State Modernization and Decentralization - Implications for Education and Training in Public Administration:

Selected Central European and Global Perspectives

Edited by

Allan Rosenbaum

& Ľudmila Gajdošová

United Nations

IASIA
INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION
OF SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTES
OF ADMINISTRATION

NISPAcee
THE NETWORK OF INSTITUTES AND
SCHOOLS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
IN CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

STATE MODERNIZATION AND DECENTRALIZATION – IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: SELECTED CENTRAL EUROPEAN AND GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES

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United Nations

UNDESA, United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

IASIA, International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration

NISPAcee, The Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration
in Central and Eastern Europe

State Modernization and Decentralization – Implications for Education and Training in Public Administration: Selected Central European and Global Perspectives

NOTE

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) sponsored the joint initiative of the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee) and the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) to organize a seminar on public administration education and training in a framework of modernization and decentralization, which was held in Bratislava, Slovakia, on 6 – 8 December 2001 under the auspices of the Ministry of Interior of the Slovak Republic. The papers included in this book were presented during this seminar and the publication was sponsored by the UNDESA.

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AFTERWORD

Foreword

Guido Bertucci *

The greatest challenges of our times – as the world strives to ensure equitable sustainable development for all – is to strengthen democracy and guarantee the protection of human rights, as well as to foster participation of citizens in social, political and economic development processes. Good inclusive governance is a prerequisite for meeting these challenges. More and more, decentralization is being regarded as an important tool to ensure that the public sector responds to the needs and concerns of all groups in society so that they can voice their demands. It also increases the efficiency of public service delivery and improves government's accountability.

At its First Session on 22 – 26 July 2002, the Committee of Experts Public Administration recommended that, "Member States should consider designing and implementing effective decentralization policies and programmes (financial and administrative) and building the capacity of governance institutions at the central, subnational and local levels to accomplish the Millennium Development Goals". In addition, decentralization and the strengthening of local government is an important contributing factor to rapid economic development. Strong local governmental capacity greatly facilitates the emergence of creative entrepreneurs, skilled labour pool, an adequate infrastructure and an appropriate environment in terms of laws, regulations, the availability of credit and other forms of technical assistance.

Education and training of local government staff is one of the conditions for effective decentralized governance. Given the importance of the issue, the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) sponsored the laudable joint initiative of the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee) and the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) to organize a seminar on public administration education and training in a framework of modernization and decentralization, which was held in Bratislava on 6 – 8 December 2001. It provided a forum for participants to discuss trends and developments in public administration training and education in the context of State modernization, decentralization, and relevant new legislation in comparative perspective. The seminar gave special emphasis to Central and Eastern Europe since state modernization and decentralization is a key component of administrative reforms taking place in those countries, especially in view of their determination to join the European Union.

This publication is the report of the seminar – the papers presented illustrate decentralization and state modernization experiences from both European and global

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perspectives, identify conditions for delivering effective education and training for public servants, as well as describe the models of public administration education and training in various countries. The authors of some papers in the publication attempt to define new approaches to public administration education and training and identify the opportunities and challenges it involves in a changing environment. The publication underscores the importance of international cooperation, as well as the cooperation among the public sector, NGOs and private sector in delivering effective public administration and training.

I want to salute the excellent collaboration between UNDESA and NISPAcee, IASIA, the Institute of Public Administration of Slovakia and the Ministry of Interior of the Slovak Republic for organizing jointly the seminar – it is a successful example of how the interaction between international, regional and national institutions brings about impressive results. I also wish to express my thanks to the Government of the Slovak Republic for hosting the seminar.

Special recognition is due to Dr. Allan Rosenbaum, Director of the Institute for Public Management and Community Service of Florida International University and the President of IASIA and Ľudmila Gajdošová, Executive Director of NISPAcee, for taking the lead in organizing this successful event and editing the publication. This recognition also goes to the staff of my Division who worked along with them to make this event happen: Ms. Yolande Jemiai, Senior Public Administration Officer for co – organizing the seminar and Ms. Elza Maharramova, Associate Public Administration Officer for reviewing the papers. Finally, none of this would have been possible without the enthusiasm of the participants, their expertise and their lively and concerned discussions around the main themes.

Preface

Yolande Jemiai *

Not only for Slovakia and other states, but really the world over, the topic of this book could not be timelier. For Central European and East European States, decentralization is an important process and a critical component of the conditions which countries must fulfil in order to accede to the European Union. In this particular context the process of decentralization follows a general principle that is disarmingly simple and yet quite effective. This is the principle of subsidiarity, which at its simplest states that every function should be assigned at the lowest level at which it can be undertaken effectively. This means in practice that any decision to allocate a task or a responsibility at a higher level must be explained on the ground that it could not be done effectively at a lower level.

