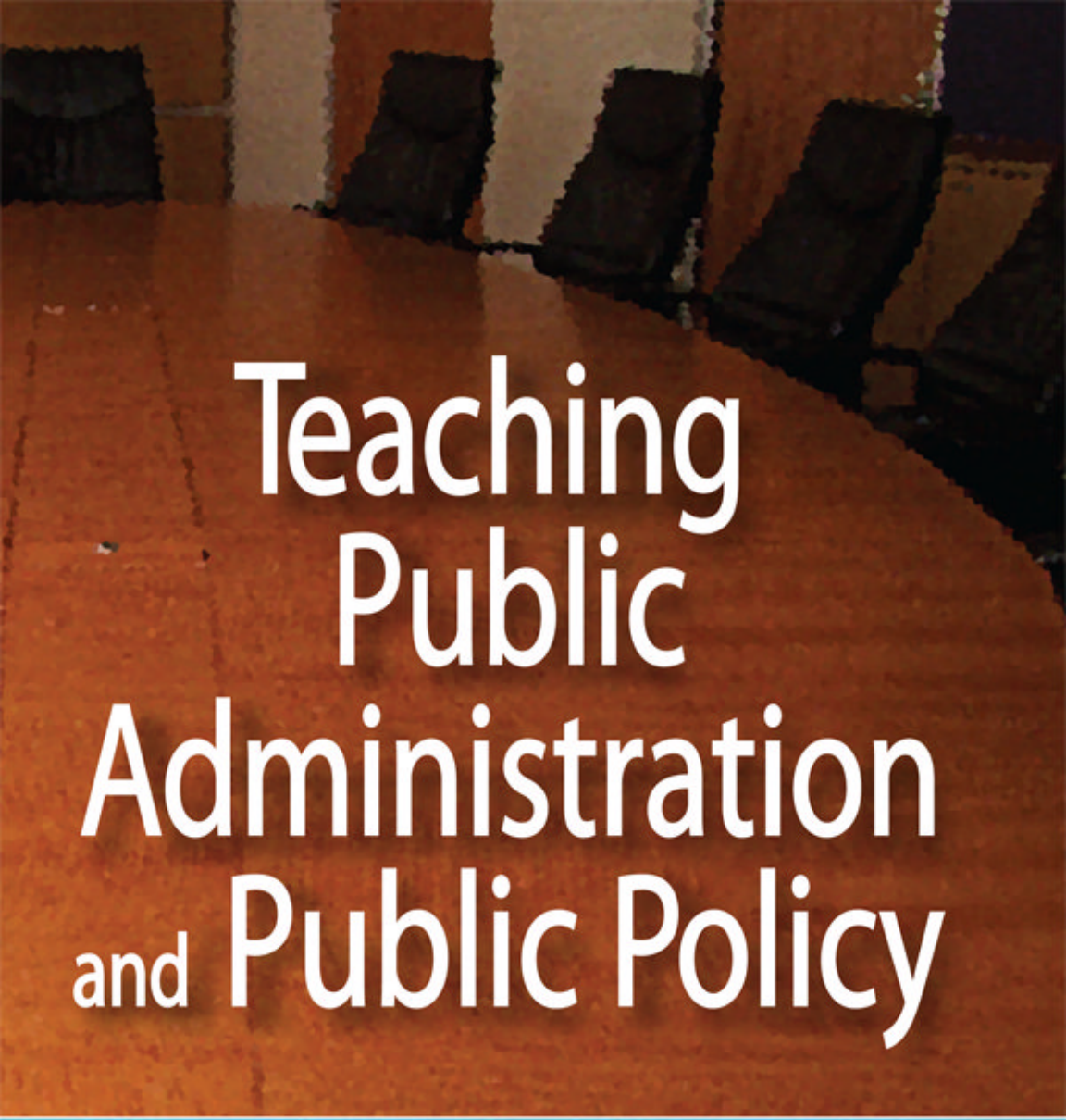

Teaching Public Administration and Public Policy

Stuart Nagel

SNOVA

TEACHING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC POLICY

TEACHING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC POLICY

STUART S. NAGEL
EDITOR

Snova Books
New York

Senior Editors: Susan Boriotti and Donna Dennis
Coordinating Editor: Tatiana Shohov
Office Manager: Annette Hellinger
Graphics: Wanda Serrano
Editorial Production: Jennifer Vogt, Ronald Doda, Matthew Kozlowski, Jonathan Rose and Maya Columbus
Circulation: Ave Maria Gonzalez, Vera Popovich, Luis Aviles, Melissa Diaz, Vladimir Klestov and Jeannie Pappas
Communications and Acquisitions: Serge P. Shohov

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data
Available Upon Request

ISBN: 978-1-56072-738-5 (eBook)

Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
400 Oser Ave, Suite 1600
Hauppauge, New York 11788-3619
Tele. 631-231-7269 Fax 631-231-8175
e-mail: Novascience@earthlink.net
Web Site: http://www.novapublishers.com

Printed in the United States of America

Dedicated to the most *inspirational teachers*
at each stage of my formal education:
Florence Nagel in pre-school,
Mrs. Emerson in elementary school,
Mr. Franz in high school,
Karl de Schweinitz in college,
Jim Rahl in law school,
Victor Rosenblum in graduate school, and
Jack Peltason as a teaching colleague.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Stuart S. Nagel
Dirkson-Steveson Institute
University of Illinois

Policy Studies courses are being increasingly offered in public policy schools, political science departments, public administration programs, and elsewhere. There seems to be a consensus that a basic core of policy courses should deal with policy methods, the policy process, and policy substance. Each can be a course in itself for a semester apiece or longer, or as parts of a larger course. This book is designed to clarify some aspects of the what and how of teaching public policy and public administration.[1]

I. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The field of public policy studies is still in the development stage. The first textbooks on public policy evaluation were written as recently as the 1970's. Interdisciplinary public policy degrees were also first awarded in the 1970s. The following 11 controversial issues regarding developing a public policy curriculum will put this public policy evaluation textbook into a broader context. For each issue, conflicting viewpoints must be balanced.

1. To what extent should the program be an *undergraduate* rather that a graduate program; or a *doctoral* rather than a *master's program*? For political science departments that have only undergraduate courses, this is not an issue.

However, these departments could balance the curriculum for students who are not likely to do graduate work and those who are. The departments included in the *Policy Studies Directory* (Policy Studies Organization, 1976) all offer at least the master's degree, and for them the undergraduate-graduate distinction is relevant. A program that involves undergraduate, M.A., and possibly Ph.D. policy studies work provides diverse faculty experiences and student interaction. Moreover, more students may generate the critical mass that is needed for a more effective program, and alumni recruitment sources for the more advanced aspects of the program. Teaching policy studies to undergraduates is especially helpful in learning how to simplify the presentation of materials that otherwise might be unduly quantitative or theoretical. Such simplification can also improve communication with government practitioners. Establishing a three-level program can be simplified by allowing some advanced undergraduate courses to be taken for either graduate or undergraduate credit. Further discussion of this topic is included in the 1975 report by David Smith, "Policy Analysis for Undergraduates," for the Ford Foundation Public Policy Committee, which he summarizes in the Winter 1976 issue of the *Policy Studies Journal* (pp. 234-74)

2. To what extent should the course be a training program for *government* work, as contrasted to *teaching work*? This question is related to the first issue because in general, Ph.D. programs stress teaching, while undergraduate and M.A. programs emphasize government work. There is an increasing demand for Ph.D.'s to work in government policy evaluation, as indicated in the responses to the *Political Science Utilization Directory* (Policy Studies Organization, 1975). Likewise, undergraduate and M.A. programs could encourage earning a Ph.D. teaching degree. Interaction between students oriented toward becoming policy-evaluation practitioners and those oriented toward becoming teachers and research authors is important. Each group's perspectives and ideas may provide insights to the other group as well to the faculty.

3. To what extent should it be a *political science or an interdisciplinary program*? Since we are discussing policy studies programs within political science departments, these programs will basically be political science programs with interdisciplinary elements. Of all the social sciences, political science is the most relevant to discussing the institutional aspects of policy formation and policy implementation regarding the roles of federal, state, and local legislators, chief executives, administrators, and judges. Political science

also provides relevant knowledge and theories regarding the roles of parties, interest groups, public opinion, and political philosophy in policy formation and implementation. These concerns are adequate for political science to be a meaningful focus for a policy program. However, a more comprehensive program would include substantial supplementation from such disciplines as economics, sociology, law, psychology, and philosophy, as discussed in S. Nagel (ed.), *Policy Studies and the Social Sciences* (Lexington Books, D.C. Heath, 1975). Supplementation could be satisfied through requiring outside courses, a minor course of study, political science courses that stress the substance and method of other disciplines, and/or recommended electives.

4. Where is the balance between *substance and method*? Both substantive and methodological knowledge are needed for policy studies. On the one hand, if students are well versed in policy evaluation methodology, but they lack depth in any substantive policy problem area, their work will likely be overly abstract and possibly impractical for lack of concrete knowledge. On the other hand, individuals who are well versed in a specific policy problem area (such as poverty, environmental protection, foreign policy, economic regulation, and so on) are not policy-studies or policy-analysis persons if they lack generalized methodological skills for analyzing policy alternatives across policy problem areas. Relevant substantive problems of special interest to political scientists are included in S. Nagel (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Policy Studies* (Marcel Dekker, 1983). Relevant methodologies are in books such as Michael White, Ross Clayton, Robert Myrtle, Gilbert Siegel, and Aaron Rose, *Managing Public Systems: Analytic Techniques for Public Administration* (Duxbury, 1980), and S. Nagel, *Policy Evaluation: Making Optimum Decisions* (Praeger, 1982).

5. To what extent should policy studies be a *separate field* within political science, rather than a *pervasive approach* in all fields of political science? Policy studies can be both a separate field and a pervasive approach. As a separate field, policy studies is distinguished from other political science fields partly by its methodology. Causal analysis is used to explain policy variations over time, across places, and across subject matters, and means-ends analysis is used to evaluate alternative public policies, especially (but not exclusively) in terms of their impact on the political system. It is also distinguished by its substance, which stresses a concern for poverty, environmental protection, foreign policy, economic regulation, and other policy problem areas. As a pervasive approach, a policy-studies perspective can be included within every field of political science, including international

policy, comparative policy, policy theory, administering policy, judicial policy, state and local policy, legislative policy, and policy dynamics. The relevance of all fields of political science to a given policy problem is illustrated in S. Nagel (ed.), *Environmental Politics* (Praeger, 1974).

6. To what extent should the program balance *classroom and field experience*? It is highly desirable that policy studies students supplement their classroom learning with experience in government work, especially in policy evaluation work. The problem is how to provide that experience. For Ph.D. and M.A. students, one method is through internships, especially in state government. Students can also gain experience by working with faculty members involved in real world consulting projects. Playing simulated roles in policy gaming situations, such as in urban planning, environmental protection, foreign policy, criminal justice, and other problem areas, can also provide many useful insights. Inviting practitioners to teach and speak within the policy studies program can also supplement the more abstract classroom and textbook knowledge. For further information on policy studies internships, see the publications of the Washington based National Center for Public Service Internship Programs, such as *Public Service Internships: Opportunities for the Graduate, Post Graduate and Mid Career Professional* (1975).

7. To what extent will the program be balanced with *hard money* from university budget lines in contrast to *soft money* from grants and possibly contracts that relate to policy evaluation? Hard money is needed to give the program security and respectability. Soft money provides extra funds as well as research projects that are especially useful for learning experiences and for developing Ph.D. dissertations, M.A. theses, and seminar papers. Obtaining some soft-money grants and contracts may also stimulate the university to appropriate regular budget money for the program as either seed money or on a continuing basis. However, obtaining hard money to establish the program can facilitate research and training grants from foundations and government agencies. Receiving outside grant money may be eased if the political science policy-studies program is linked to an academic research institute having a good track record for policy evaluation research, as do some institutes of government research at public and private universities. Policy studies grant getting is the subject of the *Policy Studies Grants Directory* (Policy Studies Organization, 1977).

8. To what extent should the program be exclusively a *teaching* and training program, in contrast to a policy-studies *research* program with no teaching component? A meaningful training program would teach how to research and would thus include a research component, whether the program is training academics, who teach and conduct research, or government practitioners, who administer or produce research (or at least consume research). To acquire research skills, one must be involved in research projects. Thus, the policy studies program should encourage its faculty and graduate students to participate in research projects. Research will increase the visibility of the program, help its recruitment, aid its placement, and aid in getting grants and contract money. However, a pure research program would be hurt by the absence of graduate and possibly undergraduate students who would be part of the training component. These students help generate questions, comments, and ideas which improve the research. In addition, they can participate as research assistants and research collaborators. A pure research program might have difficulty attracting sufficiently creative personnel who would welcome faculty-student stimuli. They would also consider being exclusively in a research institute too much like a nine-to-five job in that it would lack the independence associated with a two-course-per-semester teaching schedule in which one may work well into the night on self-motivated research. Being a faculty member provides such benefits as being able to try out one's research ideas on students, having access to student assistance, and having a more flexible schedule.

9. To what extent should the program emphasize the *causes* of variation in public policy rather than the *evaluation* of alternative public policies? Political science is increasingly called upon to quantitatively evaluate alternative public policies. This emphasis is in response to: (1) new methodological tools and data banks, (2) job opportunities and grants, (3) the stimuli of intense public concern over government policy in the late 1960s and early 1970s, (4) reaching a possible saturation point regarding applying duplicative quantitative research to relatively unimportant political matters, and (5) the momentum of policy-relevant research, teaching, and institutions in political science in the mid-l970s. This evaluative emphasis is especially relevant to the mainstream of political science if it deals with evaluating alternative public policies relating to how chief executives, public administrators, legislators, or judges should operate, or if it relates to subject matters within political science, such as international relations, civil liberties, or electoral policy. This evaluative emphasis is also meaningful to political

science, regardless of the public policies being evaluated, if it is involved with the authoritative allocating of things of value rather than with natural science, humanities, or topics other than political science. However, one cannot meaningfully evaluate alternative public policies without considering what causes some policies to be adopted and others to be rejected by policy makers, policy appliers, or policy recipients. To ignore this causal analysis is to ignore the important evaluative criterion of political feasibility. Causal analysis is also relevant to evaluation or optimizing work because one cannot evaluate alternative public policies unless one understands the causal relations between the policies and whatever goal criteria are being used. This type of means-ends causal analysis differs from that which causes a type of policy or decision to be adopted, but the same methodology applies to either type of causal analysis.

10. To what extent should the program be concerned with policy problems at the *local, state, national, and cross-national* levels? The major interdisciplinary policy programs emphasize national policy issues. Such issues are more glamorous than state and local issues. They also emphasize domestic issues, whereas policy programs in international relations and comparative government do not. Increasing the involvement with state and local issues would increase job opportunities, improve government relations (especially for public universities), and add concreteness to policy analysis teaching. If the cross-national perspective were increased, a greater variety of experiences with alternative public policies would result. These experiences are valuable in that they supplement the United States national experience or the experience of the 50 states and its cities, particularly when they experiment with programs that are more socialistic or more contrary to traditional United States ideology than the country has been willing to try.

11. How can the program balance *liberal and conservative* ideologies with controversial public policy issues? The program should be opened to faculty, researchers, and students regardless of ideological orientation. The program should be bipartisan so that the program's participants would be welcome in either a Democratic or a Republican administration. Bipartisanship is more meaningful than nonpartisanship, whereby the program members would participate in no partisan policy analysis. Program members are encouraged to analyze the effects of alternative public policies, and not to advocate partisan public policies.

II. A JOBS-DRIVEN CURRICULUM

One can have a jobs-driven or professionalism-driven curriculum. It involves *four steps*, using political science as an example:

1. A systematic simulation of the job market.
2. Curriculum reform in light of the results of that simulation.
3. Recruitment-marketing in light of that curriculum reform.
4. Periodic review of the simulation, the curriculum reform, and the recruitment activities.

A. Analyzing the Job Market

The essence of the program is the job-market simulation. It could be conducted as follows in terms of the *database*:

1. Obtain one year of back issues of the *APSA Personnel Service Newsletter*.
2. Work with all the subjects in the Newsletter, just a single subject, or a combination of subjects.

Each American Politics entry might be *coded* on the following variables among others:

1. Level of government mentioned: (1) national, (2) state, or (3) local. Sophisticated coding on each variable would also allow for: none of the above, all of the above, and any combination of 0, 1, 2, 3, or N categories. That means multiple categories per variable, rather than mutually exclusive categories. This applies to all variables.
2. Branch of government: (1) legislative, (2) executive, (3) administrative, or (4) judicial. For greater completeness, the subjects of public administration and public law should probably be included, giving more jobs under (3) and (4).
3. Political dynamics category: (1) political parties, (2) interest groups, (3) public opinion, or (4) voting behavior.
4. Methodological sophistication: (1) yes or (2) no.
5. Cross-national mention: (1) yes or (2) no
6. Policy orientation: (1) yes or (2) no.

7. Theory perspective: (1) yes or (2) no.
8. Level of position: (1) full professor, (2) associate professor, (3) assistant professor, (4) instructor--ABD, or (5) adjunct.
9. Level of department: (1) Ph.D.-awarding, (2) M.A-awarding, (3) B.A.-awarding, (4) less than B.A.-awarding, e.g., community college.
10. Quality of department: Give ranking on the rankings of the National Academy of Sciences.
11. Region of U.S.: (1) Northeast, (2) Midwest, (3) South, or (4) Far West.
12. U.S. or overseas: (1) US, (2) overseas Europe, Canada, Australia, or New Zealand, or (3) developing nations.
13. Teaching orientation: (1) legalistic or descriptive, (2) Bentleyan or conflict-oriented, (3) policy-oriented, (4) math modeling, or (5) statistical analysis.
14. Teaching methods: (1) lecture or (2) seminar
15. Level of teaching: (1) graduate, (2) advanced undergraduate, or (3) elementary undergraduate
16. Tenure track: (1) yes or (2) no.

Processing the data could yield answers to questions like the following:

1. On each variable, how many jobs fall into each category?
2. On each variable, what percent of jobs fall into each category?
3. With 16 variables averaging about six categories apiece there are four to the 16''' power combination of categories. What are the ten or 20 combinations or jobs most frequently occurring?
4. What is the most popular category or each variable? Putting those 16 most popular categories together gives the most popular job.
5. What are the best departments looking for? That means cross-tabulating variable 10 against variables 1 through 8 and 13 through 15. One could also do a regression analysis with variable 10 as the dependent variable and variables 1 through 8 and 13 through 15 as multi-nominal independent variables.
6. Other cross-tabulations, correlations, frequency distributions, or questions suggested by the answers to these questions and by doing the coding.

B. Applying the Information

How might the answers to the questions *be* used?

1. Adding some new courses to graduate offerings in American Government or

Political Science at the 300 or 400 levels.
2. Changing some old courses.
3. Deleting some old courses.
4. Recruiting some new faculty.
5. Developing and sending posters to the 127 Ph.D.-awarding departments, 151 M.A.-awarding departments, and 472 B.A.-awarding-departments informing graduating undergraduate seniors about our new jobs-driven curriculum.
6. Developing and sending brochures to the department heads of those 750 departments telling them about the new jobs-driven curriculum, and asking them to communicate this news to graduating undergraduate seniors.
7. This is likely to result in a bigger pool of applicants. The pool may go up from 200 to 600. If we are now only getting three qualified people who say they will come, we are then likely to get at least nine. That is a 300% increase, and puts us in the same league as the University of Minnesota.
8. We do not automatically follow the jobs *data.* For example, we do not change our curriculum to teach Texas or California government even if there is a demand. At the opposite extreme, we do not ignore the jobs data and teach possible nonsense courses to virtually no students who have few if any good jobs to choose among.

The beginning of this memo mentioned a professionalism-driven program as well as a jobs-driven program. A professionalism-driven program involves the following additional elements:

1. Under a professionalism-driven program, the jobs data is still important for curriculum and marketing reform.
2. Professionalism in political science and in major universities means doing well on publishing, teaching, and public-professional service. Doing well on those three activities helps obtain and retain jobs, tenure, and productive happiness.
3. *Publishing* means requiring and guaranteeing all graduate students some publishing opportunities in obtaining a Ph.D. This could mean thinking of all seminar papers as potentially publishable. It should mean submitting multiple papers to multiple journals. Submission should be a requirement if not acceptance, or at least acceptance as a convention presentation-paper.
4. *Teaching* means requiring and guaranteeing all graduate students some teaching experience in obtaining a Ph.D., not just grading experience. This could mean an independent section, but at least a discussion section.
5. *Public-professional service* means requiring (1) joining one or more general

professional organizations like the APSA, (2) joining one or more specialized professional organizations like the ISA, (3) attending one or more professional conventions and being on the program, at least as a discussant before getting a Ph.D., and (4) being an active participant in one or more political interest groups or a political party.

6. The Department can offer a *15-week seminar* on "Professionalism in Political Science" covering publishing, teaching, and public-professional service. The seminar should also cover job-getting, funding, networking, and professional history. The seminar can be taught especially by senior faculty. It can have a list of required reading on each subject.
7. Those opportunities and the seminar can be strongly mentioned in the poster, brochure, and correspondence with department heads. Doing so will make the department especially attractive to professionalism-driven students, rather than those who are not so motivated, serious, or organized.

The job-driven and professionalism-driven ideas can apply to international relations, comparative government, and empirical-normative theory. They could also apply to a program of public policy, public administration, or civic leadership. Those ideas could even apply to any department at the University of Illinois or elsewhere.

How can we have those ideas implemented?

1. For a starter, the Department needs a supervised graduate assistant to do the coding and data processing.
2. The results of the data analysis need to be considered by various department committees with regard to possible course changes, course additions, and/or course deletions.
3. The results of any such curriculum changes can be considered by the same committees with regard to how to incorporate those changes into a poster, brochure, and cover letter. Even if there are no changes, perhaps we should better advertise what our present programs have to offer.
4. The same committees need to meet on how to retain the incoming students. The curriculum changes should help in that regard, including the job-driven changes and the professionalism-driven changes. There may also be a need for more faculty seminars in which the graduate student are expected to attend along with both senior and junior faculty. The seminars can emphasize debates and discussion, rather than boring presentations of papers.

Variations on all of the above have been a big part of the interaction that I had as a Ph.D. student under Dick Snyder at Northwestern, an M.A. student under Herman Pritchett at Chicago, and a visiting doctoral fellow at Stanford, Yale, Wisconsin, and Michigan. Also a junior faculty member in the 60's at Illinois. We cannot turn back the clock. We can, however, restore much or some of the attractiveness and intellectual vigor that political science formerly had. I hope the above ideas are a move in that direction, and that they can be applied by analogy to public policy and public administration.

III. PROFESSIONALISM BOOKS FOR GRADUATE STUDENTS AND OTHERS

These professionalism books are applicable to all fields of political science, public policy, and public administration. The books deal with eight important topics. The books are arranged alphabetically by senior author under each topic. The topics are arranged randomly:

1. Obtaining funding, including the funding of dissertations. Virtually all funding sources will fund dissertations if they are innovative, useful, well-planned, and well-endorsed.
2. Publishing articles and books, including while one is a graduate student. Prior graduate students have been multiple co-authors and co-editors of books. One member of our Department had acceptances from *APSA* and other major political science journals while still a graduate student. Motivation and inspiration are big factors.
3. Obtaining jobs in Washington and elsewhere. Publishing as a graduate student greatly opens doors over the competition. A good academic first job also facilitates future publishing on an upward spiral.
4. The fourth topic of teaching is also included, but it is partly subject-specific.
5. Also included are good books on chairing a department or administering a program.
6. General and networking.
7. The political science profession.
8. Tenure issues.

A. Obtaining Funding

1. Mim Carlson, *Winning Grants Step By Step: Support Centers of America's Complete Workbook for Planning, Developing, and Writing Successful Proposals* (Jossey-Bass, 1995), 130 pages.
2. Anne Mantegna, *Guide to Federal Funding for Social Scientists* (American Political Science Association, 1990), 374 pages.
3. S. Nagel and Marian Neef, *Policy Grants Directory* (Policy Studies Organization, 1977), 112 pages.
4. Dorin Schumacher, *Get Funded! A Practical Guide for Scholars Seeking Research Support from Business* (Sage, 1992), 304 pages.
5. Stephen Szabo, *Research Support for Political Scientists: A Guide to Sources of Funds for Research Fellowships, Grant, and Contracts* (American Political Science Association, 1977), 162 pages.

B. Getting Published

1. Fenton Martin and Robert Goehlert, *Political Science Journal Information* (American Political Science Association, 1990), 119 pages.
2. S. Nagel and Kathleen Burkholder, *Policy Publishers and Associations Directory* (Policy Studies Organization, 1980), 153 pages.
3. Rita Simon and James Fyfe, *Editors as Gate Keepers: Getting Published in the Social Sciences* (Rowman & Littlefield, 1994), 285 pages.
4. John Wagner, *Political and Social Science Journals: A Handbook for Writers and Reviewers* (ABC-Clio, 1983), 266 pages.

C. Obtaining Jobs

1. APSA, *Directory of Political Science Department Chairpersons* for developing mailing lists to send materials to including a cover letter, vita, and reference letters. Also APPAM's *Membership Directory* for writing to policy schools. Letters from effective mentors are highly recommended, but act on your own if such letters cannot be obtained.
2. APSA, *Personnel Newsletter*. Also APA, *Public Administration Times* for policy jobs in universities and government.
3. Theodore Caplow and Reece McGee, *The Academic Marketplace* (Basic Books, 1958), 272 pages.

4. Thomas Mann, *Alternative Careers for Political Scientists* (APSA, 1976).

D. Teaching

1. John Bean, *Engaging Ideas: The Professor's Guide to Integrating Writing, Critical Thinking, and Active Learning in the Classroom* (Jossey-Bass, 1996), 302 pages.
2. Peter Bergerson, *Teaching Public Policy: Theory, Research, and Practice* (Greenwood Press, 1991), 240 pages
3. Kenneth Eble, *Professors as Teachers* (Jossey-Bass, 1972), 206 pages.
4. Joseph Justman and Walter Mais, *College Teaching: Its Practice and Its Potential* (Harper & Brothers, 1956), 265 pages.
5. Chet Meyers, *Teaching Students to Think Critically: A Guide for Faculty in All Disciplines* (Jossey-Bass, 1987), 105 pages.
6. Easton Rothwell, *The Importance of Teaching: A Memorandum to the New College Teacher* (Hazen Foundation, 1970), 87 pages.
7. Howard Shenson, *How to Develop and Promote Successful Seminars and Workshops* (Wiley, 1990), 285 pages.
8. Maryellen Weimer, *Improving Your Classroom Teaching* (Sage, 1993), 130 pages.

E. Chairing and Administering

1. Burt Nanus, *Visionary Leadership* (Jossey-Bass, 1992), 267 pages.
2. Roger Schwarz, *The Skilled Facilitator: Practical Wisdom for Developing Effective Groups* (Jossey-Bass, 1994), 333 pages.
3. Allan Tucker, *Chairing the Academic Department: Leadership among Peers* (American Council on Education, 1981), 323 pages.

F. General and Networking

The following general books also deal with networking by joining, marking contacts, and participating in conferences. Networking is important to increase one's success in funding, publishing, job-getting, teaching, and chairing. Having something worth-while to say, however, is more important than one's communication system or packaging, but they are all important.

1. Sally Gaff, Conrad Festa, and Jerry Gaff, *Professional Development: A Guide to Resources* (Change Magazine Press, 1978), 110 pages.
2. S. Nagel, *The Policy-Studies Handbook* (Lexington, 1980); 234 pages.
3. S. Nagel and Miriam Mills, *Professional Developments in Policy Studies* (Greenwood, 1993), 281 pages.
4. Carl Sindermann, *Winning the Games Scientists Play* (Plenum, 1982), 302 pages.
5. Pierre van den Berghe, *Academic Gamesmanship: How to Make a Ph.D. Pay* (Abelard-Schuman, 1970), 115 pages.
6. Mark Zanna and John Darley (eds.), *The Compleat Academic: A Practical Guide for the Beginning Social Scientist* (Random House, 1987), 246 pages.

G. The Political Science Profession

New graduate students might also find it worthwhile to read such introductions to the political science profession as the following books. A profession can be defined as an income-producing activity that (1) requires a special training program and credentialing, (2) jobs that refer to the profession in the job descriptions, (3) organizations of people in the profession who produce a literature of journals, books, and conferences, (4) an enforced code of ethical behavior. These and other related subjects are discussed in the books below, specifically in the context of political science.

1. APSA, *A Guide to Professional Ethics in Political Science* (APSA, 1990), 38 pages.
2. Gabriel A. Almond, *A Discipline Divided: Schools and Sects in Political Science* (Sage, 1990), 348 pages.
3. Michael Baer, Malcolm Jewell, Lee Sigelman (eds.), *Political Science in America: Oral Histories of a Discipline* (University Press of Kentucky, 1991), 250 pages.
4. William Dunn and Rita Mae Kelly (eds.), *Advances in Policy Studies Since 1950* (Transaction, 1992), 549 pages.
5. Heinz Eulau and James March (eds.), *Political Science* (Prentice-Hall, 1969), 156 pages.
6. Ada Finifter (ed.), *Political Science: The State of the Discipline* (APSA, 1983), 622 ages (second edition, 1993).
7. Charles Hyneman, *The Study of Politics: The Present State of American Political Science* (University of Illinois Press, 1959), 243 pages.

8. Stuart Nagel and Miriam Mills, *Professional Developments in Policy Studies* (Greenwood Press, 1993), 281 pages.
9. David Ricci, *The Tragedy of Political Science: Politics, Scholarship, and Democracy* (Yale University Press, 1984), 348 pages.
10. Albert Somit and Joseph Tanenhaus, *American Political Science: A Profile of a Discipline* (Atherton Press, 1964), 188 pages.
11. Albert Somit and Joseph Tanenhaus, *The Development of Political Science: From Burgess to Behavioralism* (Allyn and Bacon, 1967), 225 pages.

H. Tenure Issues

1. American Association of University Professors, *Defending Tenure: A Guide for Friends of Academic Freedom* (AAUP, 1997), 232 pages.
2. Patrica Eames and Thomas Hustoles (eds.), *Legal Issues in Faculty Employment* (National Association of College and University Attorneys, 1989), 249 pages.
3. Matthew Finkin, *The Case for Tenure* (Cornell, 1996), 219 pages.

ENDNOTES

1. On curriculum development in political science, see Ada Finifter (ed.), *Political Science: The State of the Discipline* (American Political Science Association, 1993), William Crotty *Political Science* (Northwestern University Press, 1992), and S. Nagel and Miriam Mills, *Professional Developments in Policy Studies* (Greenwood, 1993).

PART ONE: WHAT TO TEACH

Chapter 1

AN ESSAY ON TEACHING POLITICS AS THE CORE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: THE MISSING PIECE

Jonathan Anderson
Assistant Professor of Political Science
Indiana State University

ABSTRACT

The effective training of public managers must include training for democratic governance. The essential difference between public and private management is the impact of politics and political control of the management process, and this political element is the cornerstone of democracy. Despite the reality of politics, Public Administration is often taught as if politics does not exist, or is something to be avoided. Effective teaching of Public Administration requires not only lip service to the centrality of politics, but teaching it as an integral part of the public administration curriculum. Particularly lacking is education to manage the policy process and education to manage citizen participation. Yet, these are the very elements which will fulfill the promise of democratic governance. If we fail to teach these concepts and skills, we also deny our democratic heritage and political reality.

THE PROBLEM: IGNORING THE PUBLIC/PRIVATE DIFFERENCE

Politics lies at the core of Public Administration. It is the inescapable reality, the *raison de etere* of the Discipline. Without it, there is little difference between public and private management. While both involve implementing organizational objectives, private sector decisions are primarily motivated by profit, while public sector decisions are primarily motivated by politics. Yet, despite the reality of this distinction, despite the lip service paid by most students and practitioners of Public Administration to the inseparability of politics and administration, universities continue to teach Public Administration as if it were some aberration of business management, some poor relative of *good* and *true* administration.

Our teaching is a reflection of our discipline, and the continued avoidance of its central core denies who we are, and perpetuates that denial in each new generation of public managers. As each cohort of Public Administration students matriculate without basic grounding in the centrality and normality of politics, they perpetuate that myth and contribute to the general isolation of government. Public Administration courses tend to use, normatively, business management as a base, a core, and the norm from which public management deviates because of its peculiar qualities. "True" management is assumed to be based on rational efficiency, which is then warped by the debilitating influence of political pressures. We teach Organizational Behavior with business texts. We teach Administrative Law as political *constraints* necessary to confront and abide by in our search for efficient administration. Budgeting is taught often ignoring, or paying mere lip service, to the politics outlined by Wildavsky (1979, 1992). Personnel management is taught almost generically, and follows business management trends such as the *Excellence* literature (Peters, 1982, 1986), *Theory Z* (Ouchi, 1981), *TQM* (Deming, 1986) and *Reengineering* (Hammer, 1993), of which the *Reinventing Government* literature is essentially a derivation (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992; Gore, 1995).

Even when we accept politics, we do so reluctantly, admitting that politics impacts administration, and distastefully acknowledging the existence of political impediments to "good" administration. "Politics" is often spoken of synonymously as patronage or the spoils system and is compared unfavorably to "the merit system," implicitly conveying that the best way to manage is when politics can be avoided.

Efficiency is assumed to be the primary objective, even though efficiency has no meaning without an end goal. Efficiency means using the least amount of

resources to achieve a specified goal. We acknowledge that public sector goals are vague and ambiguous, yet still promote efficiency, a logical inconsistency. We teach politics as an add-on, a constraint, an aberration from true management, and as we teach this, so these values are transmitted to another generation of public managers.

Among public managers, the civil service or merit system is seen in *opposition* or contrast to the concept of politics and political participation, while efforts by elected representatives to influence public administration are derided as "micro-management." To even say that "politics gets in the way of management" ignores the definition of democratic government.

Management trends in the public sector are derived from business management and the goals of business management. Cost efficiency is held supreme. While cost effectiveness may be included to show that policy impact is also important, the politics necessary to determine policy effectiveness are ignored. Unless politics are understood to be at the center of the policy process, how can that process be effectively managed?

THE MISSING PIECE? DEMOCRACY!

The missing piece in the usual portrayal of Public Administration is democracy. Democratic process is not taught as the fundamental foundation of public management. Instead, Public Administration is portrayed solely as an instrument to achieve externally determined objectives. Such an instrument is applicable to any system of government. The goal is simply to implement policies decided by the political leadership. Public administration in a democracy, however, is qualitatively different. It involves different goals, purposes, skills, knowledge and techniques, and, thus, requires a different pedagogy.

ONCE AGAIN, THE PUBLIC/PRIVATE DIFFERENCES

For the purpose of this argument, and at the risk of pedantically repeating the obvious, I will review some practical basic differences between public and private management. Regardless of disagreements over normative purpose, the realities of politics in a democratic public administration underlie the essential differences between public and private management. These are the differences that justify the

distinction between an MPA and an MBA. Of course these differences are not absolute, but they serve to ground the conceptual basis of Public Administration

1. ***Ambiguous goals***: While in the private sector, the primary goal is profit, in the public sector, goals are set by the political process, and are often vague, ambiguous, contradictory and transient.
2. ***Leadership selection***: While private sector leadership is based on talent for accumulating profit, public sector leadership is politically partisan and transient, and with changing leaders come changing policies.
3. ***Funding***: Private management is funded by the customer, the receiver of the product, and that receiver must be satisfied if the flow of money is to continue. The public sector receives its funding from multiple sources, but only in small part (user fees) directly from the product or service user. Funding comes primarily from legislative branches, and it is those politically elected legislators who must be satisfied to maintain the funding flow. Continued funding in the public sector is based less on customer satisfaction than political actor satisfaction. Annual budget hearings make this interaction fairly constant and continual.
4. ***Legislative Oversight***: While the private sector is subject to various regulatory regimes, the public sector is subject to many more legal restrictions in employment law as well as legislative review. This oversight includes controls on employment and employment contracts. Such functions as are normal for business management are removed from the purview of public management. Micro-management by legislative sub-committees is the norm rather than the exception.
5. ***Policy Involvement of Public Managers:***. Because of the political nature of public management, public managers constantly interact with legislative committees and with special interest groups who lobby elected representatives in iron triangle relationships or subgovernments. On the front lines, street level bureaucrats select and influence the policies they implement (Lipsky, 1980).

Yet, despite these, and other, realities, there is often implicit denial of the qualitatively different nature of public and private management. This difference, which is the reason for our discipline is often ignored. Public Administration is taught as management of programs under unfavorable circumstances rather than management of democratic governance.

THE NEED TO TEACH DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE

Democratic governance is the essential difference between public and private management. Public Administration derives its purpose from the purpose of government. Rather than being instrumental, a means to a clear and specified end, democratic governance is a process with the process itself as goal. Rather than seeking to find ways to cope with or get around politics, democratic governance is called upon to embrace and manage politics as the essential expression of democratic participation.

Public Administration is not primarily managing programs, but managing democracy and managing the politics which is its public expression. This essential role for Public Administration is unique to it. No other actor has this role. Citizens express their desires and elected officials attempt to balance election pressures with leadership pressures. The role of Public Administration in a democracy is unique, special and essential. Why, then, is it resisted?

RESISTANCE

Public managers resist this conception of their role because it is messy, because it seems to deprive them of control, and because it is not the role they have been taught. It is messy because the realm of politics is ambiguous, and contradictory. Power and direction is fragmented, checked and overlapping. It is difficult to be empirical and scientific. Quantitative goals are often irrelevant, or at best mere ammunition for the next political battle (Wildavsky, 1979). As long as the goal of public managers is programmatic, this essential *messiness* is resisted.

Probably the greatest reason for resistance by public managers to this change in purpose is the issue of control. Accepting politics as a legitimate part of Public Administration surrenders full control, or claims to control implementation of programs, which is its sole purpose under a programmatic definition of Public Administration. Efforts by elected officials to influence administration of programs is criticized as micro-management and resisted through familiar bureaucratic techniques (Starling, 1998), leading to increased frustration on behalf of representatives and the citizens they represent.

Yet personal control has already been surrendered in the bureaucratic experience (Hummel, 1987). The public manager decides neither what to do nor why to do it. The bureaucratic process takes away from the manager the idea of pursuing values she believes in. The conventional public manager is expected to pursue policy goals regardless of personal beliefs. When policy changes, the

public manager is to change. She must either give up her beliefs, subvert the process, or remain continually morally frustrated. The public manager exists as a mechanical technician, carrying out the orders of whoever seems to be in charge.

MANAGING PROCESS ALONG WITH PROGRAMS

The experience Hummel describes occurs inevitably because Public Administration seeks to manage programs rather than manage democratic governance. Attempting to apply business principles to a political process is integrally contradictory and leads to frustration by public managers, elected officials and citizens.

As is often forgotten, or at least unmentioned, in the teaching of Public Administration, the purpose of government is to express the will of the people. Citizens in the United States have become less and less satisfied with government as it has become more and more intimately involved with their day-to-day lives. It is not, as some assert, that citizens do not want government, but rather they feel impotent to influence or control it. While government has become more and more involved with citizens on a day to day basis it has continued to exclude them from the policy process, unwilling to give up control over program management. The result is lack of involvement, apathy, anomie and general frustration with government. Government is no longer *us*, but is always *them*. Citizens feel government is out of their control and, thus, is un-democratic.

The answer to this dilemma is for public managers to place the management of democratic governance above the management of programs. This does not surrender the concept of good management, but good management requires a goal. Unified collective decisions on programmatic goals are problematic, and managing for program goals alone becomes impossible. However, management of democratic governance is not only possible, but essential, for effective democratic outcomes.

The goal of the public manager is to mediate between citizen and elected official, to facilitate their involvement in arriving at mutually acceptable decisions. The democratic public manager sees as central to her role the integration of citizens into the policy process, to assist citizens in governing themselves. The democratic public manager is primarily managing a process rather than a program. This role is rarely filled in democratic governance, but when it is, it can facilitate interested and involved citizens and satisfied elected representatives.

TEACHING DEMOCRACY TO PUBLIC MANAGERS

For these new values to find root among public managers they will first have to find root in the Public Administration curriculum. What concept of Public Administration will be taught in our schools? Most people acknowledge the integral connection of politics and administration in the American system of governance. Public and private administration are different, and the difference is the reality of political influence and control of the process. This political reality stands independently of the call for democratic governance.

The qualitative difference between public and private management must become a primary pillar of our public administration curriculum if we are to train effective public managers. Training managers with an unrealistic view of their vocation benefits no one. Our courses must address subject matter within a framework of a political structure, and the difference between public and private management must be highlighted. We must banish the logically inconsistent call to "run government like a business." This call makes no more sense than it would to call for running churches more like businesses. Church organizations are not in the business of profit and neither are democratic governments.

Public Administration programs must teach democracy, which has politics at its origin. The dominance of politics in decision making is what makes democracy different from private management. Politics is not a dirty word, but the description of citizen participation. Interest groups are citizens seeking to press their position in the governmental arena. They have organized collectively to express a portion of the popular will. Such citizen participation is a positive, albeit partial, manifestation of democracy. Each class taught should highlight this distinction at its onset.

In addition to placing politics at the center of public management theory, new management skills should be taught to aspiring public managers. As Public Administration has, with cognitive dissonance, both accepted and denied the impact of politics, so it has neglected teaching political management. While allowing the reality of the interaction between politics and administration, we have failed to teach political skills to our students, implying through this omission that such skills are somehow illegitimate for a true manager. Instead they are learned on the job or not at all. Politics impacts public management daily, but MPA graduates are not taught how to manage it. Managing public policy *includes* managing politics.

A second omission in teaching Public Administration is the management of citizen participation. Because Public Administration has been viewed as insular and self contained, the citizen is seen as the object of the managed program and

not the joint participant. Scientific research in all fields of study has come to understand that it is the interaction of actor and recipient, or observer and observed that determines outcome. To focus on management as a uni-directional process denies empirical reality. Business management has grasped this interaction as essential to efficiency. It is understood that involvement of the customer in the production process can increase customer satisfaction. Similarly, it has long been understood by international development agencies that user or recipient participation increases the success rate of projects.

Public Administration has been slow to accept the process of citizen involvement as essential to managing democracy. The success of Public Administration ultimately lies in managing this interaction between public manager and citizen, yet skills of community organization, group process, marketing, and public relations are sadly lacking in public administration curriculum. Public Administration is taught as if it exists in isolation, a laboratory experiment uninfluenced by its environmental setting. Public managers need to understand the normative role of citizen participation in democratic governance, and be trained in the skills of eliciting, channeling and focusing that participation. Managers without such training and understanding step into a real world unprepared to deal with, and often in denial of, democratic realities.

By teaching public managers that citizen participation is intrinsic to public management we can begin to reconnect citizens to their government and re-create democratic governance in the modern welfare state. Public managers who understand citizen participation will manage more effective programs, and will encourage more positive citizen attitudes toward their agency and to government in general.

REFERENCES

Deming, William Edwards (1986). *Out of the Crisis.* Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Gore, Albert Jr. (1995). *National Performance Review, Common Sense Government: Works Better and Costs Less.* Washington DC: Superintendent of Documents.

Hammer, Michael (1993). *Reengineering the Corporation*. New York: Harper Business.

Hummel, Ralph P. (1987) *The Bureaucratic Experience*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Lipsky, Michael (1980). *Street Level Bureaucracy*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Osborne, David E. and Ted Gaebler (1992). *Reinventing Government: How the Entrepreneurial Spirit is Transforming Public Sector*. Reading MA: Addison-Wesley.

Ouchi, William G. (1981). *Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

Peters, Thomas J. And Nancy Austin (1985). *A Passion for Excellence.* New York: Random House.

Peters, Thomas J. and Robert H. Waterman (1982). *In Search of Excellence.* New York: Harper and Row.