Though it would seem accordingly that decentralization, in light of subsidiarity, strictly obeys criteria of effectiveness, one must not overlook the importance of other criteria. These lend support not only to decentralization but also to the parallel processes of deconcentration and devolution of power. These criteria, in fact principles, which the United Nations enshrined both in the landmark resolution 50/225 of 1996 and also the Millennium Declaration of 4 September 2000, may be expressed as follows:

- Democracy is participation and modernization;
- Responsiveness to citizens, education and training are predicated on physical proximity; and
- Democracy means tolerance and this in turn entails respect for diversity. Nothing promotes diversity, democracy and respect better than education and training.

Creating institutions that bring those conditions to life and make them operational is the end-goal of processes of decentralization, deconcentration and devolution of power. Education and training are ideal fields from which to start this process.

"Almost by definition, a highly centralized system of government is less democratic than one in which there is a network of local and regional authorities, complementing the national authority, with clearly delineated powers and responsibilities."

These words of a UNDP regional study draw attention to the fact that decentralization in Central and Eastern Europe and elsewhere forms part of a much broader and complex movement of truly global dimensions. The quest for more democracy, which the study highlighted, has been coupled in most places by attempts to graduate from a highly centralized, tightly controlled, often paternalistic

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and authoritarian bureaucratic system into one exemplifying the merits of individual initiative and citizen participation in the affairs of government.

A new pattern of governance has been emerging gradually which points in the direction of the diffusion of power and authority among multiple stakeholders at several layers of government – supra-national, national, regional and local.

Decentralization highlights the need and virtue of broad intensive involvement of citizens in general both in the political process and in public life at large. We all do know, however, that such participation is often predicated on physical proximity. In spite of the rapid advance of science and technology, and notwithstanding the means of telecommunications, participation, education and training remain, by and large, a "face to face exercise". We meet our representatives. We question power holders. We argue, we debate, we vote and exercise our citizens' rights best at the level of our neighbourhoods, our districts, our schools and municipalities. It is also on those levels that issues of vital concern for the lives of men and women arise. Making democracy real begins by empowering people to take collective measures that change their lives for the better. Education and training affect the lives of citizens and future generations in vital ways.

Democracy means tolerance and tolerance means peace. In the words of last year's notable Millennium Declaration:

> Human beings must respect each other in all their diversity of belief, culture and language. Differences within and between societies should neither be feared nor repressed, but cherished as a precious asset of humanity.

One of the many virtues of education and decentralization is that they forge frameworks that not only permit, but also even promote diversity. Linguistic or ethnic minorities, which live in compact communities in certain geographical areas, are given the opportunity to foster their identity and to preserve their culture in ways that would be impossible under centralized, strictly homogenized politico-administrative institutional framework.

There are constraints, however, which also bring into focus the necessary conditions for the success and progress of decentralization. The joint United Nations and UNDP Conference on Decentralization, which took place in Yerevan in April 1999, issued a Declaration addressing these conditions.

The Conference participants acknowledged the catalytic role of decentralization in democratisation and in accelerating the transformation process of the economy and society of their countries, particularly those that had been over-centralized and over-politicized. Participants concluded that the challenges and problems are mostly common to all, although solutions may vary from country to country, according to specific socio-economic conditions and cultural particularities. Common to all countries is the need for a strong supportive centre for successful decentralization. Based on the Constitution and other relevant texts, a clear and consistent legislative framework should establish the foundations for the distribution of functions

and competencies both between the State and local self-government and among various levels of local self-government. Such distribution of functions does not preclude a close cooperation between them. Participants underlined that a financial resource base commensurate with the functions and the responsibilities of various levels of government and self-government should be secured. An effort must be made, accordingly, to establish and maintain financial flows for local authorities that broadly correspond to their particular needs, conditions and responsibilities.

Acknowledgements

Allan Rosenbaum would like to express similar thanks to Cristina Rodríguez-Acosta and Heather Riggs for administrative support, as well as to especially thank Martha Cabrera, Eddy Goyanes, Estella Hernández and Heather Riggs for the many times which they have typed and retyped different parts of this manuscript. He has no doubt that they are delighted that the task is finally completed. He also would especially like to thank the members of his family, Judy, Michelle, Amy, Mark, Michael and Sheldon for the many ways they have provided support for his efforts to produce this volume.

Ludmila Gajdošová
Allan Rosenbaum

Part I

State Modernization –
New Reforms, New Management

State Modernization and the New Public Administrator

Allan Rosenbaum and Ľudmila Gajdošová *

The last two decades of the twentieth century have witnessed many significant changes in governmental administration. Increasing reliance upon market mechanisms, the carrying out of wide-ranging privatization and deregulation and the initiation of major efforts at decentralization, all have had important impacts upon the public sector. The significance of these changes in public management practice was made even greater by the major societal transformations which took place during the last decade and a half of the twentieth century. In many parts of the world, countries moved from dictatorial to democratic regimes and from planned to free market economies. Needless to say, this further complicated the nature of public management. Nowhere were these transformations either more dramatic, or more significant than in Central and Eastern Europe where old regimes dramatically fell and new ones were rapidly created.

One consequence of these dramatic changes was to make the task of training and preparing individuals for the public service even more complex and problematic than it had previously been. Thus, while it is always necessary for those engaged in training future generations of public servants to critically assess the nature of their activities, it is especially necessary to do so now. The task of training the next generation and retraining the current generation of public servants to function in governments engaged in significant efforts of state modernization and decentralization is most assuredly a difficult one. This is especially so in Central and Eastern European countries where the modernisation of the state and the process of decentralisation has had to be implemented simultaneously with ongoing profound political and economic reforms.

In these transitional countries, decision making processes about reforms and the implementation of reforms require highly professional staff at all levels of public institutions. Unfortunately, all too often during the building of the new democracies in the transition countries, the role of education and training in public policy and administration hasn't been taken seriously as a valuable tool for facilitating successful reforms. Consequently, there have been many policy and implementation failures resulting in the misuse and wasting of limited public resources. Only in the past few years has adequate attention been given to issues related to the professionalization of the public employees working in today's complex national, international and global environments.

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Given this challenging reality, it is especially important that one thinks systematically about such matters and does so within a broad conceptual framework. While in Central and Eastern European countries, numerous training and educational programmes in the field of public administration were launched in the nineties, many of them have yet to address very basic issues dealing with the design and development of programmes and curricula which adequately reflect the needs of ongoing national reforms and the administrative reforms required for European integration. These two realities generate far more intense demands upon the contemporary public servant, especially in Central and Eastern Europe, for innovative professionalism than has ever before been the case. This in turn creates a need for those involved in the education and training of public administrators to respond in new, more creative and more imaginative ways.

In fact, there are three general categories of skills upon which education and training programs in public administration ought to focus their attention in order to cope with challenges of contemporary world. These are the provision of technical, managerial and leadership skills. It is increasingly evident that these three areas represent an implicit continuum of capabilities – with the technical being the most basic and leadership skills the most crucial – which are required of all those who are going to be prepared to perform successfully as creative public servants in a modern or modernizing state.

I. Technical Skills

Clearly, the effective public administrator needs to be skilled in all of those areas in which his or her predecessors traditionally have been trained. Knowledge of administrative law, budgeting and fiscal management, human resource development, policy and quantitative analysis and the political context of administration is as relevant for the public administrator of the 21st century as it was for the public administrator of the 20th century. However, the dramatic growth in the complexity of public problems and the newly emerging shape of the modernizing public sector – with its greater emphasis upon entrepreneurialism, privatization, consumer or customer service, contracting out and the like – will increasingly require a new set of technical competencies which must be developed simultaneously with the more traditional ones. These include:

1. **Collaborative Capabilities:** Increasingly, public administrators find themselves engaged in projects that require group participation and, as a consequence, serious team building activities. In part, this is a consequence of the growing complexity of public problems and, in part, it is a result of the fact that most public policy problems no longer fall solely within the purview of a single organizational unit, agency or department or of a particular geographically based government. Consequently, efforts to successfully solve many contemporary public policy problems frequently require the creation of teams of individuals drawn from different units, agencies, departments or governments. This in turn requires training in the techniques and processes that promote effective

collaboration among individuals who may have quite different priorities and, in some cases, even very different values. In CEE countries e.g. many studies suggest that there is a strong dominance of a traditional "verticalizm", together with underdeveloped systems of political and administrative co-ordination, and therefore the enhancement of collaborative capabilities is especially important for public managers.

2. **Understanding International and Global Organizations and their Values:** It is a growing challenge for civil servants to deal with these organizations in their every day work. In the European context it is especially necessary to understand the so-called "European Administrative Space" which is about basic institutional arrangements, processes and values. Candidate countries to the European Union (EU) have to prepare their administrations to enter this area of inter and multi-governmental relationships and administrators have to train for that. However, studies show that even in the member states of the EU, public administration programmes are, in majority, nationally oriented and miss the "European dimension".

3. **Substantive Policy Expertise:** At first glance, it would appear that the growing emphasis upon privatization and the contracting out of governmental services might lessen the demand for, and priority given to, training in an applied field such as agriculture, engineering or economics. However, most governmental services will continue to be delivered directly by or closely overseen by governmental personnel and, increasingly, in the future this will require individuals with ever higher levels of substantive policy expertise. The lack of policy expertise is especially evident in CEE countries where traditionally there has been a strong focus on the mechanical and technical side of administration remains, with limited attention to strategic thinking and policy development. Consequently, there is a very great need for public administrators to acquire a stronger understanding of the subject matters with which they must deal. This is especially so in light of the increasing complexity of public problems which confront them.