Starling, Grover (1998). *Managing the Public Sector*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace.

Wildavsky, Aaron B. (1974, 1992). *The Politics of the Budgetary Process.* Boston: Little Brown.

Wildavsky, Aaron B. (1979). *Speaking Truth to Power*. Boston: Little Brown.

Chapter 2

GOALS IN TEACHING RESEARCH METHODS TO ADMINISTRATORS?

Jody Fitzpatrick
Graduate School for Public Affairs
University of Colorado

Charles Schultze, a man with considerable administrative and political experience as former director of the Bureau of the Budget and chairman of the Council of Economic Advisers, writes, "The most frustrating aspect of public life is . . . the endless hours spent on policy discussions in which the irrelevant issues have not been separated from the relevant, in which ascertainable facts and relationships have not been investigated but are the subject of heated debate, in which consideration of alternatives is impossible because only one proposal has been developed, and, above all, discussions in which nobility of aim is presumed to determine the effectiveness of the program." (Schultze, 1968, p. 75). Investigating facts and relationships? Separating the relevant from the irrelevant? Systematically considering alternatives? Finally, determining the effectiveness of programs? Aren't we teaching research methods to public administrators in the hopes of increasing these activities in the decision-making process?

I would argue that we are teaching research methods and statistics to public administrators to motivate them to seek research and use its results as an important guide to their actions and decisions. By "seek research" I mean for our students to view research as an important source of knowledge. I want to instill in them the desire to learn the "the facts and relationships" as they began a new

venture. Thus, when a new project begins or a problem is recognized, they will turn to existing research to learn of theories and empirical research on the nature of the problem and its relationships to other variables; the successes and failure of similar programs in other towns, cities, or states; the nature and success of alternative interventions; and case studies of the implementation of similar programs with similar populations. Our students will understand the potential utility of each of these different types of research to their examination of the problem and development of policy. If appropriate, they may initiate or direct original research to learn more about the problem in their own setting. As the program begins, they will collect "data" or information on its implementation comparing that implementation with the model to learn more about the problems actually confronted in the field and the adaptations that are made. Finally, when considering the effectiveness of the program, they will not be afraid of failure or become blind advocates for their solution, but instead will be *curious* about the success of the program in achieving its goal and want to learn of its good and bad side effects.

Our former students will consider research methods as an important way to test the program. Of course, the actions of a particular alumnus will differ with his or her position. One of our alumni is the Mayor of the City of Colorado Springs. As a policy-maker, her use of research would occur in requesting data from city employees or contractors on the importance of various problems, the feasibility of proposed alternatives, and the success of completed ventures. Another of our alumni is the head of the SWAT team with the local police department. He would be more interested in data on the process of implementation, i.e., are his new initiatives being carried out in the field? To what immediate effect? Finally, both, as professional public administrators would keep informed on research advances in their respective areas of expertise, city governance, criminal emergency management. If they are motivated in these ways, certainly we have succeeded.

Having succeeded in these affective goals, we then want our graduates to be able to understand the research they receive. They should be able to determine if appropriate methods were used to answer the stated questions or hypotheses. To the extent possible, they should use it dispassionately; that is, they should be conscious of their own biases in regard to this research and consider how these biases affect their consideration of the research. Finally, in the frequent case where existing research conducted in other settings is used as the information source, our students will be able to consider the extent to which the results are relevant for their own organization. We want them to be informed, and critical, consumers.

Finally, our most important goal is to help our students become better thinkers. At this risk of criticism in this post-positivist era, I'd like to quote Robert Pearson who developed the correlation statistic, the Pearson r. He wrote, "What distinguishes a scientist from non-scientist is not subject matter but habit of mind." We are trying to teach our students a "habit of mind." What is that habit of mind? While I would be among the first to argue that public administration is not, and should not be, a science, we can learn from the tenets of the scientific method. That scientific method can include collection of information from a wide variety of sources in a wide variety of ways - case studies, qualitative and quantitative data, natural as well as laboratory experiments, etc. But, all of these methods of data collection can draw on the scientific method for these two habits of mind: (a) suspension of judgment, and (b) the systematic collection of information (data) on the thing to be judged or the decision to be made. To the extent possible, we want our graduates to avoid making hasty judgments based on limited information. They should be alert to information which points to different directions. We want them to seek information, not just to confirm their predispositions, but to explore, to be open to new interpretations, options, avenues. The information collected can range from observations of staff comments during coffee breaks to carefully-constructed outcome measures of clients. However, the analysis of the information is systematic. Students will consider each source, its strengths and weaknesses, its results, and combine them to reach some decision or make some judgment. These methods can be applied to tasks ranging from hiring a new staff member (reviewing resumes and letters, considering information gaps and biases of sources, developing interview questions and considering responses, etc.) to deciding whether to continue a funded program. With each, our students suspend their judgment, collect information from a variety of sources with differing biases to offset the bias of each, compare and synthesize the results of these sources, form a judgment, and make a decision.

But, becoming better thinkers involves more than suspending judgment and collecting information to inform that judgment. Research methods should assist them in separating the relevant from the irrelevant. Learning about models, variables, and relationships should enable our students to think about problems in better ways. Our courses should aid them in conceptualizing problems and building programs or developing policies to address those problems. During program development stages, our graduates should be developing clear, logical models of program theory and delineating inputs, actions, and outcomes, and the connections between each. They should then go on to use these models as the foundation for better program implementation and evaluation.

In summary, our primary goals are broad. We want to improve the nature of decision-making. To do so, we want to inspire students to use research, to be capable consumers of it, and to use critical thinking skills in developing and managing programs.

OUR METHODS FOR TEACHING RESEARCH

Now, we need to apply these skills to our own work. What methods do we use to attempt to achieve these goals? And, how well do we succeed? Given the need for brevity, I will skirt the success question. Suffice it to say, we could improve.

While the use of data to inform decision-making may have increased since the years of George Schultze, too often our officials mandate evaluation or data collection, but fail to use it. On many important issues, *especially* on important issues, research does not serve as source of information. Opinions have already been formed. The research on the use of information in political decision-making is vast, but I will argue that we, as teachers of public administration, need to better explore how, and if, our efforts have made an impact. Leanna Holmer and Guy Adams have written of what they call "the practice gap" in organizational theory and management skills. They write, "The *practice gap* is the difference between what individuals (as managers, employees, or students) *know* and *advocate* as theoretically good practice for given organizational situations, and what they actually *do* in those situations." (Holmer & Adams, 1995, p. 4). We have a similar practice gap in research methods. Our graduates may know about research methods and even advocate their use, but rarely do they initiate or use research themselves. We have failed to achieve our affective, or motivational, goals.

Recognizing that, in any case, our efforts could be improved, let us consider our methods. How do we attempt to achieve the affective goal of inspiring our students to use research? to become better critical thinkers? Far too often through mind-numbing hand calculation of statistics. Or, extended discussions of threats to internal validity, sampling theory, etc. without relating these issues to real research. One barrier is the texts themselves. While many methods and statistics texts have become more readable over the years and application is discussed more frequently, texts remain a barrier. Research methods and statistics are complex and new to most of our students. Texts are, by their very nature, wordy. They don't lend themselves to practice, but to explanation. Thus, we lecture and explain. Class time spent on lecture and explanation limits our time for practice. Often, because we understand the information presented in the text and, in fact,

enjoy it, we spend our class time discussing the arcane issues that we, as researchers, struggle with. We forget that their use of our content will be different than ours. We begin to train them to be like us.

ALTERNATIVE METHODS

I began teaching statistics and research methods as I was taught, often by people intrigued with the subjects themselves and not so concerned with their application in the real world. My change in teaching methods began with a change in fields. I had been teaching statistics and research methods to graduate students just out of undergraduate school who were going to pursue Ph.D.'s or become applied researchers in organizations. A new position called in public administration. Though my Ph.D. was in psychology, my bachelors and masters degrees were in political science. I had moved to psychology to pursue the inter-disciplinary field of program evaluation with the goal of improving the management of public sector programs through information. Though the move was delightful (I never felt at home in psychology), I was now faced with teaching MPA students. They were quite different. Unlike the psychology graduate students who hung out doing research at the department, my MPA students were employed adults. They were older and had considerable work experience. Most importantly, their goals were not to be researchers, but to become managers and policy-makers. Many were already in such positions and wanted to hone their skills, not only for future advancement, but for their present positions. As a practicing evaluator, I had to consider what my goals were with these students. These students were not going to be *doing* research as much as *requesting* and *using* research. Thus, I began the evolution to the goals stated above.

Educating students to be consumers of research. To achieve my goals required a change in my methods. How could I teach my students to be consumers of research? The answer seemed obvious - by having them "consume" research. I had been taught research methods in isolation. We read the methods text and practiced the methods. We may have read small case studies in the text that illustrated the use of the research. But, we did not read articles and technical reports to explore the use of method. Our exposure to research articles was in other "content" classes where we read research for its content, not to focus on method.

So, I began having students read and critique published research. With each method we read about in our text, I found research or technical reports which used that method. (This sometimes was not easy as searches are not organized by method. Try finding a journal article that actually used random sampling from the population of interest! It changes your opinion about sampling and practice.) We then read these articles or reports and were able to see these methods in practice. More importantly, we practiced *reading* research. To my surprise, students often had trouble interpreting even the review of literature of an article.[1] They struggled with articulating the purpose. Their skill in interpreting results was, of course, even shakier. But, the whole language of research intimidated many of them. I continued having them practice, but began using newspaper articles and pieces from the popular press as well. To build their critical thinking skills and help them become better consumers, I would probe them on what more they would like to know from these popular articles. What would they ask the researcher if she were present? For each article, I asked them to summarize what the researcher had learned, whether the methods were appropriate for the purpose, and how they would generalize what had been learned to their settings. From this practice on each new subject we learned, developing hypotheses, sampling strategies, data collection, and analyses, they gained skills in interpreting and using research.

Identifying applications of research to their work. One of the skills I found most wanting among the students was simply identifying questions or issues in their work setting that research could help them answer. When you do not know something, you do not know what it can do. Their inexperience with research hindered their ability to identify work issues which might be assisted by research. As a result, I spend more and more class time having them develop research questions and apply them to their work setting. We not only generate questions or hypotheses research could test, but we consider which designs could be used and how they would be implemented, how samples could be drawn (or, if they need to be drawn), and how data could be collected. At the beginning of each class, one or two students present a research question from their work and we discuss how we would conduct research in their setting to address that question.

[1] I now have students practice analyzing how the researcher builds her argument for her research. Students address these questions: How did she organize her review? Did she move from theory to empirical research? How did she use each citation? What else might she have looked for in the literature? How else might she have made a case for the need for her research? What sources of knowledge did she use?

Depth or Breadth? As in all MPA programs, the number of research methods courses we offer is limited. Thus, we face a choice between breadth, covering many different research topics, and depth, developing excitement and feelings of competence and skill in more limited areas. The more I teach, the fewer topics I teach; my move has been toward greater depth on fewer topics. Reflecting on my objectives, I realized that if I am to succeed in motivating students to use research, I must not only help them see how it can be used, but excite them about it. To achieve this excitement requires depth. Probing into one area, not only gives them competence and, hence, confidence in that area, but makes them excited about the potential for research in many other areas. If we are attempting to create life-long learners, we can hope that the expertise we give students in one area and the enthusiasm achieved, will translate to learning in other areas in the future through workshops and individual, self-motivated learning.

Finally, I realized that critical thinking skills are built by practice with many different problems, not by an introduction to the definitions, terms, and steps of many research methods. (The latter becomes recipe-like with insufficient time.) Specifically, I focus on developing critical thinking skills with three areas: model-building for generating hypotheses and research questions, selecting and implementing designs, and interpreting statistics. We practice extensively with each of these. Students practice developing and critiquing models, developing alternative models to solve the same problem, comparing the models, and finding literature to support or reject a model. Through this practice, they learn to question common assumptions, to delineate the relevant from the irrelevant, and to identify new approaches and compare them with others.

We practice selecting the appropriate research design for hypotheses or research questions we have developed and justifying that selection. Data collection skills are practiced by considering all the different sources and methods for collecting information to answer a specific question or to measure a specific construct. We reflect on the different results each source and method might give and the biases inherent in each. Finally, in statistics, we focus more on the interpretation of the findings. I encourage students to examine the tables or graphs in an article and make their own interpretations *before* reading the author's interpretations. Then, they examine whether their interpretations are congruent with the authors'. I use several examples from popular literature where the narrative report leads the reader to focus on issues other than the main ones seen in the table or graph. With articles containing mixed results, I assign students to teams to argue each side. (This is most useful when the author emphasizes one interpretation, but the data available suggest alternatives.) When analyzing data, students cannot simply present the data; they must write an interpretation of that

data. They then contrast their interpretations with others. Using a health data base with variables for cigarette smoking and heart disease among many others, I assign student groups to analyze the data for the American Lung Association or the tobacco lobby. Students must find in the vast data base results to support their organization's point of view. Such exercises pique their curiosity and hone their critical thinking skills as well as making them familiar with various statistical techniques.

A SPECIAL WORD ABOUT STATISTICS

Remember learning statistics before computers? Or with key-punched cards? Then, much of our time was spent in tedious hand calculation. We could examine relatively few relationships because each calculation was so time-consuming. As computers became more available, we spent as much time instructing students in using SPSS or SAS as in teaching statistics. Today, we are blessed with user-friendly statistical software that allows us to get our students into statistics right away. Our students have opportunities to examine many relationships among variable in one class period! This ease presents opportunities and challenges, but, I would argue, the opportunities are more abundant than the challenges.[2] Unfortunately, too many statistics professors still burden their students with many tedious hand-calculation and theories. When these students graduate to my classes, I learn they do not have the big picture. They are doing statistics mechanically. They do not know how to thoroughly describe and explore relationships.

My goals in regard to statistics are these: (1) Students will feel comfortable dealing with data. While our students' computer skills are increasing by leaps and bounds, many are still intimidated by statistics. (2) Given a table or results of an analysis, students will be able to interpret them and discuss their implications. To most managers, statistics are meaningless without interpretation. And, different people will draw different interpretations from the same data. Through working on reporting and interpreting results, students will recognize the nuances and values that influence interpretation and will develop their skills, as future consumers, in using statistics. (3) Given a problem, students will be able to select the appropriate statistic to answer the problem. I find that many students, even

[2] The primary challenge is keeping students from continuing to simply "play" with the data, in an unending, blind search for relationships. The ease of analysis makes this tempting. While I

those who have had significant statistical background, do not know which test to use unless they know which chapter they are at the end of! In the real world, we don't know what chapter we're at the end of. Students can refer back to their statistics books to refresh themselves on chi squares or regression, but if they don't know which test to use (or which test should have been used in a report they are reading), their old texts are of no help.

How have I adapted my methods to achieve these goals? User-friendly software (I use MicroCase, but Minitab is another good product) has helped enormously. My students began using the computer in the first class. I describe the real-life data bases (one on crime rates and demographic characteristics in states and one on people's political attitudes and demographics), and we brain-storm hypotheses. How many people do you think like classical music? Do you think classical music lovers voted for Clinton or Dole? Then, we immediate check out our hypotheses with the data. I demonstrate first using my computer and overhead. They then practice testing hypotheses in two-person teams around their computers. They develop a few bar charts and pie charts to see the variables or they use the mapping capability of MicroCase on states to see the distribution of violent juvenile crime across the country. Getting the students onto the computer, "fooling with data", right away does a lot to establish their confidence and dispel their anxieties. Moreover, it gets them interested. The subject matter piques their curiosity.

The first class is crucial. Eleanor Willemsen (1995) has written about the importance of establishing an "I-can-do-it" attitude in that first class. Students enter any classroom with a set of expectations which have evolved from their prior experiences in classrooms and with that subject matter. Few students come to public administration because of the research and statistics. They are interested in politics or management. As I say to my students, when you tell people that you teach statistics, no one says, "Oh, that was my favorite course!" For many, their reaction is quite the opposite.[3] Our students, many of whom are returning students who have not had a mathematics-oriented course in years, come to our classes with great trepidation. Their experiences in previous math courses have not been positive ones. Even if they were successful, they did not enjoy it. If we are to succeed in making them into managers who use research actively in decision-

began with "playing" with data, to introduce students to the subject, we move to focusing our search on answering specified questions or hypotheses.

[3] One of my husband's colleagues, after meeting me, remarked to him that I had quite a sense of humor. He was surprised because that was not his vision of a statistics professor. Such are our reputations!

making, we must first make them comfortable. I find getting them involved with exploring data on the computer during the first class helps ease that transition.

We can build an "I-can-do-it" attitude by giving them an expectation of eventual success. If, in the very first class, they can learn to look at a variable and see what it is (how people respond, the central tendency, the variability) and its relationship to another variable (I do this visually using the mapping capability to comparing the states on two different variables), they see that they have been able to take the first step. Further, the students see that statistics can be interesting and fun. (Did you know that burglary rates are related to votes for Ross Perot? Of course, this finding moves us into discussions of causality.) Since the data bases are real, the students begin to feel like real researchers. Willemsen talks about engaging students by making them "a part of the community of people who can do mathematics, statistics, chemistry or whatever the subject is." Rather than presenting statistics as a remote, mysterious world of numbers, we engage them with data that are familiar and interesting and, with these, help them to learn what statisticians do - describe attitudes and behaviors and examine relationships.

We use the computer in every class to demonstrate and practice what we are learning. This use has led to other changes. While I do have students hand-calculate one or two problems and I demonstrate the calculation once in class, my emphasis is on why putting numbers together in this way tells us something. With the exception of these hand-calculations (which I don't continue beyond chi square and t-tests), my students do not work with calculators. I also have greatly reduced the amount of class time I spend on proofs or theory. Instead, my students work as you and I work. They use statistics software to describe people and states and examine relationships between variables. Their challenge is specifying the question or hypothesis, identifying the variables and describing them, testing relationships with appropriate tests, and interpreting those results. Their interpretations are both written and oral, but they must be comprehensible to the typical manager. Their interpretations must explore the real meaning of the data and its implications. Typical homework assignments require them to write executive summaries or memos describing what they have found. Tables or graphs may be attached to illustrate or summarize trends, but their narrative is the heart of the interpretation as it will be when reports are read by policy-makers and managers. (Don't they skip the results section, too?)

Having been exposed too frequently to statisticians who cannot really describe their data set and the relationships therein or who, in their rush to sophisticated or recipe-like analyses, have failed to examine descriptive statistics on each variable and gain a true understanding of their numbers, I want to teach students to think, to view data analysis as a process, not an end product with only

one correct answer. Rather, examining the data - relentlessly - will help them learn many details. The learning is like the layers of an onion. Each analysis (of sub-groups, of different measures of the variable, maintaining continuous variables versus collapsing into discrete categories) tells us something more about the relationship. Because students relate statistics to math, they too often think there is only one correct answer. Ironically, my more mathematically-inclined students (civil engineers, environmental analysts) struggle more with this concept, the legitimacy of differing interpretations, than do students from the humanities and fine arts. Statistics are painting a picture for us. While there is obviously only one correct mean or one way to calculate a t-test, there are many ways to describe a variable and examine its relationship to another. Each of these ways tells us more. We must engage students in this process.

Williamsen (1995) presents many suggestions for helping students in statistics develop what she calls positive "metacognitions," or ways to talk to yourself about statistics. She notes their typical metacognitions on entering a class are "I can't understand this." "This is terrible; I'll never be able to do this." The anxiety reflected by such thoughts hinders learning. Instead, we must help students see that while the content is new and the ways of thinking are different, they can eventually succeed. We must help them see that "effort, not talent, as the road to learning (Williamsen, 1995, p. 17)." This statement may seem extreme, but, in fact, any student who is in a graduate school has the "talent" to do regression. (I realized this recently when my son's eighth grade math class began using Excel to do regression. They called it examining slopes and lines, but it was regression.) It is helpful to students to recognize that effort and practice, not some special mathematical gene, are all that are needed for them to master this content.

Williamsen points out that students who have been successful at math know what methods they need to use to learn. When confronted with new, confusing concepts or "scary" numbers, their positive metacognitions are likely to be something like: "I need to do lots of example problems before I get it." Or, "It always helps me to start with a list of what I know and what I need to solve for." Or, "The best approach for me is to have my friend show me the steps she used." (Williamsen, 1995, p. 19). I encourage my students to work in teams. Often a student who has just discovered the concept can understand another student's possible confusions better than we who have known the concept for years.

But, we should not rely on peers to do all the teaching. I try to use different ways to present the concept, recognizing that some students will learn with one type of explanation, others by another. Thus, I introduce variability by contrasting the weather in Albany, New York and Denver, Colorado (both of which have the same mean, monthly winter temperatures, but very different highs and lows).

Since many Colorado residents have migrated from the northeast, they relate to the days where the low was 30 and the high was 34. I contrast that with Colorado where the low was 12 (in the middle of the night) and the high 52. Then, I ask how important is it to know variability. Averages don't convey the differences in weather in Albany and Denver. Measures of variability do. But, I then move to having us "develop" a way to measure variability. What is variability? Distances of scores from the mean? What about calculating the average distance of scores from the mean? But, we get 0 because the minuses and pluses cancel each other out. What if we square the numbers to get rid of the minuses, then unsquare the end product? Yes, now we have standard deviations. Using stories, intuition, and, finally, numerical calculations, I hope to engage each student in an understanding of variability.

Finally, I encourage them to analyze their own thinking about statistics. While I avoid the jargon of "metacognitions," I ask them to reflect on their experiences and how they learn best. As they develop confidence in statistics, I ask them to consider how their attitudes about their skills are changing. Some students are astonished to find that they enjoy the course and that they have skills and talents they were unaware of. I don't, of course, succeed with all!

CONCLUSION

There are many barriers to teaching statistics and research methods to administrators or future administrators. Among the primary ones are that we were never taught to teach. We were taught the subject matter, but not the methods. Thus, we often continue to teach in the manner in which we were taught. Faculty rarely, if ever, observe others teaching. So, we fail to learn new methods or reflect on our own. My own change was precipitated by a change in my students (from those who would be researchers to those who would be managers) which caused me to reflect on my goals. My changes then came about from my training and experience in program evaluation - to reflect on the link between goals and objectives and processes. As I recognized that my teaching activities were not structured to lead to the outcomes I desired in my students, I began to adapt. The process has been fascinating and fun, but I continue to adapt and test. I hope to model what I am teaching my students, to model questioning, curiosity, and exploration.

A major barrier that I struggle with continues to be texts and format. To achieve our goals requires practice. But, the books lead us away from practice and into explanation, many times of things our students do not need to know or

certainly do not need to know in beginning courses. I feel embarrassed to assign much less reading than my colleagues who teach other courses. (They will wonder what I am doing! They will question my scholarliness and intelligence!) My students expect reading. (They bemoan the cost, but they want books. They want structure. Their "metacognitions" about graduate education tell them we must read and struggle.) So, the tail wags the dog. In this time of change in higher education, we need to experiment in our teaching, to reflect on our goals, and to consider the appropriate means for achieving them.

REFERENCES

Holmer, L.L. & Adams, G.B. (1995). The practice gap: Strategy and theory for emotional and interpersonal development in public administration education. *Journal of Public Administration Education, 1*, 3-22.

Schultze, C.L. (1968). *The politics and economics of public spending*. Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution.

Willemsen, E.W. (1995) So what is the problem? Difficulties at the gate. In J. Gainen & E. W. Willemsen (Eds.) *Fostering student success in quantitative gateway courses.* New Directions for Teaching and Learning, No. 61, 15-22. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Chapter 3

ETHICS EDUCATION IN LOCAL POLICY AGENCIES

C. W. Cowles, M. F. Meine and C. A. Watson
Troy State University
Twenty-First National Conference on Teaching Public Administration
The University of Colorado at Colorado Springs
Colorado Springs, CO

ABSTRACT

This paper introduces a two-year study which will explore the nature of instruction in ethical decision-making that may occur in local police agencies and among individual police officers. While codes of ethical conduct are present in nearly all police agencies, this study addresses the variability in the instructional use of ethical standards by police managers. Outcomes desired from the study include information about ways to help police officers and their managers reach ethical decisions when confronted with ethical dilemmas of a professional nature.

The research method used in this study involves a survey of police agency managers and a separate survey of police officers. The data gathered via the surveys will be analyzed separately and then jointly to arrive at manager / officer data contrasts.

Activities in this study will include primary and secondary research, development of a data base, and generation of final study products. The products will be made available to various professional associations, selected

learned societies, participants in the study and other law enforcement officials.

The primary research conducted during this study will focus on local police agencies throughout the Commonwealth of Virginia.

INTRODUCTION

Despite regulations and procedures intended to govern the professional behavior of police officers, there are no shortages of ethical issues in today's local police agencies. For example, New York City police officers are alleged to have recently beaten and sodomized a manacled prisoner in a city police station, while surrounded by other police officers from the same precinct. This incident involves behaviors reportedly prohibited by a number of that department's policies and regulations, not to mention being proscribed by an array of ethical principles.

Problem Questions

Since codes for professional conduct, informed by codes of ethics, are present in nearly all police agencies, are these codes of professional conduct or codes of ethics used by local, uniformed police managers in teaching their police officers how to reach ethical decisions in the performance of police duties?

An attendant issue deals with the demonstration of ethical decision-making by police managers. Since published standards of conduct are typically applicable throughout a local police agency, what variability in their use exists among uniformed police managers as they may work with or through their uniformed subordinates to solve ethical dilemmas?

In answer to these questions, police agency initiatives in furtherance of ethical decision-making by police officers may exploit opportunities for ethics instruction. Such opportunities may be broadly defined to encompass both organizational and individual activities. From an operational perspective, what instruction in ethical decision-making is being performed in local police agencies, by whom, and with what focus and frequency?

Problem Response

In response to these operational questions, a two-year study has been proposed to explore the extent to which police officers receive instruction in

organizational and personal ethical decision-making processes (Meine, Cowles and Watson 1997). Practical outcomes desired from this exploration include information about ways to help prepare police officers alone, and with their managers, to reach ethical decisions when confronted with ethical dilemmas of a professional nature.

Study Goals

Ethics Education in Local Policy Agencies, as an exploratory study, has three primary goals intended to facilitate the examination of how police officers are taught to make ethical decisions in the performance of their duties.

Goal 1: Identify methods used by police managers to teach a police officer, as an individual, how to make ethical decisions in the performance of the officer's duties.

Goal 2: Identify methods used by police managers to teach their police officers, as an agency, how to make ethical decisions in the collective performance of their duties.

Goal 3: Identify the extent of instruction in ethical decision-making performed within local police agencies.

Related Questions

Attendant questions which may be explored through this study address the relationship between ethics instruction and later behavior, if such a relationship can be discerned. Specific questions will have a learning focus:

1. Is the amount, duration and quality of ethics instruction in an organization related to the ethical nature of subsequent decision-making and behavior in the organization?
2. Is a police officer's level of education related to the ethical nature of the officer's decision making and job behavior?
3. Does the completion of ethics education or ethics training help the police officer or police supervisor solve work-related ethical dilemmas?

Relationship of Proposed Work to Existing Literature

There is a dearth of literature addressing specifically the questions posed in this project. Braunstein (1992), and Tyre and Braunstein (1992) suggest that the level of an individual's formal education may be a predictor of later ethical behavior. From police administrators, Cowles (1993) learns that empirical data is limited with regard to the relationship between police officer behavior and officer instruction about making ethical decisions. Nonetheless, O'Malley (1997) suggests near unanimous support among law enforcement managers for training as a means to promote ethical behavior. Interestingly, Menzel (1995) suggests that an empirical foundation for the study of ethics in the public service will be in place by the turn of the century.

The existence of some empirical work supports Menzel's suggestion. For example, while performing research about public employee supervision which includes two ethical perspectives: "fairness for each individual," a deontological viewpoint, and "the greatest good for the greatest number," a teleological viewpoint, Cowles (1994) finds that more than 39% of the participants in a local police agency survey about supervision are not sure of which ethical viewpoint is used by their police supervisors in making supervisory decisions. Also, more than 22% of the participants are uncertain about which ethical viewpoint should be used in making supervisory decisions (see Table 1 below).

Table 1. Ethical Viewpoint in Immediate Supervision*

Percentages Viewpoint	Percentages Perceiving Viewpoint	Percentages Expecting Viewpoint
Greatest Good For Greatest Number	41	42
Fairness For Each Individual	20	36
Not Sure	39	22
TOTAL (Percentages)	100	100

*(N=192) Percentages are rounded to the nearest whole percentages.

While the percentages of employees perceiving and expecting a teleological viewpoint are nearly equal (41%/42%), the percentages perceiving and expecting a deontological viewpoint are quite different (20%/36%). When these data are viewed from an organizational viewpoint, in concert with the lack of surety among individual police officers about appropriate ethical posture, the recognition of an agency's ethical position becomes problematic.

With regard to the effects of ethical supervision, police personnel participating in the survey volunteer that the influence of ethical decision-making by a police supervisor extends well beyond the scope of work in conventional organizations. The life-threatening nature of certain police activities makes advance communication essential to reaching ethical decisions that affect police officer safety [conduct].

Also, advance communication and employee participation in the decision-making process are suggested by police employees as crucial ways to build employee trust in the immediate supervisor's capacity for reaching ethical decisions.

In later work, Meine and Cowles (1997a, 1997b) observe that ethical theories and ethical standards may contribute to the development of practical means for ameliorating the dangers of situational ethics. For educational and training purposes, the presence of ethical standards may be illustrated on a continuum (see Figure 1 next page).

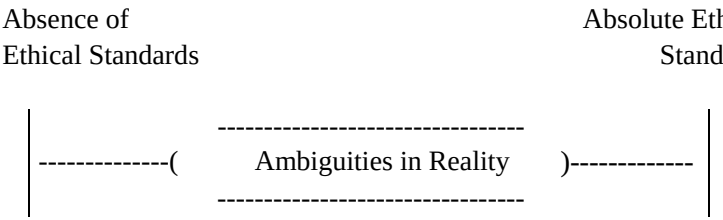

Figure 1. The Ethics Continuum

In words, the propensity for ambiguities in the reality of contemporary law enforcement -- ambiguities which may result from a tolerance for situational ethics, a potential danger in the exercise of police powers -- may be subject to clarification and reduction. This clarification and reduction may be experienced through the examination of police organization and police officer practices in the context of absolute ethical standards.

Study Contribution to Law Enforcement Policy

The increasing publicity given to lapses in ethical behavior by individual police officers and, on certain occasions, their agencies -- particularly since the Rodney King incident, suggests that police managers must insist on policy compliance as police officers perform their duties. Ethical behavior, a means to comply with law enforcement policy, may be elicited from police officers, their supervisors, and thus their agencies, through police training and individual education in the making of ethical decisions.

In view of a survey by Redlinger (1993) in which he found that less than 2% of Texas police recruit training time is devoted to ethics instruction, study of the need for expanded ethics education and ethics training for police officers becomes important work. Also, as police agencies begin to devote more resources to ethics instruction, it will become increasingly important to develop clear indicators of any relationship between such resource expenditures and later police behaviors.

Beyond training, education requirements for police officers represent a much-debated issue. The contents of the debate suggest the need for study of the relationships between formal education levels and ethical behaviors. To make policy suggestions about the future course of formal education for police officers, as it may relate to ethical behavior over time, appropriately linked longitudinal studies of police officer higher education are needed to obtain relevant data.

While this study, *Ethics Education in Local Police Agencies*, will explore police education and training issues in the context of present-day law enforcement policy, the study may stimulate additional lines of inquiry appropriate for future exploration. It is also expected that findings from the study may contribute to current knowledge about the influence of ethical issues on the formulation of law enforcement policy.

Study Design and Analytical Methodology

This limited-resources study will be conducted in two stages. In the first stage, local police departments from throughout the Commonwealth of Virginia will be randomly selected for a management-level survey to learn about current ethics education and training in a number of areas of routine police activity. Consistent with the personnel regulations of the participating agencies, selected demographic data will be collected in this first stage for later analysis.

In the second stage, which involves only the departments participating in the first stage, police officers willing to participate in the study will be administered

the first-stage survey. The survey will be modified in a minimal fashion to particularize the instrument to the police officer. Selected demographic data will also be collected in this stage.

This two-stage approach is intended to facilitate comparisons between police officer views of ethics instruction and those views expressed by police managers. Information gathered during the study will be converted into SPSS data sets.

Data Confidentiality

A study that examines the professional experiences of the individual police officer may play a key role in expanding our knowledge about police officer behavior. It is essential that the individual officer be protected from needless risk of harm or embarrassment as a result of the officer's participation in this study. Accordingly, each officer approached to participate in this study will remain anonymous as will the local police agency employing the officer. Accordingly, it will not be possible to attribute a study outcome to any particular officer or agency.

Study Management Plan

The milestones for this exploratory study are keyed to its goals and span a two-year period. From the separate analyses of first-stage survey data and second-stage survey data, the extent of instruction in ethical decision-making will be addressed for local Virginia police agencies. The results of the data analyses will be compared to identify similarities and differences among agency and officer perspectives. Demographic data will be studied in time with the comparative analysis.

CONCLUSION

Results from the first-stage and second-stage surveys will alone, in comparison, and in aggregate contribute to the development of a data base and other products about ethical decision-making instruction. The information will be made available to various professional associations, selected learned societies, and all study participants. The data will provide local police organizations verifiable material about ethics instruction for use in making relevant law enforcement

policy choices. The material may also facilitate choices among ethics learning opportunities by individual police officers.

While future research grounded on this exploratory study may benefit law enforcement agencies at all government levels, this study's results may directly benefit elected officials. For example, city council members concerned with police conduct may find it useful to review the study in preparation for providing guidance to police managers about desired police behaviors.

REFERENCES

Braunstein, D. (1992) "Building a More Ethical Police Department," *Police Chief*, Vol. 59 (1): 30-35.

Cowles, C. W. (1993) "Ethics for Police Work: Law Enforcement Values and Their Influence on the Quality of Police Supervision," Virginia Commonwealth University Conference for Police Administrators (July), Richmond, VA.

Cowles, C. W. (1994) "Supervision as a Consumer Service for the Public Employee: Ethical Supervision Using Service Marketing Considerations in a Theory of Management for Quality." Ph.D. dissertation, Virginia Commonwealth University.

Meine, M. F. and Cowles, C. W. (1997a) *Ethics Education for Today's Public Administrator*, Twentieth National Conference on Teaching Public Administration, Richmond, VA.

Meine, M. F. and Cowles, C. W. (1997b) *Doing a Better Job of Teaching and Reenforcing Ethics for Today's Public Employees*, The American Society for Public Administration's 58th National Conference, Philadelphia, PA.

Meine, M. F., Cowles, C. W. and Watson, C. A. (1997) *Ethics Training in Local Police Agencies*, Research Proposal, National Institute of Justice (December), Washington, DC.

Menzel, D. C. (1995) "Through the Ethical Looking Glass Darkly," *Administration and Society*, Vol. 27 (November): 379-399.

O'Malley, T. J. (1997) "Managing for Ethics: A Mandate for Administrators," *F.B.I. Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Vol. 66 (April): 20-26.

Redlinger, L. J. (1993) *Study of Ethics Instruction in Police Academies in Texas*. Dallas: Southwestern Law Enforcement Institute.

Tyre, M. and Braunstein, S. (1992) "Higher Education and Ethical Policing," *F.B.I. Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Vol. 61 (June): 6-10.

Chapter 4

THE LOST WORLD OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION EDUCATION: REDISCOVERING THE MEANING OF PROFESSIONALISM*

James S. Bowman
Florida State University and Walden University

"To educate a man in mind and not in morals is to educate a menace to society."
Teddy Roosevelt

ABSTRACT

Once central, ethics became a "lost world" in higher education during this century. This essay explores why this proud heritage was forsaken and why it was found again. This is followed by a discussion of how that rediscovery may be made to flourish, or at least kept from floundering. The analysis concludes with a final challenge to the public administration profession.

Biographical Sketch: James S. Bowman is professor of the Askew School of Public Administration and Policy at Florida State University. Noted for his work in ethics, Dr. Bowman has also done extensive research in total quality management. Bowman is the author of over 75 refereed articles as well as several books. He is the first editor-in-chief of Public Integrity Annual, a journal co-sponsored by the Council of State Governments and the American Society of Public Administration.

* Invited Essay, *Journal of Public Administration Education* (forthcoming)

Ethical values are the soul of modern public administration (Frederickson, 1997) as the field originated in revulsion to corruption endemic in the spoils system. Fundamentally a moral act, reform was to protect civil servants from political whim so that they could pursue the public good. As symbolized by the oath of office, public administration has never been regarded merely as a technical endeavor.

Instead, competence also meant responsibility; "to act ethically," Donald Menzel reminds us (1997: in press), "has been at the core of modern public administration ever since Woodrow Wilson issued his call for a "civil service cultured and self-sufficient enough to act with sense and vigor." Yet, the moral foundations of public service have been eroded in the 20th century. This essay briefly explores why this proud heritage was forsaken and why "the lost world" (apologies to Michael Crichton) of public administration education was found again. This is followed by a discussion of how that rediscovery may be made to flourish, or at least keep from floundering. The analysis concludes with a final challenge to the profession.

FOUNDATIONS FORSAKEN

"Objectivity is an irresponsible and dangerous illusion."
Anon.

Until the end of the 19th century, ethics was integral to higher education. The humanistic ideal of education as moral cultivation held sway. Indeed, the doctor of philosophy degree originally signified that the holder studied the meaning of life. The student was to nurture character and understand that the purpose of knowledge was the betterment of humankind. Attention to the moral and social nature of knowledge denied a theory/practice dichotomy.

In the early 19th century, however, Auguste Comte articulated a positivist epistemology or theory of knowledge based on the Newtonian paradigm (Sullivan, 1995: 166ff.). The contention was that "immature humanity" (representing 99 percent of human history), confronted an unknown world and fabricated fictitious knowledge and superstition to deal with it. The earth was an enchanted garden to be held in wonder and people were an integral part of it. "Mature humanity" completely reversed that perception as people saw the world as a machine and themselves as operators. It would be mastered by "positive knowledge" and objective reason. Since objectivity was possible, nature could be

comprehended and controlled through experimental manipulation; the causes of events could be understood as a linear, mechanical, often hierarchical, process. The truth could be known; facts and values could be separated, and the latter denigrated as subjective.

The result would be C. P. Snow's (1951) "two cultures," the dominant science (one that would discover how the world works), and the subordinate humanities (one that was of little consequence). Ethics, accordingly, was relegated to philosophy/religion departments in higher education. This would be reflected in government by the rejection of the spoils system (immature humanity) and passage of the Pendleton Act, the embrace of the politics/administration dichotomy, and subsequent adoption of scientific management (mature humanity).

Ethical conduct was to be achieved by procedural reforms in the merit system. Public servants were responsible only for execution of policy, exercised little discretion in policy-making, and ethics was a product of rules and procedures, not skill in decision-making or professional judgment. Although World War II called the dichotomy into question, the focus on the science of administration continued as ethics was frequently seen as something merely to be tolerated if not ignored altogether. However, three phenomena would emerge to change this state of affairs. First, the scientific mystique began to fade as Kuhn (1962) demonstrated the human face of science with its logic--and illogic. Relatedly the most advanced, rational society in history yielded assassinations, war, racism, and riots in the 1960's. Finally, political scandal (Watergate and the crisis of confidence), when added to the above scientific developments and societal events, would ultimately cumulate with the resurrection of ethics in academia by the late 1970's.

FOUNDATION FOUND

"Ethical axioms are found and tested not very differently from the axioms of science. Truth is what stands the test of experience."
Einstein

The 1960's and 1970's, then, witnessed a nascent interest in ethics as a result of increasing doubts about how or whether government could or would respond to issues of social equity, values, and justice, to say nothing of outright corruption and constitutional crisis. While a landmark article (Wakefield, 1976) called for renewed emphasis on moral education of public administrators, curriculum change would be slow and uncertain.

Years of neglect meant that that moral indifference (all judgments are a matter of personal taste), scientism (if it cannot be objectively measured and solved, then it cannot be significant) and civil service neutrality (the enduring legacy of the politics/administration dichotomy) would remain powerful forces to be reckoned with. Practically, and as a consequence, there were few faculty to provide pertinent coursework.

Indeed, there are still those who ask if such classes are really necessary and desirable. As was true with earlier attempts to make management a profession (when people scoffed at the notion since, after all, management was just common sense), many maintain that being a good person and doing the right thing is sufficient--as if basic decency, essential as it may be, invariably resolves conflicting values and competing role obligations inherent in public service. And even if that is not so, just whose morals are going to be imposed on presumably impressionable students?

Despite such concerns, there has been undeniable progress. That management problems are not necessarily a matter of simple right and wrong (the "dirty hands" problem) is increasingly recognized. In addition, it is difficult to argue that the speculative risk of proselytization--something any serious educator abhor--should deny inquiry into the core of public administration. Thus, "Despite pockets of resistance doubting the necessity, wisdom or effectiveness of incorporating ethics into the curriculum," Catron and Denhardt argue in a recent study, "the question of whether ethics should be taught ... is now largely settled" (1994: 52).

Following a long, contentious struggle, NASPAA--nearly two decades after its founding--established guidelines calling upon member programs to explain how they "enhance the student's values, knowledge, and skills to act ethically and effectively ..." As a result, there has been an increase in the number of ethics courses (and perhaps ethics components in other classes) over the years (from almost zero in 1970 to some 25 percent of programs in 1988 to possibly one-half today). It is certainly true that, "the field of ethics education for public service (is) healthier and more vibrant today than it has been in decades" (Catron and Denhardt, 1994: 60).

Yet, is the question whether ethics should be taught really "largely settled"--or simply finessed? Stated differently, there is little evidence to suggest that faculty share an understanding of the significance of ethics in the curriculum. Available (and truncated) data (Bowman and Menzel, 1997: 2) show that the glass may be half full--or likely more than half empty. Thus while some 50 percent of the *responding* programs (just 60 percent of all programs) offer such a course, the vast majority of them do not require it; no information is available on how frequently these electives are offered or on their enrollment.

The curricular presence of ethics, then, is--at best--an uncertain one. It apparently has been marginalized by benign neglect and an inferiority complex borne from an impoverished understanding of professionalism. Consequently, many students may have graduate school ideas about management, but grade school notions of ethics. The evidence above, in short, suggests rather clearly that the expertise of the public administration professional with a master's degree largely consists of merely possessing technical skills.

The classic definition and vow of a professional--excellence in both technical competence and moral character--is either: (a) ignored entirely by many programs, (b) perhaps tacked on the end of other courses in some, or (c) an optional part of the curriculum in still others. Interested professors might get a class approved, especially if it is not part of the required core. But when confronted by an panoply of existing courses that all faculty must teach and students must take, the problem is to get the ethics elective on the schedule and persuade students to take it. It is not difficult to see how benign (and ultimately malignant) neglect sets in.

Under such conditions, it is understandable if some faculty develop an inferiority complex about the topic. Rather than being able to simply assume that excellence in character is key to the profession (what good is technical competence if those who possess it are corruptible?), they must deal with the strongly held contrarian views noted earlier and, more practically, find room in the schedule.

TO FLOURISH

"Aim above morality. Be not simply good; be good for something."
Thoreau

Adopting a strategy of "the best defense is a good offense" cannot only protect ethics education from being further marginalized as just discussed, but also help it flourish. The logic is straightforward and the case must be made unequivocally: Ethics is central to the identity and legitimacy of public service ..." (Catron and Denhardt, 1994: 56). The craft of public administration, like medicine, is much more than that of knowing specialized skills; rather, consummate professional competence is defined as the responsible exercise of discretion. Such discretion demands judgments that are both technically and morally sound. Therefore, preparing the student for professional practice requires that ethical criteria be integrated into decision-making.

The basis of this claim is plain and grounded in these well documented observations:

- managers believe that ethical conflicts are inherent in decision-making,
- genuine ethical behavior is frequently above the law (recall Dickens' dictum, "The law, sir, is an ass."),
- there is "no one best way" to deal with ethical quandaries, and
- ethics discussions make a difference in awareness and judgments in professional life (adapted from Laczniak, 1983).