4. **Performance Measurement and Contract Management Skills:** The growing movement in government all across the world toward results orientations, contracting out of services, restructuring of agencies to reflect diverse populations and greater accountability and responsiveness to agency clientele, place yet other new demands upon public administrators. Among them is the ability to quickly and effectively assess whether the programs that they, or their contractors, are delivering are, in fact, meeting the needs of their clientele in the most effective possible manner. With increasing frequency this is being done through the development of systems of performance measurement in which relevant and significant indicators of performance are used to assess the success of a program in terms of the effectiveness of the services delivered and their congruency with the needs of the clientele that they are designed to serve. Also because governments will continue to utilize contracts to obtain many kinds

of goods and services, public administrators will continue to need substantial skill in contract management.

5. **Program Development and Design:** Increasingly, in the face of more complex public problems, government administrators are finding that they need to respond with new, ever more complex policy initiatives. This necessitates a high level of skill in program design and development. Such an ability requires, in turn, the capacity to effectively envision the broader contextual environment within which an activity will occur and to be able to think systematically about the intended and the unintended consequences of the implementing of the program or policy being designed and developed.

6. **Oral and Written Presentations Skills:** As public problems become more complex, demands for accountability (and greater equity) grow, and the challenges to the state become more intense, the ability of public managers to effectively communicate information assumes an increasingly high priority. This means that greater attention must be given to the written and oral communication skills of people being trained or educated for future positions in public management. In turn, this requires that increased emphasis be placed upon training public administrators in the effective preparation of documents and reports which communicate the work and activities of public managers.

7. **Languages skills:** There can be no doubt that the new era of globalization has increased the need for public administrators to be able to understand and communicate effectively in foreign languages.

8. **Knowledge of information technology and e-governance:** Over the course of the past four or five years, great attention has been given to the impact of advances in information and communication technology and its impact upon government. Often, this takes the form of discussions about e-governance. All across the world, new approaches to governmental service delivery which utilize new modes of information and communication technology are being initiated. Some of these efforts will not succeed but many will and clearly the use of such approaches is going to increase significantly over the course of the next decade. Consequently, it is of critical importance that public administrators gain a thorough understanding of how such technologies can be applied to improve and simplify governmental service delivery and public management.

II. Managerial Skills

One of the most important responsibilities of both current and especially future public administrators will be to manage relationships among individual employees and to insure that they have the necessary skills to meet the requirements of an increasingly complex public workplace. This is a significant change from an era in which, even though personal relationships were important, the principal role of public managers was to effectively administer processes and procedures. Today, organizations simultaneously are becoming less structured and, in some cases, highly fluid in nature and, in almost all cases, increasingly complex – while the

tasks which they seek to accomplish are becoming ever more difficult. Consequently, there is a need for much higher levels of adaptability and flexibility in the contemporary public organization. This puts even more emphasis upon the management of relationships (which often may be in a continual state of flux) as a key future activity for public administrators. Taken together, this requires that the managerial skills of public administrators be significantly enhanced in at least each of the following areas

1. **Understanding of Individual and Organizational Psychology:** Certainly, if the task of the contemporary public manager will be increasingly focused upon managing relationships among the people with whom he or she works, a very strong grounding in basic individual and group psychology and organizational behaviour becomes even more important than at present to the education of effective public administrators. In addition, the reality of a constantly changing organization will inevitably create uncertainly and, very possibly, a sense of considerable instability for at least some of those involved. Consequently, the effective public administrator must be prepared for a work environment that will become increasingly less routine and predictable.

2. **Ability to Facilitate Effective Staff Personal and Professional Development:** It is self evident that the success of public managers depends heavily upon the abilities of those with whom they work. With the problems of the public sector becoming more difficult, and the amount and complexity of information increasing, it is ever more important that public managers work with colleagues who possess the highest levels of professional skill and the ability to understand and adapt to new situations. In a work place that will be increasingly characterized by rapidly changing job requirements, this means that employee skills must constantly adapt to mew demands and technologies. More often than one might anticipate, individual employees fail to see this or are reluctant to adapt to such situations.

   This places an important priority upon the ability of public managers to encourage and support effectively the professional and personal skill development of the people with whom they work everyday. This in turn also requires a realization that the funding of staff training is a wise long term investment and that it is necessary to provide high quality training opportunities for both current and future personnel. This will become increasingly critical in terms of maintaining and sustaining a supportive, encouraging and collaborative work environment.

3. **Capacity to Build and Sustain Harmonious Multi-ethnic, Multi-cultural Environments:** Increasingly, worldwide immigration and population movements are affecting even the most homogeneous and relatively isolated communities. Indeed, in many communities, and certainly in most countries, populations are becoming increasingly multi-ethnic and multi-cultural. All too often this creates new tensions and in some cases, outright conflict. Consequently, issues related to multi-culturalism and the understanding of the skills, techniques and abilities

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necessary to hold multi-ethnic work forces and societies together must become increasingly central to the education of effective public administrators. These are issues that must be dealt with in terms of both enhancing the knowledge base of the public manager and the strengthening of their interpersonal skills and abilities.