Managers, then, need not only technical ability to analyze problems, but also the capacity to grasp those problems in a manner consistent with professional principles of role responsibility and personal integrity.

The study of ethics extends one's ordinary moral experience by making it explicit, clearer, and more consistent since it helps articulate why certain actions ought to be done. The purpose should be "to uncover hidden assumptions, unexamined values, and to treat ethics with all the rigor and discipline that other fields already receive" (Callahan and Bok cited in Catron and Denhardt, 1994: 53). Such education includes, inter alia, these goals: consciousness raising, decision-making skills, ethical conduct, tolerance, democratic values, and an awareness of the moral obligation of public service.

How can this best be done? The desirability of integrating ethics into the entire curriculum, as opposed to a separate course, flounders on several critical problems: (a) faculty are primarily trained in and concerned about technical training, and (b) the profession lacks course-specific ethics modules. The result is that there is little (if any) emphasis in course descriptions and syllabi, an occasional mention in class discussion, and perhaps a brief add-on at the end of the term. Although there is little evidence to the contrary, it nonetheless can be hoped that this is not the norm. If it is the norm, however, then the professoriate bears much responsibility for whatever amoral attitude exists in the profession.

The answer to the question above, then, must be not only a single required course (such classes generally constitute less than $1/12^{th}$ of the curriculum), but also the integration of ethics into core courses. As Catron and Denhardt point out, this two-fold approach helps avoid the impression that ethics is a separate topic irrelevant to other subjects while simultaneously recognizing that public administration is animated by ethics.

There are at least three models that can be utilized to accomplish this important goal (Bowman and Menzel, 1997: Part One). The Rhode Island Ethics Project (which began with a series of trust-building, agenda-setting, and problem-

solving workshops involving academicians and public officials) resulted in the institutionalization of ethics education in the University of Rhode Island's MPA program. The initiative is lead by one key course. Like Rhode Island, the University of Utah's model is the fruit of collaboration among practicing managers and educators. The ethics matrix that was developed outlines the ethical dimension in all courses in the curriculum and is anchored by an ethics seminar.

At the University of Denver, public administration's sister professional program was reconceptualized at the School of Business. The goal was to balance technical and humanistic skills through an innovative experiential curriculum. Over two dozen free-standing courses were replaced by six functionally-integrated courses taught by multidisciplinary teams with a "Values in Action" class as the cornerstone. In sum, either through a signal ethics course, a curriculum-wide matrix, or reinventing the entire degree interested public administration programs would benefit from examining these approaches.

None of these strategies, or any other, will solve the problem of the amoral student masquerading as a professional or professional-to-be. But most MPA students "show that they are attracted to public service careers by a strong desire to promote the public interest, serve others, and lead lives of integrity (Menzel, 1997, in press). Efforts to support and clarify such tendencies deserve respect, emulation--and a meaningful place in the curriculum.

Public administration, to conclude, is in many ways the conscience of democracy and the protector of the long-term public interest; a democratically-elected Hitler, Nixon, and Reagan created the SS, the Plumbers and the *Contras* precisely because it was believed that career employees could not be trusted to do their bidding. Indeed, the public service has little justification if it does not cultivate a sense of moral responsibility in the system.

A FINAL WORD: CARP DIEM

Have public administration programs genuinely understood their responsibilities in ethics education? The evidence is mixed (Menzel, 1997). It has taken nearly one-half a century for the field just to reach the "take-off" stage of development (Cooper, 1994: 25). Take-offs, while thrilling and full of promise, are precarious events. They depend not only on the skill of the pilots, but also on the support of the ground crew as well as the traveling public at large.

Changing the metaphor, public administration ethics education is similar to a house of cards. Its construction has been difficult and exciting, but its frame is weak. It rests upon intermittent elective courses that reach a small proportion of

the student body. And its neighborhood is crowded with numerous, required "how to" classes that clearly signal their perceived importance. Certainly, the house of ethics, as argued above, needs both fortification and acceptance.

> If ethics education is not used specifically to enhance understanding and appreciation of the moral foundations of the public service and improve students' capacity to recognize ethical complications of decisions, (then) new members to the profession will likely rely too heavily on values such organization loyalty, technical competence untempered by moral judgment or passive obedience to authority (Catron and Denhardt, 1994: 55).

"Ethics," Michael W. Jackson points out, "is one of the languages of the world" (1990: 166). Not learning to use it means that we will become unable to think clearly about ethics, and thus professionally illiterate. As Killilea, Pasquerella, Vocino observe, "If we can avoid becoming immobilized ... by skepticism in our diverse culture (then we can see that) the nature of the duties of the public administrator requires not dogma, but sensitivity about the moral implications ... of decisions and the ability to select among ... completing interests" (1995: 21).

It is said that the difference between an amateur and a professional is that "an amateur knows what he can do, a professional knows what he can't do." It may be that many in the field, trapped by "positive knowledge" believe that they cannot devote adequate time to ethics. Yet if public administration programs cannot "seize the day," then they must forfeit any claim to an authentic understanding of not only ethics but also management, and what it means to be a profession.

The author is pleased to acknowledge Donald Menzel, Dennis Wittmer, and Mary Ellen Guy for their comments on a draft of this article.

REFERENCES

Bowman, J. and D. Menzel. (1997). *Teaching Ethics and Values in Public Administration Programs: Innovations, Strategies and Issues*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.

Catron, B. and K. Denhardt. (1994). Ethic Education in Public Administration. *Handbook of Administrative Ethics*. New York: Marcell Dekker: 49-62.

Cooper, T. (1994). Emergence of Administrative Ethics as a Field of Study in the U.S. In T. Cooper (ed.), *Handbook of Administrative Ethics*. New York: Marcell Dekker: 3-30.

Frederickson, G. (1997). *The Spirit of Public Administration*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Jackson, M. (1990). Immortality May Lead to Greatness: Ethics in Government. In C. Prasser, R. Wear, and J. Nethercote (eds.). *Corruption and Reform*. Brisbane, Australia: University of Queensland Press: 160-177.

Killilea, A., L. Pasqueralla, and M. Vocino. (1995). Ethics for Skeptics in Public Administration. *Spectrum 68* (Fall): 19-27.

Kuhn, T. (1962). *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Laczniak, G. (1983). Business Ethics: A Manager's Primer. *Business 4* (January-March): 23-29.

Menzel, D. (1997). To Act Ethically: What, Why, and How of Ethics Pedagogy. *Journal of Public Administration Education*: in press.

Snow, C. P. (1957). *The Masters*. New York: Scribner.

Sullivan, W. (1995). *Work and Integrity: The Crisis and Promise of Professionalism in America*. New York: Harper Business.

Wakefield, S. (1976). Ethics in the Public Service: A Case for Individual Responsibility. *Public Administration Review, 43*: 477-490.

Chapter 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PORTFOLIO DEVELOPMENT IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION TRAINING

Michael J. Bolton
Assistant Professor
Marymount University

INTRODUCTION TO MARI

In late spring 1997, several Marymount faculty members agreed to begin a conversation to explore the feasibility of encouraging selected students to voluntarily engage in collaborative research with faculty mentors. It was generally agreed that although some undergraduate (and graduate) students are unsuited for and perhaps incapable of creative original research, many are. Moreover, given the rapid developments in informational technology - access to Internet, in particular - it appears we are at an educational crossroad where the timing is right to move forward in this area.

Subsequent meetings generated enthusiastic dialogue and resulted in a draft for a new initiatives proposal titled “MARI” (Marymount Academic Research Initiative). MARI’s mission statement begins with a proclamation that the program is specifically designed to involve faculty-student collaboration in research.

Tentative Goals

- Maintain a University-wide infrastructure for supporting research experiences.
- Foster an environment which is conducive to research.
- Provide students the opportunity to apply classroom knowledge to an original investigation or creative project.
- Introduce students to new modes of inquiry.
- Provide a forum for formal presentation of research findings.

Hoped for Outcomes

- Increased student awareness of what research is and how it is conducted.
- Increased active learning and collaboration.
- Increased intellectual curiosity.
- Improved student preparation for careers.
- Improved student preparation for advanced studies.
- Improved retention.
- Revitalized faculty who share ideas and techniques.

STUDENT/FACULTY PARTICIPATION IN MARI

In drafting a structure for MARI, committee members immediately recognized the importance of creating an appealing array of options to invite student and faculty participation. Some currently being considered include an approach that will allow students three possible options:

Credit

The first is an academic credit program in which students would enroll in a new course (“Academic Research”), for 1 to 3 credits, on a pass/fail or letter grade basis.

Volunteer

Students also would have the option of receiving no academic credit (or grade), but would gain recognition and other benefits that normally would accrue from participating in the program.

Summer Stipend

Or for those students who choose to wait until summer to participate in the program, an hourly stipend above the usual minimum, or perhaps tuition remission might be available for students willing to work on research for varying amounts of time.

Faculty Involvement

Various inducements are being considered to encourage faculty involvement in MARI, not the least of which includes a suggestion that faculty be compensated by being allowed to "bank" credit for supervising student research over several semesters. After a faculty member has supervised a designated number of credit hours, the faculty member would be rewarded by one course (3 credit hours) release time.

In addition, because student/faculty collaboration in MARI sponsored projects are likely to be labor and time intensive, faculty evaluations will reflect these efforts as significant contributions in the Scholarly Activity section of the application for rank and/or tenure.

INTEGRATING FUTURISM WITH RESEARCH DESIGN

Discussions surrounding MARI was the catalyst for a quickly-conceived pilot program I conducted during the 1997 fall semester in three Marymount undergraduate courses: Social Problems, Deviant Behavior and Criminology. Having had but a few weeks to consider how to proceed, I settled on the following objectives:

- Introduce students to contemporary forecasts from respected scientists in the futures research field.
- Introduce students to simple definitions concerning hypotheses, variables, validity, reliability. (Specifics of hypothesis-testing, methodology, statistics, instrumentation would not be covered).
- Introduce students to basic forms of research design that are useful in looking at variables in "what if" problem-solving situations.
- Encourage students to write and orally defend an original research proposal -not a term or research paper. Preferably, but not necessarily, one related to a futures-type problem.

Futures Research

In the brief lecture time allotted to discuss futures forecasts, various works were evaluated and materials which seemed likely to sustain the interest of students and assist in their development of research proposals were selected.

This technique had a benefit not anticipated in the early planning stages: Greater curiosity was generated because the traditional past-to-present format was not followed and instead went directly to the heart of how experts portray the world of the future.

Students responded favorably to overlays of discussion topics related to the forecasts for the future. An exhaustive list is not practical here, but among the items highlighted for conversation were:

National Economy	Information Industries	Cultural Diversity	Minority Influence
Decline of Military	Technology Trends	Medical Trends	Educational Trends
Mass Telecommunication	International Economy	Labor Force Trends	Management Trends
Trends in Values	Trends in Training	Learning Organizations	Product Sharing
Tax Reforms	Environment	Privatization	Women in Leadership

Research Design

As noted earlier, extensive experience with college term/research/theme papers has indicates that many if not most are lacking in application of original thought to problem resolution. Though students are instructed to select interesting, course-relevant topics about which they have a "burning" curiosity, when submitted for grade, few indicate initiative and research effort beyond the high school routine of running to the library and ferreting a few articles to piece together a melange of citations.

Again, the objective - hypothesis - undergirding this pilot study was that basic research methods are not so esoteric that today's enlightened undergraduates ought not be able to at least begin to think in terms of relationships between variables in solving current and/or future problems.

The primary assumption was that students without prior methods training predictably would falter when it came to actually stating how they would set out to measure their variables, and this was acceptable. ***Encouraging students to think in terms of relationships, not measuring them was the primary instructional objective.*** Accordingly, knowledgeof statistical tests, survey construction and so on was *not an essential* requirement of the research design they later would submit for a grade.

Thomas Black's *Evaluating Social Science Research: An Introduction* (1994) was used as a basic guide in constructing lesson plans because of clarity and simplicity. Again, the chief goal was to instill in students a sense of conjecture, a heightened curiosity about theories, hypotheses - relational and causality issues in how variables influence each other.

For this reason, the bulk of the emphasis placed on research design was for participants to outline in a fairly linear fashion a proposal that introduces a problem, discusses possible hypotheses, including distinct definitions of dependent and independent variables, and a brief literature review about them. Students would then provide a reasonable "guesstimate" of how to frame her/his problem for further study.

Proposal Evaluations

Four methods were used to evaluate student proposals:

- Two drafts of "possible" research topics were required before being finally accepted as viable designs for further exploration.

Observation: It was clear that despite well-prepared lectures and additional assistance, efforts, several students still needed additional help understanding concepts needed before they could proceed with their research.

- Oral presentations were required in two of the three courses. (Class size prohibited this activity in one course).

Observation: This technique was a definite winner. Presentations were followed by two or three minutes of questioning by peers regarding issues related to sources, validity, reliability, etc. (Presentations were videotaped and tapes given to students for their portfolios, etc.).

- Written proposal evaluations.

Observation: A bifurcated approach that included contextual analysis of the proposal (inclusion of many notes/suggestions), and a check list to determine how competently students developed a systematic outline of their proposed research were the methods used in arriving at a final grade for the project.

- Student evaluation of the pilot activity.

Observation: After all presentations were finished and projects collected, a ten question survey was distributed seeking comments/suggestions concerning the project.

Informal Observations

Results of the survey will be discussed momentarily, but before doing so I'd like to offer a few subjective observations:

(1) Planning, implementation, and evaluation of this project required much more time than had been anticipated.

Discussion: Forms not considered in the beginning had to be developed, others revised, some discarded. Even more time consuming: Some students picked up on the concepts and definitions immediately, many others had to have them explained several times. Regrettably, a handful never grasped them, even after lengthy personal sessions.

(2) Understanding of expectations was accelerated once students were provided with a model based on a previously done research design.

Discussion: Late in the semester a well-written research proposal by a student at another university was distributed and this activity alone reduced much of the confusion. Being able to *see* what a finished project looked like was helpful to many.

(3) Almost all students seemed to derive benefit from being required to clearly state problems, objectives, etc., but a few appear cognitively unable to comprehend what is needed become immersed in original research.

Discussion: Because the central thrust of this project was to get students thinking in terms of "what if" relationships, the focus centered on problem solving. As noted earlier, this activity, while helpful to most, can lead to disappointment and frustration for a small percentage.

(4) Videotaped oral presentations were a success.

Discussion: When these were announced at the outset of the semester, the anticipated responses were not favorable. However, after the presentations were completed students were asked "Considering everything, the anxiety, the worry, the extra work....given a choice, would you go through the oral presentation, the questioning, the taping again?" The vote was quick and unanimously positive.

(5) Grading projects became the most difficult aspect of the project.

Discussion: The hard work that went into the proposals was evident by the painstaking care taken by most students in preparing their final papers. Several were so good in fact, the two or three poor submissions were easy to detect because of sloppiness and student uninterest in handling the assignment.

(6) Internet access to information sources greatly enhances student enthusiasm for conducting original research.

Discussion: To a greater extent than expected, students were well-versed in the process of searching the Web to gather data. Indeed, once they gained a sense of confidence that what they wanted to do could be done, many seemed to relish going on line first to see "what is out there." Interestingly, misusage of Internet citations as primary sources was not detected.

Outcomes and Analysis

(Results concerning actual questions used in the questionnaire are available on request).

Interpretation of the responses:

- This model, while novel to some students, was not significantly different than basic research approaches to which many had been exposed in other courses.
- Contrary to what students may have expected at the beginning of the course, this project required more time than previous research endeavors.
- There was near-unanimous consensus that this project demanded more creative thought than assignments in previous courses.
- Though there was some ambivalence, most students felt the project sharpened their appreciation for critical thought and requirement of rigor in the research process.
- Most students now feel as if they grasp the concept of a hypothesis.
- At the beginning of the semester some disparity existed in the number of students who had been given prior instruction on the nature of dependent and independent variables, but by semester's end an overwhelming number felt comfortable with both terms.
- All but five students agreed or strongly agreed that the project made them think more clearly about their research.
- While most students appeared confident enough with their final projects to submit them as proposals for research in future courses, a few did not.
- A majority of students agreed or strongly agreed that the project gave them a greater appreciation for the research expected of their professors.

PORTFOLIO DEVELOPMENT

In fall 1998, Marymount's Criminal Justice/Sociology department will implement an academic portfolio program as a requirement for all majors. The research proposal project discussed above is an example of the sort of information suited for an academic portfolio. Educational research indicates that portfolio-building is consistent with alternative assessment methods that extend beyond academic grading and standardized testing. Definitions, forms and contents vary, but in its simplest form a portfolio is a container of examples of a student's accomplishments and skills.

As a vehicle for ongoing assessment, a portfolio is composed of a purposeful collection to examine achievement, effort, improvement, and processes for selection, evaluation, and goal-setting (Johnson, N.J., & Rose, L.E. 1997).

A portfolio is not a collection of a student's work haphazardly thrown into a folder. Rather, a portfolio is a purposeful, systematic anthology of a student's work over time. Developed correctly and monitored conscientiously, the completed portfolio can be appealing to various audiences, including employers and graduate admissions officers. Moreover, when reviewed and discussed each semester with a faculty advisor, the portfolio - maintained on hard drives and floppy disks, video tapes, and/or in accordion folders - can assist students in setting and prioritizing future educational and professional goals.

Need for Alternative Assessment

- Traditional testing is somewhat limited because it focuses on factual knowledge.
- As society has changes, personnel are tasked with increasingly more complicated and volatile issues; consequently, higher-level thinking and decision-making are required of individuals entering various fields.
- Multiple sources of information - such as data contained in a portfolio - provide clearer evidence of learning achievements.

Benefits of Portfolio Assessment

- Empowers students to accept responsibility for their learning.
- Assists professors/advisors in identifying student strengths/deficiencies.
- Requires routine communication among students, faculty, administrators, and members of the work community where students are employed.
- Is consistent with current research practices and learning in higher education.
- Provides an additional measurement connection between what is taught, what is learned, and what is assessed.
- Facilitates student accountability in acquiring skills, talents, and knowledge necessary to meet the demands of today's world.

Examples of Portfolio Entries

Descriptions of classes, seminars, workshops, conferences attended.

Membership in student/professional organizations.

Awards received.

Samples of student work, i.e., essays, research papers, in-class presentations, collaborative and teamwork accomplishments.

Self-reflections on past academic/professional growth.

Comments and recommendations of faculty advisors.

Future goals - and methods for attaining them.

Portfolio-development can be viewed as a way to give program graduates something concrete - beyond a bachelor's degree and transcript - of evidence of achievements in the academic setting. Because it provides students with an active, meaningful role in assessing their own learning, a well-designed portfolio can boost self-respect and confidence.

By empowering students to develop a sense of commitment - and ownership - of their portfolios, they develop a sense of accountability in the self-evaluation process. The hoped-for result is to encourage students to celebrate growth over time by focusing on strengths and identifying areas they are working to improve (Porter, 1995).

Portfolios, Research Design and the Future: Where Do We Go From Here?

Portfolio-building can be viewed as one way for facilitating action research, particularly if it is seen as a never-ending, cyclical process. By its very nature, the creation and maintenance of a portfolio is a continuous process of challenging the status quo through goal-setting, problem-solving, trying alternative approaches, and evaluating results. Moreover, portfolio assessment sets the stage for others to grow in responsibility and leadership - visionary leadership that challenges professors and students to press for improvement and growth.

In collaborative cultures, collegial support groups can set goals for their own professional improvement and experiment with new approaches in their quest for better ways to learn and instruct. Portfolios provide additional information about students, programs, and policies that is not available through traditional assessments. As portfolio assessments become an integral part of dynamic learning environments where everyone is involved in learning, their purposes will become increasingly obvious and beneficial to the community of learners using them.

Educators and administrators can compile, graph and apply information from them to convey trends and examples of learning of all stakeholders. Indeed, research shows that educators who use portfolios prefer them over traditional standardized tests (Erickson, 1995).

Undoubtedly, the future will encourage more conversation within academia about the diverse nature of portfolios, emerging and disappearing models of social science inquiry, and powerful ways in which futures-related research can bring incongruent visions into harmony. Given the opportunity to study innovative teaching practices and policies in a supportive environment, the university culture remains an appealing vehicle for fostering the intellectual growth of all participants.

REFERENCES

Alexander, G.J. (1986). *Portfolio Analysis.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

Black, T.R. (1993). *Evaluating Social Science Research - An Introduction.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Erickson, H.L. *Stirring the Head, Heart, and Soul: Redefining Curriculum and Instruction.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Gill, K. (ED.). (1993). *Process and Portfolios in Writing Instruction.* Urbanna, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Healey, P. (ED.). (1995). *Managing Cities - The New Urban Context.* New York: Wiley.

Ingraham, P.W. (1994). *New Paradigms for Government.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Johnson, N.J., & Rose, M.R. (1997) *Portfolios - Clarifying, Constructing, and Enhancing.* Lancaster, PA: Technomic Publishing Co.

Markley, O., & McCuan, W. (EDs.) (1996). *America Beyond 2001 - Opposing Viewpoints.* San Diego: Greenhaven Press.

Naisbitt, J., & Aburdene. P. (1990). *Megatrends 2000 - Ten New Directions for the 1990s.* New York: Morrow.

Porter, C.J. (1995). *The Portfolio as a Learning Strategy.* Portsmouth, NH: Boynton- Cook Publishers.

APPENDICES

Comments from Student Questionnaires

I really enjoyed the project because it was different. It gave me the opportunity to be creative as well as understand the problem on a new level with the different variables.

I had a hard time starting my project. I needed to broaden or narrow my topic in the beginning. I was a little unsure in the beginning as to what was a dependent and independent variable. I was thankful that nobody gave up and I finally picked a research topic. Sitting in on your criminology class really helped me narrow what had to be done. It was tough but it helped me see what I was up against in graduate school.

I think the research proposal was just as hard as any other project; it was just shorter.

A prior course demanded a project as the one given. However, the depth, design and involvement with this one was more to my benefit. The project itself was more than worthwhile.

I think this was a great assignment and strongly recommend it. It makes people think about present time issues and its better for a person to do research on current issues rather than the past. Very interesting! I learned a lot on my topic and I pretty much knew it all!

I am still unclear about the expectations of this project. I have been getting source after source but I don't know how to write the paper. I need help.

I thought this was a good idea, but I feel we should have discussed how to go about the project a little more. It seemed easier because I had a research class, but I don't know if I did what you expected. It did turn out to be a good start of research to reinforce my abilities.

The project did take time but once it was complete I had a feeling of accomplishment and I felt good about the whole process. It took time but it was worth it. It made me think in a different way...see things in a different light.

I was uncomfortable with the proposal because it was not explained clearly enough. I thought it was sort of thrown out at the class. I hope the grading will be lenient/easy. A lot of the expectations conflicted with what I was learning in other classes about research.

This project required me to use every bit of knowledge I have acquired from previous psychology classes; I worked hard on it and am proud of myself for trying this hard.

My only problem was finding statistics to go along with the research proposal. I didn't know how to find them.

I liked knowing there were no wrong answers - my research, my ideas.

This was a good experience in preparation for graduate school.

More detail about what you wanted needed to be given. Maybe show examples of past work as an example. You should also ask for rough drafts in advance to make sure the project is going the way you wanted it to go.

It was a different type of paper, but I liked it better than regular research papers. It took about the same amount of time but the proposal flows better.

This project made me become creative and think about my topic closer than before. I was not too happy to present my paper in front of the entire class but it was done.

In the future I would recommend that you explain more clearly and be precise in telling us what you want. It would really help give students a better understanding.

This was a good experience in critiquing and questioning other students on their proposals. It was good to hear what others were working on.

Took more critical thinking skills than the standard trite research papers that you do so often it becomes an automatic "going-through-the-motions" process. No thinking - just paraphrasing.

The proposal was a good project, but what if the topic picked does not work out as anticipated? I know I picked a topic that ended up not being a good one. I could not find information because it was not a relevant topic.

This was a great learning experience!

In reference to question #9 (use of project for another course) - I agree if there would be a sufficient amount of time to conduct the research.

Project Titles

Keeping in mind that students in the separate courses - Social Problems, Deviant Behavior, and Criminology - submitted research proposals, below are a few to illustrate range and potential for further exploration.

Terrorism in the Future
Effect of International Drug Trafficking on Sicilian Drug Crime
"Why is My Little Brother a Criminal?" (Birth Order & Crime)
Affection/Aggression - the Effect of Pets on Prison Inmates

Motives Other Than Money in Influencing White Collar Crime
Sexual Harassment and Academic Standing - Is there a Correlation?
Charades Within the Lives of People of Color
Aggressive Driving and Type A Behavior
Reversing Violence through Subliminal Messaging
White Collar Crime and Aging (Increased criminality and victimization as population grows older)
Second Generation Alcoholism - Effect of Birth Order
Speech Impediments in Bi-Racial Children
Support for Legislation of Medicinal Marijuana (In Families with Terminally Ill Members)
An Answer to Truancy in America's Inner City School System
Peer Mediation and Violence in Schools
Are Immigrants Who Do Not Speak English More Likely to Commit Crime than Those Immigrants Who Do Speak English?
Does Media Violence Kill?
The Relationship between Social Status and Murder
Alcohol and Campus Sexual Deviance

PART TWO: HOW TO TEACH

Chapter 6

THE ADMINISTRATOR AS TEACHER (A PRELIMINARY EXAMINATION OF THE TOPIC)*

Lynton K. Caldwell
Arthur F. Bentley Professor of Political Science Emeritus and Professor of Public and Environmental Affairs, Indiana University

In his book, *Pericles of Athens and the Birth of Democracy* (1991), Donald Kagan addresses the role of the political leader as teacher he writes:

> A democratic leader to be great, must be a teacher. For whatever the nobility of his vision and the excellence of his goals, they cannot be achieved in a free society unless the people truly share and are inspired to accomplish them. . .
>
> Any successful society must be an educational institution. However great its commitment to individual freedom and diversity, it needs a code of civic virtue and a general devotion to the common enterprises without which it cannot flourish to survive.[1]

Although Kagan directs his remarks to political leadership public affairs, they are hardly less pertinent to administrative leadership in public institutions. Public

---

* Note: This paper has drawn upon a presentation made by the author at a conference in Pakistan in 1964 sponsored by the Central Treaty Organization.

[1] Donald Kagan, *Pericles of Athens and the Birth of Democracy*, New York: Free Press, 1991, 151 and 169.

policies are in large measure implemented through public administration. Comprehension of and commitment to ethical standards and responsible action and equally important within and without the public service. To attain these qualitative goals in the complex milieu of public affairs requires collective learning and is the reason that teaching and leading are inseparable. A 1997 panel report by the U.S. National Academy of Public Administration to the Congress emphasized the importance of "building a learning system" within the government -- in this case for the more effective administration of environmental law.

From early historical times in many regimes the induction of public officials into administrative duties and responsibilities was provided through special formal education. Palace schools for prospective administrators were maintained in many countries, comparable in purpose today to administrative staff colleges in England and India and in the École Nationale d' Administration in France. Beyond these institutionalized efforts, and in all organizational systems, a largely "in service" informal process of education, training and indoctrination has always occurred. It is a teaching process, as much by precept and emulation as by formal training. Historically, it has been the principle means for the "teaching" of public administration.

This "teaching" process has developed in different ways in different times and places--in varying degrees of explicitness and in varying degrees of formality. Through this process of tutelage, the style, knowledge, methods and wisdom--(in brief, the ethics) of experienced and matured senior officials have been transmitted to their successors. In virtually all systems of training for the higher offices of government the administrator becomes, in some sense, a teacher.

It would be wrong to suppose that the tutorial role of administrators is confined to the higher levels of governmental hierarchy. Administrators at all levels are in some manner teachers. But at the lower levels of government (or business) the substance of the teaching tends to be technical or procedural: rules and procedures are explained, work habits inculcated or corrected, policies interpreted. Training for management and for the highest executive responsibility takes place at the upper levels of the hierarchy. It is with this high-level tutelage by senior administrators for administrative responsibility that this paper is concerned.

TYPES OF TUTELAGE

Administrative tutelage employs several approaches which also are frequently used in combination. The *first* of these is *informal apprenticeship*. The junior

administrator learns, in the course of association, from the counsel and behavior of one or more senior officials to whom he is in fact "apprenticed." Historically a common formalized approach to administrative teaching has been through an academy or "palace school" in which experienced officials teach and guide the teaching of juniors. A variant of this method has been the administrative staff college in which officials of substantially equal levels of responsibility learn through interpersonal interchange within a group. The participants are both teachers and learners.

Today, however, a much commoner formalized approach to teaching public administration is through *college or university schools of public administration or management*. The great expansion of public services during the twentieth century, and the democratization of government largely account for this development. But his formalized instruction is essentially preparatory and does not replace the function of the senior administrator as an on-the-job teacher. A variant of this approach is the *treatise, or memoirs*, in which a senior administrator recollects his experience and passes on a distillation of his administrative experience to his successors.

APPRENTICESHIP

Apprenticeship, incidental or formalized is surely a pervasive form of administrative tutelage. It occurs whenever or wherever administration occurs. It is inevitable in any administrative situation regardless of the intent or awareness of administrators and their subordinants. By his very actions an administrator "teaches." That he may not be conscious of his teaching role does not make him any the less a teacher - although it may result in his role being played less effectively. It is always possible that the inadvertent "lessons" taught by the administrator may not be those that he intended--may indeed be harmful to himself and to the organization. The administrator cannot escape his role as teacher; it will be played whenever he enters into communication with his associates, subordinates and staff.

There is a wide range of practice in apprenticeship tutelage. The least formal is the incidental and inadvertent schooling that occurs whenever a junior official is brought into continuing association with higher officials. When this informal apprenticeship is recognized as a proving ground for administrative advancement, more system and selective substance may be introduced into the work situation. Thus a considered and specific program of indoctrination and testing may develop beneath a veneer of apparently casual, unstudied informality. Traditionally this

method has perhaps been most clearly described in the preparation of juniors for the higher administrative posts of the British Civil Service.

More structured methods of apprenticeship have been developed where less formal methods could not be relied upon. A major factor influencing the formality of methods is the degree of social and political heterogeneity in the field of administrative recruitment. The exceptionally homogenous Oxford-Cambridge, upper and upper middle-class origin of the traditional British higher civil service, insured a relative uniformity of values, assumptions, concepts and understandings that could not be found in the more heterogeneous origins of the higher pubic officials of the United States, Canada or Australia. Where formal education and life experience have, in effect, been preparation for senior administrative careers, the burden of training in government has, in some measure, been shifted to other shoulders: the family, the university, the social class. Where, for many reason, early life does not adequately prepare for the type of administrative responsibility which characterizes the governmental service, then government must somehow find a way to make up the deficiency.

One of the most common methods of relieving government from the formal schooling of its administrators is through pre-service education closely related to defined needs of the public service. The completion of a specific regimen of pre-service education thus becomes an avenue (perhaps the only avenue) of entry into the public service. The classic example was the Mandarin system of traditional China; but education in the law faculties of continental Europe and the liberal university education of the British administrative class represented comparable if less rigid preparations for public careers.

This liaison between pre-service education and university careers reduced but did not remove the responsibility of the senior official for the tutelage of his junior subordinants. Pre-service education was in the hands of scholars and professional educators. They could in some degree prepare the prospective administrator for his career, but could not induct him into the environment of administration nor reveal to him the mysteries and accumulated institutional wisdom of the high offices of government. And with the growth in size and complexity of government and the democratization and diversification of society, the need for an intermediate stage between preparatory education and administrative practice became apparent.

The most simple stage of formalized induction training has been the cadetship or internship. The usually distinguishing feature of this type of tutelage is a probationary appointment to the public service in which planned work experience and an orienting educational program are combined. The work experience and sometimes also the orientation courses are characteristically under the direction of

senior officials. The formal course of instruction may be organized by professional training officers or universities, but it almost always involves some personal participation by senior officials.

SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS

From the more elaborate internship programs, it is a short step to the second general method of administrative tutelage: the public service academy. Here government creates its own institutions of preparatory education and may make them the exclusive avenues of entry into all or part of the higher public service. Recourse to government academies or "palace schools" has often been necessitated by the absence or the political unreliability of secondary schools and universities. Establishment of administrative and technical academies has also been occasioned by special historical circumstances, as in the case of the Grandes Écoles in 19th Century France. The École National d' Administration was not established until after World War II when general reform of public administration became an issue.

The character and needs of some organizations are so specialized that no facility outside the organization could be relied upon for the preparatory training and induction of its higher administrative personnel. Two widely contrasting cases illustrate this type of circumstance.

The fears and obsessions of the Ottoman Turks concerning the exclusiveness and security of their dynasty resulted in their distinctive system of government by slave administrators. Tribute in the form of youths were levied upon the Christian population of the Ottoman Empire. From the more promising of the boys, elite corps of civil and military officers were selected and trained in a special school attached to the Sultan's palace in Constantinople (now Istanbul). Here under the watchful eyes of senior officials were developed the corps of slave administrators whom the Sultans trusted with the highest posts in the Empire, but whose very lives rested upon the Sultan's word. Only a palace school under the direct supervision of the official establishment could be relied upon to produce so extraordinary an administrative corps.

Very different, but equally specialized in its own way, is the development of the professional administrative and diplomatic corps of the Roman Catholic Church. This tutelage is formalized in the Vatican Pontifical Ecclesiastical Academy where in the words of a perspective observer:

> Promising young men in Holy Orders are brought from all over the world and trained at a special college, the Pontifical Ecclesiastical Academy. They are taught to speak several languages and, more importantly, to keep their heads in all of them. They are studied as closely as athletes in training. At the end of their course, their headmaster (who is called the Rector) has the task of summing them up in one Latin sentence. That goes down in their dossier, and it will be read and pondered at every stage of their career. It is the most fateful graduation diploma on earth.

But the great contemporary increase in special schools, academies and programs for administrative training and development is the consequence of much less specialized circumstances. The very general condition that has brought forth this administrative training is the need for a rapid increase not only in the numbers of competent administrators, but for administrators capable of dealing with the problems of large, complex and rapidly changing organizations. One manifestation of this need can be seen in the formalized executive development programs of large business firms or in special comparable programs offered in the universities for government or business administrators. Academic education for management in government or business has undergone innovative change during recent decades. It is now common for public and business administrators to teach or lecture in academic institutions.

The administrative staff college represents a highly developed and stylized form of tutelage. The contemporary staff college has been strongly influenced by patterns of training developed in the military services in Western countries. More particularly a world-wide staff college movement has followed the pattern of the Civil Service College, formally the Administrative Staff College established by Sir Noel Hall at Henley-on-Thames. Staff colleges corresponding in many respects to Henley have been established in Australia, India and Pakistan, and the influence of Henley has been strongly marked on many other institutes or academies of public or business administration.

A distinguishing feature of the staff college is the development of the administrator through interaction with a peer group. In a sense participants in staff-college training teach one another through common group tasks and informal discussion. The substance of the staff college curriculum is drawn from actual administrative experience, and senior officials from government or business are frequently employed as lecturers and consultants.

The most common type of administrative academy however is the advanced school or institute of administration. In some countries, notably in the United States, distinctions between business and public administration have diminished,

although the two are seldom joined in a single institution. But it is in the administration of government, and chiefly in countries where distinctions between government and business are less apparent, that the government academy for general administrative training--including training for the state-owned business enterprises --is most in evidence. These institutes or schools of administration are predominantly concerned with public administration, for the obvious reasons that government is the largest employer of administrative talent. In the so-called less developed countries of Eastern Europe, Asia, Africa and Latin America, government is overwhelmingly the planning and directing agency in the economy so that the welfare of the entire nation is exceptionally dependent upon the development of its senior administrative corps.

For the most part these training institutions have been established within the official structure of government, often located in the office of the prime minister or associated with a central personnel or planning agency. The direction of these institutions is characteristically in the hands of senior officials rather than professional educators or academicians. A common reason for the official and bureaucratic character of these agencies is that political instability in the country and the infiltration of anti-government movements among university faculties and students has made governments unwilling to rely upon the universities for the training of government personnel. Moreover, the traditional attitudes, organization and instructional methods in many of the universities are not congenial to training for high level administrative posts. Few universities have had any special competence for this function, and where they have undertaken to provide it, the establishment of special institutes of faculties within the university has usually been necessary and advisors and lecturers have been extensively drawn from the departments of government.

THE TREATISE

A third method of administrative tutelage, the treatise or memoir, has given rise to an extensive literature. Characteristically these writings are distillations of experience recollected, of practical wisdom and of worldly morality. But some of the most noble concepts of government and of administrative ethics have been propounded in the course of this teaching. No better illustration can be found than in the Edicts of King Asoka who more than two thousand years ago epitomized the role of the administrator as teacher in the following inscription: “My officials of all ranks -- high, low and intermediate act in accordance with the precepts of

my instruction, and by their example and influence they are able to recall fickle-minded people to their duty."

Examples of the treatise on administrative wisdom can be cited from nearly every great historical culture and governmental system. From Iran we have *The Book of Government or Rules for Kings* written between 1086 and 1091 by the Visier Nizam al Mulk, friend of the poet Omar Khayyam. From Turkey there is *The Book of Counsel for Vezirs and Governors* written about 1725 by Gasi Mohmed Pasha, the Defterdar (Treasurer). From seventeenth century France the *Political Testiment* of Cardinal Richelieu. An extended list could be compiled.

With the coming of the nineteenth century and the growth of scientific methodology and democracy, this literature of administrative statecraft ceased to be renewed. How is this coincidence explained? A late addition to the literature, Henry Taylor's *The Statesman,* suggests in its subtitle, "An Ironical Treatise on the Art of Succeeding," the turn of attitude that replaced the serious and lofty tenor of the older tracts. Government was becoming less a mystery; its administration less the closely held secret of a chosen few. The American and French revolutions had robbed the state of its sacerdotal character. Administration was ceasing to enjoy the sanction of divinely constituted authority. The voice of a people whose frailties were all too evident was hardly a substitute for the voice of an unknowable and omnipotent God. A new basis for administrative morality, or perhaps a new and more profound interpretation of older values, would be needed before writings in harmony with the traditional literature of statecraft would again appear.

THE GREAT TRADITION

The role of the administrator -- his responsibilities, his relations with superiors, subordinates and peers, his methods and morality have always been cast in the larger mold of the ethics of statecraft. It is from this larger context that the prudence and the procedures, the loyalties and obligations of administration derive their meaning. It is against this larger backdrop of philosophies and religious values that the behavior of governors and administrators is judged, often in their own times and always by history.

In the absence of a pervasive system of ethics as a frame of reference, administrative wisdom cannot easily transcend a level of self-interested calculation and cunning. Administrative behavior has often failed to conform in act or spirit to the great precepts, but the administrator could find guidance and

support in the moral principles they enunciated, though he might bend at times in subservience to the threat of force or yield to the importunities of self-interest.

Efforts to bring the administration of government under the guidance of a transcendent ethical system has seldom been consciously attempted in the present era. A notable effort has been that of the Pakistani scholar Muhammad Asad whose treatise entitled *The Principles of State and Government in Islam* develops a modern concept of a political order based upon divine law as revealed in the ordinances of the Koran and exemplified in the teachings of the Prophet Muhammad.

Throughout the Western world there appears to be widespread and tacit assumption that the Judeo-Christian body of religious tradition and the political concepts derived from Classical Antiquity provide an adequate ethical foundation for the administration of government. Nevertheless a continuing concern with problems of administrative ethics in Western countries suggests that the force of the ethical tradition is not sufficiently clear or compelling to provide firm guidance for administrative behavior. The expanding sphere of government and its ever growing complexity makes the application of ethical concepts to practical situations more difficult and at the same time, more important.

It is not that the primary business of administration is the moral regeneration of society. But the technical and professional tasks of administration are performed by, with and because of *people*. Administration is inherently a process of human interaction. Whatever principles guide the conduct of human relations also guide the conduct of administration. It is very difficult to maintain a quality and integrity of administrative behavior that is widely at variance from the norms of conduct prevailing throughout society. And yet the processes of administration involve so much of modern life that growth or decay of administrative ethics exerts a corresponding influence upon society-at-large which turns back again to affect the quality of administration.

The contemporary scientific methodologies of management are not well equipped to deal with these ultimate questions which have therefore been accorded only a very minor place in modern management training. A consequence of this condition has been an ambiguity in the contemporary administrator's role as teacher. Contemporary administrative theory offers no remedy for this ambiguity. In brief, modern industrial society has not provided administrators with a model strong enough to support the weight of moral responsibility inherent in the vast and ramifying power of modern public administration. Much that was crucial in the historical tradition of administrative tutelage eludes the grasp of present-day administrators. The elusive elements are suggested by the words *character*, *integrity*, *catholicity*, *magnanimity* -- words hard to build into job

descriptions -- qualities difficult to identify through quantifying personnel examinations. Science may increase greatly the *possibilities* for effective and humane administration, but it is not yet discovered how to enlarge those qualities of statesmanship that for more than two-and-a-half millennia have been held to be the essence of the highest and best in administrative behavior.

And so in our search for ways to improve the administration of government let us not forget the great tradition of the administrator as teacher -- the explifier of the values and principles upon which the harmonious functioning of society depends We have not wholly abandoned the tradition, but we have neglected it -- perhaps because we have not known how to deal with it in terms meaningful for our times. May it not be useful, in addition to the continuing application of science to administrative methods, to seek new ways to understand, to refine and to apply in the making of administrators those intangible qualities of mind and behavior that have ever distinguished the highest exercise of the administrative art.

Chapter 7

READING CASE STUDIES VS. WRITING THEM: HOW TO ENGAGE PRACTITIONER STUDENTS?

Mohamad G. Alkadry
School of Public Administration
Florida Atlantic University -
Ft Lauderdale Campus
220 S. E. 2nd Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, FL 33301
Telephone: (561) 852-2396
Fax: (561) 483-3463
e-mail: malk4062@.fau.edu

&

Hugh T. Miller
School of Public Administration
Florida Atlantic University -
North Palm Beach Campus
3970 RCA Boulevard, Suite 7000
Palm Beach Gardens, Florida 33410
Telephone: (561) 691-8551
Fax: (561) 691-8535
e-mail: hmiller@fau.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper describes a capstone case-studies graduate course that took place at Florida Atlantic University in the spring of 1997. We argue that students' work experiences and the academic world of public administration are brought closer when students are asked to write their own case studies or stories. The proposed pedagogical approach to teaching graduate public administration case studies has the potential of linking administrative history, which students have already covered in their program, with concrete situations, which students have also already encountered in their work places. The collection of stories, written by the practitioner students, was then published as *These Things Happen: Stories from the Public Sector* by

Chatelaine Press, 1998. The authors present the course syllabus and format, discuss the population characteristics, and present the advantages and challenges of their approach to designing and teaching a case studies course. One of the advantages is the potential for students to situate themselves within different theoretical concepts and even to develop new concepts when the available theories do not suffice. Other advantages include the abundance of contextual information when stories or case studies are being presented by practitioner-students and the intellectually challenging requirement of choosing worthwhile experiences and situations by students to share with their colleagues in the classroom.

The pedagogical tool described in this paper involves the use of story writing and telling as tools to actively engage students in a graduate seminar. After finishing most of their MPA courses at Florida Atlantic University, students enroll in a Case Studies class that aims to combine administrative history with analysis of concrete situations in public administration. In Spring 1997, a better of doing this was to ask these students to write their own stories. Directions for writing the stories were simple: just write actual stories of events that took place in the public sector while you were employed.

Traditionally, this Case Studies capstone class would involve the assignment of some pre-written cases to students. It would also involve the analysis of different scenarios using existing theories. What is alarming in these approaches is the dissociated nature of the cases and their analyses.

The intellectual contribution of story telling differs significantly from the usual aspiration, which is to make a deposit in the ever-expanding vault of knowledge. Prior to developing that point, we present the course syllabus, its organization and format. Then, we discuss the advantages of story telling in a course of this nature. The third section deals with the disadvantages of this approach. Finally, the paper deals with the practicality of story telling as an epistemic tool.

Storytelling is distinguished from case studies in that stories are not formulaic exercises, event-listing, nor analytical reduction. Stories have tellers and intended audiences (Narayan, 1991; Witherell, 1991). In this particular course, the tellers were public administrators themselves. The stories told are accounts of events that these public administrators have encountered in their day-to-day public sector careers. The local audience is the seminar's participants. The general and wider audience is students who will have access to these stories through the book in which they were collected. Thirty-six of these stories were subsequently published

in a book entitled: *These Things Happen: Stories From the Public Sector* edited by Hugh T. Miller and Mohamad G. Alkadry (1998).

COURSE DESCRIPTION AND ORGANIZATION

The course is entitled "Case Studies in Public Administration" and was offered in the Spring term of 1997 at Florida Atlantic University's (FAU) North Palm Beach (NPB) Campus. According to FAU's 1997-1999 graduate catalog, the course is a capstone seminar that:

> combines administrative history with analysis of concrete situations in public administration. [It] portrays clash of forces, personalities, and issues in attempting solution of administrative problems (p. 223).

Although the graduate catalog recommends that this course be taken during the last or next to last semester, students in the middle of their program of study tend to register in this course as well.

In the spring of 1997, there were twelve students registered in this seminar class. Ten of these students held different positions in the public sector ranging from city department heads to field social workers. One student was employed in a retail establishment in the private sector while another student was a Ph.D. student and a veteran of the public sector.

The main reference textbook assigned in this class was Richard Stillman's (1996) *Public Administration: Concepts and cases, 6th edition*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. The course description states the main objective of the course:

> In this course we will focus on cases in public policy and management. While there are case studies written by others that might serve our purpose, more valuable are the cases that we ourselves have actually experienced. Making sense of our experience is what practical knowledge is all about.
>
> …For purposes of this course, we can think of a "case study" as fully appreciating a policy/management situation.

Students had to submit a total of thirteen stories each, or one per week, and a final term paper. The 2-3 page stories accounted for 65% of students' final grades while the final term paper accounted for 35%. The two components of the course

were not necessarily exclusive of one another. The course syllabus indeed recommends that students relate both components through writing portions of the final paper while writing the stories. The course syllabus states that:

> the final paper should integrate the case reports at a higher level of abstraction, providing a critique of the work practices discussed in the case reports or stories.

The final paper was expected to reflect on "making coherent sense of my work experience." The discussion is focused through weekly subject areas which were flexible enough to allow student innovation and restrictive just enough to prevent students from derailing the focus of the class from the subject of the day. The twelve subject areas are: organizational chart, outside the organizational boundaries, knowing when to break the rules, decision making, organizational communications, personnel, budgeting, management improvement, policy implementation, policy networks, downsizing, and moral dilemmas. In order to make these stories available to non-experienced students, 36 of these stories were collected in a book entitled *These Things Happen: Stories from the Public Sector*.

ADVANTAGES OF STORY TELLING

The advantages of story telling are numerous, both from a writer's standpoint and from a listener's standpoint. The advantage from a writer standpoint is being able to situate one's own actions free of the arrogance of abstraction. The second advantage is the abundance of context when practitioner-students present their stories. Stories have flesh and blood that is their tellers'. A third advantage is the intellectually challenging nature of the exercise. Selecting those experiences that are worthwhile sharing involves much intellectual analysis. From a listener standpoint, situating the story into any context and extracting meaning from stories are the biggest advantages. To the extent that elements of stories are "typical," "emblematic," "quintessential," "resonant," or merely believable, they project meaning beyond the immediate context of the story.

While Weber and other rationalists described a bureaucracy that is impersonal and rational, the stories describe a bureaucracy that is very personal. Weber described the administrators who are constrained by rules and regulations while the stories talk about administrators whose allegiances are to other ideals. Scripts were not pre-written by Weber. Some episodes follow the rules and hierarchical authority, some follow professional codes, some follow some sense of public

duty, and of all things, some are willing to go beyond the call of duty to follow some inner sense of humanness in them.

One of the important contributions of these stories to the education of students in public administration is a better student understanding and comprehension of the sense of humanness in the bureaucracy, or awareness that it sometimes goes underground. Public administrators are human. They behave as such within organizations. Hearing stories about their humanness almost brings the bureaucracy a bit closer to students and other listeners. Tellers narrate of administrators who are inflexible, impersonal, and rational wannabes. Such behavior comes across to listeners as absurd and inhuman. The reaction to stories of such administrators is different from that to theories of rational administrators who ought to ideally be impersonal and mechanistic rational. In other words, theorized rationality does not sound as absurd as that which is practiced. Students are rarely shocked by Weber's ideal type when discussed as a theory, but when their own experiences confront it, the impact can feel shocking.

Humanness of the story is not only inherent in its content, but rather in the process of storytelling itself. The mere fact that the stories are those of their tellers and not another dissociated third party whose sole interest is in presenting a certain sequence of events to be analyzed by students. "Whether writer or teller, the narrator of a story provides further meaning – and even further text – to the story being told. The narrator too has a story, one that is embedded in his or her culture, language, gender, beliefs, and life history. This embeddedness lies at the core of the teaching-learning experience" (Witherhell and Noddings, p. 3).

The listener also has much to benefit from listening to narratives or stories from the public sector. "Through telling, writing, reading, and listening to life stories – one's own and others' – those engaged in this work can penetrate cultural barriers, discover the power of the self and the integrity of the other, and deepen their understanding of their respective histories and possibilities" (Witherhell and Noddings; p. 3-4). How can the listener benefit? The opportunity to practice public administration in the classroom is one of the greatest benefits to those who listen to these stories. This opportunity is provided by providing students with stories of events that took place in the public sector and which they may encounter in their future public sector careers. That these events have taken place is something that we are sure of. But whether they are boring iterations of "how we do things were I work" or emblematic metaphors for some larger truth depends in the story and its telling.

The use of stories in public administration could be easily compared to flight training. Pilot trainees receive tremendous amounts of classroom training before they get behind the wheel of a flight simulator. They learn physics, mathematics,

geography and many theories that relate to the dynamics of flying a plane. Then, pilot trainees move on to learn the basics of flying. After that, they move on to flight training in a simulator - normally housed in a warehouse in the training institution.

In a simulator, students react to simulations of emblematic crises that other people have encountered or nearly encountered in the past. They learn both how to fly and how to deal with potential problems that they encounter. Crashing in a simulated exercise causes literally no human or material damage while at the same time it enhances pilots' skills and ability to react to different situations. After simulator training is over and students start training on actual jets, pilots constantly engage in post-flight analyses, which helps them make sense of what went on during flights that face trouble.

Similarly, public administration stories can act as simulator exercises for experienced as well as inexperienced students. For those who are experienced, they get to tell some stories. Through telling these stories, public administration practitioners ultimately, and perhaps subconsciously elect the events that they deem important and worth hearing. Otherwise, story telling could turn into a banal, self-indulgent exercise. They report events as they see them and they report what they think is integral to the coherence of the story. Through doing this, narrators are involved in a form of a post-flight analysis. Just like pilots rethink the events that took place during normal flight, public administrators are rethinking the events that took place through narrating them. Experienced students who listen to these stories also engage in a post-flight analysis through the discussion that takes place after a story is told.

Public administration stories also act as the inventory of scenarios that flying simulators are programmed to present pilot trainees with. Inexperienced students can read these stories and get a brief glimpse of the nature of day-to-day operation of the pubic sector. Not all the stories have the same meaning. Nor do they all have the same issues. The stories are situational and contingent, and what occurs in one story is different from what happens in another. That compromises the ability of these stories to lead to grand claims and theories on what goes on in the public sector.

DISADVANTAGES OF STORY-TELLING IN THE CLASSROOM

While the advantages of story telling potentially exceed its disadvantages, this pedagogical approach entails one minor disadvantage that is worth noting. This

disadvantage relates to the disadvantaged position of non-practitioner students in stories of story telling or writing.

Although public administration graduate programs are mostly populated with students who have some public service experience, some students lack that experience. One has to remember that experience translates into stories and for students to be able to write and tell their own stories about the public sector, they need to have some experience in the public sector. That was the case with one student in this class. Since classes are relatively smaller than undergraduate classes, the instructor may have a greater opportunity to accommodate students who lack the public sector experience with alternative assignments than writing stories.

The above disadvantage is the exact reason why writing stories is not for everyone. It is for those students who have stories to tell. These are mostly the experienced practitioner students in MPA programs. At the undergraduate level, students are less likely to have public sector experience and asking them to write thirteen stories per student per term might exceed their capabilities. However, undergraduate students could benefit from public sector stories without having to write them. These stories could bring students a step closer to the diverse nature of the organizations that they will staff in the future. They will be listeners to stories already written by the associated, as compared to the dissociated, practitioners. They will access to stories that have not been manufactured to produce one conclusion. All these stories have meanings and the clearer the meaning of a story is, the less it will produce conformity. The stories do not impose on listeners a certain conclusion.

It is up to the instructor to give his or her students enough instructions so as to get them to write the stories that they feel are worth telling. It is however imperative that the instructor does not restrict students' ability to communicate meaning by issuing strict direction on what should be in a story and what should not be.

KNOWLEDGE BUILDING AND STORIES

One can take one of many approaches when it comes to selecting the epistemic contribution of story telling and writing to the field of public administration.

Bruner (1985) discusses two ways of knowing: paradigmatic and narrative. The paradigmatic is logico scientific and ultimately results in the production of "good theory, tight analysis, logical proof, and empirical analysis" (p. 98). On the

other hand, the narrative way of knowing leads to "good stories, gripping drama, believable historical accounts. It deals in human or human-like intention and action and the vicissitudes and consequences that mark their course" (p. 98). While Bruner does not elaborate on which way of knowing is more needed, he seems to argue that both are equally needed in most fields. Hummel (1994), on the other hand, takes this discussion a step further to argue that while scientists need the paradigmatic form, managers can benefit more from the narrative form of knowing.

Hummel argues that managers have different needs than do scientists or "paradigm-setting scientists" (p. 236), as he refers to them. He argues that managers often settle for intersubjectivity instead of an "all-pervasive objectivity." Hummel (1994) argues that:

> Managers' needs also differ from those of paradigm-setting scientists. Managers question the need for all-pervasive objectivity; to them a reality is constituted not by consensus of all imaginable detached observers but by the present community of those involved in a problem who must be brought along to constitute a solution (p. 236).

In an article entitled: "Stories managers tell: why are they as valid as science?" Ralph Hummel (1994) argues that story telling is yet another form for producing and accumulating knowledge. Basically he alleges that stories to managers are just like experiments to scientists: They are valid as science.

Hummel is not the only academic who has invited a larger role for stories as a knowledge building tool. Dwight Conquergood (1993) also argues that narrative is a way of knowing - " a search for meaning, that privileges experience, process, action, and peril" (p. 337). Stories according to him are not stored knowledges but rather enacted, "reconfigured, tested, and engaged by imaginative summonings and interpretive replays of past events in the light of present situations and struggles" (p. 337).

In the introduction to *These Things Happened: Stories from the Public Sector*, Miller and Alkadry (1998) make no attempts to extrapolate some grand scientific observations from collecting these stories. The editors claim that these stories communicate meaning but make no claims on their validity as science. They add in their introduction to *These Things Happen: Stories from the Public Sector*:

> We learn something about the practice of public administration in these stories. We learn something that cannot be reduced to a formula or table of rows and columns, or even a hypothetical proposition. Stories are not that arrogant. They claim only that these things happened.

The editors, citing Yin (1994), are cautious of falling into the trap of making claims that are "doomed to second class status as research methodology." Such would be any attempt to make generalizations or extrapolations and subsequently grand claims. Our hesitance in denying story-telling first class status among ways of knowing has little to do with a fear that stories are "situated knowledges" (Haraway, 1991), or that story tellers are exposed and vulnerable because of that situatedness (Conquergood, 1993). Neither do we have any problems with performative literature. Our hesitance rather stems from our skepticism towards any attempt to extrapolate from isolated situations to big generalizations and potentially grand narratives.

CONCLUSION

Whether students are writing them or reading them, these stories have much to contribute to the students' understanding of what goes on in the public sector. What they contribute to might be a mere diversion from grand narratives and claims that there is a rational public sector that is governed by rules and regulations and where decisions are "produced," as Stone (1997) claims. Unlike priests, parents, and sometimes teachers, the storytellers in this class did not intend to sell products, titillate the senses, or provide cheap emotional thrills. Rather, these stories "are about the free exchange of experience."

We conclude this paper with the same words of the last two paragraphs of the introduction to *These Things Happened: Stories from the Public Sector*:

> But whose role is it to tell stories? Well, it is for all of us -- that is, all of us wise, daring provocateurs willing to talk about things that happened. This story telling may be the needed antidote to the rule-driven rationality of modern public administration.

REFERENCES

Bruner, J. (1985) Narrative and paradigmatic modes of thought. In Elliot Eisner (ed.). *Learning and teaching the Ways of Knowing.* pp. 97-115. Chicago, IL: National Society for the Study of Education.

Conquergood, D. (1993). Storied worlds and the work of teaching. *Communication Education, 42*. Pp. 337-348.

Haraway, D. (1991). Situated Knowledges. In *Simiams, Cyborgs, and Women: The Reinvention of Nature.* pp. 183-201. New York, NY: Routledge.

Hummel, R. P. (1994). Stories managers tell: why they are as valid as science? In White, J. D. and Adams, Guy B. (eds.) *Research in Public Administration: Reflections on Theory and Practice*. Pp. 225-245. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miller, H. T. and Alkadry, M. G. (1998). *These Things Happen: Stories from the Public Sector*. Burke, VA: Chatelaine Press.

Narayan, K. (1991). "According to their feelings:" teaching and healing with stories. In Witherell, C. and Noddings, N. (eds.) pp. 113-135. New York, NY: Teachers College of Columbia University.

Witherell, C. (1991). The self in narrative: a journey into paradox. In Witherell, C. and Noddings, N. (eds.) pp. 83-95. New York, NY: Teachers College of Columbia University.

Witherell, C. and Noddings, N. (1991). Prologue: An Invitation to Our Readers. In Witherell, C. and Noddings, N. (eds.) pp. 1-12. New York, NY: Teachers College of Columbia University.

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods,* Second Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Chapter 8

THE PLEASURES AND PERILS OF "TEAM" TEACHING

Pamela T. Brannon
Visiting Assistant Professor
Florida Atlantic University, 3970 RCA Blvd., Suite 7000
Palm Beach Gardens, FL 33410
(561) 691-8550, 691-8502 (Fax), pbrannon@fau.edu

INTRODUCTION

The North Palm Beach Campus of Florida Atlantic University, in Palm Beach County, Florida, has a unique situation regarding two of its faculty members: we are married, and teach graduate courses in the same department. I am a Visiting Assistant Professor in the School of Public Administration, and my husband, Dave Brannon, is an Adjunct in the School of Public Administration and the Department of Criminal Justice. These departments are located in the College of Urban and Public Affairs. Although we do not share classes, we do have students in common, and have garnered some interesting stories and information during the seven years we have been "team" teaching.

This paper will present our experiences. Specifically, it will discuss teaching techniques, grading methods, student counseling activities, reactions from students and faculty, and using each other as resources. It also provides a singular vantage point on the difference between regular faculty and adjuncts, and one adjunct's particular experience in this venue.

BACKGROUND

I am considered a "pracademic", with a Ph.D. in Public Administration and years of community experience in South Florida as an administrator in the area of elderly services. This is my third year as a Visiting Professor; I also have seven years college teaching experience as part of my Ph.D. program, and afterward as an adjunct.

Dave has been a Federal Public Defender for the Southern District of Florida for over twelve years, with a J.D. for eighteen years. This is his seventh year as an adjunct.

I teach in the Bachelor of Public Management (BPM) and the Master of Public Administration (MPA) programs; Dave teaches in the MPA and Master of Justice Policy (MJP) programs. My graduate courses are Public Personnel Management, Organizational and Administrative Behavior, and Public Administration and Public Policy. All of these are core MPA courses. Dave's courses are Administrative Law, a core MPA course, Labor Relations in the Public Sector, an elective MPA course, and Courts Policy and Administration, a core MJP course.

Occasionally our schedules coincide and we both teach on the same evening of the semester.

TEACHING TECHNIQUES

My classes are conducted more informally than Dave's. The most noticeable difference is that Dave addresses his students as "Mr." and "Ms.", and I address them by their first names.

The formality of the class settings are also a factor of the subject matter. For example, cases are reviewed and presented in Administrative Law and Labor Relations, and this tends to present a more structured environment in the sense there are six to ten short student presentations of cases per night with lecture and discussion interspersed.

I also tend to be more accommodating to the students: I spend time with them, both in person and on the phone or through e-mail, discussing assignments, exams and papers. Dave tends to be "tougher" on the students, and does not put engage in as much "hand holding" as I do.

We propose three possible explanations for this difference in styles. First, the type of positions we hold define the accessibility we have to our students. I am a full-time faculty member, and therefore have set office hours as part of my assignment. I

am also on campus more than just the scheduled hours to see students, and thus am more available. Dave, as an adjunct, has a demanding full-time job off campus, and thus has a limited amount of time to devote to the class.

Second, this may be a gender difference between male and female college professors, although we have not formally explored this explanation.

Third, this may be a reflection of general educational preparation and work experience. I come from a social service and service delivery background, and my M. S. degree is in human resources. Dave comes from a criminal justice background with a degree from law school, an institution generally not known to be a nurturing educational environment.

We are similar in that we expect students to actively participate in the classroom, and we combine discussion periods with lectures. We also encourage students to use their work experiences to help them learn and apply the theoretical concepts we teach in class.

GRADING METHODS

Both of us follow the same general grading approach, with a mixture of points for class participation, papers and exams. My lengthier teaching experience has enabled me to assist Dave in this area. For example, my syllabi serve as models for his.

Although both of us require our students to follow the American Psychological Association style for their papers, Dave has tended to be less demanding with respect to that format. Not only do the students appreciate this, it has also been fortunate for him in that our students usually take one of my classes before his, and they are therefore already well versed in the correct style. His greater tolerance in this area also seems to counterbalance his lesser amount of personal contact with the students. This appears to be the only significant difference in our approach to grading students.

STUDENT COUNSELING ACTIVITIES

As part of my responsibilities as Visiting Professor, I have been the Student Advisor for the School of Public Administration on the North Palm Beach campus. In that capacity I meet with current and prospective students and advise them on programs, requirements, admission procedures, etc. I also counsel students who need help in my classes. Additionally, I am involved in developing academic programs

and recruiting activities for the Northern campuses and the School of Public Administration.

As mentioned above, I have tended to spend more time with my students than Dave. I work with them on meeting class objectives, and have also provided them an outlet for discussing jobs, families, etc.

Dave, as is apparently typical for most adjuncts, is not really involved in academic guidance. He will send students to me or their appropriate departments for advisement. He has given some career guidance to some of his students. However, as is apparently typical for most lawyers, he is often solicited for free legal advice.

REACTIONS FROM STUDENTS AND FACULTY

North Palm Beach staff refer to us as "The Brannons" during the semesters we both teach. One dean even commented that "Brannon" was the most numerous name on the schedule except for "TBA". This has at times created some confusion to the students as they are unsure which Brannon will be teaching what class.

Faculty have generally found the pairing very interesting. Dave's attendance at faculty social functions as the spouse of a full-time faculty member has given him much greater contact with regular faculty than an adjunct usually has. This has allowed him to be involved in wide-ranging discussions in a variety of fields, both academic and practical.

This opportunity for more extended discussion in a social atmosphere has enabled all parties to develop a greater appreciation for different perspectives and experiences. For example, Dave has become aware of a variety of statistical techniques and approaches that are useful in the practice of law. Also, a theoretical textbook on sentencing guidelines, which he used for his criminal justice class, has been very helpful with regard to analyzing federal guidelines and conducting arguments in court.

Another result of this extended contact is that Dave has been asked to conduct directed independent studies with students, either with a regular faculty member or on his own. It has also illustrated to the faculty the potential value of adjuncts, with the appropriate academic training and experience, for dissertation committee membership.

Dave's legal experience in the criminal justice field has enabled him to become a member of a dissertation committee where the candidate is researching drug courts. This experience brings a practical perspective in the evaluation and analysis of the actual workings of the system. To give just one example, lay people often do not view the probation officer as an active actor in drug court because the probation

officer is not an active speaker in the courtroom. However, practical experience informs that almost everything the prosecutor says comes directly from the probation officer. Thus, from the defendant's point of view, getting the probation officer on your side is a much more important factor than having the prosecutor on your side. This type of practical knowledge, based on career experience, is what an adjunct can bring to a committee, and what an academic normally acquires only after painstaking analysis.

The university has benefited from this unique situation. Dave has been able to serve as a resource for guest speakers from the legal community, and he has helped to recruit adjuncts for other campuses. Also, I was able to persuade him to teach a Saturday course, which he has always refused to do, due to his court calendar and case load at his "regular" job. The Saturday course will be held on the most northern campus of FAU, where the School of Public Administration is just beginning to offer a new program.

Dave has also benefited from this situation. As mentioned above, he has gotten to know and develop relationships with full-time faculty. He shares a mailbox with me, and thus has a benefit that many adjuncts do not have - a place on campus where mail can be sent. He is able to find out information about symposia, books, and the entire spectrum of academic and university life to which most adjuncts do not have access. He receives the latest faculty decisions on policies, schedules, etc., unlike other adjuncts.

It has been fun to have students in common, and occasionally they will share their feelings with us as to their experience with a married couple as professors in their program. One example, as mentioned above, is that some of them worry about taking my classes due to my insistence on their learning APA style. Generally we each receive favorable feedback about the other from our students.

Although this informal feedback is nice, we are planning a formal follow-up survey of the students we have had in common to ask them basically what the experience was like having both Brannons as professors. The result of that research will be presented separately at a later date.

USING EACH OTHER AS RESOURCES

Both of us have greatly benefited from each other's knowledge and experience. The last couple of years I have been reading in the field of adult education and curriculum development (Brookfield, 1990; Cranton, 1989; Merriam & Caffarella, 1991), and have shared this information with Dave. Specifically, we have both expanded our syllabi to include sections on classroom courtesy and standards.

Information from my daily contact with colleagues and involvement with campus activities is also shared with Dave. Examples include the faculty union newsletters, and university announcements which are distributed through e-mail.

We also share research from our own fields with each other. Dave shares legal materials such as Supreme Court cases he reviews for his work that are relevant to my classes. This enables me to remain current with federal legislation and public policies. I share articles from sources such as the *Public Administration Review* which allow him to keep up with the most current concerns relative to the field of public administration.

Additionally, we have been able to work together on articles and on a chapter of a book. Our relationship impacts the research and writing process by enabling us to continue, for better or worse, from day until night until the project is completed. It also makes it impossible to dodge your writing partner.

Dave also has been a guest lecturer for my classes and for those of other faculty members. One semester, both a graduate class in criminal justice and an undergraduate class in public policy were combined one evening for his lecture on business crime and ethics.

We can also cover each other's classes if necessary.

ON BEING AN ADJUNCT

In addition to the advantages discussed above relating to the flow of information, this arrangement has benefited Dave in that he has access to my office, and therefore has a permanent place to meet students and store teaching materials. When both of us are teaching on the same night, whoever has to meet privately with a student uses the office, while the other goes to the library, or meets students informally in the reception area.

Bianco-Mathis and Chalofsky (1996) suggest 18 professional development activities for adjuncts, including a peer feedback program, a recognition system, a formal program of grants, and external education workshops. Of the 18 mentioned, the School of Public Administration has four: a manual and handouts, an evaluation system, a communications network with faculty, and the opportunity to participate in faculty meetings.

Manual and handouts. The North Palm campus publishes a small manual for all faculty and adjuncts and distributes it each semester. It outlines policies and procedures, such as getting copies made, location of parking, and other general facts

relating to academic assistance that are critical for everyone, especially adjuncts, to know.

The School of Public Administration provides "Welcome to the Semester" packets every semester to each faculty member and adjunct. It includes copies of the academic calendar, the current semester course schedule for the department, reminders of school policies, and Incomplete Grade and Absence from Class forms.

These handouts are the practical academic information that mirrors the practitioner information brought to the university by the adjunct.

Evaluation system. All SPA faculty members, including adjuncts, are evaluated by their students in each course at the end of every semester. Within two semesters, the results of the evaluations are given to each faculty member, after first having been reviewed by the Director of the School.

In addition to the formal evaluations, both Dave and I ask our students to complete informal evaluations. We ask them to answer three questions: what did you like about the course? What did you dislike about the course? What, if anything, would you change about the course? We have received valuable suggestions from our students and have incorporated those suggestions as we continually evaluate and develop our courses.

Communication network with the faculty. By virtue of the time Dave has been affiliated with the university, and particularly due to the social ties discussed above, he has established relationships with full-time faculty members. He therefore feels comfortable calling them informally to discuss classes, students, problems, etc.

For example, after approximately two years of teaching he had one class that just did not seem to pick up on anything. He was able to have a comfortable conversation with a full professor that explored all the options, including the fact that this just might not be a good class. Many adjuncts do not have such faculty available to them and are more hesitant to bring up such problems since they do not have anything other than a nodding professional relationship with their full-time faculty colleagues.

Opportunity to participate in faculty meetings. The College of Urban and Public Affairs at Florida Atlantic University has been very adjunct friendly with respect to faculty meetings. There is a standing invitation to attend such meetings but most adjuncts find it nearly impossible to do so due to work schedules or, in Dave's case, the 50 mile distance from his office to the meeting location. Dave has attended one faculty meeting, and was made to feel fully welcome. I was not in attendance at that meeting.

Bianco-Mathis and Chalofsky also mention the opportunity to participate in faculty retreats. The School of Public Administration planned a faculty retreat in March, and this raised some interesting questions for us. Given our unique relationship in the department, should we both go to the retreat? Since we have not attended faculty meetings together, how would we be received if we attended the retreat together? Our contact as a couple with most of the faculty has been on social occasions, and not in the academic setting.

The answer to this question will have to be postponed, because the retreat was scheduled for a week day when Dave was not able to take off work, and I therefore attended the retreat without him.

FUTURE RESEARCH

We have identified other couples associated with the School of Public Administration who either teach in different venues (university and public school) or work and teach in different university departments (North Palm campus administration and English department faculty). However, the situation of being married and teaching in the same graduate department is unique to our college.

We do not know if this situation is unique to the university, but this will be a topic of future research. The intent is to identify and then to interview those couples as to their experiences and how they match or do not match ours, and what we can learn from them. The results of this research will add to the growing body of knowledge about academic couples, such as that presented by Ferber & Loeb (1997).

Additionally, as discussed above, we will be developing a survey to distribute to current and former students to determine their responses to the experience of having married professors in their graduate program. We want to know what effect, if any, our unique situation has had or is having on our students. This information will not only inform our own teaching practices, but we expect it to provide valuable information for our faculty, our departments, and our college.

CONCLUSION - PLEASURES AND PERILS

It's probably obvious by now that the "pleasures" outweigh the "perils" for us in this situation. The many advantages we both receive have been discussed throughout this paper. Additionally, we have shown that the university and the faculty have also benefited from our situation.

The only disadvantage we have found is that, given the nature of our jobs and our relationship, it is sometimes very difficult to get away from work. Luckily for us, we both like our work, so this is not a problem most of the time.

Apart from the fact that "team" teaching has worked well for us as individuals, the main lesson that we have learned is that a positive, reciprocal relationship can exist between adjuncts and regular faculty if that relationship is nurtured and developed in the academic setting.

The best illustration of this is the expansion of opportunities available to Dave as a result of both our own situation and the relationships he has developed with full-time faculty. He has gained knowledge of academic techniques and theoretical works that have been useful to his practice of law. Faculty have learned that his practical experience and knowledge have been worthwhile even for the quintessential academic work of a dissertation committee. Thus, the adjunct's experience can be used as a method of gaining accuracy in research and analysis.

Also, we believe that Dave's experience illustrates the positive side of the adjunct's position within a university. In order to enhance an adjunct's experiences, we suggest that the university as a whole and the faculty in the departments need to realize that they must be proactive in their support of these individuals.

We also suggest that, while most universities may not be as fortunate to have a married couple with the academic credentials and experience to be able to teach for them in one of their programs, a situation like this should not be automatically avoided. It should be explored, to determine the benefits that can accrue to all concerned: university, faculty, and students.

REFERENCES

Bianco-Mathis, V., & Chalofsky, N. (1996). *The adjunct faculty handbook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Brookfield, S.D. (1990). *The skillful teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Cranton, P. (1989). *Planning instruction for adult learners*. Toronto: Wall & Emerson, Inc.

Ferber, M. A., & Loeb, J. W. (1997). *Academic couples: Problems and promises*. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Merriam, S.B., & Caffarella, R.S. (1991). *Learning in adulthood*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Chapter 9

INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT EDUCATION THROUGH AN INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN APPROACH TO COURSE DEVELOPMENT AND DELIVERY

Blue Wooldridge
Associate Professor
Department of Political Science & Public Administration
Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA: 23284-2028
(804)-828-8037, Fax: (804)-828-7463
and
Carol Bracey
Department of Public Utilities, City of Richmond, Virginia

In a recent symposium it was pointed out that demands for accountability are altering the environment of higher education (Harris, 1998). Kerns (1998) suggests that accountability in higher education "..involves efforts by administrators, trustees, and even faculty to anticipate changes in their environment in order to take proactive steps to ensure that the public trust is served," (p. 145). Such efforts may, "..coincide with challenges to higher education to emphasize performance measurements and mission accomplishment," (Hebert and Reynolds, 1998, p. 253). In response to these trends, public administration faculty need to analyze their current curriculum

design and delivery in light of the missions of their program, which is usually "preparing persons for leadership and management roles in public affairs, policy (and) administration," (Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation, p 2). It is the premise of this manuscript that one way public administration faculty can respond to the calls for greater effectiveness in the preparation of persons for management roles in public affairs, policy and administration is through the utilization of an instruction design approach to course preparation and delivery.

In a recent issue of the *Journal of Public Administration,* Tompkins, Laslovich and Greene, (1996) point out that public administration can be taught from three distinct perspectives, the political science perspective, the management perspective and the value perspective. (This insight has remarkable overlap with the observation by Rosenbloom [1993] that public administration can be studied from three perspectives: management, politics, and law). According to Tompkins, et al:

> The management perspective holds that public administration should be taught from the perspective of management practice. According to this perspective, the MPA program's task is not simply to provide an intellectual foundation for public service but to assist students in developing the analytical, technical, and behavioral skills they will need to practice their craft effectively (P. 119).

Certainly the ability, and interest, of contemporary US Masters of Public Administration programs to teach public management has its share of skeptics. For example, D. Brown asked (1978), "Is Public Administration Really Interested in Management?" and concluded that the answer was no. He suggests that as public administration continues to ignore the problem of managing government, administrators are turning more and more to other fields to meet their management education needs (p. 10).

In a guest editorial for *the Bureaucrat* entitled "Inadequacy of Public Administration Schools," Wooldridge (1981) claimed that "schools of public administration are not adequately preparing managers for the public service" (p. 2). More recently, Cox (1990) stated, "The Masters of Public Administration degree has not served the role of management education well" (p. 6).

These comments are mild when compared to those of R. Brown (1982) in an essay entitled, "The Trouble with Public Administration." He said:

> Most schools and programs in public administration are not very good, lacking in both rigor and purpose.... We must create more and better true schools of public administration, more removed from departments of political sciences.

> Some, even many, existing programs in public administration should be allowed to die quietly. (p. 1)

It has been suggested that one of the reasons management education courses are poorly taught is that instructors do not know what managers need to know, or how to teach it (Watson, 1986). Assuming there is some merit to this allegation, it is evident that fundamental changes are called for in public administration programs to facilitate learning relevant to managing the needs of a service delivery system. How can public administration faculty ensure that students who successfully complete graduate programs in public administration have adequate preparation for the realities of public service management? And, how can public administration faculty members be helped to teach more successfully?

Instructional design--a systematic orientation to the development of public administration courses--appears to be a useful strategy to examine.

THE INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN APPROACH

The aim of instructional design is to activate and support the learning of the individual student" (Gagne & Briggs, 1979, p.4) and to recognize the diversity of students' individual talents (California State University, 1989; Chinien & Boutin, 1993; Gagne & Briggs; Glaser & Silver, 1994). The theoretical foundations for instructional design lie in the behavioral, developmental, social and cognitive psychologies, as well as in management sciences, engineering and related disciplines (Gagne & Briggs, 1979, Johnson, 1989). The major difference between instructional design and traditional approaches to education relates to the perspective or point of view in which each of the approaches is grounded. Traditional instruction asks such questions as: What is important about the content? What makes sense in the content? How can the instructor best present the content so the student will understand its place in the discipline? The syllabus rarely outlines learning strategies and almost never expresses expected student outcomes in measurable terms (Ibid). In contrast, instructors having an instructional design perspective ask: What does the learner need to know? What conditions will affect and facilitate his or her learning? How effective is the teaching? (California State University, 1989; Duncan, 1978; Gagne & Briggs, 1979; Knowlton, 1986; Skoglund, 1983). "The answers to these questions are formulated as measurable goals and objectives. Those, in turn, are translated into instructional strategies and delivery systems" (Johnson, 1989, p. 13).

In addition, instructional design uses a systematic process to develop instruction. The generic process of instructional design includes the following steps:

1. Needs assessments;
2. Specification of broad goals and detailed objectives or learning outcomes;
3. Analysis of learner characteristics;
4. Specification of instructional strategies based on objectives and learner analysis. (Johnson, 1989, p. 13)
5. Selection of methods of learning assessments. (Kaufman, 1972; Banta, 1988; Jennings, 1989).

Each of these steps will be discussed in greater detail below.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT: DETERMINING WHAT PUBLIC MANAGERS NEED TO KNOW

In traditional instructional programs, the faculty's interests and expertise determine the concepts and topics of the key components of the public administration program. The faculty also arranges the courses in a sequence that is "best" for the student to acquire the knowledge (California State Center, 1989). In contrast, Roger Kaufman has described an induction model of need assessment procedures (1972). This model derives its name from the fact that educational goals and desired outcomes are first obtained from members of the relevant sub-community. The relevant sub-community for public administration education consists of alumni of public administration programs, public administration faculty, advising panels of practicing professionals, and researchers who have performed needs assessments in this area.

A needs assessment is the first step in almost any professional development effort (Cline and Seibert, 1993). To perform a needs assessment, the instructor can use one or several of the following methods: interviews, questionnaires, group discussions, document reviews and feedback (Glorioso, 1991; Tompkins, Laslovich and Greene, 1996). Originally used as a means for developing theories, the focus group is also a valuable qualitative data-gathering techniques for assessing educational needs (McClelland, 1994). The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) recommends ASTD ASSESS--their software

for needs assessment survey--which has been used successfully by more than 500 human resource professionals (Davis, 1995). Olshfski (1991) discusses how the Delphi technique can be used to assess educational needs. She used Delphi with public sector executives in New Jersey to determine their assessment of educational needs and found that the iterative process made a difference, reflected in preferences changing over the 3 rounds. The Diagnostic Assessment of Lending Skills and Knowledge was developed by Robert Morris Associates to help bankers involved in the commercial lending process identify needs in 7 critical areas (Hamm, 1995). Both Reeves (in the teaching of business ethics, 1990) and Niehoff and Whitney-Bammerlin (in the development of educational experiences in Total Quality Management, 1995) describe how Bloom's Taxonomy of educational objectives can be used in conducting needs assessments. Bloom describes 6 levels of cognitive educational objectives: 1. knowledge, 2. comprehension, 3. application, 4. analysis, 5. synthesis and 6. evaluation and identifies action verbs for assessing students' ability for each level of learning. Niehoff and Whitney-Bammerlin (1995) discuss how a needs assessment can be conducted to determine where the participants are on the taxonomy and to sequence the activities during the educational experience. One of the authors of this paper used a similar process, at the first class meeting, to determine the self-assessed level of competency of a doctoral students in an organizational behavior course. Tompkins, Laslovich and Greene (1996) used a combination of methods, using the competency framework developed by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration, general and technical skills associated empirically with managerial excellence and four values judged to be particularly important to public service in a democratic state based on a review of the relevant literature. They then sought to confirm the importance of these competencies, by surveying nearby state and local public managers.

Various needs assessments document the desired performance of public administration practitioners. These assessments include the efforts of Kerrigan and Hinton, (1970); the US Department of Housing and Urban Development, (1975); Watt, Parker, and Cantine, (1973); Wyman, (1981) National Training and Development Service [NTDS] (1975). In connection with this last endeavor, which used questionnaires, interviews and focus groups, the author wrote, "The educational needs identified in this assessment are those which, if met, will presumably contribute to effective performance of those who have...management responsibilities at the local level" (NTDS, p. 9). A more recent effort resulted in a draft report called *Guidelines on Local Government Management Education* produced by the ICMA/NASPAA Task Force on Local Government Education (1989). In this draft the Task Force said that:

> [H]igher education has a mission to provide professional degree programs for students wishing to focus their professional education upon preparation for careers as local government policy and administrative leaders. The two parent organizations of the Task Force "have developed the following guidelines to assist colleges and universities in development of their own efforts to meet this educational responsibility, and particularly to assist in offering professional degree programs tailored to address directly the need for competent, responsible local government leadership. (p. 3)

Educational needs are relatively easy to define by identifying the gaps between current programs and societal, occupational and regulatory requirements (California State, 1989). The greater challenge of instructional design lies in meeting the unique needs of each learner, which include learning style, motivation and personal development needs (California State, 1989; Gagne & Briggs, 1979; Knowlton, 1986). Usually this methodology involves asking incumbents of relatively high level positions for their perceptions of the educational needs of that or a similar position. However, most MPA programs are not educating the incumbent City Manager of Dallas or Cincinnati. As Robert Katz points out, while all managers need technical, human and conceptual skills, the required mix of these skills varies as one moves higher in an organization:

> "As the administrator moves further and further from the actual physical operation, this need for technical skills becomes less important provided he has skilled subordinates and can help them solve their problems."

Katz presented an interesting point in the "Retrospective Commentary" in the 1974 reprint of this 1955 article. He said:

> In the original article, I suggested that specific technical skills are unimportant at top management levels. I cited as evidence the many professional managers who move easily from one industry to another without apparent loss of effectiveness. I now believe this mobility is possible only in very large companies, where the chief executive has experienced technical operators throughout the organization. An old, established, large company has great operational momentum that enables the new chief executive to concentrate on strategic issues. In smaller companies, where technical expertise is not as pervasive and seasoned staff assistance is not as available, I believe the chief executive has a much greater need for personal experience in the

> industry. He not only needs to know the right questions to ask his subordinates; he also needs enough industry background to know how to evaluate the answers. (p. 7)

Durant (1997) refers to this approach when course content and design is based on a needs assessment as "backward mapping."

This "backward mapping" of curriculum design requires the faculty , "to start by identifying what the 'behavioral outcome' or student 'product' of the program would look like. More precisely, what skills, knowledge bases and values should our student have to function in today's blame rich and credit poor public service?" (p. 406).

SPECIFICATION OF BROAD GOALS AND DETAILED OBJECTIVES OR LEARNING OUTCOMES

A goal is a general statement of what the teacher hopes to accomplish during a course (Hannah & Michaelis, 1977). After the public management educational goals have been specified, student-oriented behavioral learning objectives (SOBLOs) can be developed (Wooldridge, 1987a). Mager (1962) describes an objective as "an intent communicated by a statement describing a proposed change in a learner -- a statement of what the learner is to be like when he has successfully completed a learning experience" (p. 3). Otto and Glaser (1970) suggest that the writing of objectives can be accomplished in three steps:

l. Identify the desired terminal behavior;
2. Define the conditions under which this terminal behavior will occur;
3. State the criteria of acceptable performance. (p. 123)

Identifying student-oriented behavioral learning objectives is an extremely important element in educational planning for at least six reasons:

1. Once a student-oriented behavioral learning objective is identified, debate can focus on whether it truly describes the expected performance of a member of that profession.
2. Clear articulation of learning objectives increases the possibility that essential clues will be provided to the students. These clues inform the student as to what increased competencies should result from

participation in this course. Just as some management theorists feel that the establishment of objectives motivates workers (Latham and Locke, 1979), so might the identification of SOBLOs motivate students to achieve them.

3. Objectives are important for instructors. With precise SOBLOs in mind, they are better able to assess and choose appropriate instructional materials and methods.
4. The articulation of SOBLOs makes it easier to develop and design instructional materials to reach the stated objectives.
5. With SOBLOs clearly stated, instructors are better able to design appropriate assignments and grade performance.
6. Finally, in a profession concerned with the application of knowledge, we can review course syllabi to ensure that they contain the appropriate mix of objectives that reflect the familiarity, understanding and *application* levels of knowledge. More than syllabi in the arts and sciences, the syllabus of a professional course should emphasize SOBLOs that describe the ability to apply skills. (Wooldridge, 1987a)

Moreover, research has suggested that clearly articulated course objectives improve student learning (Serafin, 1990).

After the goals and behavioral objectives for each public administration course have been clearly spelled out, the instructor should compare the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be gained from the course with those identified, during the needs assessment stage, as being required by public administration managers. Those programs seeking accreditation, should also compare their collective course objectives with the common curriculum components as identified by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation, 1997).

ANALYSIS OF LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS

Knowles (1973), among others, points out that understanding how a person learns is a major requisite for a successful educational program. The question of how a person learns is the focus of the concept of learning style (Pigg, Lawrence, & Lacy, 1980; Knowlton, 1986). Studies have shown that identifying a student's learning style and providing appropriate instruction in response to that style can contribute to more effective learning (Claxton & Murrell, 1987). Keefe (1979) has developed the following categories of learning styles:

> *Learning styles* are characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment. *Cognitive styles* are "information processing habits representing the learner's typical mode of perceiving, thinking, problem solving and remembering." The term, *Affective Styles*, refers to those motivational processes viewed as the learner's typical mode of arousing, directing, and sustaining behavior. *Physiological Styles* are biologically- based modes of response that are founded on sex-related differences, personal nutrition and health, and accustomed reactions to the physical environment (pp. 4,8,11 & 15).

Under each of the main categories of learning styles-- cognitive, affective and physiological--are a variety of dimensions. Fortunately, not all dimensions have equal implications for improving the learning process. Keefe has identified those dimensions that are most important in the design of educational efforts: *Cognitive Styles* have been the primary focus of research on learning styles (Claxton & Ralston, 1978). Important dimensions include perceptual modality preferences (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1978); field independence vs. dependence (Witkin & Goodenough, 1981); conceptual tempo (Kagan, 1966); and leveling vs. sharpening (Holzman & Klein, 1954). *Affective Styles* include conceptual level (Hunt, 1977-78; Dunn, Dunn & Price, 1978); locus of control (Rotter, 1971); achievement motivation (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953); and social motivation (Hill & Nunnary, 1973). The most important *Physiological Style* is Masculine-feminine behavior (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Each of these important dimensions of learners' characteristics will be briefly described below:

Perceptual modality preferences. This *cognitive* learning style dimension measures a learner's "preferred reliance on one of the sensor modes of understanding experience. The modes are kinesthetic or psychomotor, visual or spatial, and auditory or verbal" (Keefe, p. 9).

Field independence vs dependence. This dimension of *cognitive* learning styles measures whether the learner uses an "analytical as opposed to a global way of experiencing the [subject matter] environment" (Keefe, 1979, p. 9).

In a field dependent (FD) person, perception is dominated by the overall organization of the surrounding field, and parts of the field are experienced as fused. A field-independent (FI) person perceives parts of the field as discrete from the organized ground.