4. **Ability to Effectively Negotiate with External Actors:** The growing complexity of public policy and the public sector itself is occurring at a time of increased emphasis upon intergovernmental collaboration and greater interaction between the public and private sectors and civil society. Consequently, effective managers of the future must have an especially strong understanding of how to establish good working relationships between one's own organization and the many organizations, both within and outside of the government, with which it is increasingly necessary to interact in order to effectively deliver successful program activities. Moreover, the increasing emphasis on partnerships between public, the non-profit and the private sectors in order to promote particular social goals and policies makes the ability to effectively interact with the broader community even more critical to the future success of public sector managers.

5. **Enhanced Information Processing and Analytic Capability:** In an increasingly complex environment with a rapidly expanding universe of information and knowledge, the ability to be aware of new sources of information, effectively access them and be able to link needed information to the solution of real world governmental problems and situations is an ever more critical skill for the effective public manager to possess. This means that future public managers must have an even stronger ability to understand the nature and relevance of complex data and analysis than their current counterparts. Indeed, sorting out relevant information from the peripheral certainly will be one of the great challenges of effective public management in the future.

III. Leadership Skills

Whether one wishes it to be so or not, the combination of globalization and growing technological capacity (and complexity) places increasing demands on the leaders of public organizations for more creative and effective leadership. The ability to enunciate an engaging and compelling vision for the future of the organization, to focus it upon long term opportunities and goals, and to inspire others are all among the most important abilities required of the next generation of governmental leaders.

As is often the case, those leadership skills and competencies which are required by the most senior executives within an organization are ones that seem, at first glance, to be more like personal, psychological traits and, consequently, by their nature, the most ambiguous and difficult for which to educate people. However, that is not necessarily the case. Through the use of case methods, individual and group simulation techniques, and other new and more effective approaches to even

the most traditional teaching and training methods, it is possible to help administrators to cope more effectively with their leadership responsibilities. Among the key areas in which such efforts will need to be initiated or intensified in the near future are the following:

1. **Ability to Adapt Rapidly to Change and Complexity:** In the increasingly complicated, ever-changing future environment of government – especially at its upper levels – the ability to adapt rapidly in a world in which the right answer is becoming more difficult to determine is of critical importance. Issues such as economic development, global warming, cleaning up the environment, and the like, which were generally not even considered the responsibility of government half a century ago, now are constant administrative concerns. It is clear these very complex problems require a level of adaptability, and the capacity to respond in new and creative ways, that was literally inconceivable only a decade or two ago. While adaptability and flexibility are certainly personal traits, they are also ones that can, to a significant degree, be taught and learned through creative education and training.

2. **Ethical Awareness, Sensitivity and Commitment:** In part because the stakes of government are constantly growing bigger and becoming more important, and the complexity of the problems with which government deals escalating, the opportunities for compromises in ethical behaviour – both intended and, sometimes, not intended – have increased significantly. This is especially the case with the growth in use of the private sector to deal with public problems and the increasingly frequent use of market-like, competitive mechanisms in the public sector.

   Obviously, issues of ethics are important at every level of government. However, it is the top levels of any organization that set the basic tone, or ethos, that influences its entire institutional life. This makes it increasingly incumbent upon those who educate the leadership of public organizations to be more sensitive to the issues and techniques of how to set an ethical tone, not only in terms of individual behaviour, but in terms of the activities and life of the organizations as a whole. Clearly this is an area of concern to which the academic community already has begun to respond, but it is important that this response be sustained and intensified.

3. **Entrepreneurialism and Risk-taking Ability:** In an environment in which organizational and institutional structures are becoming increasingly fragile and which is filled with ever more ambiguous tasks, the traditional managerial guidelines and approaches of the past quickly grow less relevant to the solution of today's problems. Consequently, the ability of an individual leader to recognize the need to take calculated risks in a rational and considered way is crucial to the future success of most organizations. Likewise, the ability to recognize new opportunities and seize them – to engage in effective entrepreneurial behaviour – becomes equally critical.

4. **Strategic Planning Capability:** At least two trends will require the public administrator of the 21ˢᵗ century to possess strong skills in the area of strategic planning. First, as both program management and service delivery increasingly are contracted out, the need for government administrators to develop longer term plans to guide and coordinate their activities will grow accordingly. Second, the increasing emphasis upon responsiveness to clientele demands requires that public administrators have a better and clearer understanding of exactly what their clientele is seeking. One of the most effective means for obtaining this understanding is through the engaging of an agency=s clientele, or constituencies, in strategic planning exercises. It is for this reason that one witnesses the growing use of such techniques in virtually every area of public and non-profit sector activity – from rural grassroots political and economic development initiatives, to long term goal and agenda setting by large and sophisticated national government agencies.