Field dependent/global learners rely upon the environment of the learning situation for structure. FD's are sensitive to social cues without being alerted to them. They are interpersonally oriented and rely heavily on external stimuli. This

motivates them to look towards others for reinforcement for opinions and attitudes.

The field dependent/global learner has a short attention span, is easily distracted and likes informal learning situations. People with this type of learning style view the teacher as just another individual and respond best to a learning environment that evokes their feelings and experiences. They are less achievement-oriented and competitive than the analytic learner. For them, learning is very much a social experience.

The field independent/analytical learner does not rely on the learning environment for referents. FI's have an internal structure that enables them to analyze information and solve problems without outside assistance. In addition, FI's appear to be more active, autonomous, self-motivated and task-oriented. These individuals can analyze information from the learning situation and solve problems independently. Analytical-oriented learners resist distractions that would adversely affect their educational experience and have a longer attention span and greater reflectivity than global learners. They tend to be more sedentary and prefer formal learning situations, viewing the instructor merely as a source of information. They are competitive, achievement-oriented and impersonal (Witkin, et al, 1971; Witkin et al, 1977; Witkin and Goodenough, 1981).

One common theme runs through the literature on field independence/dependence research: Field-dependent learners require more structure than field-independent learners to achieve the same level of learning. Whether this structure is manifested through a presentation of objectives and planned activities in human relation training (Mezoff, 1982), through structured lecture outlines (Frank, 1984; Ward and Clark, 1987), or in the inherent organization of the task material itself (Davis and Frank, 1979), its existence appears to remove any difference between the amount of material learned. This finding is ironic since, as the literature reviewed indicated, the field dependent learner prefers less structured learning environments such as discussion or the discovery mode.

Conceptual tempo. Another important *cognitive* learning style that Keefe thinks has major importance for improving the learning process is *conceptual tempo*.

> Individuals differ in the speed and adequacy of hypothesis formulation and information processing on a continuum of reflection vs impulsivity. Impulsives tend to give the first answer they can think of even though it is frequently incorrect. Reflectives prefer to consider alternative solutions before deciding and to give more reasoned responses (Keefe, 1979, p. 10).

This learning style dimension has important implications for university instruction. “Heavy reliance on multiple-choice examinations may not give an accurate picture of how much a student actually knows” (Claxton and Murrell, 1987, p. 17). Under pressure to achieve a certain grade, the impulsive person is unable to become more reflective and the reflective learner might be unable to carry out sufficient deliberations in the time allowed.

Leveling vs sharpening. The purpose of this *cognitive* learning style is to “isolate principles of organization in cognitive behavior, termed *cognitive system-principles*, that will predict a person’s typical modes of perceiving, remembering, thinking” (Holzman and Klein, 1954, p. 105).

This dimensions measures:

> individual variations in memory processing. Levelers tend to blur similar memories and to merge new precepts readily with previous assimilated experiences; they tend to over-generalize. Sharpeners are inclined to magnify small differences and to separate memory of prior experiences more easily from current data; they tend to over-discriminate. (Keefe, 1979, p. 10)

Research has shown that *levelers* tend to seek a maximum simplicity of the cognitive field, while the *sharpeners* seek maximum complexity and differentiation (Holzman & Klein, 1954).

Other research on the cognitive view of learning extends to a recent theory posited by Kolb, (1984) (as cited by Sims & Sims, 1995) which states two dimensions of learning: the concrete versus abstract and the active versus reflective. Individuals tend to favor one dimension over the other based on their personality characteristics, education and other life exposures. There are four stages to this model that reside in the two learning dimensions mentioned above. The stages move from concrete experience, reflective observation and abstract conceptualization to active experimentation. The groups are labeled according to the stages in which they find most learning success. For example, divergers prefer concrete reflective learning situations while convergers favor the abstract, and so on (Claycomb, 1978; Sims & Sims, 1995).

In the past 20 years, researchers have made enormous progress in the study of the operations of the brain in cognitive functioning (Claycomb, 1978). The left and right hemispheres of the brain seem to have some distinctly non-parallel functions that process stimuli and data quite differently (Claycomb, 1978; Sims & Sims, 1995). This division-of-labor results in the right hemisphere controlling spatial identification, sensory discriminations and other less-structured, global functions (Ibid). The left hemisphere controls the structuring of language,

calculation, word meanings, and sequential type processing (Ibid.). Theoretically, the dominant hemisphere influences the way individuals think and experience their environment (Ibid.).

Affective learning styles are those dimensions of personality that have to do with attention, emotion and valuing (Keefe, 1979, p. 11). The first of these learning style dimensions that Keefe thinks have implications for the improvement of the learning process is that of conceptual level.

Conceptual level is:

> a broad development trait characterizing how much structure a student requires in order to learn best. ...Closely related to it are responsibility, the capacity of students to follow through on a task without direct or frequent supervision, and need for structure, the amount and kind of structure required by different individuals. (Keefe, 1979, p 12)

It has been suggested that identifying a person's *Conceptual Level (CL)* may serve as the basis for "..optimizing the teaching/learning process" (Hunt, 1977-78, p. 78). Hunt suggests that:

> several characteristics of CL theory contribute to its potential value for education: (1) it identifies present information-processing skills; (2), it indicates the specific process goals to be developed; (3) it specifies the training environment most likely to facilitate such development; (4) it applies both to students and to teachers; and therefore (5) it permits a reciprocal analysis of the teaching/learning process. (Hunt, 1977-78, p. 78)

Hunt (1971, 1977-78) reviews research that identifies some of the distinguishing characteristics of students varying in CL. Studies have found, for example, that students with low CL are more likely to choose another student to direct them, while high CL students are more likely to work without leaders; when two kinds of information are presented, low CL students are most affected by what they experienced first, high CL students have shown greater accuracy in personal perception than low CL students.

LOCUS OF CONTROL

This learning style concept is interested in:

> variations in *individual* perceptions of causality in behavioral outcomes on a continuum on internality vs. externality (I-E). The internal person

> thinks of himself as responsible for his own behavior, as deserving praise for successes and blame for failures. The external person sees circumstances beyond his control, luck, or others as being responsible for his behavior. (Keefe, 1979, p. 13).

"I-E studies show that people differ in the tendency to attribute satisfactions and failures to themselves rather than to external causes and these differences are relatively stable" (Rotter, 1971, p. 58). Several studies have found that lower-economic children tend to be more external than children from richer, better educated families; among disadvantaged children in the sixth, ninth and 12th grades, those with high scores on an achievement test were more internal orientated than children with low achievement scores; internal students were more successful in getting other students to change their attitudes than were external students; and, interesting enough in today's public policy environment, nonsmokers were significantly more internal than smokers (Rotter, 1971).

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

David C. McClelland's achievement motivation concept is interested in:

> Individual differences in patterns of planning and striving for some internalized standard of excellence. Individuals with high achievement motivation are interested in excellence for its own sake rather than for any rewards it may bring. They set their goals carefully after calculating the success probability of a variety of alternatives. This style is also called need for achievement (n-Ach). This is probably the most thoroughly researched affective style. (Keefe, 1979, p. 13)

McClelland's strategies for developing individuals with high n-Ach where there is no fear of success are reported in Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1994. (Readers of this manuscript might want to substitute the words "student or trainee" for "employees").

> Arrange job tasks so that employees receive periodic feedback on performance, providing information that enables them to make modifications or corrections.
> Point out to employees models of achievement. Identify and publicize the accomplishments of achievement heroes, the successful people, the winners, and use them as models.

> Work with employees to improve their self-image. High in n-Ach people like themselves and seek moderate challenges and responsibilities.
> Introduce realism into all work-related topics: promotions, rewards, transfers, development opportunities and team membership opportunities. Employees should think in realistic terms and think positively about how they can accomplish goals. (Gibson, et al, 1994, p. 160)

Social motivation. This learning style dimension measures:

> differences in value-based behavior based on variations in social and racial/ethnic world view. Learners not only vary in socio-economic background, in cultural determinants and value codes and in peer-group conformity, but are variously affected by the standards and expectations of these groups..... Differences in social motivation may derive from one or a combination of determinants. (Keefe, 1979, p. 14).

(For a more detailed description of each of these learning styles and a description of the instruments used to measure these student attributes see Keefe [1979], Wooldridge, [1994], or the citation listed for the lead researcher identified with each dimension).

Implicit in these findings is the assurance that {public administration} faculty can improve learning outcomes by varying instruction modalities to the thinking and learning styles of their students (Claycomb, 1978; Duncan, 1978; Gagne, 1979; Knowlton, 1986; Sims & Sims, 1995). At the very minimum, public administration faculty must become aware of the various dimensions of learning styles, and adopt classroom practices that will response effectively to the vast majority of the students. This will frequently require either extra effort on the part of the faculty member (responding to differences in perceptual modality preferences, or leveling vs sharpening), or instructional strategies that are incongruent with the instructor's own preferred teaching style (informal vs structured).

This insight is important for more than understanding how to modify course design and delivery. Research has indicated that teachers are more likely to use instructional methods that match their cognitive learning style. Wu (1968, as quoted in Bertini, 1986), for example, found that field-dependent student teachers in social studies ranked discussion as more important to the practice of good teaching than lecture, which was favored by field-independent instructors.

This "natural" tendency may have special significance for public administration faculty. This study showed that more students had undergraduate preparation in the "Social Professions" and that these subjects were significantly

more field dependent than students with other undergraduate preparation. Assuming that public administration faculty approximate this distribution, one can infer that a significant number of public administration faculty are field dependent. Combining this hypothesis with the findings that instructors have teaching styles that match own personal styles, it can be concluded that in many classroom situations field-dependent public administration faculty are using low or non-structured teaching methods with field-dependent students thereby placing them at a disadvantage.

The research also reinforces the need for public administration faculty to tailor instructional strategies to learner characteristics. Wooldridge (1988) suggests using teaching methods-student characteristics combinations contingent on the specific learning objectives to be achieved and the anticipated learning styles of the group.

SELECTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

"The guiding principle for selecting the appropriate teaching/training technique and location remains the desired performance or outcome for the learner..." (Everett and Drapeau, 1994, p. 137). However as Newstrom points out:

> Tradition often locks educators into suboptimal behavior patterns. . . . Whenever training techniques are selected on the basis of illogical or irrelevant criteria, we have committed an injustice to our trainees. Why might trainers knowingly use methods that are either inadequate or inappropriate for the objectives they hope to accomplish? Some possible reasons include . . . a lack of knowledge about the competitive effectiveness of various approaches or even the perception that the trainees like a certain method best. (1980, p. 12)

Within the past few years, excellent work has been done relating the effectiveness of different instructional methods (e.g., lectures, films, case studies, role playing, etc.) to specific learning objectives. McCleary and McIntyre (1972, Table I) rate the effectiveness of 17 methods of instruction on a high-medium-low scale. They measured the extent to which the methods tended to be practical and effective in reaching the objective (either technical, conceptual or human relational) at a specific level of learning--familiarity, understanding or application. Similar relationships have been reported by Olivas and Newstrom (1981), and by Carroll, Payne and Ivancevich (1972). Carroll's work has been replicated by Newstrom (1980) and by Shoenfelt, Eastman and Mendel (1991) who added a

tenth training method--computer-assisted instruction (Table II). This "reputational" approach to the identification of effective teaching/training was also used by Everett and Drapeau (1994), although these authors did not relate the instructional strategies to specific learning objectives. A literature search, content analysis and review for construct validity resulted in 14 "training delivery systems used most often in business and industry: case study, computer-assisted instruction, coaching-mentoring, computer-based training, films and video, interactive video, lecture, supervised on-the-job-training, peer tutoring, programmed instruction, role playing, seminars and workshops, simulations, and team teaching" (p 140). (These authors admit to having serious reservations about including seminars, workshops and team-teaching as instructional strategies since they might include any or all of the other strategies listed). Rae (1994) presents an excellent overview of "exemplary practices" in the delivery of several on-the-job training strategies included in the Everett and Drapeau study. Some excellent examples of experiential teaching strategies can me found in the *Journal of Public Administration Education* May, 1997 issues.

The instructional methodology used in a professional course (such as those in an MPA program) must be designed with application and skill objectives in mind. These differ from those for a course in arts and science. A review of syllabi from planning theory courses from approximately twenty planning programs prompted Bolan (1981) to conclude:

> It would appear that the primary activity in planning theory courses is lecturing . . . for the student, then, the planning theory course is not significantly different from a long line of university courses already taken. (p. 14)

Accepting the concept that professional education is concerned with application rather than simply generation of knowledge, it should be expected that the mixture of instructional strategies in a graduate-level course in public administration include (using the McCleary and McIntyre, 1972, listing) the use of simulation, human relations training, clinical study (survey-type investigation, for purpose of improving practice in local situations) and team research.

Table I. Assessment of Levels of Instruction (Levels of Learning, Competencies to be Learned)

Instructional Method	Familiarity	Understanding	Application	Technical	Conceptual	Human
Reading	high	medium	low	low	medium	low
Lecture	medium	medium	low	low	medium	low
Discussion	medium	medium	low	low	medium	low
Field Trip	medium	low	low	low	medium	low
Case	low	high	low	low	high	low
Scenario	low	high	low	low	high	low
Individualized Instructional Package Computer	low	low	high	low	low	high
Assisted Instruction	low	high	low	low	high	low
Student Research	low	medium	low	low	medium	low
Laboratory Approach	low	high	medium	medium	high	medium
Simulation	low	high	high	high	high	medium
Human Relations Training	low	high	high	high	high	high
Clinical Study	low	high	high	high	high	medium
Team Research	low	high	high	high	medium	low
Internship	low	medium	high	high	medium	medium

Note: High, medium, low = Extent to which the method, when competently employed, tends to be practical and effective in achieving the designated skills at the level desired.

Source: McCleary and McIntyre, 1972.

Table II. Perceived Effectiveness Often Training Methods For Six Objectives (Training Objectives)

	Knowledge Acquisition	Changing Attitudes	Problem-Solving Skills	Inter-Personal Skills	Participant Acceptance	Knowledge Retention
Method	**Mean/ Rank**	**Mean/ Rank**	**Mean/ Rank**	**Mean/ Rank**	**Mean/ Rank**	**Mean/ Rank**
Case Study	3.66/ 4	3.26/ 5	3.96/ 1	3.05/ 5	3.72/ 3	3.75/ 1
Conference (Discussion) Method	3.67/ 3	3.51/ 3	3.60/ 4	3.53/ 3	3.9/ 1	3.55/ 4
Lecture (With Questions)	3.55/ 6	2.90/ 6	2.62/ 8	2.54/ 6	3.26/ 7	2.96/ 8
Business Games	3.63/ 5	3.43/ 4	3.95/ 2	3.52/ 4	3.88/ 2	3.74/ 3
Movie Films	3.24/ 8	2.72/ 7	2.22/ 9	2.12/ 7	3.30/ 5	2.86/ 9
Programmed Instruction	3.72/ 2	1.91/ 10	2.66/ 7	1.57/ 9	2.77/ 9	3.24/ 6
Role Playing	3.47/ 7	3.79/ 2	3.79/ 3	4.10/ 1	3.44/ 4	3.75/ 2
Sensitivity Training (T-Group)	3.07/ 9	3.90/ 1	3.23/ 5	4.04/ 2	3.27/ 6	3.16/ 7
Television Lecture	2.98/ 10	2.19/ 8	2.07/ 10	1.73/ 8	2.64/ 10	2.60/ 10
Computer-aided Instruction	3.90/ 1	2.17/ 9	3.12/ 6	1.53/ 10	3.11/ 8	3.55/ 5

Rating Scale: 5=Highly Effective 4=Quite Effective 3=Moderately Effective 2=Limited Effectiveness 1=Not Effective

*Items with asterisks were deemed acceptable for that objective, as judged in a literature review by Watson.

SEQUENCING OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES:

Paige and Martin (1983) have taken the instructional strategy/learning objective one step further. Many instructional strategies confront the trainee with the possibility of revealing things about themselves to others that they would prefer left unknown and the risk of failure. An issue facing the trainer is the degree to which he/she can properly sequence such instructional methods into the overall educational experience. Table III presents the author's model for sequencing training activities. It lists six frequently used approaches presented in a sequencing order according to the behavioral requirements of the activity, the learning domain(s) of the activity and the degree of personal risk associated with the activity. Effective sequencing of learning objectives and instructional strategies are also discussed in recent articles by Aristiqueta (1997) and Denhardt, Lewis, Raffel and Rich (1997). The insight provided by all three of these discussions should be thoughtfully reviewed by all public administration instructors.

Table III. Sequencing Order of Learning Activities

	Behavioral Requirements of Learning Activity	Risk of Failure (F), Self-Disclosure (SD)	Culture Learning Domain Focus
1. Lectures	Passive; familiar	F and SD: Low	Cognitive
2. Discussions	Active; familiar	F and SD: Low	Cognitive
3. Group Problem Solving	Active; familiar; self-disclosing	F and SD: Medium	Cognitive; affective
4. Critical Incidents	Active; unfamiliar	F and SD: Medium	Cognitive; affective
5. Role Plays	Active; unfamiliar; self-disclosing	F and SD: Medium-high	Affective; behavioral
6. Simulations	Active; unfamiliar; self-disclosing	F and SD: High	Affective; behavioral

SELECTION OF METHODS OF ASSESSMENT

The instructor should ask (to paraphrase Bolan) to what degree the public administration course assignments evoke professional manager behavior. Do assignments test the ability of the student to apply management knowledge and skills befitting the product of a well-designed public management professional education program? Or do assignments require the student to perform as a scholar as in an arts and science course? Bolan's review of the planning theory courses indicated that over 70 percent suggested that students write a term paper of their own choosing or write a critique of readings. His reaction was that such assignments ask students to mimic the behavior of scholars. But as he points out, "Professional behavior requires more than the behavior of a scholar" (p. 21).

How do public administration faculty know if they have been successful? Farmer (1988) suggests that assessment of learning is one of the most neglected areas of college education. In recent years, the interest in assessing educational outcomes in higher education has been fueled partly by public interest in education funded by public dollars (Banta; 1988; Farmer, 1988) and by educational institutions who want to know the effectiveness of their teaching (Jennings, 1989). Assessing educational outcomes in public administration helps determine the degree of congruence between the course objectives and the actual change in the student's performance (Banta, 1988; Farmer, 1988; Fuchs, 1995 Glaser & Silver, 1994; Jennings, 1989). Admittedly, assessing this linkage has generally been difficult in higher education because the curricula support broad intellectual goals (such as leadership, problem-solving and ethics) rather than explicit goals of instruction" (Warren quoted in Banta, 1988, p. 30). Nonetheless, assessment of education must be planned and implemented as an integral part of the {public administration} program if it is to be effective (Farmer, 1988; Glaser & Silver, 1994). Jennings (1989) and others discuss concerns by educators and professional associations about the need for quality and accountability in public administration education. Jennings states:

> There is no systematic effort to determine the quality of the graduates of the program--what they actually learn while in the program, what skills they possess when they graduate, or how much change they have undergone. (p. 440)

The conceptual approach to assessing the quality of public administration programs can vary. Jennings (1989) suggests three approaches. One is based on the assumption that education has the capacity to change the students' knowledge,

skills, and abilities and has therefore "added value" to his or her performance in public service. Another answers the question of how successful the career of the graduate has been as a result of education in public administration. The third approach is based on the assumption that education develops performance in individuals that influence organizations and society in positive ways.

Measurement of the degree of success of the course regardless of the conceptual approach is likely to result in valuable feedback when certain pre-conditions are met. The assessment method must:

1. Measure important learning outcomes. For example, leadership, communication and decision-making skills (Jennings, 1989);
2. Provide clear descriptions of the change in student performance that can be linked to instructional actions (Fuchs, 1995; Jennings, 1989);
3. Be reliable and valid (Fuchs, 1995 & Jennings, 1989).
4. Be easily administered, scored, benchmarked and/or interpreted (Fuchs, 1995, 1995; Jennings, 1989).

Outcomes of public administration courses can be assessed using cognitive and non-cognitive measures (Banta, 1988). Cognitive measures dominate current assessment and take the form of quizzes, midterm, final and comprehensive examinations, all of which have proven to be acceptable indicators of learning when effectively executed (Lenning in Banta, 1988; Priestly, 1982; Jennings, 1989). Faculty can also create opportunities in the classroom to assess learning through the students' verbal responses to informal discussions, the questions they pose and their body language (Lenning in Banta, 1982). A process of evaluating the effectiveness of public management education in achieving the behavioral skills and competencies needed to manage successfully in the public sector is discussed in a paper by Cutchin and Williams. The authors conclude: For both testing and learning purposes, assessment centers are more effective at gauging professional practice of public management than substance-oriented testing. Assessment centers simulate management functions and enable the participant and the tester to observe performance. The competencies observed and learned in management situations are more likely to be transferrable to managerial practice than the substantive competencies of traditional teaching and testing (p. 22).

We believe non-cognitive learning outcomes deserve more emphasis given the fact that public administration education is intended to prepare students for public service delivery. Direct observation of the extent of learning can be achieved through such vehicles as internships, team problem-solving exercises, leaderless group sessions, oral presentations and debates (Lenning in Banta, 1988;

Jennings 1989; Glaser & Silver, 1994). Job simulation exercises, situational exercises and other techniques also offers ways to assess the behavioral changes that should result from public administration education (Lenning in Banta, 1988; Jennings, 1989).

Additionally, questionnaires or interviews of students, alumni and employers can provide data in such areas as the perception of the students' in-school experiences, the impact of their education on the organization of their employment and the level of success in their career choices. (Lenning in Banta, 1988; Farmer, 1988; Jennings, 1989; King, Britton & Missik, 1996). Excellent examples of using alumni assessment of the educational outcomes of specific MPA programs can be fund in King, Britton and Missik (1996). Although less widely used, consensus rendering techniques have value in assessing the quality of public administration education (Lenning in Banta, 1988). These techniques employ a range of the public administration community (practitioners, students and faculty) and may include hearings, juries and conferences, (Ibid). While each approach has its disadvantages, effectively used they can provide meaningful information to promote educational excellence in public administration.

CONCLUSION

Public administration education, like other forms of higher education, operates in an environment that demands greater accountability and increased assessment of the quality of its instruction. Anything an academic department can do to improve its teaching process will respond to this legitimate demand from the customers/clients of public administration education. To paraphrase Professor K. Patricia Cross of the University of California at Berkeley (1990): For the public administration instructor to become better at teaching, he/she must first become a student of learning. This goal is congruent with Ernest L. Boyer's observation that, "The time has come for us to inquire much more carefully into the nature of pedagogy. It's the most difficult and perhaps the most essential work in developing future scholars" (Watkins, 1990, p. A12). Using an instruction design approach to the development and delivery of public administration education and training would require us not only to "make pedagogy a subject of scholarly debate," but to become students of learning as well.

REFERENCES

Aristiqueta, M. P., (1997). "Strategy and Theory for Intrapersonal Development in Public Administration Education." *Journal of Public Administration Education*, Vol 3, No. 2, p. 163-176.

Banta T. W. (1988). *Implementing Outcomes Assessment: Promise and Perils.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers.

Bolan, R., (1981). "Do Planning Theory Courses Teach Planning?" *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, Vol. 1, p. 1-12.

Brown, D. (l978). *"Is Public Administration Really Interested in Management?"* Paper presented at the Annual National Conference of the American Society for Public Administration, Phoenix, Az, April.

Brown, R. (1982). *Centennial Agendas Project Newsletter #4,* Ref.III-26. (Available from the American Society for Public Administration, Washington, D.C.).

California State University. (1989). *Strategies for Instructional Development: A Resource and Planning Guide.* Center For Innovative Programs. Long Beach, California.

Carroll, S.J., Paine, F. T., & Ivancevich, J. J. (1972). "Relative Effectiveness of Training Methods-Expert Opinion and Research. *Personnel Psychology*, 25.

Chinien, C & Boutin, F. (1993). "Cognitive Style FD/I: An Important Learner Characteristic for Educational Technologists." *Educational Technology Systems*, 21 303-311.

Claxton, C. S. & Murrell, P. H. (1987). *Learning Styles: Implications for Improving Educational Practices*. (ASHE - ERIC Higher Education Reports, 1987; No. 4). Washington, DC: Association for the Study of Higher Education.

Claxton, C. S., & Ralston, Y. (1978). *Learning Styles: Their Impact on Teaching and Administration*. (ASHE - ERIC Higher Education Reports, 1978; No. 10). Washington, DC: Association for the Study of Higher Education.

Claycomb, M. (1978). *Brain Research and Learning: The Human Brain*. Washington, DC: National Education Association Publication.

Cline, E. B. and Seibert, P. S. (1993). "Help for First-time Needs Assessors." *Training & Development*. Vol. 47, N. 5. p. 99-101.

Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation (1997). Standards for Professional Master's Degree Programs in Public Affairs/Policy/Administration," Washington, DC: National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration.

Cox, R. (1990). "MPA as Management Education." *International Journal of Public Administration*, 13, 1-20.

Commission on the University of the 21st Century. (1989) *The Case for Change*. Richmond, VA: Commonwealth of Virginia.

Cross, K. P. (1990, May). "*The Current Status of Classroom Learning."* Paper presented at the meeting of the National Conference on College Teaching and Learning. Jacksonville, Fl.

Davis, B. (1995). "A Flexible, Convenient Way to Assess Your Training Needs." *HRMagazine*, Vol. 40, N. 10, p. 114-117.

Davis, J. K., & Frank, B. M. (1979). "Learning and Memory of Field Independent-Dependent Individuals." *Journal of Research in Personality*, 13, 469-479.

Denhardt, R. B., Lewis, J.R., Raffel, J. R., & Rich, D. (1997). "Integrating Theory and Practice in MPA Education: The Delaware Model," *Journal of Public Administration Education*, Vol. 3, No. 2, p. 153-162.

Duncan, M. E. (1978). "The Intricacies of Instructional Development." Washington, DC: In U.S. Department of Education (Vol.1). *Instructional Development: The State of the Art.*

Dunn, R., Dunn, K., & Price, G. E. (1978). *Learning Style Inventory Manual*. Lawrence, KS. Price Systems.

Durant, R.F., (1997). "Seizing the Moment: Outcomes Assessment, Curriculum Reform, and MPA Education," *International Journal of Public Administration*, Vol 20. No. 2, p. 397-429.

Everett, D. R. & Drapeau, R. A., (1994). "Effective Instructional Methods in Business and Education," *Delta Pi Epsilon Journal*, Vol. 36, No. 3, Summer, p. 135-156.

Farmer, D. W.(1988). *Enhancing Student Learning: Emphasizing Essential Competencies In Academic Programs*. Philadelphia, PA: Pew Memorial Trust.

Frank, B. M. (1984). "Effect of Field Independence-Dependence and Study Technique on Learning from a Lecture." *American Educational Research Journal*, 21, 669-678.

Fuchs, L. S.(1995). "*Connecting Performance Assessment to Instruction: A Comparison of Behavioral Assessment, Mastery Learning, Curriculum-Based Measurement, and Performance Assessment."* (Information Analyses-ERIC Clearinghouse Products; June 1995; No. 071). Washington DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Gagne, R.M. & Briggs, L. J. (1979). *Principles of Instructional Design*, (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston).

Glaser, R. and Silver, E. (1994). *"Assessment, Testing, and Instruction: Retrospect and Prospect."* Los Angeles, CA: National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards, and Student Testing.

Glorioso, J. E., Sr. (1991). "Assessing Your Training Needs." *Security Management*. Vol. 35, N. 1. pp. 87-90.

Hamm, R. A. (1995). "Management Issues...how to use RMA's Diagnostic Assessment." *Journal of Commercial Lending*. Vol. 78, N. 2. p. 35-44.

Hannah, L. S. and Michaelis, J. U. (1977). *A Comprehensive Framework for Instructional Objectives: A Guide to Systematic Planning and Evaluation.* California: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

Harris, J. (1998). " Performance Models: Enhancing Accountability in Academe," *Public Productivity and Management Review*, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 135-139.

Hebert, F. T., & Reynolds, K. C. (1998). "MPA Learning Outcomes: Does the Cohort Format Make a Difference?" *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, Vol. 4, No. 4, pp. 253-262.

Hill, J.E., & Nunnery, D.N. (1973). *The Educational Science.* Bloomfield Hills, MI: Oakland Community College Press.

Holzman, P.S. & Klein, G.S. (1954). "Cognitive System-Principles of Leveling and Sharpening: Individual Differences in Assimilation Effects in Visual Time Error," *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 37, 105-122.

Hunt, D. E. (1977-78). "Conceptual Level Theory and Research as Guides to Educational Practices," *Interchange, 8*, (4), 78-90.

International City Management Association and National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration Task Force on Local Government Education. (1989). *Guidelines on Local Government Management Education.* Washington, D. C.: Authors.

Jennings, E. T. (1989). "Accountability, Program Quality, Outcome Assessment, and Graduate Education of Public Affairs and Administration," *Public Administration Review*, 49. (September/October):438-446.

Johnson, K. A. 1989. *The Foundations of Instructional Design.* In K. A. Johnson & L. J. Foa (Eds), *Instructional Design: New Alternatives for Effective Education and Training*, (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company).

Kagan, J. (1966). "Reflection-Impulsivity: The Generality and Dynamics of Conceptual Tempo," *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, Vol. 71, 17-24.

Kaufman, R. (1972). *Educational System Planning*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Kaufman, R. and English, F.W. (1979*). Needs Assessment: Concept and Application.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications.

Keefe, J. W. (1979). *Learning Style: An Overview*. In J.W.

Keefe (Ed.), *Student Learning Styles: Diagnosing and Prescribing Programs*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Kearns, K. P. (1998). "Institutional Accountability in Higher Education: A Strategic Approach," *Public Productivity and Management Review*, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 140-156.

Kerrigan, J. & Hinton, D. (1970) *"Professional Education: Public Management Perspectives."* Paper presented at the American Society for Public Administration Annual Conference, Baltimore, MD. April.

King, C. S., Britton, K., & Missik, E, (1996). MPA Alumni Assessment of Perceived Education Outcomes: The "Value" of the MPA," *Journal of Public Administration Education*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 143-158.

Knowles, M. (1973). *The Adult Learner: An Neglected Species.* Houston: Gulf Publishing.

Knowlton, L. N. (1986). "*The Center for Individualized Instruction: An Alternative to the Traditional College Classroom.*" Proceedings of the 15th Annual Conference of the International Society for Individualized Instruction. Atlanta, GA, October 1986.

Latham, G, & Locke, E. (1979). "Goal Setting--a Motivational Technique that Works." *Organizational Dynamics*, Autumn.

Lenning, O. T. (1988) *Use of Non-Cognitive Measures in Assessment* In Banta, Trudy, W. (1988) *Implementing Outcomes Assessment:Promise and Perils*. San Francisco, CA. Jossey-Bass Inc.

Maccoby, E., & Jacklin, C.N. (December, 1974). "What We Know and Don't Know About Sex Differences," *Psychology Today*, 109-112.

Mager, R. (1962). *Preparing Instructional Objectives*. Belmont, CA: Fearon.

McCleary, L.E. & McIntyre, K.E. (1972). "*Competency Development and University Methodology."* The National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin.

McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A. & Lowell, E. L. (1953) *The Achievement Motive*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts

McClelland, S. B. (1994). "Training Needs Assessment Data-gathering Methods: Part 3, Focus Groups." *Journal of European Industrial Training*. Vol. 18, N. 3. p. 29-32.

Mezoff, B. (1982). "Cognitive Style and Interpersonal Behavior: A Review with Implications for Human Relations Training." *Group and Organization Studies*, 7,(1), 13-34.

National Training & Development Service (1975). *Request for Proposals*. Unpublished manuscript. Washington, DC: Author.

Niehoff, B. P., and Whitney-Bammerlin, D. L. "Don't Let Your Training Process Derail Your Journey to Total Quality Management." *SAM ADVANCED MANAGEMENT JOURNAL* Vol. 6, No. 1. Winter 1995. p. 39-45.

Newstrom, J.W. (l975). "Selecting Training Methodologies," *Training and Development Journal*, 29 (9), 12-16.

Olivas, L., & Newstrom, J. (1981). "Learning Through the Use of Simulation Games." *Training and Development Journal*, 35, 63-66.

Olshfski, D. and Joseph, A. (1991). "Assessing Training Needs of Executives Using the Delphi Technique." *Public Productivity & Management Review*. Vol. 14, N. 3. p. 297-301.

Otto, G., & Glaser, R.P. (1970). *The Management of Training: A Handbook for Training and Development Personnel*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Paige, R. M., & Martin, J.N., (1983). "Ethical Issues in Cross-Cultural Training," in D. Landis & R. W. Brislin (eds), *Handbook of Intercultural Training*, New York: Pergamon Press.

Pigg, K.E., Lawrence, B., & Lacy, W.B. (1980). "Learning Styles Adult Education: A Study of County Extension Agents." *Adult Education*, 30, 233-44.

Priestly, M. (1982). *Performance Assessment in Education and Training: Alternative Techniques*. New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications.

Rae, L. (1994), "Training 101: Choose Your Methods," *Training and Development*, Vol. 48, No. 4, April, pp. 19-25.

Reeves, M. F. (1990). "An Application of Bloom's Taxonomy to the Teaching of Business Ethics." *Journal of Business Ethics*. Vol. 9, N. 7. p. 609-616.

Rosenbloom, D. H. (1993). *Public Administration: Understanding Management, Politics, and Law in the Public Sector*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Rotter, J. B. (1971). "External Control and Internal Control," *Psychology Today*, *5*, June, 1-28.

Shoenfelt, E. L., Eastman, N. A., & Mendel, R. M., (1991). "The Relative Effectiveness of Training Methods for Attaining Training Objectives: Current Opinion of Training Practitioners." Paper present at the *Annual Meeting of the Southeastern Psychological Association*. 37th, New Orleans, LA, March 20-23.

Skoglund, Frederic W. (1983). "An Approach to Instructional Management." Reports from?

Sims, R. R. and Sims, S. J. (1995). *The Importance of Learning Styles: Understanding the Implications for Learning, Course Design, and Education.* Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Stone, A. B. & Stone, D.C. (1975). "*Early Development of Education in Public Administration*." In F.C. Mosher (Ed.). *American Public Administration: Past, Present, Future.* Los Angeles, California, : The University of Alabama Press).

Tompkins, J., Laslovich, M. L., & Greene, J.D., (1996). "Developing a Competency-based MPA Curriculum," *Journal of Public Administration Education*. Vol. 2, No. 2, p. 117-131.

U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. (1975). *"Local Chief Executives' Perception of Policy Making and Management Needs."* Vols. I and II. Center for Governmental Studies for the Office of Policy Development and Research. Washington, D.C.

Van Patten, J. (1989). *What is Instructional Design*? In K. A. Johnson & L. J. Foa (Eds.).*Instructional Design: New Alternatives for Effective Education and Training.* New York: Macmillan.

Ward, T. J. & Clark, III, H.T. (1987). "The Effect of Field Dependence and Outline Condition on Learning High-and Low-Structure Information from a Lecture." *Research in Higher Education. 27*: (3), pp. 259-272.

Watkin, B. T. (1990, October 31). "To Enhance Prestige of Teaching, Faculty Members Urged to Make Pedagogy Focus of Scholarly Debate." *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* pp. A11, A12.

Watson, C. E. (1986). *Management Development Through Training.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

Watt, G., Parker, J., & Cantine, R. (1973). "Roles of the Urban Administrator in the 1970's and the Knowledge and Skills Required to Perform These Roles." *Education for Urban Administration: Annals of the American Society of Political and Social Sciences,* June, pp. 50-79.

Witkin, H. A., & Goodenough, D. R. (1981). *Cognitive Styles: Essence and Origins.* New York: International University Press.

Witkin, H. A., Moore, C. A., Goodenough, D. R., & Cox, P. W., (1977). "Field dependent and field independent cognitive styles and their educational implications," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 47, pp. 1-84.

Witkin, H. A., Oltmann, P.K., Raskin, E., & Karp, S. A. (1971). *A Manual for the Embedded Figures Tests*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Wooldridge, B. (l978, Spring). "New Training Directions: Learning Styles Can Determine Success." *Network News.*

Washington, D.C.: National Training and Development Service.

Wooldridge. B. (1981). "Schools of Public Administration are not Adequately Preparing Managers for the Public Service." *The Bureaucrat.*

Wooldridge, B. (1987a). "Increasing the Professional Management Orientation of Public Administration Courses." *American Review of Public Administration.*

Wooldridge, B. (1987b). "*Enhancing the Effectiveness of Public Administration Courses Having Students with Diverse Cultural Backgrounds."* Paper presented at The 10th Annual Conference on Teaching Public Administration. Washington, DC. April 30. 1987.

Wooldridge, B. (1989). "Assessing the Professional Orientation of Public Personnel Administration Courses." *Public Personnel Management, 18*, 279-289.

Wooldridge, B. and Janha, D. (1990). "*Enhancing the Instructional Capabilities of Public Administration Faculty."* Paper presented at The 13th National Conference on Teaching Public Administration. Tempe, AZ. February 17.

Wooldridge, B. (1995). "A Strategy for Improving Education for Managers: Integrating the Results of Selected Learning Style Research Into Management Course Design and Delivery." *Enhancing the Teaching of Management Conference*. Sponsored by the Management Education, the Entrepreneurship and the Operations Management Divisions of the Academy of Management. DePaul University, Chicago, Ill. April 29.

Wyman. S. (1981). "*Practitioner versus academic expectations: Urban management graduate education for the year 2000*." Paper presented at the American Society for Public Administration Annual Conference. Detroit, Michigan, April.

PART THREE: NEW TEACHING TECHNOLOGIES

Chapter 10

METHOD FOR BUILDING FRAMEWORKS OF ANALYSIS FOR PUBLIC POLICY

Laure Paquette, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Department of Political Science
Lakehead University

A certain mystique clings to theorists in the popular imagination: they take the universe as their inspiration and, from their all-too-real flesh and blood, mysteriously alchemize ideas that move humanity forward... or so the legend goes. The myth does accurately reflect a certain ersatz creativity involved in theory-building, and it does highlight the importance of intuition.

> We listen to a lecture on one of the newer theories or we read about them -- games and bargaining theory, simulation techniques, decision-making theory, communications and integration theory, conflict theory, systems theory, and so on -- and we incorporate into our thinking whatever appeals to us, discarding the rest as irrelevant for our particular purposes.[1]

On the other hand, the myth says nothing about the tedious, technical work that paves the way to rigorous, tightly argued theory: establishing definitions, producing a welter of possible statements and relationships between phenomena,

[1] J.E. Dougherty and Robert L. Pfaltzgraff Jr., *Contending Theories of International Relations* (2nd ed. New York: Harper and Row, 1981), 38.

setting assumptions and conditions, refining and clarifying the propositions, checking the theory for internal consistency, operationalizing it, and, finally, illustrating it. The myth is all the more potent for there being little, if any, descriptions of *strategic* theory-building. Demystifying the theorizing process is, if anything, even more important.

There is another argument made here: not only does the theory meet criteria by which scholars judge theory *qua* theory, but it actually exceeds them. The far greater challenge, in fact, lies in representing a non-linear method of theory-building like this one with words and two-dimensional figures, a challenge rooted in the very nature of strategy.

> In strategic thinking [...] the most reliable means of dissecting a situation into its constituent parts and reassembling them in the desired pattern is not a step-by-step methodology such as systems analysis. Rather, it is that ultimate nonlinear thinking tool, the human brain. True strategic thinking thus contrasts sharply with the conventional mechanical systems approach based on linear thinking. But it also contrasts with the approach that stakes everything on intuition, reaching conclusions without any real breakdown or analysis.[2]

The process of building frameworks for policy analysis can be represented by a six-step, cyclical process (see Figure 1). This process moves forward in fits and starts retracing its own steps as needed. The creativity required in theoretical development is so carefully channelled that the process may sometimes seem rote. Because there has been little or no work on the influence of values on grand policy *per se*, it might also look like the theory is being built in a vacuum. That is *not* the case. In fact, theory is probably the type of research that uses germane scholarship the most. When it comes to theory-building, though, the literature is silent. The sources of inspiration, therefore, are very broad.

[2] Kenichi Ohmae, *The Mind of the Strategist* (New York: Penguin, 1982), 13.

Figure 1 Method

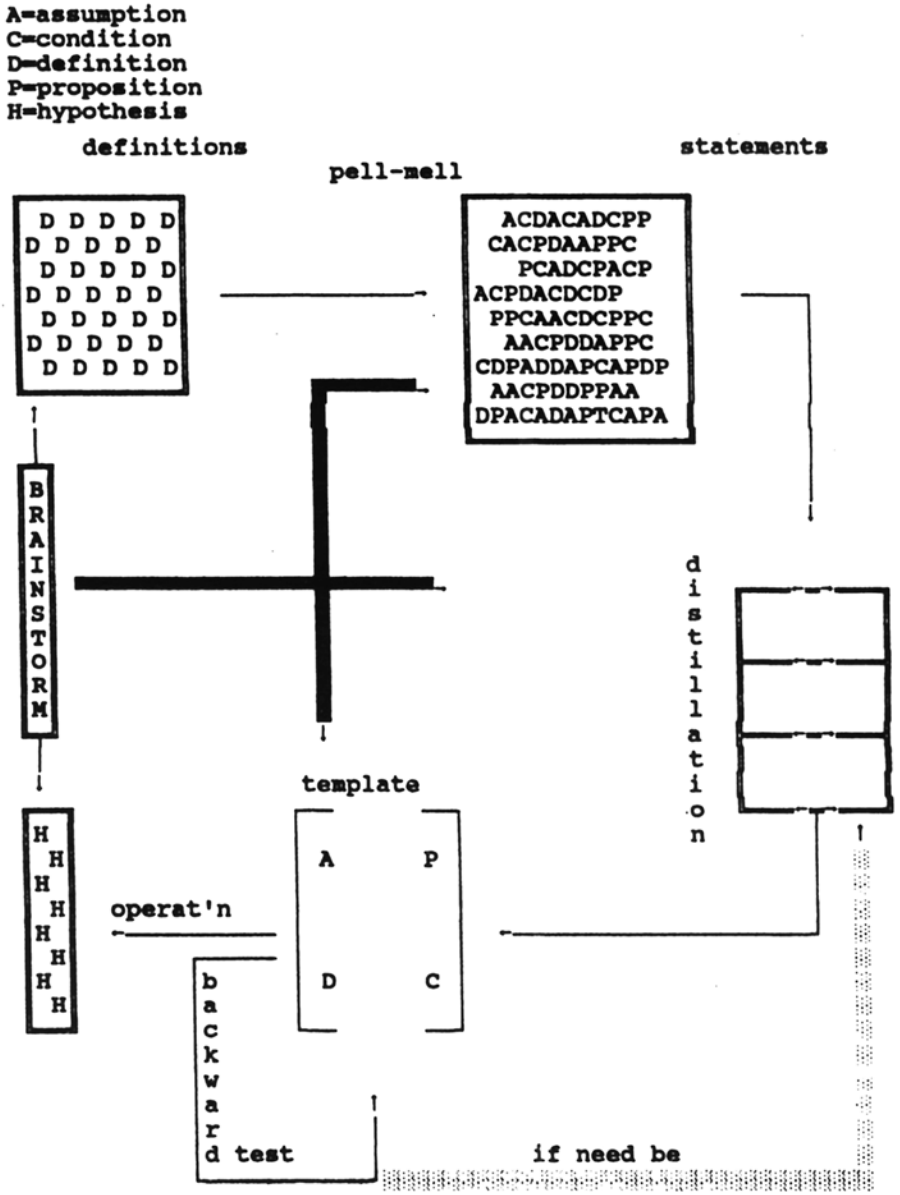

Table 1. Steps of the Method

1	Definition	-	identify primary, secondary and methodological terms to be defined
		-	delineate and express the essence of the concept
		-	review on the basis of Aristotelian criteria
2	Brainstorm	-	produce a flood of suggestions, statements and relationships
3	Distillation	-	break complex/compound statements down into simple ones
		-	differentiate statements according to type
		-	check for accuracy
		-	choose only central statements
4	Ordering	-	create a set of statements by (i) ordering by type, eventually clustered around main concepts; (ii) establishing a genealogy
5	Backward test	-	verify for completion and parsimony by moving from last-generation proposition to assumptions
6	Operationalization	-	transform essentialist definitions of hypothesis into observable, measurable operation
		-	apply the theory to an actual country's policies
7	Illustration	-	illustrate the theory and the empirical hypotheses to the particular case of a country's policy, in order to the hypothesis and, indirectly, the theory

DEVELOPING THEORY

Generally speaking, the theory develops in six stages: (1) definition of terms, (2) brainstorm, (3) distillation of statements, (4) ordering of statements, (5) testing for internal consistency, and (6) operationalization.

Step 1: Defining Terms

Wittgenstein once said common usage should be the basis of definitions: how much simpler the task would be if that were possible. Terminology is important in any study, but it is even more important for theories which aspire to logic and parsimony but persist in using words. Defining terms, always important, is even more important here because it is the first of six steps that build on each other. Consequences of defining terms reverberate throughout the theory.

There are three kinds of terms to be defined: (1) *primary* terms, which arise directly from the central hypothesis about strategic policy- and decision-making, national values and national policy; (2) *secondary* definitions, listed in Appendix C, which are important but less central; and (3) *methodological* terms, i.e. assumptions, conditions, propositions and hypotheses, which are defined below.

The role of a definition is usually limited to expressing an idea, but in this theory it must also carefully distinguish it from other ideas.[3] Only essentialist definitions, i.e. definitions that give the nature of the thing defined, can do that.[4] Of the three major types of definition (essentialism, descriptivism and intentualism), essentialism happens to work best for conceptual research and to provide criteria according to which definitions can be improved. Those criteria are convenience, freedom from normative concerns, verifiability, and precision.[5] Moreover, neither prescriptivist nor contextualist definitions really suit the study of policy.[6]

Essentialism is itself not without its problems, however. For one thing, it tends to rely on metaphors. "Metaphors are apt or inapt, illuminating or misleading, according to two criteria: (1) the number and importance of the known points of resemblance between the things compared and (2) the number and importance of previously unnoted facts suggested by the metaphor."[7] Second, there is a greater risk of syllogism with essentialist definitions that there is with either prescriptivist or pragmatic-contextual definitions. "Too often, a single term has been used to symbolize different concepts, just as the same concept has been symbolized by different terms."[8] For instance, the theory uses values in the same way that "value-systems" is used by the Parsonian school, or ideology is used in political culture.[9] Syllogism can also be a real problem for methodological terms:

---

[3] Raziel Abelson, "Definition", in Paul Edwards, ed. *The Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (New York: Macmillan & Free Press, 1967), 317 and 321.

[4] Following Aristotle's suit. See in particular *Topica Ethica* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1958), *passim*.

[5] Philip E. Jacob and James F. Flink, "Values and Their Function in Decision-Making," *American Behavioral Scientist* 5 (Supplement, May 1962), 5-38, 10.

[6] Prescriptivism assimilates definitions to imperative rather than declarative sentences, and endows them with syntactic or semantic rules for prescribing linguistic operations. Prescriptivist definitions may be value-laden, introducing biases to which strategy is particularly sensitive. (Ken Booth, *Strategy and Ethnocentrism* (London: Holmes and Meier, 1979), *passim*.) Pragmatic-contextual definitions identify meanings either with objects or with concepts denoted by words or linguistic usage. Because there are no agreed-upon usages for most terms used in this book, it is not possible to use this type of definition. (For a discussion of the various types of definition, see Raziel Abelson's, *op. cit.* About strategy and bias, see Ken Booth, *op. cit.*).

[7] Raziel Abelson, *op. cit.*, 315.

[8] Robert K. Merton, *Social Theory and Social Structure* (New York: Free Press, 1968), 74.

[9] Talcott Parsons, R.F. Bales and Edwards Shils, *Working Papers in the Theory of Action* (Glencoe: Free Press, 1953), *passim*.

the theory uses “assumption” the way other scholars use “postulate” or “premise”.[10]

Finally, there are always problems with ordinary speech:

> In the first place, the terms of ordinary speech may be quite vague, in the sense that the class of things designated by a term is not sharply and clearly demarcated from (and may in fact overlap to a considerable extent with) the class of things not so designated. Accordingly, the range of presumed validity for statements employing such terms has no determinate limits. In the second place, the terms of ordinary speech may lack a relevant degree of specificity, in the sense that the broad distinction signified by the terms do not suffice to characterize more narrowly drawn but important differences between the things denoted by the terms.[11]

The book guards its definitions against essentialist problems in two ways: first, it submits the theory to stringent and detailed tests for internal consistency; second, it develops the definitions by rigorously applying Sartori's rules of definitions, listed in Table 2.[12]

Step 2: Brainstorm

A brainstorm is by definition unpredictable: it produces raw insights which need to be reworked to be of any use. It can be done by a single scholar or by a team. It should happen mostly at the start of the whole process, but it is really always happening. It needs some inspiration, a question of particular interest, an abstract phenomenon, a complicated or subtle idea.

The result is a motley assortment of ragged, inconsistent, needlessly complicated statements in much great numbers than are necessary. In fact, a beginner might produce ten times as many statements as can be included in a theory. Nevertheless, the more the raw material, the better the theory will be. A

---

[10] Robert K. Merton, *op. cit.* Robert Gilpin's use of "assumption" parallels the usage in this thesis, though the thesis places a much greater emphasis on the differentiation of propositions than does Gilpin. See *War and Change in World Politics* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981), 106.

[11] Ernest Nagel, *The Structure of Science: Problems in the Logic of Scientific Explanation* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1961), 8.

[12] Aristotle proposed his own criteria in *Topica Ethica* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1958). In question form: 1. Does the definition give the essence or nature of thing defined, rather than its incidental properties? (It should.) 2. Does the definition use synonyms? Metaphors? Negative terms? Correlative terms? (It should not.)

brainstorm should be a flood of ideas where accuracy or elegance mean little. There will be time enough to check and double-check later. The important thing is to get going, and to stop only when intuition (or exhaustion) prompts.

Table 2. Sartori's Rules of Definition[13]

Rule 1	check for ambiguity (how meaning relates to term) and vagueness (how meaning relates to referent)
Rule 2a	check whether key terms (designator of concept and entailed terms) are defined, whether meaning is unambiguous, whether declared meaning remains unchanged throughout
Rule 2b	check whether key terms are used univocally and consistently in declared meaning
Rule 3a	unless there is proof to the contrary, no word is used as synonym for another word
Rule 3b	in establishing synonyms, demonstrate that by attributing different meanings to different words, no distinction of consequence is created
Rule 4	reconstruct concept by collecting representative set of definitions, extract characteristics, build set of statements organizing characteristics
Rule 5	to extend concept, assess degree of boundlessness degree of denotative discrimination *vis-à-vis* membership
Rule 6	boundlessness of concept is remedied by increasing the number of properties
Rule 7	connotation and denotation of concept are inversely related
Rule 8	selection of term designating concept always relates to and controls set of related terms or semantic field
Rule 9	if term unsettles semantic field, selection must show that (1) no field meaning is lost (2) ambiguity not increased
Rule 10	definitions of concept must be adequate and parsimonious

[13] Giovanni Sartori, "Guidelines for Concept Analysis", chapter in Giovanni Sartori, ed. *Social Science Concepts: A Systematic Analysis* (London: Sage Publications, 1984), 63-4.

Step 3: Distillation

Distillation is the reiterative process of adding, subtracting, classifying, revising and clarifying statements. It is governed by a series of checks and balances (see Table 2.3). For the purpose of explanation, distillation can be divided further into a three-step process: (1) various types of statements are distinguished; (2) statements are refined, usually by breaking them down into a simple standard format; and (3) statements are checked for accuracy.

There are two distinctions to be made about statements; first between types of statements, and second, between types of propositions.

Types of statements. The main test for internal consistency is what philosophical logic calls the backward test. The backward test makes sure that every statement is in its proper place, relative to other statements. That position depends on the role of a particular statement, and that role depends in turn on the type of statement. There are five types of statements: assumptions, conditions, hypotheses, propositions and definitions, which can be told apart by their respective characteristics (see Table 4).

Assumptions are the most basic statements of any. They provide the foundation on which other statements build. There is usually significant agreement among scholars on either the truth or the plausibility of assumptions, but they cannot be proven directly since they are philosophical in content. They must, however, meet three requirements: (1) assumptions must be logical, i.e. meet various formal requirements of logic; (2) assumptions must be epistemic, i.e. be consistent with prevailing conventions about knowledge; and (3) assumptions must be substantive, i.e. address some sort of content.[14] The easiest way to recognize an assumption is to look for its origin: if it is derived from any other statement, then it cannot be an assumption.

[14] Ernest Nagel, *op. cit.*, 42-43.

Table 3. Checks and Balances

definition	1. Does the definition give the essence or nature of thing defined, rather than its incidental properties? It should. 2. Does the definition use synonyms? Metaphors? Negative terms? Correlative terms? It should not.
for other statements	
clarity	1. Format Does the statement have only one verb? Does that verb relate only two phenomena? 2. Differentiation Is the statement deduced from other statements? If so, **proposition**. If not, is the statement valid for phenomena other than, in this case, value-laden decision about policies by states? If so, **assumption**. If not, **condition**.
accuracy	Can propositions be deduced from the set of statements that either (i) contradict each other, or (ii) are obviously false?
parsimony/ completeness	Backward test
elegance	*Melos* and *opsis* (guides only)
hypothesis	Is it falsifiable? Are its terms operationalized? Can it be empirically tested?

Table 4 Types of Statements

Type	*Role*	*Taxonomy*	*Origin*	*Support*
definition	delineate and express idea	main secondary methodological	policy lit.	policy lit.
assumption	basis for other statements	by main con-cepts	residual	rationale plausibility
condition	reduces scope of study		object of study	rationale
proposition	flesh out body of theory	1st-generation 2nd-generation 3rd-generation	assumption condition other	origins
hypotheses	operationalize most specific prop's	central empirical	latter prop's	empirical investigation

A *condition's* role is to reduce the scope of a theory. It does so by specifying which events can be included in the study, like including policy choices but excluding decisions about means and ways, by singling out particular phenomena for study (decision-making processes, for instance, but not planning or programming), by setting spatial or temporal limits (like studying only decisions made by France between 1955 and 1970), and, indirectly, by focusing on certain aspects of the research design.

If assumptions are the infrastructure of the theory, then *propositions* are the superstructure. Propositions are deduced from earlier statements, usually other propositions. In theory, a scholar could develop propositions *ad infinitum*, but in practice the capacity to integrate propositions is always limited, sometimes extremely.

The following series of questions can identify the various types of statements:

Is the statement deduced from other statements?
If so, the statement is a derived **proposition**.

If not,
Is the statement valid for phenomena other than, in this case, value-laden choice of policy by states?
If so, the statement is an **assumption**.

If not, the statement is a **condition**.

Empirical hypotheses are propositions in operational language that can be investigated by empirical research.[15] Hypotheses are, by their very nature, impossible to confirm absolutely. Evidence supporting them can mount so much that they are generally regarded as being verified, but it is still possible to encounter evidence to disprove it.[16]

Hypotheses, like assumptions, should meet several requirements.[17] First, hypotheses must be *deductive*: they must be logically necessary derivations of propositions. That means that each hypothesis must be successful, i.e. that it be possible to work through every statement from assumptions to hypotheses and back again, with finding a gap or skipping a statement. Second, hypotheses generated by this theory must be *probabilistic*: even though the assumptions formally imply them, the assumptions are themselves probabilistic about individual events or single occurrences. Third, hypotheses are *teleological*, i.e. they perform one or more functions in maintaining certain traits of a system. In terms of the schematic representations found in Appendices A and B, it means that several branches of derived propositions culminate with the generation of the hypothesis.

Types of Propositions. Propositions are divided into generations depending on the statements that inspired them: the first generation is deduced from assumptions and conditions, the second generation from at least one first-generation proposition, the third from at least one second-generation proposition, and so on. Successive generations mold the theory more and more closely to the

[15] Karl Popper's main thesis through several of his books. See "The Aim of Science," "Evolution and the Tree of Knowledge," and Appendix I of *Objective Knowledge: An Evolutionary Approach* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1972); *The Logic of Scientific Discovery* (London: Hutchinson, 1959); and *Conjectures and Refutations: The Growth of Scientific Knowledge* (New York: Basic Books, 1965).

[16] This relates closely to the impermanence of theory, discussed in Chapter 1.

[17] An extension of Ernest Nagel's work, *op. cit.*, on explanations.

original phenomenon, moving from the general to the specific, the theoretical to the empirical (or the more theoretical to the less so), or the abstract to the concrete. Latter-generation propositions can eventually be operationalized. For the theory to be tested for consistency, the statements must all be of the same format. The basic format uses only one verb to link two phenomena: no complex propositions and no compound sentences. While statements are being broken down into the basic format, it is important to keep track of every statement's origin. When the time comes to build the cell diagrams found in Appendices A and B, that information will be critical. The basic test for accuracy involves deriving propositions that contradict existing propositions or that are obviously false.

Step 4: Ordering the Statements

It is possible that portions of the theory have been displayed in orderly successive generations already. The rest also has to be displayed systematically for the theoretical work to proceed. Once this representation is complete, as it is in Appendix A, it becomes possible to test the theory for internal consistency.

Step 5: Backward test

The backward test is imported from philosophical logic. First, some method of schematic representation, like cell diagrams, is chosen. Symbols are assigned to each type of statement, then the generations of propositions are determined: The theorist moves through the statements' template from the late-generation through the first-generation propositions to conditions and assumptions, using the cell-diagrams or other kinds of abstract representation.

Step 6: Operationalization

There are three possible outcomes to operationalizing the theory. It can produce feedback that leads either to confirmation of the empirical hypothesis, which is unlikely, or to adjustments of the theory.

If the theory needs to be adjusted, that can mean one of two things. Either national values are not one of the key factors in determining national strategies, and the hypothesis is rejected, or only minor adjustments are necessary. Should

the hypothesis be rejected completely, the theory can be changed to suit a new independent variable, using the same method used to build the theory in the first place. Chapter 4 goes into the details of making these changes. Moreover, the backward test provides all the necessary details about assumptions, conditions and propositions needed to make those changes. After all, changes to theory are par for the course, once empirical research has begun.

JUDGING THEORY

There are no criteria specific to policy by which to judge theory, but there are criteria for the theory of International Relations thanks to Kenneth Waltz. When Kenneth Waltz launched his own theory of International Relations in 1979, he listed the following criteria: clarity, accuracy, elegance, parsimony, and ability to predict and/or explain phenomena.[18] These criteria now enjoy a broad acceptance within the discipline, even though they leave a great deal to the imagination. The method of theory-building outlined above is geared to meet the following interpretation of those five requirements leave.

Solid definitions and consistent terminology are the key to *clarity*. It is easier to be consistent than it is to use rigorous definitions, because definitions rarely inspire any kind of consensus in social science. Beyond terminology the meaning of each statement has to stand on its own merits, as well as in the context of other statements. Both distillation and the backward test (steps 2 and 5) ensure clarity.

It is almost impossible for a theorist to check the accuracy of her own work. A process as mechanical as possible, like asking the following questions, is one solution.

1. Is it possible to deduce propositions that contradict each other, from an identical set of statements?

2. Is it possible to deduce propositions that are patently untrue (like reversing the law of gravity or the cycles of the moon)?

[18] There is a sixth requirement, that a theory take into account the forces of the international system. That criteria only applies to theories for the whole international system. See Kenneth Waltz, *Theory of International Politics* (New York: Random House, 1979), especially pp. 69-72.

Waltz does not mention it directly, but for a theory to be accurate, it also has to be complete. This theory is judged to be complete if it can generate plausible empirical hypotheses from the statements included, and if each and every proposition is supported by other statements. That is a second use for the schematic representation, or template, of the theory. The template's role is to represent the entire theory, making it obvious where the gaps are. The template makes any superfluous statements just as obvious, ensuring *parsimony*.

Ensuring clarity or accuracy may be very technical, but it is actually easier than trying to make the theory *elegant*. Elegance is the least tangible of Waltz's requirements, and in some ways, it is the most important. Few scholars will be interested in the theory unless it has elegance, and while classics of strategy, the root of policy analysis, provide some models, they do not provide any real guidance. André Beaufre's work has a carven simplicity that allows the reader an economy of effort. That kind of simplicity is a move in the right direction, but there is more to it than that, or elegant theories would all be relatively simple. There are a number of scholars whose theories are not simple at all, like Raymond Aron or Zeev Maoz, but they have an undeniable elegance.

Elegance, I suggest, is actually a balance between the images created in the mind's eye and the sound created in the mind's ear. When image and sound strike some sort of balance, the theory can be understood with a minimum of effort. That economy of the audience's effort is the most desirable characteristic for theory, and that balance of *melos* and *opsis*, is what elegance is about.[19]

[19] Northrop Frye, *Anatomy of Criticism* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957), 244.

Chapter 11

FROM TOCQUEVILLE TO TECHNOLOGY: DISTANCE LEARNING AND THE PUBLIC SPHERE

Phillip Boyle
Graduate School of Public Affairs
University of Colorado at Denver

INTRODUCTION

Tocqueville (1848) observed that in a democracy there is a need to keep people interested in theory, but that they will look after the practical side of things themselves. Rather than focusing on the practical and pedagogical issues pertaining to distance learning, I have chosen to explore its theoretical potential for connecting citizens and expanding the public sphere. I agree with Tocqueville that people will take care of the practical side of distance learning themselves.

Public administrators are experiencing considerable pressure to explore the application of communications technology to public administration. Educators are not exempt from this pressure. Distance learning, for example, provides a number of benefits to both schools and students of public administration, such as reduced commuting, reduced facilities costs, and more flexible use of time. Such tangible benefits may be important to students, faculty, and administrators, but they provide little insight into whether the technological applications that make distance learning possible are compatible with public administration's

normative goal of contributing to a democratic society. While some observers argue that "electronic democracy" can overcome many of the social and economic barriers that impede the democratization of society, others suggest that a greater reliance upon communications technology can increase isolation and reduce discourse, resulting in a diminished public sphere. Employing democratic theory, this paper examines the implications of distance learning for developing democratic citizenship and expanding the public sphere.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DISTANCE LEARNING

Recently, NASPAA's Commission on the Curriculum (1996) examined the fit between what is taught and the demands of today's "real world" of public administration. The Commission's conclusions regarding the importance of communication and commitment, pedagogy and curriculum warrant attention, as they capture both the dilemma and potential of distance learning for public administration. Two of the Commission's conclusions are particularly relevant to the relationship between democratic education and distance learning.

The Commission concludes that communication skills and a commitment to the values underlying public service and government are important and merit attention in the curriculum review process. The report endorses the importance placed by both graduates and employers on interpersonal and political skills and abilities such as negotiation and mediation, conflict resolution, presentation skills, coaching, educating, team building, and systemic thinking. The report recommends that commitment to public service, critical to both the profession and the polis, can best be achieved by exposing students to the values underlying public service and government, and through faculty leadership and modeling of informed commitment to public service.

The Commission also concludes that pedagogical and delivery issues are as relevant as curriculum content. The report recommends that graduate level experiences that integrate coursework and simulate the actual work environment are the most valuable for learning, and that flexible scheduling and packaging of instruction (e.g., distance learning) is needed to make education more accessible.

These recommendations are in the tradition of political theorists who argue that the universalization of citizenship has to be accompanied by formal training in the civic arts as well as the broadest distribution of economic and political responsibilities, the exercise of which teaches good judgment, communication skills, decision making, and the willingness to accept responsibility (Arendt,

1958; Barber, 1995; Dahl, 1995; Eberly, 1995; Lewis, 1994; Strike, 1988). The NASPAA report suggests that distance learning can and should serve as a means to achieving the normative goal of preparing citizens to participate in a democratic society.

A number of factors account for the emergence of distance learning within schools of public administration, including geographically remote locations, underserved populations, competition or the lack of competition, revenue potential, joint programming with other institutions, and time and resource constraints (Miniclier, 1998; Rahm and Reed, 1997). Surely the most parsimonious explanation is that, in addition to being feasible, it provides tangible benefits to students, faculty, and administrators. As Tocqueville observed, "In aristocratic ages the chief function of science is to give pleasure to the mind, but in democratic ages to the body" (1848, p. 462). Within a democratic context, distance learning is a means to expand access to and participation in civic education. Distance learning must support the goals of civic education in a democratic society, and the tangible benefits realized through technology should not serve to restrict or diminish in any way the opportunities for individuals to participate in their own democratic education.

The growing use of the internet coincides with growing concern about the quality of civic life (Barber, 1995; Bridges, 1994; Eberly, 1995), community (Bader, 1995; Eberly, 1994; Etzioni, 1993); social capital (Fukuyama, 1996; Kolankiewicz, 1996; Putnam, 1995, 1993), the public sphere (Kemmis, 1990; Marston, 1995; Somers, 1993), and civic and democratic renewal (Chrislip, 1994; Gardner, 1994; Lampe, 1994). These concerns are fueled by growing levels of cynicism towards politics and distrust of government. One response to citizen cynicism and distrust is the demand for greater political efficiency in the form of direct democracy (Cronin, 1989). The internet represents the electronic hopes of advocates of direct democracy. The heightened expectations created by the internet represent a growing faith in a technological solution to the fundamental political problems of democracy (Wachtel, 1992). These responses are symptomatic of citizens' frustrations with the inefficiencies of democracy rather than prescriptions for the solution (King, 1997).

The potential of the internet combined with direct democracy as a means for revitalizing democracy and civic education has attracted much attention in recent years. Electronic democrats have coined the term "virtual polis" in recent literature on political participation and the internet (Groper, 1996). Their hope that technology can create a virtual polis based on direct democracy reflects a pessimistic view of the vitality of the polis in America. The political irony of the communications revolution is that while every new technological development

points to a greater democratization of electronic communication, the democratization of media may result in a greater separation and segregation of individuals, with more channels but less discourse (Brown, 1992).

Proponents suggest that the internet's emphasis on interaction and ability to engage make it an obvious vehicle for reinvigorating civic education (Long and Dubnick, 1997) and a means of realizing the ideals of democracy, such as participation (Grossman, 1995). Critics of direct and electronic democracy argue that advocates seldom consider how eliminating face-to-face contact among legislators might affect the relationship between citizens and government (Mansbridge, 1980), and that they seem all too willing to sacrifice the social and civic conditions shown to be necessary for effective democratic deliberation (Harwood, 1990). Some observers of distance learning and virtual education suggest that schools are overwired and undertaught (Bronner, 1997b), and that the considerable investment in technology hasn't done much for either teaching or thinking (Postman, 1998).

Such arguments notwithstanding, the changes that the information age is producing in our economy and in the nature of work are compelling organizations of all types to incorporate virtuality into their ways of conducting business. More and more of our economic activity involves synthesizing information, ideas, and intelligence - a sure invitation to virtuality (Handy, 1995). Support for this transformation is evidenced by the rapid growth in distance learning and virtual education (Bronner, 1997a; Gerhardt, 1998; Keating, 1997; Smith, 1998a, 1998b), with some universities delivering entire degree programs via distance learning (*Rocky Mountain News*, 1998). The political, economic, and social pressures being placed on universities to be accountable, control costs, and deliver a useful product that will help students cope with increasing uncertainty may help to stimulate this growth even further (Kowalski, 1997).

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION EDUCATION AS VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION

Aristotle held that the end and purpose of the polis, or political community, is the good life, and that the associations and institutions of social life are means to that end (Barker, 1962). More than in most democracies, voluntary activity in America shapes the allocation of economic, social, and cultural benefits and contributes to the achievement of collective purposes (Wuthnow, 1991). "The vital center of democracy is the community of associations. Any person without

access to that forum is effectively denied citizenship" (McKnight, 1987, p. 57). In this context, schools of public administration function as forms of voluntary association. In associative democracy, a deliberate politics of association, the state assumes some responsibility for altering the political environment so as to both increase the number and scope of associations and to expand their role in the political process (Cohen and Rogers, 1992). Schools of public administration, particularly those within public universities, can promote democracy by ensuring that students' educational experiences include opportunities for association.

The importance of voluntary association and its relationship to democracy traces its roots to Tocqueville, who writes, "In democratic countries knowledge of how to combine is the mother of all other forms of knowledge; on its progress depends that of all the others" (1848, p. 517). Tocqueville theorized that churches, political parties, and fraternal organizations have served historically as mediating institutions to help sustain democratic values and beliefs. He saw that America was teeming with a wide variety of voluntary associations, such as charities, choral groups, church study groups, book clubs, and temperance groups, and that these associations had a salutary effect on society, turning self-interested individuals into public-spirited citizens.

Associations and institutions are inextricably connected to community. Social institutions serve as the principal mechanism by which society generates "social capital," defined as the sense of trust, mutual obligation, and connectedness that a civic society requires (Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, Leonardi, and Nanetti, 1993). The ability to form groups, associations, and institutions depends on trust. The political capacity to trust people outside our families generates social capital. Social capital theorists suggest we can make democracy work better by strengthening the norms of trust, reciprocity, and civic engagement that are indispensable to collective existence. However, as some scholars have noted, the influence of mediating processes and institutions that help create social capital appears to be declining, leading to an erosion of the traditional source of trust and consensus making that sustains a civic and democratic society (Cohen and Rogers, 1992; Putnam, 1995).

Many Americans see individuals as pitted against institutions, resulting in the paradox that faith and trust in institutions is declining in a society that is becoming increasingly dependent upon and driven by institutions (Bellah *et al.*, 1991). If institutions are constraining, they are also enabling. Drawing on twentieth-century political philosophy, particularly the work of John Dewey, Bellah *et al.* envision the good society in terms of a widening of democratic participation and accountability of institutions, and an interdependence between democratic participation and institutions themselves. They see institutions as

patterns of social activity that give shape to collective and individual experience. Through them we understand our own identity and the identity of others, and we seek cooperatively to achieve a decent society. "The most profound decisions about justice are not made by individuals as such, but by individuals thinking within and on behalf of institutions" (Douglas, 1986, p. 124).

Some of the institutional dilemmas we face are moral dilemmas, and our cultural resources for dealing with them are impoverished (Etzioni, 1988). The individualism of our culture leads us to believe that we can live relatively independent of big institutions, and use them when necessary for our own ends, without being fundamentally influenced or affected by them. We need to educate ourselves as citizens so that we can, through the processes of participation and association, really make a difference in the institutions that have such an impact on our lives (Bellah *et al.*, 1991). The freedom to choose between classroom and distance learning also entails a responsibility to the social institutions that create these choices.

Research clearly demonstrates that participation and voluntary association beget more participation and voluntary association. In *Voice and Equality*, a comprehensive behavioral study of civic voluntarism, Verba *et al.* (1995) find that an individual's education, parents' education, and discussion of politics at home are all significantly related to an individual's voluntary association, with an individual's own education serving as the strongest predictor. An individual's education, job level, affiliation with a nonpolitical organization, and religious attendance are significant factors in developing civic skills. Education, which leads to acquiring the resources for participation, remains the strongest single predictor of political participation. Voluntary association in nonpolitical organizations is a stronger predictor of political participation than job level or religious attendance.

This focus on small-scale participation and association is often criticized on the grounds that such a notion is out of time and place as we approach the 21st century. But practicing self-government in small spheres, as Tocqueville observed, impels citizens to larger spheres of political activity as well. While organizing and running PTA or church activities or student project groups may have nothing to do with politics, these activities can lead individuals to develop skills that are transferable to political activity (Leege, 1988; Olsen, 1972; Verba *et al.*, 1995). The power and potential of attending to small things as a means of promoting large-scale change is attested to by several recent works (Crane, 1991; Kelling and Coles, 1996).

Social movements have arisen from small voluntary groups with powerful democratic elements within them, including the abolition movement, the civil

rights movement, working class protests, the suffragist and ERA movements, and the populist movement of the 1880s (Evans and Boyte, 1986). "When connected with participation in larger movements directed at fundamental social change, small group membership can transform not only individuals, but also society" (Gastil, 1993, p. 164). An example of how civic capacity first awakened in voluntary associations finds broader political expression is evidenced by the civil rights movement, in which the civic education and solidarity cultivated in the black churches of the South were a crucial prerequisite for a local political movement that eventually unfolded on a national scale (Sandel, 1996).

Does voluntary association improve the civic character of citizens as Tocqueville suggests? Participation through voluntary association appears to present an intriguing paradox. On one hand, we see evidence that "possessive individualism" (Macpherson, 1977) can often overshadow democratic participation. Bellah *et al.* (1985) describe it this way:

> "One nurtures public virtue, they suggest, only by withdrawing into private life, by associating with people who share one's own standards of decency, familiar others uncorrupted by the public world. One gets involved in public life only to protect one's hearth and home and one's decent friends and neighbors from the evils of a mysterious, threatening, complicated society composed of shadowy, sinister, immoral strangers. There is no rationale here for developing public institutions that would tolerate the diversity of a large, heterogeneous society and nurture common standards of justice and civility among its members" (p. 185).

On the other hand, and in contrast to "possessive individualism," participation through voluntary association may also lead individuals to realize that there are larger problems, that it is necessary to band together with others, and often results in their becoming more interested in community affairs, more likely to vote, and more involved in a wider range of public institutions. "It is perhaps paradoxical that participation in voluntary associations often derives from a sense of alienation from public institutions and yet results in greater involvement in these institutions" (Wuthnow, 1995, p. 213). This paradox suggests that while distance learning can serve to reinforce a sense of possessive individualism, it can also serve to create a stronger sense of civic involvement and help to expand the public sphere.

DISTANCE LEARNING AND DEMOCRATIC PARTICIPATION

Democratic participation builds civic virtue, contributes to a sense of community, enhances political capacity, and increases trust and confidence in institutions because participation educates citizens about political issues, which in turn supplements individuals' self-interest with concern for others. The educative effects of participation are most likely to occur through experiences that involve face-to-face participation in decision making (Barber, 1984; Fishkin, 1991; Gastil, 1993; Kemmis, 1990; Mansbridge, 1980; Mason, 1982; Pateman, 1970; White, 1994). Time is a frequently cited cost in students' decisions to choose distance learning over the classroom and citizens' decisions to decline opportunities for social and political participation. Democratic theory suggests that people will participate more actively and intensely when the issues are relevant and involving (Mansbridge, 1980).

All forms of participatory democracy, such as strong democracy (Barber, 1984), associative democracy (Cohen and Rogers, 1992), and unitary democracy (Mansbridge, 1980), place great emphasis on face-to-face participation. Face-to-face participation is consensual, based on common interests and equal respect. It requires that the participants know each other; that important decisions be made by people meeting and talking together; that the society be very small; and that the participants interact (Laslett, 1956). The small community of face-to-face relationships is the foundation of democratic life (Morgan, 1942). "In the small group...is where we shall find the inner meaning of democracy, its heart and core" (Follett, 1924, pp. 225-226).

A strong appeal of distance learning is that it helps satisfy our need for freedom and individuality. These needs are compatible with democracy's high regard for individual freedom. Face-to-face participation focuses upon the individual as the central actor, and one's individuality is embedded in social identities and relationships. A member of a demos is an individual, yet the individual's identity as a member comes from social relations, from membership in the group (Gould, 1988). The members of a demos must all reciprocally recognize one another's membership in order for any to identify themselves as a part of the demos (Rucinski, 1991). In *Rethinking Democracy* (1988), Carol Gould explains why democracy requires that people recognize one another's individuality. Democracy, she writes, can be "fully effective only if...people generally relate to each other as equals and with respect for each other's individual differences and interests. For the very process of participatory democratic decision making entails such reciprocal recognition" (p. 257).

It is difficult, costly, and time-consuming to incorporate face-to-face participation in either the relatively small arena of distance learning or the much larger sphere of public administration. Despite its obvious costs and obstacles, there is evidence that many citizens would welcome a "new politics" based at least in part on democratic participation. Citizen focus groups conducted throughout the nation identify several characteristics of this new public politics (Harwood, 1993). These include more thoughtful deliberation; a learning society; a community that speaks, listens, and comes to understand itself; a politics where people can agree to disagree but still work together to find common solutions to problems; a sense of community where people are challenged not to give up their self interests but to think about common interests too; and a politics where a premium is placed on public interaction rather than private judgments. Research reveals that learning through participation is closely related to participants' level of involvement, and that a substantial level of non-formal learning occurs through participation. People learn readily through a process of action and reflection (Schon, 1983), and face-to-face participation can increase participants' knowledge of government, human relations, and politics (Lackey and Dershem, 1992).

One way in which public administration can help revitalize the public sphere is to create institutions that can overcome the barriers of collective action, particularly the costs associated with participation. The costs and benefits of collective action can be conceptualized as personal or community, as material or intangible, and as expressive or instrumental (Verba *et al.,* 1995). Material benefits are more effective for inducing individuals to join a collective effort than to work on its behalf once they are members, but intangible benefits are more useful for explaining the persistence of an ongoing organization than for explaining its inception (Wilson, 1973). Members who are attracted to voluntary organizations for normative or social inducements are more likely to be active participants, while those who are attracted to more selective benefits are less likely to be active (Knoke, 1986). Members report receiving social and community benefits more than personal or material benefits, while nonmembers report that time and personal/family concerns are major factors discouraging them from becoming a member (Prestby *et al.,* 1990). If distance learning is to be an effective tool in promoting democratic education, it must offer more than tangible benefits or relief from tangible costs.

COMMUNITY, THE VIRTUAL POLIS, AND THE PUBLIC SPHERE

Sixteen years have passed since George Frederickson (1982) placed the challenge of restoring community squarely with public administration. "There has been a decided loss of sense of community in contemporary America. The single greatest conceptual and theoretical problem we face is the reconstruction of this sense of community" (p. 505). Other public administration theorists have echoed this challenge. "The ability to construct such community and sustain such a belief is what The Public Administration must be all about" (Wamsley, 1990, p. 155). Frederickson (1996) remains convinced that this challenge is as great as ever, noting that government recognizes physical entities, but community is not physical, it is deliberative and social.

Community has always held a central place in democratic theory. As James Morone observes in *The Democratic Wish: Popular Participation and the Limits of American Government* (1990), "Democratic hopes have always settled within notions of community" (p. 335). Yet our great degree of individual freedom, while energizing and exciting, makes it very difficult for individuals to find stable communal support and for any community to count on the responsible participation of its members. At the same time, it is our communal aspirations, values, and dreams that we share in common, rather than any set of differences, that make us Americans (Stone, 1997; Walzer, 1992). It is as members of a community that individuals participate in the decisions affecting them (Mason, 1982). Within a virtual context such as distance learning, membership can replace a sense of belonging to a place with a sense of belonging to a community (Handy, 1995).

Because democratic participation is distinctly voluntary and not exclusively governmental, democracy and community have a paradoxical relationship. "Citizens of a democracy must learn to recognize the social significance of their private acts if they wish to retain a zone of private choice" (Fluno, 1971, p. 75). As are all of the great issues of political theory, this is a normative issue, and it raises questions of morality and ethics. Democracy is an ethical association, not simply a form of government, and democratic community cannot exist where individuals act in their own self-interest regardless of the consequences (Dewey, 1927). The politics of community make operative the moral consensus of the community, reached through face-to-face discussion (Bellah *et al.*, 1985).

Individual fulfillment is achieved not through the pursuit of self-interest but through a commitment to a common good (Sullivan, 1982). In *The Democratic*

Community (1971), political scientist Robert Fluno eloquently describes democracy as undertaking an experiment in participation that brings the collectivity and commonality of citizens into the process of governance.

> "Democracy attempts to give a distinctive significance to the collectivity, converting it into a humanistic community. It seeks to change each member of that community into a valued personality. Its aim is to bring forth self-knowing, self-directed human beings by creating a setting in which men and women can achieve maturity. The democratic purpose, as seen her, is both personal and collective. Both for his own sake and for that of his community, the individual must learn to become responsible through making careful choices; he must learn to exercise his freedom wisely. But he cannot do this single-handedly. To find one's individual self, to find personal meaning, requires a balance of ego and love: a sense of self-comprehension and self-appreciation accompanied by enjoyment of the company of others. If a society is to create a multitude of mature personalities, both individual, self-directed effort and communal engagement are required. Democracy must stress both man's separateness as a personality and his function as a participant in the larger society" (pp. 64-65).

The loss of community figures prominently in contemporary political writings, and the most common theme underlying works on the loss of community is a normative, spiritual one (Barber, 1984; Bellah *et al.*, 1985; Bloom, 1987; Etzioni, 1993; Fowler, 1991; Kemmis, 1990). Dewey (1927), lamenting the loss of the public realm in which citizens could deliberate about their common destiny, writes that, "Till the Great Society is converted into a Great Community, the Public will remain in eclipse" (p. 324).

The erosion of community, closely connected during the early years of the twentieth century with the rise of a corporate and organizational society, has reduced the scope and vitality of the public sphere (Sandel, 1996). In response to the increasing scale and complexity of metropolitan life, Tocqueville (1848) predicted that "As the extent of political society expands, one must expect the sphere of private life to contract" (p. 604). Tocqueville was less concerned about the diminishment of the private sphere than the withdrawal of citizens from the public sphere. Satisfied with the founders' solutions to the threats of despotism and tyranny, Tocqueville foresaw a new threat to American democracy:

> "In the first place, I see an innumerable multitude of men, alike and equal, constantly circling around in pursuit of the petty and banal pleasures with which they glut their souls. Each one of them, withdrawn

> into himself, is almost unaware of the fate of the rest. Mankind, for him, consists in his children and his personal friends. As for the rest of his fellow citizens, they are near enough, but he does not notice them. He touches them but feels nothing. He exists in and for himself, and though he still may have a family, one can say that he has not got a fatherland" (1848, p. 692).

Decrying the loss of a politics of community, Bellah *et al.* (1985) point out that the politics of difference discourages citizens from negotiating the complexity of public and private identities. As rights become construed increasingly in individualistic terms their civic dimensions begin to wither, citizens emphasize individual differences over communal commonalties, and this politics of difference promotes conflict rather than consensus (Glendon, 1991). We strive to conduct ourselves politically as if we had nothing in common (Lasch, 1995). The result "is a public world with many "I's" who form a "we" only with people like themselves" (Elshtain, 1994, p. 10). Community does not provide an easy alternative to the alienation of citizens who become clients (Tillotson, 1994) or customers (Schachter, 1997).

To the degree that people in their separated individuality never become public, the meaning of public becomes lost (Kemmis, 1990). The value of the public realm is that it "gathers us together and yet prevents our falling over each other, so to speak. What makes mass society so difficult to bear is not the number of people involved, or at least not primarily, but the fact that the world between them has lost its power to gather them together, to relate and to separate them" (Arendt, 1958, p. 52). "Getting involved" represents the peculiarly American notion of the relationship between self and society, between the public and the private (Bellah *et al.*, 1985).

Restoring community is no easy task. There is no simple solution, no single prescription. Our longing for community cannot be satisfied by attempting to restore the traditional model of community. Creating contemporary community requires a wholeness incorporating diversity; a reasonable base of shared values; caring, trust, and teamwork; participation; affirmation; and institutional arrangements for community maintenance (Gardner, 1995). Citizenship, defined as the practice of democratic participation, helps to build a sense of community. Cooperation and collaboration are exercises in citizenship, and capture the very essence of democracy. They make government far less a matter of bureaucracy, and far more a matter of the direct exercise of citizen competence, of citizenship. "This taking of responsibility is the precise opposite of the move toward the

'unencumbered self.' It is, quite simply, the development of citizenship" (Kemmis, 1990, pp. 113).

Democracy means paying attention, developing a sense of the common good to combat the selfish individualism that blinds us to the needs of others (Bellah *et al.*, 1985). Communities lay moral claims on their members. We find reinforcement for our moral inclinations and provide reinforcement to our fellow citizens through community (Baumgartner, 1988; Etzioni, 1988). We tend to "confuse the right to be free from government intrusion with a nonexistent "right" to be exempt from the moral scrutiny of one's peers and community" (Etzioni, 1993, p. 38). It is our reluctance to make demands on each other, more than our reluctance to help those in need, that is sapping the strength of democracy today (Lasch, 1995).

Building community is not a finishable task, because community requires constant rebuilding. People who do participate find that they can work together and get things done, and the more they do so, the more they find they have in common. It is precisely the engagement that comes from participation that makes this possible (Douglass, 1994). Proponents of the internet as a democratizing force often cite its capacity for reducing the likelihood of interpersonal conflict and the significance of individual difference. But conflict and difference are essential in creating and recreating community. Community is forged out of a struggle among people to determine how they can best live together (Moore, 1991).

The implication of democratic community for distance learning is that people must be brought together to overcome the separation and segregation that can too easily occur in the virtual polis. Paradoxically, the more virtual the organization, the more its people need to meet in person (Handy, 1995). The NASPAA Distance Learning Survey report contains this comment from a respondent: "To offer an entire MPA program - you must use intensive weekends (at least 2) in each course to build rapport and develop relationships with and among students. It's vital!!!" (Rahm and Reed, 1997).

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS CIVIC EDUCATION

Questions of citizenship have moved from the margins to the center of attention in political philosophy (Murdock, 1995). Civic education, as a process of creating citizenship, invokes character, morality, ethics, and leadership. "The condition of one's character influences the quality of one's citizenship" (Bergen, 1994, pp. 11-12). Public administrators can demonstrate moral leadership by

establishing a partnership in virtue among all citizens (Hart, 1989). The ethical obligations of the public administrator derive from administrators' membership in the political community as "citizen-administrators" (Cooper, 1984). A critical ethical obligation of the public administrator is to educate citizens (McGregor, 1984).

Nothing less than the legitimacy of the administrative state is at stake in the argument that public administration has an important role to play in promoting civic education and citizenship skills (Frederickson, 1996; Gawthrop, 1984; Kaufman-Osborn, 1985; Spicer, 1995). Lowi (1979) captures the significance of citizenship in developing a viable civic culture and in legitimating the administrative state when he writes:

> "In a democratic system citizenship is the only thing people absolutely, involuntarily, and perpetually have in common. And it is in regard to this public dimension of people and things that government has its really effective claim" (p. 261).

All too often civic education is narrowly defined as a course offered to secondary school students. The purpose of civic education is to promote the public good, which begins with the intention to discern, through rational discourse, the idea of the interest of the whole. Civic education encompasses an attachment to justice, a willingness to serve beyond self-interest, an openness to all those who share the rank of citizen, and a perspective that reaches beyond the generation living to those unborn (O'Neil, 1987). Civic education means that education required of all people in a self-governing society (Ketcham, 1992). Formal education through the school is one means to achieving civic education. The business of the school is to ensure that students acquire civic virtue in such a way that they will better pursue their rights and obligations as active and engaged citizens committed to the public good (Clark, 1990; Pratte, 1988).

The point of democracy is not just to reconcile conflicting interests, but to design institutions that encourage discourse (Warren, 1992). Civic education must therefore be grounded in democratic deliberation. Democracy is both a model and a discourse, and represents a balance between choice and order according to rules rather than ends (Apter, 1992). Discourse can be understood as "that form of communication that is removed from contexts of experience and action and whose structure assures us: that the bracketed validity claims of assertions, recommendations, or warnings are the exclusive object of discussion; that participants, themes and contributions are not restricted except with reference to the goal of testing the validity claims in question; that no force except that of the

better argument is exercised; and that, as a result, all motives except that of the cooperative search for truth are excluded" (Habermas, 1975, pp. 107-108).