5. **Ability to See Situations as Others See Them:** Given the complexity and increasing interactiveness of the environment in which public administrators now must work, it becomes critically important to see and understand the situation of one's own organization from the perspective of others and especially those outside of it. This must include both one's allies and, even more importantly, one's actual and possible opponents in any bureaucratic or organizational situation. This means that the leaders of public organizations must be people who are able to assess the subtleties and complexities of their organization and its environment and the people within and around it.

6. **Democratic Commitment:** While the past two decades have seen many countries in many parts of the world making the transition to democracy, the reality is that many of these new democracies are very fragile ones. In addition, in many places where democratic governments have long been the norm, significant threats have begun to emerge. In particular, the development of global terrorism has produced a climate in which there is often an inclination to sacrifice the democratic values as means of achieving greater governmental capacity to address such matters.

These circumstances make it especially important that public servants at all levels of government be committed to promoting the ideals of democratic governance. The reality is that all too often the processes of democratic government are not the most efficient ones and the temptation for even the most committed public servant to shortcut democratic and participatory procedures is a great one. Consequently, it is especially necessary that the training of public servants directly address these issues.

Conclusion

In almost every profession, new circumstances require the development of new, or the redefinition of, existing skills. Like those in virtually all fields of human endeavour, public administrators must be prepared to adapt and change in response to the changing tasks and problems with which they must deal and the changing world in which they work. This in turn requires that those who undertake the responsibility of providing education and training for public administrators adapt their programs to reflect the new demands and realities facing those who are and will be guiding the public sector now and in the future. This does not mean rejecting that which has been important in the past, but rather adding to or redefining past practice in such a way as to accommodate new needs and developments. In truth, that process is always a continuing one.

Towards Integrated Policy Making: Remedying the Public Action Dichotomy through Information and Communication Technology and Learning

Theodore Tsekos *

Public action becomes concrete through policy making. The totality of the outputs and outcomes resulting from the functioning of administrative agencies are, or are supposed to be, parts of broader frameworks setting and following goals for specific fields of social and economic activity. The rationale of the establishment and development of public organizations resides precisely in the obtaining of deliberate, concrete and tangible results within given policy fields.

Each and every aspect of public organizations – strategies, structures, procedures, human resources and relations, communications etc – becomes meaningful only by becoming a part of ongoing policy making and implementation processes.

Although public action, in order to be effective, has to be conceived and developed as an integrated system from top to bottom, a dichotomy concerning policymaking occurs habitually on both practical and theoretical grounds. This dichotomy reflects on all dimensions of public policy making: actors, driving values, processes, evaluation criteria etc.

Policy analysis and design remains essentially a **top-down process** involving political – or highly politicized – personnel (elected officials, political appointees, advisors, high ranking career officers etc.). It is outcome oriented and operated on the basis of general criteria such as mission and vision concepts, organizational and environmental values and strategies, political priorities etc.

On the contrary, **policy implementation** is basically a **bottom-up process** involving middle management and low-level personnel. Implementation activities are mainly guided by intra-organizational priorities and day-to-day management requirements and restrictions. They are short-term output oriented with only vague references to the "big picture" and loose links to the organization's long-term objectives and strategic priorities and goals.

The fact that the two essential stages of the policy-making procedure are practically developed and conducted through two distinct structural and cultural sub-constituencies, produces what one could define as a "Policy Breach" (Figure 1). The unsuitable connection and mismatching of two complementary steps of a process supposed to be linear, leads to the disintegration of the overall rational policy making framework and produces incoherent, ineffective and inefficient applied policies.

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Figure 1:
The "Policy Breach"
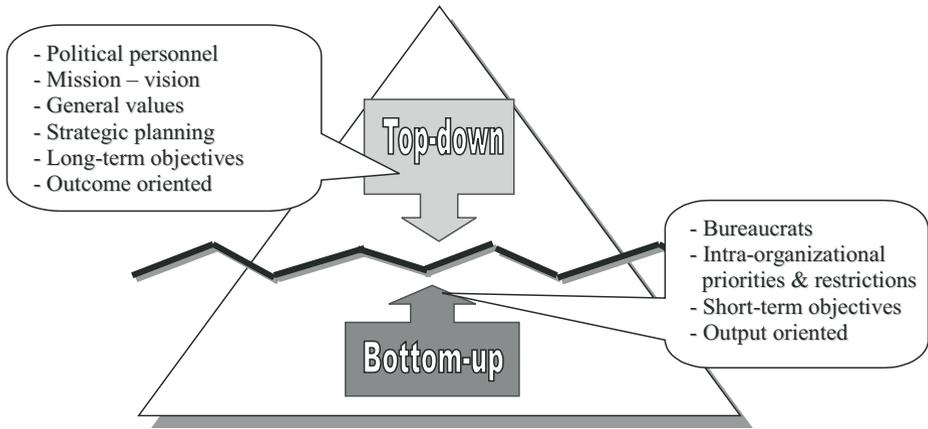
This "policy breach" affects equally all methodological approaches to policy making (Pressman J.L., Wildavsky A.B. 1984). Policy analysis constitutes part of the broader political science discipline. The tools used for analysis and design are usually political science methodologies combined with some quantitative tools borrowed from macroeconomics and operational research. Public policy experts and scholars have relevant backgrounds and experience. On the other hand policy implementation is achieved through management skills and techniques.