Ideal discourse reflects the simultaneous development of both collective will and the autonomy of participants, expressed as a convergence of collective and individual rationality (Habermas, 1979). Deliberation is a sophisticated form of social interaction whose outcome depends upon the characteristics of the participants, and a collective process that asks for patience, trust in self and others, respect for those whose ideas are different, ability to see a whole system and its interdependent parts, and suspension of self-interest for the common good (Roberts, 1997). Deliberation of this sort is not merely about expressing opinions, it is undermined by anonymity and incivility, it requires that we know one another, and decision making is based on the consensus of those individuals affected by the matter under discussion (Putnam, 1993). Within a framework of communicative rationality, consensus does not require that everyone agrees; but it does require that everyone affected has the opportunity to voice his or her opinion, and that each person is able to live with the resulting decision (Dryzek, 1990).

Acquiring civic education through participation in civic life requires settings in which people meet as equals. The tendency for elites to speak only to themselves results from the absence of institutions that promote general conversation across class lines, and the decay of civic institutions helps to make conversation almost as specialized as the production of knowledge (Lasch, 1995). Discourse serves not so much as a means of seeking compromise among competing groups and individuals, but rather as a means of promoting more rational and enlightened thought and action (Denhardt, 1981). "It is ultimately the *process* of discourse, what I have named the moral-transformative experience, that establishes the truth and falsehood of our needs" (Benhabib, 1986, p. 338).

Public administration can contribute to civic education and the development of a political community inhabited by competent citizens by promoting democratic discourse (Dahl, 1992; Fox and Miller, 1995). This should occur not just within the sphere of government, but throughout the process of governance. This means that discursive democracy should not be dependent upon the state or a public institution (Dryzek, 1996). Although many of society's complex problems can no longer be solved at the local level, the concepts of free spaces, citizen participation, and civic discourse can go a long way towards successful community problem solving (Lewis, 1994). "Public deliberation, as a cornerstone of the generative approach to general management in the public sector, is an emerging form of social interaction used to set direction for government agencies" (Roberts, 1997, p. 130).

Deliberation and discourse should also be used to set direction for civic education. Discourse should be part of the design of voluntary associations and intermediate institutions, including schools of public administration. As a forum for civic education, it is difficult to separate issues of content from form in public administration education. This is especially true when the intent is to sustain democratic values (Dubnick and Long, 1997). The goal of education for democracy is to learn how to live (Dewey, 1927), yet democracy does not prescribe the form and content of such an education (Elshtain, 1995).

SUMMARY

With all due respect to Gertrude Stein, learning is learning is learning, regardless of technology or geography. "If one ignores the technology, there is nothing new, conceptually, about the idea of an activity without a building as its home....A network of salespeople is the most common example - so ordinary and everyday an example that we would not think of giving it such a grandiose title as a virtual organization" (Handy, 1995, pp. 41-42). Technology alters how we learn, and distance learning signifies a shift in the locus of control away from the university and toward the student. Technology does not alter the timeless lessons of politics and democracy. As Harlan Cleveland (1979) points out, what Hamilton wrote about economic policy in the Federalist Papers now seems quaint and archaic, but Madison's writings on the nature of politics, factions, and the essence of government seem strikingly up-to-date. "It is a description - especially in Federalist No. 10 - worth rereading now that we must invent the institutions of governance for academic institutions with nobody in charge" (p. 308).

Public administration is properly concerned with the refounding of itself as a discipline and the reinventing of government. It should be no less concerned with the refounding and reinventing of the polis. Public administration education should seek to create a polis inhabited by citizens equipped with the knowledge and skills necessary to make democracy work. Distance learning can help create such a polis in virtual form. This virtual polis should be created not as a means of bypassing the well-documented failings of contemporary political society, but rather as a means of progressing toward our democratic ideals. Distance learning should be designed with the goal of expanding opportunities for democratic participation and civic education. The virtual polis should seek to apply technology to enhance democratic deliberation and discourse, to promote opportunities for individuals to discover their collective interests and create a

sense of political community through face-to-face participation, and to bridge the widening gaps between citizens whose shared identity as Americans is diminishing as rapidly as their cynicism and disaffection is increasing.

REFERENCES

Apter, David E., 1992. "Democracy and Emancipatory Movements: Notes for a Theory of Inversionary Discourse." *Development and Change*, 23, 139-173.

Arendt, Hannah, 1958. *The Human Condition.* Chicago: University of Chicago.

Bader, Veit M., 1995. "Citizenship and Exclusion: Radical Democracy, Community and Justice. Or, What Is Wrong with Communitarianism?" *Political Theory*, 23, 211-246.

Barber, Benjamin R., 1984. *Strong Democracy: Participatory Politics for a New Age*. Berkeley: University of California.

Barber, Benjamin R., 1995. "Searching for Civil Society." *National Civic Review*, 84, 114-118.

Baumgartner, M. P., 1988. *The Moral Order of a Suburb*. New York: Oxford University.

Bellah, Robert N., Richard Madsen, William M. Sullivan, Ann Swidler, and Steven M. Tipton, 1985. *Habits of the Heart: Individualism and Commitment in American Life*. New York: Harper & Row.

Bellah, Robert N., Richard Madsen, William M. Sullivan, Ann Swidler, and Steven M. Tipton, 1991. *The Good Society*. New York: Vintage.

Benhabib, Seyla, 1986. *Critique, Norm, and Utopia.* New York: Columbia University.

Bergen, Timothy J., 1994. "Culture, Character, and Citizenship." *Journal of Thought*, 29, 7-16.

Bloom, Allan, 1987. *The Closing of the American Mind.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Bray, Hiawatha, 1998. "In 1998, Look for Groupware to Be Big Player." *RockyMountain News*, February 2.

Bridges, Thomas, 1994. *The Culture of Citizenship: Inventing Postmodern Civic Culture.* Albany, NY: State University of New York.

Bronner, Ethan, 1997a. "Adults-Only College Races to the Top." *The Denver Post*, October 15.

Bronner, Ethan, 1997b. "High-Tech Teaching Is Losing Its Gloss." *The New York Times*, November 30.

Brown, Les, 1992. “Paradox of Democracy - More Channels, Less Discourse.” *Media Studies Journal,* 6, 113-123.

Calhoun, Craig, ed., 1992. *Habermas and the Public Sphere.* Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Chrislip, David D., 1994. “American Renewal: Reconnecting Citizens with Public Life.” *National Civic Review,* 83, 25-31.

Clark, Todd, 1990. “Participation in Democratic Citizenship Education.” *Social Studies,* 81, 206-209.

Cleveland, Harlan, 1979. “The Get-It-All-Together Profession.” *Public Administration Review,* 39, 306-309.

Cohen, Joshua and Joel Rogers, 1992. “Secondary Associations and Democratic Governance.” *Politics and Society,* 20, 393-472.

Cooper, Terry L., 1984. “Citizenship and Professionalism in Public Administration.” *Public Administration Review,* 44, 143-149.

Crane, Jonathon, 1991. “The Epidemic Theory of Ghettos and Neighborhood Effects on Dropping Out and Teenage Childbearing.” *American Journal of Sociology,* 96, 1226-1259.

Cronin, Thomas E., 1989. *Direct Democracy: The Politics of Initiative, Referendum, and Recall.* Cambridge: Harvard University.

Dahl, Robert A., 1995. “Participation and the Problem of Civic Understanding.” In Amitai Etzioni, *Rights and the Common Good: The Communitarian Perspective.* New York: St. Martin’s, 261-270.

Dahl, Robert A., 1992. “The Problem of Civic Competence.” *Journal of Democracy,* 3, 45-59.

Denhardt, Robert D., 1981. “Toward a Critical Theory of Public Organization.” *Public Administration Review,* 41, 628-635.

Dewey, John, 1927. *The Public and Its Problems.* In Jo Ann Boydston, ed., 1984, *John Dewey: The Later Works,* Vol. 2: 1925-1927. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University.

Douglas, Mary, 1986. *How Institutions Think.* Syracuse: Syracuse University.

Douglass, R. Bruce, 1994. “The Renewal of Democracy and the Communitarian Prospect.” *The Responsive Community,* 4, 55-62.

Dryzek, John S., 1996. *Democracy in Capitalist Times: Ideals, Limits, and Struggles.* New York: Oxford University.

Dryzek, John S., 1990. *Discursive Democracy: Politics, Policy, and Political Science.* New York: Cambridge University.

Dubnick, Melvin J. and Christopher C. Long, 1997. “Politics Now Classroom: Prologue and Epilogue.” Paper presented at the Annual Research Conference

of the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management, Washington, DC, November.

Eberly, Don E., 1995. "The Quest for a Civil Society." *National Civic Review*, 84, 119-125.

Eberly, Don E., ed., 1994. *Building a Community of Citizens: Civil Society in the 21st Century*. Lanham, MD: University Press.

Elshtain, Jean B., 1994. "Democracy and the Politics of Difference." *The Responsive Community: Rights and Responsibilities*, 4, 9-21.

Elshtain, Jean Bethke, 1995. *Democracy on Trial.* New York: Basic.

Etzioni, Amitai, 1993. *The Spirit of Community: The Reinvention of American Society*. New York: Touchstone.

Etzioni, Amitai, 1988. *The Moral Dimension: Toward a New Economics.* New York: Free.

Evans, Sara M. and Harry C. Boyte, 1986. *Free Spaces: The Sources of Democratic Change in America.* New York: Harper and Row.

Fishkin, James, 1991. *Democracy and Deliberation: New Directions for Democratic Reform.* New Haven, CT: Yale University.

Fluno, Robert, 1971. *The Democratic Community*. New York: Dodd, Mead.

Follett, Mary Parker, 1924. *Creative Experience.* New York: Longmans, Green.

Fowler, Robert Booth, 1991. *The Dance with Community: The Contemporary Debate in American Political Thought.* Lawrence, KS: University of Kansas.

Fox, Charles J. and Hugh T. Miller, 1995. *Postmodern Public Administration: Toward Discourse*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Frederickson, H. George, 1996. "City and Community in American Life." *National Civic Review*, 85, 28-36.

Frederickson, H. George, 1982. "The Recovery of Civism in Public Administration." *Public Administration Review*, 42, 501-508.

Fukuyama, Francis, 1995. *Trust: The Social Virtues and the Creation of Prosperity.* New York: Free.

Fukuyama, Francis, 1996. "Trust: Social Capital and the Global Economy." *Current*, 379, 12-18.

Gardner, John W., 1994. "American Renewal: Adding Spirit to Communities." *Public Management*, 76, 8-12.

Gardner, John W., 1995. "Building a Responsive Community." In Amitai Etzioni, *Rights and the Common Good: The Communitarian Perspective.* New York: St. Martin's, 167-178.

Gastil, John, 1993. *Democracy in Small Groups: Participation, Decision Making, and Communication.* Philadelphia: New Society.

Gawthrop, Louis C., 1984. “Civis, Civitas, and Civilitas: A New Focus for the Year 2000.” *Public Administration Review,* 44, 101-107.

Gerhardt, Gary, 1998. “Online Students Can Earn Degrees at 13 Colleges.” *Rocky Mountain News,* January 22.

Glendon, Mary Ann, 1991. *Rights Talk: The Impoverishment of Political Discourse.* New York: Free.

Gould, Carol C., 1988. *Rethinking Democracy: Freedom and Social Cooperation in Politics, Economy, and Society.* Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Groper, Richard, 1996. “Political Participation and the Internet: A Review Essay.” *Political Communication,* 13, 247-249.

Grossman, Lawrence K., 1995. *The Electronic Republic: The Transformation of American Democracy.* New York: Viking.

Habermas, Jurgen, 1989. *The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere: An Inquiry into a Category of Bourgeois Society.* Trans. Thomas Burger with Frederick Lawrence. Cambridge: MIT.

Habermas, Jurgen, 1979. *Communication and the Evolution of Society.* Trans. T. A. McCarthy. Boston: Beacon.

Habermas, Jurgen, 1975. *Legitimation Crisis.* Trans. Thomas McCarthy. Boston: Beacon.

Handy, Charles, 1995. “Trust and the Virtual Organization.” *Harvard Business Review,* May-June, 40-50.

Hart, David K., 1989. “A Partnership in Virtue Among All Citizens.” *Public Administration Review,* 49, 101-114.

Harwood, Richard C., 1990. *Citizens and Policymakers in Community Forums: Observations from the National Issues Forums.* Dayton: Kettering Foundation.

Harwood, Richard C., 1993. “Leadership in the 1990s: Yearning for a New Politics.” *Western City,* 69, May, 9-24.

Kaufman-Osborn, Timothy V., 1985. “Pragmatism, Policy Science, and the State.” *American Journal of Political Science,* 29, 827-849.

Keating, Stephen, 1997. “Glenn Jones’ Global Cyberschool.” *The Denver Post,* December 14.

Kelling, George L. and Catherine M. Coles, 1996. *Fixing Broken Windows: Restoring Order and Reducing Crime in Our Communities.* New York: Free.

Kemmis, Daniel, 1990. *Community and the Politics of Place.* Norman: University of Oklahoma.

Ketcham, Ralph, 1992. “A Rationale for Civic Education: Preparing for Democracy.” *Current,* Nov. 01, n. 347, 10-13.

King, Anthony, 1997. “Running Scared.” *The Atlantic Monthly,* January, 41-61.

Knoke, David, 1986. "Associations and Interest Groups." *Annual Review of Sociology*, 12, 8-9.

Kolankiewicz, George, 1996. "Social Capital and Social Change." *British Journal of Sociology*, 47, 427-441.

Kowalski, Robert, 1997. "Testing Tenure: Faculties Being Held Accountable." *The Denver Post*, October 12.

Lackey, Alvin S. and Larry Dershem, 1992. "The Process is Pedagogy: What Does Community Participation Teach?" *Community Development Journal*, 27, 220-234.

Lampe, David, 1994. "A Developing Bibliography of Renewal Literature." *National Civic Review*, 83, 430-446.

Lasch, Christopher, 1995. *The Revolt of the Elites and the Betrayal of Democracy.* New York: W. W. Norton.

Laslett, Peter, 1956. "The Face to Face Society." In Peter Laslett, ed., *Philosophy, Politics and Society.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 157-171.

Leege, David C., 1988. "Catholics and the Civic Order: Parish Participation, Politics, and Civic Participation." *Review of Politics*, 50, 704-737.

Lewis, Robert S., 1994. "Citizen Leagues: Free Spaces of Deliberative Democracy." *National Civic Review*, 83, 469-478.

Long, Christopher C. and Melvin J. Dubnick, 1997. "The Challenges of Civic Education on the Internet." *Public Administration Times*, 20, December.

Lowi, Theodore. J., 1979. *The End of Liberalism: The Second Republic of the United States*, 2nd ed. New York: W. W. Norton.

Macpherson, C. B., 1977. *The Life and Times of Liberal Democracy.* Oxford: Oxford University.

Mansbridge, Jane J., 1980. *Beyond Adversary Democracy.* Chicago: University of Chicago.

Marston, Sallie A., 1995. *The People and the Public Sphere: Neighborhood and Participatory Politics in Tucson.* Tucson: University of Arizona.

Mason, Ronald M., 1982. *Participatory and Workplace Democracy: A Theoretical Development in Critique of Liberalism.* Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University.

McGregor, Eugene B., Jr., 1984. "The Great Paradox of Democratic Citizenship and Public Personnel Administration." *Public Administration Review*, 44, 126-132.

McKnight, John L., 1987. "Regenerating Community." *Social Policy*, 17, 54-58.

Miniclier, Kit, 1998. "Net Helps Isolated Schools Stay Connected." *The Denver Post*, February 14.

Moore, Carl M., 1991. "Community Is Where Community Happens." *National Civic Review,* 80, 352-357.

Morgan, Arthur E., 1942. *The Small Community, Foundation of Democratic Life.* New York: Harper.

Morone, James A., 1990. *The Democratic Wish: Popular Participation and the Limits of American Government.* New York: Basic.

Murdock, Graham, 1995. "Across the Great Divide: Cultural Analysis and the Condition of Democracy." *Critical Studies in Mass Communication,* 12, 89-95.

National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration, 1996. *Commission on the Curriculum: Report to the NASPAA Executive Council.*

O'Neil, Edward, 1987. "Civic Education: The Problems and Potentials." *National Civic Review,* 76, 302-307.

Olsen, Marvin E., 1972. "Social Participation and Voting Turnout: A Multivariate Analysis." *American Sociological Review,* 37, 318-331.

Ostrom, Elinor, 1994. "Constituting Social Capital and Collective Action." *Journal of Theoretical Politics,* 6, 527-562.

Pateman, Carole, 1970. *Participation and Democratic Theory.* Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Postman, Neil, 1998. "High-Tech, Low Return: Technology Hasn't Done Much for Either Teaching or Thinking." *Rocky Mountain News,* January 18.

Pratte, Richard, 1988. "Civic Education in a Democracy." *Theory into Practice,* 27, 303-308.

Prestby, John E., Abraham H. Wandersman, and Paul Florin, Richard C. Rich, and David M. Chavis, 1990. "Benefits, Costs, Incentive Management, and Participation in Voluntary Organizations: A Means to Understanding and Promoting Empowerment." *American Journal of Community Psychology,* 18, 117-149.

Putnam, Robert D., Robert Leonardi, and Raffaella Y. Nanetti, 1993. *Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University.

Putnam, Robert Robert D., 1995a. "Bowling Alone: America's Declining Social Capital." *Journal of Democracy,* 6, 65-78.

Putnam, Robert D., 1993. "The Prosperous Community: Social Capital and Public Life." *The American Prospect,* 13, 35-42.

Rahm, Dianne and B.J. Reed, 1997. "The Use of Distance Learning Technologies, the World Wide Web, and the Internet for Course Delivery in Programs of Public Affairs and Administration." Distance Learning Survey, National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration.

Roberts, Nancy, 1997. "Public Deliberation: An Alternative Approach to Crafting Policy and Setting Direction." *Public Administration Review,* 57, 124-132.

Rocky Mountain News, 1998. "Regis University, Navy OK Deal for MBAs." January 26.

Rucinski, Dianne E., 1991. "The Centrality of Reciprocity to Communication and Democracy." *Critical Studies in Mass Communication,* 8, 184-194.

Sandel, Michael J., 1996. *Democracy's Discontent: America in Search of a Public Philosophy.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.

Schachter, Hindy Lauer, 1997. *Reinventing Government or Reinventing Ourselves: The Role of Citizen Owners in Making a Better Government.* Albany: State University of New York.

Schon, Donald A., 1983. *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action.* New York: Basic.

Smith, Jerd, 1998a. "You're Only a Click Away from the Classroom." *Rocky Mountain News,* January 26.

Smith, Jerd, 1998b. "Web of Knowledge: Virtual Classrooms Bring Distance Learning Home to Wider Range of Pupils Seeking Credit, Degrees." *Rocky Mountain News,* January 26.

Somers, Margaret R., 1993. "Citizenship and the Place of the Public Sphere: Law, Community, and Political Culture in the Transition to Democracy." *American Sociological Review,* 58, 587-620.

Spicer, Michael W., 1995. *The Founders, the Constitution, and Public Administration: A Conflict in World Views.* Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University.

Stone, Deborah, 1997. *Policy Paradox: The Art of Political Decision Making.* New York: W.W. Norton.

Strike, Kenneth A., 1988. "Democracy, Civic Education, and the Problem of Neutrality." *Theory into Practice,* 27, 256-261.

Sullivan, William M., 1982. *Reconstructing Public Philosophy.* Berkeley: University of California.

Tillotson, Shirley, 1994. "Citizen Participation in the Welfare State: An Experiment, 1945-57." *Canadian Historical Review,* 75, 511-542.

Tocqueville, Alexis de, 1848. *Democracy in America,* ed. J. P. Mayer and trans. George Lawrence, 1969. New York: Harper & Row.

Verba, Sidney, Kay L. Schlozman, and Henry E. Brady, 1995. *Voice and Equality: Civic Voluntarism in American Politics.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard.

Wachtel, Ted, 1992. *The Electronic Congress: A Blueprint for Participatory Democracy.* Pipersville, PA: Piper.

Walzer, Michael, 1992. *Citizenship and Civil Society.* Rutgers: New Jersey Committee for the Humanities Series on the Culture of Community.

Wamsley, Gary L., 1990. "The Agency Perspective: Public Administrators as Agential Leaders." In *Refounding Public Administration.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 114-162.

Warren, Mark E., 1992. "Democratic Theory and Self-Transformation." *American Political Science Review*, 86, 8-23.

White, Louise G., 1994. "Policy Analysis as Discourse." *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 13, 506-525.

Wilson, James Q., 1973. *Political Organizations.* New York: Basic.

Wuthnow, Robert, ed., 1991. *Between States and Markets: The Voluntary Sector in Comparative Perspective.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University.

Wuthnow, Robert, 1995. "Between the State and Market: Voluntarism and the Difference It Makes." In Amitai Etzioni, *Rights and the Common Good: The Communitarian Perspective*. New York: St. Martin's, 209-221.

Chapter 12

STUDYING IMMIGRATION ADMINISTRATION THROUGH HOLLYWOOD FILMMAKERS' EYES

Mark L. Drucker
Department of Public Administration and Policy Analysis
Southern Illinois University at Edwardville
(618) 650-3762

This paper will detail how a course (defined as interdisciplinary) can be offered by a university department of public administration to teach students about immigration to the United States, in substantial part through the use of film. Hopefully, in this way, this faculty member's experience can serve as a case study in the instructional integration of film into the classroom.

The course – and this paper – will review key concepts defined in the substantive (social science) literature on the topic, e.g. from the work of John Bodnar.

The contribution of the films ultimately selected for presentation then will be discussed – part of THE GODFATHER PART II, THE EMIGRANTS, HESTER STREET, and PICTURE BRIDE.

Some issues of immigration law were dramatized in the course by posing questions raised in an episode of MICHAEL HAYES to an immigration attorney meeting with the class. This will be examined as an example of an opportunity for students to interact with video.

A second opportunity for interaction within the course was in the presentation of the final, through both written questions and clips from other films

(GREENCARD, HEAVEN'S GATE, BIG NIGHT, ALAMO BAY). This paper will discuss the efficacy of capturing the value of insights derived from film as part of the evaluation of students' learning experience from such a course.

Finally, the paper will take up the questions of required student reading of fiction, associated with the course content (immigrant novels, in this case), and of the selection of the specific films which were employed, compared to other choices.

COURSE THEMES

After a literature search, THE TRANSPLANTED by John Bodnar emerged as a particularly insightful and succinct commentary on the social history of U.S. immigration, blending the interpretations of both historians and sociologists. It was possible to take Bodnar's synthesis and translate it into a table of course topics and more specific themes:

Immigrant Homeland and Capitalism

- U.S. immigration wasn't based on the pull of jobs created by the growth of American industrial capitalism, and on the abandonment of underdeveloped backward regions abroad.
- Instead, the flow of immigration depended upon diverse and much more specific transformations abroad, based on the response to capitalism there of the local populations.
- In particular, the production of cheaper manufactured goods, and the expansion of transportation modalities, undercut the economic base of those farmers who supplemented their income by producing other goods. (Early immigrants often were small independent farmers who also were craftsmen and artisans.)
- Such immigrants possessed modest financial resources and migrated to avoid a perceived decline in status.
- A second immigrant population consisted of those with some land who hoped to return home to purchase more land with the earnings they accumulated.
- These immigrants were not tradition-bound peasants, they were more literate than those who remained, and they brought with them their ideas of mutual aid societies, agricultural improvement, credit unions – and socialism.
- Many immigrants (25%-60%) returned home, or wanted to do so.

Family Life

- Family-based household immigration predominated during the early decades of settlement.
- American employees often sought out clusters or groups of foreign workers who, if not related, were at least acquainted previously with one another; there was a symbiotic relationship between the industrial economy and the immigrant family structure (not typically the breakdown of families).
- New immigrants were adept at knowing where they wanted to go (to find work), and how to get there (often with their passage paid for), since relatives and friends helped them to find jobs and homes (not the "huddled masses" of the poem).
- Until World War II, "family" superceded all other immigrant goals and objectives in providing order and purpose in their lives; sometimes, the cost of the family's new home meant children would forfeit years of schooling to go to work at a sufficiently early age to contribute income in order for the family to purchase its home.

Rise of the Middle Class

- Fragmentation and contention, as well as cooperation and solidarity, characterized immigrant communities; they were not harmonious and united, but stratified according to their population's unequal skills and resources, old world backgrounds, and status and class distinctions.
- Entrepreneurship separated the shopkeepers from the other workers, and the middle class celebrated opportunities for individualism (far more than did the workers.)
- Social hierarchies among immigrants were based on length of stay in the U.S., ethnic organizational involvements, wealth, occupation, and education.
- Ethnic immigrant communities should be understood as "decompression chambers" or transition zones, where newcomers obtained the values and behavior patterns they needed to succeed in the U.S.

Folklore and Civic Institutions

- Immigrant culture reinforced group identity as each group met new people, and gave meaning and understanding to a world over which they had so little control (introducing them to others, and providing explanations of their status).
- Folk culture was a source of power-alternative knowledge, unknown to other Americans who held power over them.
- Often cultural traditions from homelands were modified and adapted.
- The American school appropriated childhood for the state, childhood which had been the private province of the family and the household, and this led to conflict – compulsory school attendance, anti-child labor laws.
- While voluntary associations expanded and modernized, the church had an "entrenched premodern cadre of leaders," and often ethnic nationalism was in conflict with religious commitments.
- The clergy's disagreements with lay leaders disrupted community harmony, and alienated many immigrants, as they were forced to take sides.

Jobs and Mobility

- Immigrants typically decided before they left home that they would deal with working in a capitalist system and were not predisposed one way or the other to joining unions.
- Native labor leaders first had to decide that immigrant labor wasn't their enemy, and then overlook differences in skills, culture, and ethnic background; they were most effective when they dealt with the immigrants' needs, not their ideals.
- Employers enlisted the help of shopkeepers to deny credit to union members and of clerics to condemn unions as secret organizations unacceptable to the church.
- While the immigrants' salaries enabled them to acquire property, dramatic gains in socioeconomic status advancement were not the norm (and would be predicted by the skills they had acquired in their homelands, and by where they located themselves in the U.S.).
- Most would labor in routine, difficult jobs throughout their careers, and so would the majority of their children.

Once the course's themes were established, it was possible to employ these themes as criteria in the selection of the films which would be screened and discussed. The students themselves, would be asked, while viewing the films, to identify and write down the course themes they recognized. These notes, they were told, would be read to help define the agenda for the class discussion. In this way, they would be making active contributions to that agenda (and also, of course, be encouraged to focus their attention).

One other assignment for the course was a semester-long requirement for each student to undertake a genealogical study of their own families, hopefully going back to a period during which family members might have immigrated to the U.S. Several guest speakers helped motivate this research, by discussing their own excitement at achieving success in such inquiries. But best of all, the course was team-taught by Dr. Stanley Kimball, an expert in just such areas as well as a scholar of local ethnic history and of the Mormon trails west.

SELECTING FILMS FOR THE COURSE

Which film would be the best choice to orient the class on how to identify key course themes for class discussion? A film that might integrate concepts of the homeland, the family, immigrant work, culture, and the rise of the middle class. The early historical parts at the beginning of THE GODFATHER SAGA (from PART TWO) accomplish this goal. A synopsis of what is to be found of curricular value in THE GODFATHER is followed by synopses of the other three films that focused the course: THE EMIGRANTS, emphasizing the Swedish rural homeland and journey in the mid-nineteenth century; HESTER STREET, featuring turn of the century urban Jews of New York, as they adjusted their family lives in response to American modernism; and PICTURE BRIDE, depicting the conflict of the young and the old over issues like staying or returning home, among the Japanese sugar cane field workers of early twentieth century Hawaii.

THE GODFATHER: In Sicily, Antonio Andolini is murdered by Don Ciccio, and then his oldest little boy Paulo, who swore revenge, is killed. The widow begs the Don for the life of her younger son Vito ("he's dumb-witted and weak and couldn't hurt anyone"). Don Ciccio denies the widow's request, and she too is martyred to allow Vito to escape to America. At Ellis Island, he is tagged and quarantined for three months with smallpox.

Vito, married and with three sons, is introduced by a friend to a folk opera (the singer wails, "I left Naples and Mama for a no-good. And now Mama is

dead"). A real no-good, Don Fanucci is extorting money from the theater owner, at the threat of his actress-daughter's life. Eventually this same Fanucci forces Vito's grocery storeowner boss ("like a father to me") to fire Vito and hire a Fanucci nephew. Vito then becomes involved with Clemenza and Tessio in hiding guns, burglarizing a home for a rug, and stealing and fencing dresses. Fanucci asks this new gang for respect and a piece of the action ("just enough to wet my beak in"). Vito bargains down his price, impressing Fanucci ("too bad you're married. I have three daughters"). Clemenza and Tessio had been worried, but Vito calmed them down ("I'll make him an offer he can't refuse"). But Vito isn't through yet: he stalks Fanucci at a great street festival, and murders him and takes over the neighborhood.

Vito becomes powerful, for instance, helping prevent the eviction of a widow. But he also returns with his family to Sicily to promote the importation of olive oil, and, while he is there, of course, to visit the villa of Don Ciccio.

THE EMIGRANTS: Christina and Karl Oscar's Swedish Family has doubled the size of its holdings ("but we can't better our lot"). Problems mount up: a loan from his father is needed to make mortgage payments; the harvest looks bad; no oxen, and they owe more money ("we toil our guts out, and we are worse off than ever"). They argue over having had three children ("how can we feed them?").

Karl Oscar's brother Robert doesn't show up for work, and is cuffed by his employer ("How many lords and masters do we have over us?"). Christina is very devout ("Trust to God." "God won't feed the children." "You made them; you're constantly getting me pregnant."). Robert would sell his share in the farm and move to America, where there are excellent prospects for farmers growing wheat.

Christina's uncle Daniel Andreason is an unordained minister providing sacraments to a congregation of outcasts ("I'm guided by the commandments"). He defies the clerical hierarchy which arrives to break up an "illegal assembly."

When Karl Oscar and Christina's little daughter Anna dies, Christina announces: "I'm not against moving to America any longer."

The households are gathered together, and they emigrate on a terrible journey eventually leading to Minnesota. There is a sequel to THE EMIGRANTS, the equally powerful THE NEW LAND.

HESTER STREET: The Turn of the Century Lower East Side of Manhattan is a place where you can marry for love, and Jake, a thoroughly modern New Yorker who laughs at greenhorns, would marry the sophisticated and prosperous Mamie. Except that regrettably he's already married, a point brought home to him when, after his father's death, his wife Gittel arrives with their son Yossele at Ellis Island. Gittel's a traditional woman with her modesty and wigs. She throws salt to keep the evil eye away. Jake's roommate Bernstein, whom (ironically) Jake has

been trying to marry off, is very taken with Gittel. But Bernstein the scholar works at a sewing machine for $12 a week. America is truly a world turned upside down.

Jake is not happy with Gittel ("It's different here – the wigs! The kerchief!" "You'd have me show my hair, like a gentile!"). But he has hopes for Yossele, now called "Joey": "My son'll be President!" And Joey helps his mother ("Joey, what's this in English?"). Gittel's problem is clear to her; she inquires of a neighbor: "Maybe you have something that will make him love me again."

But Jake's not to be satisfied so easily. He talks to Bernstein again about his life as a single man: "A single man is a bum." "You give something up, when you marry." "I don't want a greenhorn wife." "You and Mamie aren't worth your wife's little finger!"

Jake insists: "Here, a Jew is a mensch. In Russia, I wouldn't get within ten feet of a gentile." "Where are the gentiles in America?" "They live in another place." But there's a reasonable resolution for all this angst, and Gittel may even come to grow out her own hair – like an American. (The education department at the national offices of UNITE, the garment workers union, provided copies of some video footage on the tragedy of the Triangle Shirtwaist Factory fire, a grimmer perspective on the world of Hester Street).

PICTURE BRIDE: She's very young when she arrives in Hawaii from Yokohama to marry a man of 43, older than her father. He has a place for them of their own, but the field work is new to her, ("My parents said you'd worked in the fields before1"). Broken-hearted, she'll save her money to return to Japan ("Going back seems like an old dream . . ." "I'll never be stuck like you!").

He's saddened by the failure of the mail order marriage: "She looks at me with tired eyes. I feel such a failure." He'll gamble. "How can you save?" "Maybe I'll just save up for a new wife!" He meets with a friend after seeing a samurai movie, and the friend asks: "Why do you gamble?" "She only wants to go back to Japan. I fooled her, and now I'm being punished." "She's a modern girl, better. Be romantic, like a movie." They practice samurai moves, and he promises himself that he'll take her to a real Hawaiian paradise.

Work in the fields is very hard. There are tragedies and talk of a strike. She confesses to him that her family fled a volcano in Kagashima when she was five. But they became sick at their work in a Yokohama factory, and died – of tuberculosis. Although she's well, her aunt had misinformed him about this (her shame), just as he had misrepresented himself. When a festival is celebrated, they honor her parents.

INTERACTING WITH NETWORK TELEVISION

An opportunity for the class to interact with a current television program arose, when, on December 2, MICHAEL HAYES, the new series about a crusading Manhattan prosecutor, aired an episode about the prostitution of young Chinese immigrant girls. A class session previously had been scheduled for two days after the broadcast with St. Louis's leading immigration lawyer, Darwin Portman, who chairs the immigration section of the local bar association. Using a taping of the episode, it was possible, in effect, to have some of the characters pose specific legal problems to Darwin Portman, who responded by helping the class with their understanding of legal concepts, and by providing the full legal answer.

In the episode, business leader Henry Khan has been targeted as the figure behind the slavery ring, and so far has been unreachable for the prosecutors. Alice Woo, who was picked up in a raid, is illegal but needs to stay in the U.S. to escape political reprisals.

First Hayes meets with INS officer Bellamy. He explains that Alice may be able to provide compelling testimony to help convict Khan. What can Bellamy do in return for Alice? Darwin Portman then provided us with a discussion of INS legal and administrative discretion.

In the episode, Alice explains how she was forced to carry messages to Khan (at threats to both her own life and the lives of her family in China). While doing so, she also regularly was molested. But Alice stole earrings and a Rolex watch to finance her escape from New York, and she tells all this to Hayes. The prosecutors meet and discuss this point. Alice has committed a felony, which also happens to help connnect Khan to evidence of his crimes. But if she testifies, and Khan presses charges, and if she is convicted, she will be deported. The $5,000 Rolex watch would bring the charges up to grand theft. The prosecutors would like to make a deal – they make deals with major criminals who are U.S. citizens, after all – but, in this case, if Alice testifies, she will face deportation. Yes? Darwin Portman then had the opportunity to discuss the eligibility requirements for visa status, residence, and retention, and whether there were extenuating circumstances (political refugee status, behavior under duress, etc.) that might mitigate against the case for Alice's deportation.

AN INTERACTIVE FINAL

The course focused both on the major sociohistorical themes in American immigration, and also on the interpretation of these themes by filmmakers. It seemed in the spirit of this interdisciplinary relationship to fashion a final that was in itself a film experience. The following four films were reviewed for possible inclusion in the final, and the final itself follows these reviews.

HEAVEN'S GATE: The Stockgrowers Association in Johnson County, Wyoming is convinced that small immigrant landowners are rustling their cattle ("openly preying upon their ranges . . . an ignorant depraved band of paupers with their ragged children"). And in this county, politically controlled by the immigrants and their handpicked law officers, there have been 180 indictments for these crimes, but only one conviction.

The cattlemen have hired a private army of 50 men at $5 per day and $50 per immigrant (shot or hanged) to eliminate a death list of 125 immigrants. They successfully have solicited the support of the Governor and key individuals in Congress and in the White House to end the anarchy they claim is plaguing this part of Wyoming.

The immigrants believe that they must butcher an occasional steer ("Or watch our children starve in front of my eyes").

Marshall James Averill presents the immigrants with the death list: "An armed mob of paid men is about to invade your County to destroy the lives and property of your friends. The Stockgrowers Association has the names of some of you on this list of 125." "That's almost everyone here!"

An immigrant argues: "The rich are opposed to anything that would improve things in the country and make it anything more than cow pasture for eastern speculators. Poor people are to have nothing to buy in the affairs of this country." But the immigrants fight back and surround the mercenary army, which only is saved by the arrival of the U.S. cavalry which "arrests" them to protect them from the people's uprising.

BIG NIGHT: Primo the chef and Secondo, his brother and partner, are failing to attract customers for their authoritatively genuine (and early upscale) Italian cuisine. In fact, the local market has been won over down the street by Pascal, an immigrant like themselves, who has been successful with a much more mundane menu.

Secondo and Pascal meet: "Your brother's a great chef, but you give people what they want, and then, later you give them what you want1" What does Pascal want? "There's only 'not enough.'" One diner at Primo's restaurant is given

risotto, but requests spaghetti, as well. Primo cries out that she also might wish a side order of potatoes. Pascal promises that the singer Louis Prima will attend and publicize a great dinner banquet that Primo will prepare.

A sensational formal dinner is presented, and the diners revel in every moment of the experience, dish by dish. But as the evening passes by, they all wonder, will Louis Prima ever arrive?

ALAMO BAY: A shrimp wholesaling business on the Texas Gulf is under great pressure, because they hire Vietnamese immigrant workers. In fact, Vietnamese fishing people, following their own traditions, have not always followed U.S. regulations (flotation cushions, life jackets, throwing things overboard that rip the nets of their Anglo competitors). But a new immigrant in town and on the docks promises the game warden that he will obtain and obey the regulations.

Incidents do occur in town, as well, for example over the weighing of fruit in the supermarket, and at a bar, when the new Vietnamese appears ("we'll filet that yellowtail").

At a public meeting, the wholesaler speaks up for his workers: "The federal government abandoned them without teaching them our ways." "They have food stamps and welfare . . . You're exploiting them!"

A schoolteacher points out: "The kids get along. Adults should set an example."

But nativist American fishing people, encouraged by the Ku Klux Klan, blockade the harbor against Vietnamese fishing and shrimping ("History is with the white race. We need a little 'search and destroy'"). The blockaders turn a flag upside down and rage: "We won't allow Vietnamese boats to come into port. The harbor's closed!"

Most of the local Vietnamese leave Alamo Bay for Houston in school buses, but the young newcomer stays and tries to keep the wholesaling business open: "I don't like people who try to scare me." "You've got to be one of the last cowboys left in Texas!" The blockaders however will escalate the conflict into a modern-day version of a Texas gunfight.

GREEN CARD: Bronte, a horticulturist working with a Lower East Side of Manhattan community gardening group, and Georges a writer, marry to obtain a green card for him – and a marriage certificate for Bronte, so she can be allowed to rent an apartment with a greenhouse. The INS though will come to visit, so Bronte finds Georges and arranges for him to join her in "their" apartment for an interview with Mr. Gorsky and Ms. Sheehan, two INS agents ("There's a major clampdown on illegal aliens marrying for residency status. From the White House"). The couple improvises, but INS will return.

Bronte meets with her lawyer, who suggests some temporary cohabitation. “Let him move into my apartment?” “You married him to get a greenhouse. If marrying a stranger doesn’t shock you, then letting him sleep on the couch shouldn’t either. You’ll be cramming for an exam. What you like to eat, the color of each other’s toothbrushes. Otherwise: he’ll be deported. You’ll face charges. No more greenhouse” “A police state?” “It’s called: ‘breaking the law.’ But after you meet with them, it’ll all be over, and we can start planning the divorce!”

In simultaneous INS interviews, Bronte and Georges are told to keep the answers brief and to the point. They movingly – and briefly – express their love for one another: “He’s a very sensitive man . . . He has to learn to give . . . he has passion. He eats life . . . “ And: “She’s very kind to people. Me, I don’t think that way . . . She has peace. I don’t have peace . . .” But it takes very little to slip up. And when they meet later, he explains, “We made a deal: if I leave quickly, you’ll keep your beautiful garden . . .”

“Immigration in America” Professors Drucker and Kimball
Fall 1997 IS 341

Professor Drucker’s Half of Final (Worth 20% of Course Grade)
Due at Rest of Final, 10:00 a.m., Thursday, Dec. 18, Lovejoy 0044
(Equivalent of two single-spaced word processed pages, open book (please keep a copy for yourself, hand in two copies with a stamped self-addressed envelope)

Please answer three of the following four questions:

1. 1880’s – Johnson County, Wyoming HEAVEN’S GATE (Community Development)

   The cattlemen’s association has hired an army of mercenaries to assassinate 125 East European immigrant homesteader heads of households. The immigrants counter attack the mercenary force successfully, but the cavalry arrives to rescue the surviving defeated killers.
   From the themes discussed by Professor Drucker in class, what are specific examples of the kinds of benefits the new immigrant community might provide the unpopulated plains of Wyoming Territory? Or an abandoned neighborhood of a 1990’s American city?

2. 1940's – New Jersey Shore THE BIG NIGHT (Entrepreneurship)
Two Italian immigrant entrepreneurs meet to discuss the future of the less successful of their two restaurants. Pascal, who's very successful, encourages Secondo by reassuring him of the opportunities for status advancement and wealth in America. Secondo's restaurant has had problems drawing customers because his brother, the chef, has been trying to introduce risotto and other upmarket dishes to a clueless public.
Based upon Professor Drucker's lectures, what were the realities of the immigrant experience in the last 19th and early 20th century, in terms of immigrant success? How did immigrants help one another in financing their own small businesses?

3. 1970's – Port Alamo, Texas Gulf Coast ALAMO BAY (Labor/Work)
A state official meets with new immigrant Vietnamese fishermen and shrimpers on the docks. The work practices of the Vietnamese are not meeting governmental standards of safety and environmental responsibility. Meanwhile Anglo fishermen and shrimper attitudes have been enflamed by Ku Klux Klan agitators, and they believe that government subsidies have provided the refugees with unfair competitive advantages.
Please describe in detail how this cross-cultural conflict, just like the experience of the Chinatown clothing factory workers, leads the American workers to believe that the immigrants are undercutting their position. How might unionization of the immigrants change this situation?

4. 1990's New York, New York GREEN CARD (Marriage)
Bronte, an American botanist, needs a husband to rent an apartment in a selective Manhattan highrise. Georges needs an American wife to remain in the United States past the expiration date of his tourist visa. They meet and marry, but then immediately separate. However, the INS has decided to visit them at home to try to verify whether their marriage is genuine. Georges and Bronte are about to meet for the second time in order to be interviewed by two INS agents.
According to Darwin Portman, the attorney who met with us, what is the problem with what Bronte and Georges have done, and how are they now at risk? As dramatized by Lea and Boris, what advantages to the United States can there be from the marriage of a U.S. citizen to a foreign national?

IMMIGRATION FICTION

Each student was asked to select two works of immigration fiction to read during the first three months of the semester. The students' assignment was to identify at least three of the course's themes which they found to be significant in each novel, and, in a two-page report, detail and discuss how the novelists had treated each theme.

After reviewing several different sources of listings of novels involving the immigration experience, it was possible to merge a list of 77 different titles, including several new novels, recently reviewed or advertised in the New York TIMES BOOK REVIEW. The students also were encouraged to propose additional titles that they had discovered on their own (which would be accepted, if they were likely to provide sufficient coverage of three of the course themes).

The course's readings list included 77 different titles, writing about the experiences of 26 different nationalities or ethnic groups. The groups most frequently represented within the list were: Jews (10), Norwegians, and Chinese (7 each), Greeks and Poles (5 each), Armenians and Italians (4 each), Irish, Japanese, and Swedes (3 each), and Czechs and Mexicans (2 each). Also represented were the Slovaks, Bohemians, Russians, Germans, Croatians, Barbadians, Danes, Finns, Puerto Ricans, Welsh, Austrians, Cubans, Vietnamese, and French.

Unsurprisingly, in retrospect, of the 38 different titles that the students selected, 25 were written by Willa Cather (17 read MY ANTONIA and 8 read O PIONEERS!), no doubt still a staple of secondary school English curricula. Next in popularity were: THE JOY LUCK CLUB by Amy Tan (5), A GLASS ROSE by Bankowsky (3), and two selections each of PAPA'S WIFE by Bjorn, THE RISE OF DAVID LEVINSKY by Cahan, LOUISIANA PURCHASE by Hotchner, BROWN GIRL, BROWN STONES by the Barbadian Paule Marshall, RIVINGTON STREET by Meredith Tax, and THE TREE OF DARK REFLECTIONS by Rocco Fumento. Other selections included:

MAMA'S BANK ACCOUNT (Norwegian)
GIANTS IN THE EARTH (Norwegian)
AN UNTAMED LAND (Norwegian)
EAT A BOWL OF TEA (Chinese)

CHINA MEN (Chinese)
YEAR OF THE DRAGON (Chinese)
ANGELA'S ASHES (Irish – not fiction)
HANSI (German)
HOLCROFT COVENANT (German)
HOMELAND (German)
AMALIE'S STORY (Danish)
KRISTI (Finnish)
BIG LEAGUE DREAM (Jewish)
DANCING AT RASCAL FAIR (Scottish)

APRIL SNOW (Swedish)
THIS IS MY LIFE (Swedish)
THE SETTLERS (Swedish)
THE ODYSSEY OF KOSTAS VOLAKIS (Greek)
PERICLES ON 31ST STREET (Greek)
RAIN OF GOLD (Mexican)
CHICANO (Mexican)
ABOVE THE LAW (Mexican)
THE FORTUNATE PILGRIM (Italian)
THE GODFATHER (Italian)
UMBERTINA (Italian)
KAFFIR BOY IN AMERICA (S. African)
SACKETTS' LAND (English)
HOW THE GARCIA GIRLS LOST THEIR ACCENTS (Dominican)

REVIEWING OTHER FILMS

Other films about immigration were reviewed, but didn't seem sufficiently useful to include in the Fall 1997 offering of the course. They may be of value to other courses:

O PIONEERS!: Alexandra Bergson, a Swedish teenager on the prairie, is entrusted by her dying father with the management of the family farm and her three brothers. (And: "Don't begrudge your mother her garden. She's been a good mother, and she's always missed the old country"). Her mother: "You must do this for Emil (the youngest), so he can break free of this place some day." She'll grow fruit in her orchard, so that they can dine on fruit to remember that they are civilized. "I'll be buried with Father. I don't want to leave him alone in the prairie for the cattle to run over."

Alexandra's friend Karl climbs a post to save Emil's kitten ("I'll climb the posts to get off the ground. Don't you imagine leaving here?"). But Alexandra sees her future stirring in the long grass. So, she makes a great success of the farm by growing alfalfa, an innovation. Her brothers move on to their own land and raise families.

They quarrel with Alexandra about institutionalizing the elderly eccentric Evart. She tells Evart: "Let people talk what they like. We'll live as we see fit.

They want everyone to be the same, to fit in. People are afraid of what they don't understand."

Karl visits, returning from his life in the east as an engraver, on his way to the Alaska gold fields. Alexandra's two older brothers tell him, "We'd march to Wall Street and blow it up." He laughs at them, "You're all rich as barons." And tells Alexandra that, while he's done a lot, he has nothing to show for it. She replies, "I'd rather have your freedom than my land." Her brothers worry that Karl may be a suitor, and their children then might not also inherit Alexandra's farm: "The property of a family belongs to the men of the family!" She corrects their legal interpretation: "The only authority you'll exert over me is just what the law will allow." Karl is reluctant to marry money: "To take what you'd give me, I'd have to be a very large man or a very small one. I'm just in the middle." She argues: "People have to snatch at happiness when they can."

THE PEREZ FAMILY: "Perez" is a common name in Cuba, and it brings together two Marielitos: Dorita, a prostitute, and Juan Raul, just released from an interminable political prison sentence for burning his sugar cane fields. Juan Raul hopes to reunite with his wife (the princess in the tower) and his daughter. Families are to receive relocation preference at the Sugar Bowl refugee relief center, so, when Juan Raul's family fails to appear, Dorrie manufactures a family by appropriating a street urchin and a senile elder.

Carmela the princess in turn actually wants nothing so much as to find Juan Raul, but the latter's prison term has been lengthened by the bribes from Carmela's rich brother, Angel (why put an end to a source of income by releasing the prisoner?) Even now, Angel is placing security systems all over Carmela's home, effectively locking her in her tower. Rescue comes from an attentive police officer responding to false alarms. Juan Raul seeks out the help of a Santeria priestess, but football season has come, and the Sugar Bowl must be returned to the Dolphins for their preseason training. Juan Raul makes love to Dorrie: "I believe hell is here on earth – waiting for your own execution, and it never comes, for something good to happen and it never comes. Our only deliverance is to stop waiting, to expect nothing, and to make love." Dorrie reflects on this: "I want a man who is free, like the U.S. is free."

But these two unrelated Perezes make love, and Juan Raul and Carmela are reunited. What about Dorrie, and Carmela's Prince Charming police officer?

HEAVEN AND EARTH: Ly's Buddhism and energy carry her through a calamitous life in Vietnam: service with the Vietcong, imprisonment and torture by both sides, a relationship and a son with a married man, a life of poverty at her sister's brothel. Her father had warned her: "Freedom is not a gift. It must be won again and again." Falling in love with Steve Butler, a Marine, has its risks also.

Her mother is opposed to this: “Americans have no beginning and no end. They don’t care about their ancestors, so they feel free to do any bad thing they want.” Steve, Ly, her son, and a second son born to their new marriage, flee Vietnam, as Saigon falls. Steve’s fantasy for a second wife is an “oriental woman,” and he’d like to return to the Far East, after completing his Marine Corps Service. His skills are highly specialized – training counterinsurgency forces, and black operations. He seems tormented by the work.

Back in San Diego, Ly meets her in-laws, who are surprised at how little she eats: “Think of all those starving children in Vietnam.” Steve: “She can’t eat for her whole country! Don’t expect her to do headstands.”

Crosscultural issues abound. Ly wants to work, while Steve wants to be married to a housewife, so, she sneaks off to a second (business) life. The boys refuse to speak Vietnamese, and tell classmates that they are Mexican. Steve wants to take the boys to the mountains to learn how to hunt and to shoot. “Like an American, I talk back to my husband.” They have a third son.

She tells him: “I hurt many people. Bad karma, but we have to try. Different skins, same suffering.” But eventually she sees a divorce lawyer. Steve kidnaps his own two sons to blackmail Ly into a better settlement. When she gets the boys back, he kills himself.

Finally, after great business success, 13 years later, Ly returns to her old village in Vietnam and visits her mother and a surviving brother, introducing them to her teenage sons. She is a rich lady, and her brother worries that once again she will turn the village against their families. Ly: “Mom, I have no more tears.” “You’ve completed the circle – from a beggar to a fine lady, from sad to happy, from poor to rich.”

THE MOLLY MAGUIRES: McFarland, a Pinkerton detective, is sent to infiltrate this secret subunit of the Ancient Order of Hibernians in the Pennsylvania mine fields. Previous spies have been killed, so it’s unclear how McFarland will succeed (“This is not the kind of work a man generally comes for, with hands like yours”). McFarland addresses this problem by demonstrating his brawling skills, being willing to confide to Molly leader Jack Kehoe that he’s a murderer on the run, and, once provisionally accepted, by willingly beating up a peeler (mining company police officer).

The police captain meets McFarland on the sly (to justify a whole lot of exposition), and tells him that he wants to convict the Molly leaders (“I got to get them red-handed.”). So McFarland takes rooms at Mary Raines’s, she being the daughter of a mineworker retiree left pale and weak by his life of toil. They go to church and meet the dynamic local priest: “This country was founded by exiles, immigrants, people like you. They too were scorned and exploited and subject to

the terrible temptation of violence, an easy step and a false step in trying to change conditions . . . God will judge last night's violence as sin, and those that did it as sinners. They'll be damned. According to the Archbishop, the church condemns secret societies. What you risk is nothing less than excommunication. Sisters and mothers of these men, pray that they are not cutting themselves off from the church.

After Molly leader Jack Kehoe tells his wife of McFarland's confession to him, she warns, "Be careful of him. He's bold. Don't get too fond of him." Jack believes that if he is a spy, and they execute him, the mine owners will just send another spy in his place. Instead, Jack will ask McFarland to carry out the assassination requested of them by workers at the nearby Shenandoah mine of their new superintendent. So, the spy is brought to his knees to be initiated into the A.O.H. and into the Molly Maguires, as well (passwords, the little finger recognition signal). The A.O.H. works on getting out the vote for governor ("He issues pardons. We may need them."), and on charitable fundraising. The Molly Maguires discuss killing the superintendent ("the same heel on the necks, as on ours. It's all one quarrel").

Mary and McFarland fall in love amid the ruins. Mary: "Even in summer, the trees are black with coal dust." She urges him to listen to the priest. "I envy your morality, and that's the truth. Decency is not for the poor. You pay for decency." But the assassination fails, and a Molly and his wife are murdered in their beds in reprisal by the peelers: "They kill us in the pits. Now, they'll kill us in our sleep."

Mary's father dies, sad, silent man that he became. Jack eulogizes him: "He knew how to use the powder. Why not use it once for himself?" He lacks a suit to wear at his burial, so Jack -- and McFarland – break into the company store to obtain one, and then destroy the store. But the police have constructed their case, and Jack and other Molly Maguires go on trial for their lives.

THE MAMBO KINGS: Nestor and Cesar Castillo are brothers and Mambo Kings in Havana. Nestor, the songwriter and a gifted musical artist always is protected by the love of his brother, who leads them to New York to escape a death threat to Nestor. Cesar: "You write the music, and I'll take care of the business. We'll get rich and famous." A New York family member: "Just off the boat, and you think you're going to land a gig in a downtown club!" They go to hear Tito Puente at the Palladium, and Cesar plays the drums with Tito – and is magic. They are a sensation, but Cesar insults Perez, the promoter, who has all the evil magic, and the brothers go to work as butchers. "Just when you won it, you didn't play the game!"

Nestor dreams of his lost love in Cuba (of Cuba: "America's not my country. I feel like a ghost. It's a dream." Cesar: "There's no dream. It's our life."). The

brothers struggle, and Nestor marries and has a son. Then: their big break, a friendship with Desi Arnaz, and an appearance on I LOVE LUCY.

Nestor believes that Cesar is using him, and Cesar explains why they left Cuba, which Nestor previously never understood. The band is saved, but at the price of Nestor's innocence. Nestor tells Perez that he'll work for him, but, after Cesar's girlfriend explains how much he loves Nestor, Nestor renegs. Perez with his evil magic promises Nestor that they will only have one more great night of entertaining. Nestor dies in a car accident after that performance. Will Cesar carry on, or will he be lost in his grief?

AVALON: Sam Krichinsky came to Baltimore in 1914: "There was an enormous celebration of light, fireworks, people cheered, and I thought it was for me." Actually is was July 4, and this is a story he finds occasion to retell (verbatim) over and over again to his children and grandchildren, to establish his family's oral history. Among Sam's occasions are family July 4 and Thanksgiving holidays and family circle meetings, covering 60 years of life.

Sam doesn't know in 1914 where his four brothers live, but a good Samaritan takes him around until he finds Avalon, their apartment building. He joins the brothers' business, paperhanging, with time out for a period running a nightclub. Most of the film occurs in the 1950's, as Jules Kaye, Sam's son, and Izzy Kirk, Sam's nephew, leave their sales jobs to open up a television discount store ("The war's over, and there's a lot of people with money out there. It's time to go out on our own"). As Sam had always said, "It's not the product. It's the salesman. A good salesman can sell anything." The store will be wall-to-wall, filled with television sets, and they'd be discounted, eventually "the guaranteed lowest price in town." Little programming initially is offered by the networks. Sam advises: "You'd better hope that they get some more interesting programs."

Soon, it's off to the suburbs for the two families (Jules's father and mother live with them; Jules's wife Diane implores, "Someone's always watching over me. I'd like to be the mom in my own house."). Michael, their son inquires, "What does it mean: 'the suburbs?' Am I going to like it there?" But, from now on, as the cousins continually expand their business, the risk is defined as having to move back to the city, "to the row houses" in which they had lived. As Sam is moving, he says, "I get very nervous about making changes." "You came all the way to America." "I was a younger man. I'm getting further and further away from Avalon. I'm getting too old to change."

Sam's brother-in-law Simka arrives from Europe with a wife and daughter fresh from the displaced persons camps, and the family circle must decide whether to subsidize them. The brothers however have been fending ("disrespect!"), so it is two of their sons, the cousins, who put up the funds to help

the refugees. It is only a year later this new American family moves on to a better chance, managing a farm in New Jersey ("Eva waited 30 years to be reunited with family from Europe. They leave, in one year. Some family reunion."). Nor will Eva's brother and sister-in-law be able to get away from that farm to attend her funeral.

Jules learns to golf (Sam: "A working person doesn't play golf. That's for people with sweaters and caps." Jules never had learned to play the piano Sam had bought him. Diane learns to drive, but Eva won't ride with a woman driver. Eventually, Jules and Izzy face a major uninsured business reversal and a bankruptcy. Jules decides to go back to working for others. He sells television time for commercials (it's not the product, it's the salesman). And everyone in the family begins bringing their dinner into the living room to watch television while they eat.

Other films not reviewed for this paper, but involving major immigration themes, include:

AN AMERICAN TAIL
AN AMERICAN TAIL: FIEVEL GOES WEST
MOSCOW ON THE HUDSON
MY ANTONIA
FAR AND AWAY
I REMEMBER MAMA
THE IMPORTED BRIDEGROOM
AMERICA AMERICA
PAY OR DIE
SCARFACE (DePalma version)
ONCE UPON A TIME IN AMERICA
YEAR OF THE DRAGON
MATTEWAN
FOUR FRIENDS
EL NORTE
THE BORDER
LONE STAR
ENEMIES: A LOVE STORY
LITTLE ODESSA
THE FIRE WITHIN
CAUGHT
THE NEW LAND

Chapter 13

INTERNET FOR PUBLIC MANAGERS

Edward H. Downey, DPA
State University of New York College at Brockport
Department of Public Administration

OVERVIEW

In 1995 The Department of Public Administration at the State University of New York College at Brockport offered Internet for Managers, the first Internet course at Brockport. Since that time the course has served over 200 graduate students. Most students are managers and administrators who hold responsible positions in public and private organizations in Western New York State. The purpose of the course is to train professionals to use the Internet to improve their productivity. As a final project students develop a Web page.

The paper will describe the course; it's evolution, and the environment in which it was developed. The results of a survey of the most recent class will be presented and discussed. Finally, four issues that effect the course will be examined: the effect of rapid changes in the Internet, differential student Internet and computer capabilities, student evaluation, and course integrity.

INTERNET FOR MANAGERS

In Internet for Managers students learn to use on line resources to gather information and do research. These resources include e-mail, Usenet, listserv, telnet, file transfer protocol (ftp) and Archie, gopher and Veronica, World Wide Web, and America on Line (AOL). Weekly assignments are down loaded from the course Web site and are done using e-mail and computer conferencing. As a final assignment students develop a Web site of their own.

The first meeting of Internet for Managers was January 20, 1996 at the beginning of the College's spring semester. Students were attracted to the course for many reasons, but the primary one was the opportunity to learn a new and exciting technology from the comfort of their own homes. Students were required to have access to a computer, join AOL, and have a computer account at the College (this was automatically provided to all registered students). At the first session students were shown how to access their College computer accounts via modem and use Pine (e-mail), Lynx (a non-graphic browser), Telnet, and Gopher. Students were also given an orientation to AOL.

There were two course assignments. The first was to subscribe to Patrick Crispen's tutorial Roadmap95 on a listserv at the University of Alabama. The author e-mailed periodic quizzes to test student comprehension of tutorial contents. Forty percent of the final grade was based on quiz scores. Roadmap95 became Roadmap96 on a listserv at internic.net and a web site at http://rs.internic.net/nic-support/roadmap96/. The second assignment was to produce an On Line Guide to resources relevant to a topic of the student's choosing. The guide was to be comprised of listserv, telnet, ftp, Gopher, and WWW sites that provide relevant information to the topic. Students were required to give a description of what was at each site and provide some samples. The guides were to be presented to the class by their authors at a final class meeting. Sixty percent of the final grade was based on an evaluation of this work.

Since the first offering 3 major changes have been made in the course:

- Creating a Web site has replaced the On Line Guide assignment.
- An assignment to provide helpful hints to fellow students was added.
- Training in remote access (via modem) to student College computer accounts was dropped.

During the first offering of the course in the spring '96 semester major changes were going on at AOL and other Internet Service Providers (ISP's). In the

middle of the course AOL began to encourage customers to develop Web pages by offering an on line authoring tool (Personal Publisher) that led the user through the production of a simple Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) document. This document could be stored in the user ftp space on AOL computers. Dropping one quiz and asking students to put up a Web page using Personal Publisher changed course requirements.

These early Web pages were very simple because the initial version of AOL's Personal Publisher was limited, as was HTML. Web authoring tools and HTML made rapid and dramatic improvements. At the second offering of the course (fall '96) creating a Web page became a major course assignment. Fifty percent of the final grade is now based on the evaluation of a student Web page that has replaced the On Line Guide.

When the course was developed it was felt that Patrick Crispen's Roadmap tutorial would provide a comprehensive set of knowledge and skills whose attainment would represent student learning outcomes. As with traditional courses, these outcomes could be evaluated through quizzes that provided a component of the final grade.

At the first offering of the course it became apparent that the Roadmap did not represent a comprehensive set of knowledge and skills. Rather, it was an introduction to an almost limitless and constantly changing body of knowledge and skills. Students started to send e-mail to each other describing and discussing what they found. This unintended interaction among students was wonderful, but it meant a loss of control over the body of knowledge and skills that the course was initially based on.

In order to recognize this another mid course change was made. A second quiz was dropped and 10% of the final grade was allocated to an evaluation of helpful hints. The evaluation of the helpful hints later increased to 20% of the final grade so that the current weighting of assignments is: Quizzes- 30%; Helpful Hints- 20%; and Web page- 50%.

When the course was first offered in the spring of 1996 AOL did not have its current rate structure. Even under the billing plan that offered the most hours, the author ran up monthly connect charges in excess of $100.00. CompuServe and Microsoft Network had similar rate structures and there were not, as yet, a lot of other ISP's available in Western New York. In the author's opinion the connect charges would be too expensive to attract students. When AOL went to $19.95 (AOL recently announced that they are going up to $20.95) for unlimited connect time this problem was solved.

AOL was chosen over the other ISP's because it was easily available and had the greatest number of subscribers. It appeared as though AOL would set the

standard for on line content just as Microsoft sets the standard for personal computer operating systems. It could be argued that CompuServe was the more educationally oriented ISP, but it had far fewer subscribers and of course it was eventually bought out by AOL.

Prior to the introduction of AOL's $19.95 pricing plan the solution to the cost problem was to show students how to access their College computer accounts via modem. By using the college as their ISP students would have no connect charges. The course could not use the College as the sole ISP for two reasons. First, there were access and speed problems because the college did not have enough fast modems to meet demand. Secondly, the College did not support the use of a graphical browser for users who accessed the system by modem. Web browsing was done by lynx a non-graphical Web browser for modem users. Therefore, it was felt that the college system would be used as an adjunct to AOL. If students used the two systems overall connect charges could be held down.

When AOL went to a flat rate of $19.95 for unlimited connect time in late 1996 there was no longer a cost issue and the course dropped the use of the College system. Throughout the remainder of 1997 many students complained about AOL access problems, but these complaints slowly diminished.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK COLLEGE AT BROCKPORT

The State University of New York College at Brockport is located in upstate New York 25 miles west of Rochester and 45 miles east of Buffalo. Brockport is a part of the State University system that is made up of 64 campuses, offering over 4,900 programs of study, and serving over 400,000 students. The State University system is decentralized to the extent that curricular and many resource allocation decisions are largely within the purview of local campus policy makers.

The college serves approximately 6,400 FTE students of which 800 are graduates. Brockport characterizes itself as a Comprehensive College with three schools: Arts and Performance, Letters and Sciences, and Professions. The Department of Public Administration is located in the School of Professions as are many of the other graduate programs and a significant number of high enrollment undergraduate programs.

Funding is enrollment driven with the State of New York contributing approximately 40% of Brockport's annual budget of $94 million. The remainder of the budget comes from sources on campus. The State University System has

experienced steady budget reductions in State Support over the past 6 years in the order of two to five percent annually (irrespective of tuition increases).

Brockport has dealt with budget cuts in various ways from decreases in staff to increases in workload. In general there is considerable formal and informal pressure to maintain and increase enrollments so as to insure the continuance of dwindling levels of State support and thus avoid the negative consequences of even deeper budget cuts. There are currently 313 full-time and 243 part-time faculty and library support staff; 177 full-time and 62 part-time professional and executive staff and; 322 full-time and 36 part-time classified staff.

Maintaining and increasing enrollments is central to the health of the College. In 1996 the College president announced his retirement and in the fall of 1997 a new President was in place. The new president accepted the resignations of several individuals involved in enrollment management at the highest levels of the college administration, thus sending a message that this area continues to be of prime importance and requires improvement.

During the last few years of the previous President's administration several initiatives were taken that signaled a desire to explore Distance Learning. It was generally assumed that Distance Learning meant providing instruction off campus to students that had not enrolled in the past because they found coming to campus inconvenient or impossible. These students were viewed as a new market that, if tapped, would yield additional enrollments. Two tangible results of the desire to explore Distance Learning were the development of closed circuit television capabilities and a significant improvement in classroom facilities located in downtown Rochester. The administration seemed open to the idea of offering courses over the Internet and a few faculty members incorporated some Internet technologies into their courses. However, the use of the Internet to deliver course content was and remains minimal.

THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The Department of Public Administration began in 1974 as a part of the Political Science Department. In 1977 it attained departmental status and in 1992 it achieved national accreditation. In 1996 there were over 480 students registered in the program (most were part-time). Students are primarily Western New York younger adults (mean age is mid-30's) who work in public and non-profit organizations. Twenty seven percent of the students are non –supervisory professionals, 64% are supervisors or managers, and 9% are not working or doing

non- professional work. Over half of the students reported incomes between $25,000.00 and $45,000.00 and 20% reported incomes above $45,000.00.

The current curriculum is 42 credit hours for students with professional experience and 46 credit hours for students who have none. Students can choose from among 3 emphases: General Public Administration; Health Care Management and; Information Management. The curriculum for each emphasis is 24 credits of core courses, 12 to 15 credits of electives, and 3 to 6 credits of internship and project paper. Part-time students can generally complete the degree within 4 to 5 years. Courses are primarily taught off-campus in the evening. The Department includes 6 full-time, 1 half time, and 5 to 8 adjunct faculty. All full-time faculty and the half-time faculty member hold doctorates. Adjuncts all have master's degrees.

The Department of Public Administration is one of only 2 programs (the other is at Syracuse University) in Western New York that is accredited to offer the Master of Public Administration (MPA). Despite this there are a growing number of programs that offer administrative and management training. Some of these programs employ very condensed formats, which in the extreme case offer master's degrees in 18 months to part-time students. The Department is concerned about the competition from other programs that appeal to working professionals who seek graduate level management training. Even though enrollments have steadily increased, Department faculty is open to examining course formats that might be more appealing to our students.

THE ENVIRONMENT WITHIN WHICH THE COURSE DEVELOPED AND EVOLVED

Internet for Managers was first proposed to the Public Administration faculty in spring 1995 and was subsequently offered for the first time in the spring 1996 semester. The environment in which the course was developed is worth discussing because it had an impact on the fact that the course was offered and the form the course took.

In the section that described the college (The State University of New York College at Brockport), 2 factors were discussed that effected the development of the course. The first was the college wide concern for maintaining and increasing enrollments. The effect of this on new course proposals in Public Administration was that such proposals had to demonstrate the ability to attract sufficient graduate students (a minimum of 10) immediately. Through informal discussions

Public Administration students made it clear that an Internet course would be popular.

The second was that new course proposals that could be classified as part of the push for Distance Learning were preferable. Distance Learning courses would enhance enrollments by tapping new markets of potential students. An Internet course was easily classified as a Distance Learning course, but the Department viewed it as being compatible with the needs of our current students rather than opening new markets.

In the previous section that described the Department of Public Administration several factors were briefly mentioned that effected the development of the course. Since its inception in 1974 the Department has been engaged in Distance Learning by offering its courses off campus in downtown Rochester in the evenings to part-time graduate students. In 1997 the college opened the Metro Center in downtown Rochester with classrooms, state of the art computer labs, and student services roughly equivalent to those offered on campus. Almost all of the Department's courses are offered at the Metro Center. One course even experimented with the use of closed circuit broadcasts to remote locations. The Department has a long track record of offering Distance Learning courses. Offering a course on the Internet was seen as another step in this direction.

The Department has offered a number of computer courses and has an emphasis in this area. In 1978 the Department offered the first computer applications course outside of the Computer Science Department. Later on the Department was the first to have its own computer lab. outside of Computer Science. An Information Management Emphasis was added to the curriculum in 1988 and today a strong core of computer applications and development courses are regularly offered. Internet for Managers was, in part, viewed as another computer applications course.

In recent years there has been increasing competition from other programs that appeal to working professionals who seek graduate level management training. Despite this, enrollments in the Public Administration Program have steadily increased. The faculty often discussed ways to provide instruction in formats that would better meet the needs of our students and respond to the competitive pressures of other programs. These discussions were summarized as a set of student needs by the author and agreed on by the faculty:

1. Students want to decrease travel time and distance.
2. Students want to have more control over their time.
3. Students prefer courses offered in compacted formats.

4. Students want the opportunity to interact with their fellow students.
5. Students want to be mobile (i.e. have the ability to leave the area prior to degree completion).

With the possible exception of the fourth item (opportunity to interact with their fellow students) an Internet course seemed to meet these needs.

There were and still are many factors in the environment conducive to the development of Internet for Managers. The college is concerned with enrollments and views Distance Learning as one way to tap new student markets. The Department of Public Administration has a long track record in Distance Learning and teaching computer applications to part-time graduate students. Due to increasing competition the Department is motivated to consider instructional formats that better meet the needs of its students.

Perhaps as important as these factors is the allure of the Internet itself. It is a new, easily accessible, and appealing technology. Given this environment it seems that a considerable number of Internet courses are inevitable. But this is not the case at the College or within the Department (1 other Internet course is offered and 1 is planned for a year from now). While it is not the purpose of this paper to speculate on why so few Internet courses are offered at the college it suggests an issue for further research.

INTERNET FOR MANAGERS STUDENT SURVEY

In the fall 1997 semester 30 students completed the course. A number of these students were from a graduate program other than the Public Administration Program (MPA). Thus, it seemed like an ideal opportunity to determine the extent to which the assumptions made about the distance learning needs of MPA students held true for other graduate students.

A 24-item survey was administered to the class and 25 surveys were returned. Thirteen students reported that they were MPA students, 11 reported that they were from another masters program, and 1 indicated no affiliation with a masters program. An analysis was done on all questions to determine if there were significant differences between Public Administration students (n=13) and students in other graduate programs (n=11).

In looking at the demographic variables age, income, credits earned toward the degree, and computing skills at the beginning of the course no significant differences were found between the two groups. The racial and gender breakdown

of the two groups was similar and both of these variables were found to be independent of the graduate program they were in. A review of registration records showed that all the students who were in another graduate program were in the same one, which leads to a Certificate of Advanced Study in School Business Administration (SBA). While this program is in many ways similar to the MPA program, there are significant differences.

Students in the SBA program must complete 66 credits and they move through the program as a cohort, meaning the same group takes most of it's classes together. MPA students are in a 42 or 46 credit hour program and students move through the program as individuals. Both groups indicated that they were satisfied with graduate courses they had taken, but the SBA students were significantly more satisfied.

There were significant differences in 4 items related to the course between the two groups. Three of the differences were differences in degree and not direction:

1. Both groups felt that Internet for Managers took more time than other courses. The SBA students felt significantly more strongly (at the .05 level) about this than the MPA students.
2. Both groups felt that the Web page assignment helped improve their skills. Here again the SBA students felt significantly more strongly (at the .05 level) about this than the MPA students.
3. Both groups felt that minimizing the time traveled is a desirable course trait. In this case the MPA students were in significantly stronger agreement (at the .05 level) than SBA students were.

There was a difference in the direction of responses to the general statement: "Maximizing the amount of interaction I have with other students is desirable." MPA students neither agreed nor disagreed, while SBA students agreed that this was a desirable trait for the course. Interestingly when responding to the same question, as it applied to courses in general, both groups agreed.

While there were some differences in the views of both groups of students on some questionnaire items there was overwhelming agreement on many more. Student responses will be used to discuss four issues that are worth considering when offering a course on the Internet. The first issue is the rapid changes in Internet technology and the second is the variability in student Internet and general computer capabilities. The third and fourth issues are the unique student evaluation and special course integrity issues that arise when offering a course on the Internet.

Changes in Internet Technology

Internet for Managers is not only offered on the Internet but it is also about the Internet. Therefore changes in the Internet have a profound effect on course content. As already mentioned the Roadmap tutorial used in the course served as an introduction rather than a comprehensive treatment of the Internet. As soon as students have access to the Internet they begin to learn things that cannot be controlled by the instructor. One approach to this is to build a mechanism into the course that allows for and rewards information exchanges among students.

Internet for Managers used such a mechanism called helpful hints. If students found things that interested them they could share the information with the rest of the class via e-mail (everyone had a list of usernames). The instructor evaluated each hint and sent the evaluation back to the student. Usually this evaluation was simply a score (range from .5 to 3; mode=1) and, in some cases, a brief comment. Currently the maximum points a student can get for Helpful Hints is 20 (total points for the course is 100).

Student reaction to the statement that the helpful hints helped improve skills can be seen in table 1:

Table 1. The helpful hints helped me to improve my skills.

Response	Frequency n=25	Frequency %
Strongly Agree	8	32%
Agree	14	56%
Neither Agree or Disagree	1	4%
Disagree	2	8%

As can be seen from table 1 students found the helpful hints useful. A sampling of actual hints can be found on the course Web page at members.aol.com/profharley. As the course went on the hints became more sophisticated, so helpful hints had the added benefit of being in tune with student capabilities. In many ways the helpful hints are the equivalent of class participation.

One potential draw back to helpful hints is the sheer volume of e-mail they produce for a student. In the fall ‘97 class 456 helpful hints were scored. Some students complained about the volume of e-mail in the beginning of the course, however they soon came to understand that learning to handle large volumes of e-mail is a worthwhile skill.

E-mail was the primary method of student interaction in Internet for Managers. Students were asked to rate the desirability of interacting with other students in general and specifically for the course. The results are shown in table 2 below:

Table 2. Maximizing the amount of interaction I have with other students is desirable.

	For Courses in General		For this Course	
Response	Frequency n=25	Frequency %	Frequency n=23	Frequency %
Strongly Agree	8	32%	4	17.4%
Agree	10	40%	9	39.1%
Neither Agree or Disagree	7	28%	4	17.4%
Disagree	0	0%	6	26.1%

Surprisingly, 6 of the 23 students responding to this item disagreed that maximizing student interaction was desirable for this course. A cross tabs showed that 4 of these people felt that it was desirable for courses in general, while 2 were neutral for courses in general.

Since the beginning of the course in 1996 the most dramatic changes have occurred in the Web. Many ISP's allow their subscribers to publish Web pages. The variety and capability of Web authoring tools has increased dramatically as has the power of HTML. Table 3 shows that students overwhelmingly felt that the Web page assignment helped improve their skills:

Table 3. The Web page assignment helped me improve my skills.

Response	Frequency n=25	Frequency %
Strongly Agree	18	72%
Agree	6	24%
Neither Agree or Disagree	1	4%

The Web page assignment was judged against the following criteria:

(1) Extensiveness (can I find an important site that you missed?) (10 Points)

(2) Quality of writing and organization (20 Points)

(a) Provide 5 to 8 paragraphs that describe your topic, its scope and why it is interesting.
(b) Identify each site's type (IE. USENET, LISTSERV, TELNET, FTP, GOPHER, or WWW) and it's address.
(c) Provide a 1 to 3 sentence description of what is available at each site and a link where possible.
(d) Provide a paragraph on you evaluation of each site as it relates to your topic.

(3) Quality and appearance of your Web site. (20 Points)

Students were free to choose their topic and use Web authoring tools of their choosing. Given the rapid changes in the Web it was common for students to change their topics and to change the Web tools they used.

The quizzes were static in that they related to the Roadmap tutorial and learning some basic HTML tags. As table 4 shows, students felt that quizzes were the least valuable of the assignments in the course:

Table 4. The quizzes helped me to improve my skills.

Response	Frequency n=25	Frequency %
Strongly Agree	2	8%
Agree	12	48%
Neither Agree or Disagree	8	32%
Disagree	3	12%

The quizzes were not particularly difficult and students were encouraged to copy and paste answers from the Roadmap tutorial with attribution. Doing these quizzes had none of the stress associated with closed book, in class exams. However, the quizzes did represent a structured aspect of the course over which the student had the least amount of control. This may account for why students did not find them as helpful as other assignments.

Differential Student Internet and Computer Capabilities

Students came to the course with variable computer and Internet skills. Some already had Web sites while others were just beginning to use e-mail. Several strategies were employed to actually take advantage of these disparities. For

example, using the same ISP and including, as part of the course, the requirement to provide helpful hints to fellow class members via e-mail are two ways of taking advantage of students' differing Internet skills.

In some cases the student who lacks both computer and Internet skills presents a complex challenge, which is equal to more than the sum of these deficiencies. These students sometimes develop self-imposed barriers and are considered to be computer phobic. If handled properly, the format of an Internet course can be designed to overcome self-imposed barriers to learning computer technology.

Student skills before and after the course are shown in table 5 below:

Table 5	I had minimal computer skills when I started this course.		I had minimal computer skills when I finished this course.	
Response	Frequency n=25	Frequency %	Frequency n=25	Frequency %
Strongly Agree	5	20%	0	0%
Agree	5	20%	0	0%
Neither Agree or Disagree	2	8%	0	0%
Disagree	13	52%	15	60%
Strongly Disagree	0	0%	10	40%

Half the students came to the course with a low level of skills while the other half felt that they had skills. At the end of the course all students felt that they could disagree or strongly disagree with a statement that they had minimal skills. It should be noted that gender, race, graduate credit hours, and income were not an issue here since student evaluations of their skills at the beginning of the course were independent (Chi Square test for independence) of these variables.

A cross tabs of these questionnaire items is very interesting. Of the 5 people who strongly agreed that they had minimal skills at the beginning 4 disagreed and 1 strongly disagreed at the end of the course. Five students were unchanged, meaning that they disagreed that they had minimal skills in the beginning and at the end. Thus 20 out of 25 students felt that they had improved their skills by the end of the course.

As with classes in the past a small number of students became very frustrated. While frustration that leads to problem solving is helpful these people had reached the point where they were just stuck. Some of these students were beginning to characterize themselves as computer phobic. They proposed a special face to face

session with me to which I immediately agreed. At that session we went over their concerns. The problems they had stemmed from a lack of understanding of files and folders and the related issue of how to copy a file to ftp space on AOL's computer. These concerns were solved in about an hour. In no instance have I ever had a student that just could not get it.

Student Evaluation

There are many student evaluation concerns associated with a course offered on the Internet. Perhaps the one that comes immediately to mind is the issue of cheating. The opportunity to plagiarize or have someone else do student assignments exists more so than in traditional classroom situations where there can be oversight during exams. Student responses to a question about cheating are shown in table 6 below:

Table 6. There was a lot of cheating in the graduate courses I have taken.

Response	Frequency n=25	Frequency %
Neither Agree or Disagree	10	40%
Disagree	7	28%
Strongly Disagree	8	32%

I did not believe that students who cheated in my course would admit to it in a questionnaire. It was hoped that by asking about cheating in general the potential for cheating could be determined for the Internet for Managers course. In my opinion the responses indicate that some cheating probably occurred.

The best way to maintain strict control over cheating is to use proctored exams. This implies that one or more student evaluation sessions must be held face to face.

Several mechanisms were used in this course to decrease the opportunity for cheating. These include the use of direct phone conversations, and one on one chat room sessions. In extreme cases face to face meetings were employed. Since these techniques are not used with all students, but only the ones suspected of cheating the first problem is to detect the possibility of cheating.

In this course cheating is simply defined as taking someone else's work and representing it as your own without attribution. This can occur on quizzes, helpful hints, and the Web page assignment. Detecting cheating on the quizzes or helpful

hints is very difficult. In several instances students sent their fellow students answers to quiz questions and inadvertently copied me on the e-mail. One student accidentally copied the whole class. This is rare but it is further evidence that students are cheating. Unfortunately unless students make these errors, detection is almost impossible.

Detecting cheating on the Web page assignment is considerably easier. The instances of cheating encountered take two forms, the use of graphics or sections of code from other Web sites without attribution and having other persons write some or all of the Web page assignment.

In the first instance (the use of graphics or sections of code), cheating is fairly easily detected. The graphics have been seen before and the code will not be in the same style as the rest of the page. The second instance is a bit more difficult to detect, but in some cases I have seen the use of advanced HTML conventions that would be unlikely to pop up in a beginner's page. Once detected I call the student and ask them to explain. In the case of code that does not appear to be the student's a few questions to see if they know how the code works is usually enough to determine if they have been cheating.

Course Integrity

The integrity of the course presents some concerns. Most of the students in this course do not have undergraduate training in Internet skills. Thus, while it is a graduate course, the Internet skills presented and learned are not at the graduate level. By focusing on the quality of the outcomes (in particular the content of the student's Web page), it can be argued that the course meets graduate standards.

Tables 7 and 8 below provide a measure of the amount of work and thinking required in this course:

Table 7. This course required more of my time than the other graduate courses I have taken.

Response	Frequency n=25	Frequency %
Strongly Agree	13	52%
Agree	5	10%
Neither Agree or Disagree	3	12%
Disagree	3	12%
Strongly Disagree	1	4%

Table 8. This course made me think more than the other graduate courses I have taken.

Response	Frequency n=25	Frequency %
Strongly Agree	8	32%
Agree	11	44%
Neither Agree or Disagree	2	8%
Disagree	4	16%

Relative to other graduate courses most students felt that they worked harder and thought more in this course. In that sense Internet for Managers can lay claim to meeting the requirements of a graduate level course.

In the classical sense this is not a graduate level course in that it does not presume extensive undergraduate preparation in the field. But then many courses in professional management graduate programs are like this. Such courses are offered because the student needs some minimal skills or understanding in the area, but does not need to develop an in depth, comprehensive set of knowledge or skills.

For such courses students might be expected to learn more at a faster rate than they would in an undergraduate level course. They might also be expected to demonstrate some ability to understand the knowledge and skills learned in some broader context. For example, students might be expected to demonstrate a broader understanding of how the Internet effects the management of large organizations or the development of policy.

Students may learn more at a faster rate in Internet for Managers however, there is no assignment that allows them to demonstrate an understanding of the Internet in some broader context. Such an assignment may not be possible at this time since the Internet is a technology that many believe will have a profound but as yet not entirely defined impact on society. Whatever the Internet becomes it will certainly be a vehicle for learning, continued growth, and development. Perhaps teaching graduate students how to continue learning from the Internet provides some relation to a broader context and thus legitimacy for the course.

From the students' point of view the 5 needs associated with the delivery of graduate courses suggested earlier (see the section on the environment within which the course was developed) were validated for courses in general and with one exception for this course (see table 9):

Chi square tests were done to determine if a significant majority of the students strongly agreed or agreed with the need statements. In all cases except one significant majorities existed at the .01 or .05 level. Even though 13 out of 23

students strongly agreed or agreed with the statement that maximizing the amount of interaction they have with other students is desirable in the Internet for Managers course, this was not a significant majority. It cannot be said that this is a desirable trait for this course.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In considering the experience with Internet for Managers and its lessons for other courses it is important to make at least 2 distinctions. The first is that the course content pertained to the Internet. Therefore, some of the observations made may not be as applicable to courses offered on the Internet whose course content pertains to something other than the Internet. Because of it's content Internet for Managers was very sensitive to changes in Internet technology, while a course offered on the Internet in say statistics or management theory might not be.

Table 9. Student needs associated with the delivery of graduate courses.

Criteria	For Courses in General		For this Course	
	Frequency Strongly Agree or Agree	Frequency Strongly Agree or Agree %	Frequency Strongly Agree or Agree	Frequency Strongly Agree or Agree %
Minimizing the time I spend traveling to class..	22 n=25	88% Significant at .01	19 n=22	86.3% Significant at .01
Maximizing the control I have over my time..	25 n=25	100% Significant at .01	24 n=23	95.7% Significant at .01
Longer but fewer class sessions..	21 n=25	84% Significant at .01	17 n=23	73.9% Significant at .05
Maximizing the amount of interaction I have..	18 n=25	72% Significant at .05	13 n=23	56.5% Not Significant
Being able to move to another geographic area..	21 n=25	84% Significant at .01	20 n=25	96% Significant at .01

Secondly, the nature of the students taking the course and their needs may limit the applicability of this experience. These were part-time graduate students in professional programs that offered other courses in non-traditional formats. Such students probably have needs and expectations that differ from other groups of students. Perhaps traditional full-time students who live on campus would react to Internet for Managers in different ways.

Reflecting on the first point, that the rapid changes in the Internet have considerable impact on a course whose content is the Internet raises some interesting issues. The lack of control over course content is one. Like most colleges and universities faculty at Brockport are expected to produce a syllabus that represents a clear set of expectations that exist between teacher and student. These expectations are to be specific and unchangeable during the time the course is offered.

Internet for Managers has violated these principles on a number of occasions. Early in the history of the course requirements were changed in mid semester. The assignments and criteria for grading are, by some standards, rather vague. In a course that studies a new and rapidly changing technology there is an overriding criterion which is that if something new and potentially useful comes along during the semester we will study it. This overriding criterion is probably not so applicable to Internet courses whose content does not include a new and rapidly changing technology.

I am concerned with the quality of student interactions in this course and Internet courses in general. Many adult students have told me that the contacts with other students made in class are very rewarding to them. At present, these contacts are largely limited to e-mail in courses offered on the Internet. I assumed that much of the richness of these contacts would be missing. This does not seem to be the case. Students indicated that maximizing interactions was desirable in general, but they were neutral about it in this course.

There may be several explanations for this. First, students may get enough interactions in other courses and thus do not feel that they need them in this course. Secondly, students may be willing to give up interactions for other benefits they receive from this course.

Reflecting on the special face to face session held at the request of a few students who felt lost (and the sessions like this I have had in the past) I am amazed at how serious the consequences of being stuck are and how easily people can become unstuck. In many instance people who are stuck are in tears. When shown the solution they are greatly relieved, somewhat embarrassed, and ready to approach the material with a high level of confidence.

The fact that helping students in trouble often requires a face to face meeting confirms that some people have trouble learning via the Internet. Perhaps it is the lack of familiarity but this is something that has occurred each time the course has been offered with only one exception. Mechanisms for identifying people who are stuck and getting them unstuck are particularly critical for an Internet course where there is little face to face contact.

The issue of cheating is potentially serious in any Internet course. In my opinion Internet for Managers provides an ideal environment for cheating since there are minimal controls and maximum opportunities to cheat. I have seriously considered 2 alternatives. These include face to face student evaluation sessions and unique quizzes for each student. The fact that I can come up with only 2 alternatives is in itself disheartening. The first alternative has the obvious disadvantage of increasing the number of class sessions so a future attempt will be made to implement the second alternative. Of course neither alternative would have any effect on the helpful hints assignment.

The allure of the Internet as a teaching medium is remarkable. People in all walks of life are attempting to integrate it into their lives in some way. Every so often a new technology comes along that promises to change society in some undefined way. In many cases (i.e. the airplane) the technology is too costly or requires too much education to be generally available to everyone in the beginning. This is not the case with the Internet. From the beginning it was easily accessible and it will change the way we learn and the way we teach.

INDEX

D

E

F

G

H

I

J

K

L

M

N

T

U

V

W