Things become more complicated (and public policies even less effective) if the vertical breach interacts with a horizontal one, as often happens. Policy outcomes, if not outputs as well, are mostly the conjunction of distinctive policy making processes. Full employment, for example, can only be ensured through the joint efforts of economic, industrial, educational, vocational training, regional development, social and labor market regulation policies.

The inability of full communication and cooperation between all these distinctive policy constituencies and networks often results in poor policy outcomes. Loose and ineffective horizontal communications is a very common and widespread defect of contemporary policymaking and administrative systems. Public agencies entrench themselves with institutional, procedural and communicational fortifications, erected throughout their historical development.

Even with the emergence of the digital government era too many public agencies keep using non inter-operable "legacy" information systems and remain "stove-piped" (Tapscott D, Caston A. 1993) or semi-isolated with minimum of coordination and cooperation amongst them.

Figure 2:
"Stove piped" organizations and "Legacy Information systems"
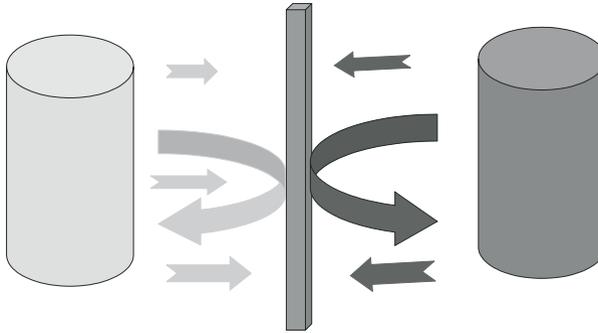
Therefore, a bi-dimensional isolation occurs in the public policy sphere (fig.3): not only a vertical, intra-organizational,"breach" impedes field integration but also a horizontal – trans-organizational- gap jeopardizes field connection and completion.

Figure 3:
Bi-dimensional isolation
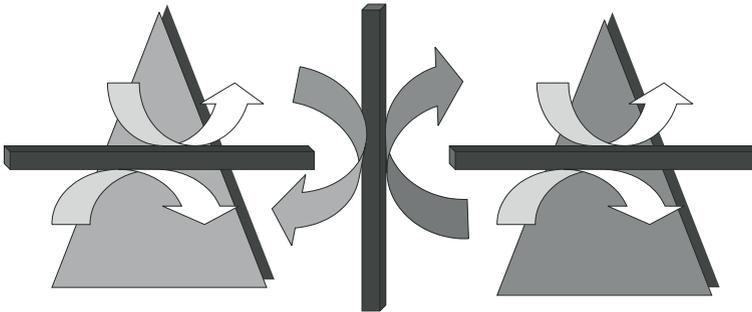
The problematic situation described above creates an urgent need for a bi-dimensional integrative interface bridging both the vertical and the horizontal policy gaps and linking all policy field actors to a cooperating **"policy community".** This kind of interface can only be built through extensive use of modern organizational communication and learning toolkits.

One facet of this process must be associated with the transcription of current policy making procedures in information and communication technology (ICT) applications, in order to standardize, simplify and accelerate vertical coordination and horizontal networking and, thus, facilitate policy integration.

Some critical steps towards this direction are (Tarabanis, Peristeras, Fragidis 2001):

- The creation of **generic process and data structures** easily adaptable to various types of public organizations
- The construction of a high level **data model for strategic planning** to provide **common definitions, vocabulary and conceptual framework** for policy making
- The development of an **integrated process and data repository** serving as **common knowledge base** for the totality or broader (policy field-based) subcategories of public agencies
- The establishment of a **unifying "enterprise architecture"** (CIO 1999) on which all public administration information systems should be based in order to become **interoperable**

On-line Management by Objectives (MbO) processes based on Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) applications (Laudon and Laudon 1999) can complete the ICT dimension of policy integration. Implementing such approaches on a top-down programming and bottom-up monitoring and evaluating perspective will link effectively the top-management policy design to the street level implementation.

Nevertheless, procedural rearrangements and technological innovation constitute only one aspect of the integrative endeavor. Communicative skills and knowledge management compose the second dimension of the policy making improvement process. Not only vertical and horizontal channels have to be established but also human resource capacities and skills have to be improved in order to provide adequate content to the developing cooperation networks. At this point effective training has a role to play.

ICT and human resource (HR) development share, in a paradoxical manner, a common background: generic processes and common conceptual and vocabulary frameworks are necessary prerequisites for integrating both policy – making phases and steps as well as policy – making knowledge.

Training and knowledge management improvement must however provide some additional input. Traditional "classroom" based training methods appear more and more inadequate to respond to a growing necessity for integrative policy making skills.

The key-point to integrative policy making knowledge and action is the effective succession of the following two steps:

- 1st step: The **unification** of dispersed field experiences and practices through common generic conceptual and vocabulary frameworks, to gain **interoperability**
- 2nd step: The **"re-specification"** of generic analysis and action models according to the particular conditions of a given policy area, to assure **adaptability.**

Traditional training methodologies are suitable, under determined conditions, for the first step but rather inconvenient for the second one.

The learning cycle (Kolb, 1971) within a realistic policy making environment can be represented by the following scheme:

Table 1
THE IDEAL-TYPE AND CLASSROOM BASED LEARNING CYCLE

1st stage:	Inadequate policy making action creates more or less problematic situations
2nd stage:	Research assesses current situation through case studies
3rd stage:	Analysis combines case study findings in order to develop generic comprehensive frameworks, defining critical failure and success factors and proposing ideal-type principles and methodologies
4th stage:	Curricula design transcribes ideal-type principles and methodologies into generic knowledge packages
5th stage:	"Classroom based" training transfers ideal-type knowledge schemes to trainees coming from diverse working environments
6th stage:	Trainees are expected to adapt ideal-type knowledge to their specific working environment conditions and to transform generic methodologies into concrete field action
7th stage:	The adaptation process requires an important amount of additional effort while the introduction of innovation comes up against established practices
8th stage:	Trained actors abandon or partly implement the adaptation process and go back to familiar routines
9th stage:	Poor policy outputs and outcomes reproduce the problematic situation

The **"non-assisted adaptation"** phase (stages 6 to 8) constitutes the weakest link of this cycle. By dissociating the generic scheme from field particularities, this learning model disconnects the knowledge bases of interoperability and adaptability and, therefore, impedes networking. Interoperability results from the effective interaction of specific field processes. To obtain such a result, policy communities have to share a sound knowledge of common features and a comprehensive perception of the way that, within this broader framework, particularities interact and are mutually affected.

The ideal-type/classroom model leaves the process of adaptation to particular conditions outside the shared knowledge and the collective learning framework in such a way that obstructs the cognitive integration and complete representation of a given field. Applied to policy-making training this model fails to create a learning community and, therefore, does not contribute to the construction of a substantive policy community.

On the contrary the knowledge foundations of such communities could be generated through a "work-based integrated learning cycle".

Table 2
THE WORK-BASED INTEGRATED LEARNING CYCLE
FOR POLICY MAKING

1st stage	Extensive field research and analysis leads to the development of generic models for policy-making, combining common or complementary concepts, vocabulary, assessment and evaluation criteria, processes and data. These models incorporate and match policy design and implementation
2nd stage	Based on this modeling, process and data repositories are designed in order to constitute specific policy field knowledge bases
3rd stage	Facilitated field actors' working groups are using models and knowledge bases to assess, analyze and redesign structural and functional aspects of their policy-making activities. Emphasis is given to vertical and horizontal integration
4th stage	Policy – making outputs and outcomes serve as a feedback to the working groups in order to monitor and evaluate processes, structures and performance against generic models and specific objectives. Monitoring and evaluation results lead, if necessary, to redesign or/and implement corrective action
5th stage	Data produced through day-to-day operations and evaluation reports feed the knowledge bases. This material is used for further analysis, model evaluation and improvement

This integrated work-based model, extensively supported by ICT applications, leads from learning organizations to **learning networks.** Networking all involved actors in a given policy area through interaction management and knowledge sharing processes and databases helps to generate substantive policy communities that are capable of overcoming the public policy dichotomy.

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Comparative Approaches to the Development and Implementation of Effective Human Resource Policy

Marie-Christine Meininger *

First, an overview of the context and the main trends regarding human resource management (HRM) policy in Europe will be presented. Second, some questions about crucial issues regarding HRM will be raised. Third, recent developments in France regarding HRM policy will be examined.

The General Context of Human Resources Management Reforms in Europe

Despite the diversity of situations in Europe during the last decades, economic and political constraints, as well as a deep crisis of legitimacy, have provided strong incentives for human resource management reforms in Europe.

Moreover, significant social transformation has contributed towards the acceleration of the pace of change. New social needs have developed, reflecting the transformation of the society and its growing diversity. They have had a significant impact on issues of public service delivery and on recruitment policies. At the same time, public authorities have faced a strong demand to enhance transparency and accountability and the consequent need to restore public confidence.

European integration has led to the widespread renewal of management in the public sector, not only in the European Union Member States, but also amongst countries applying for membership. In addition, the efficiency of public services has been scrutinized. Indeed, the efficiency of public services has emerged as a criterion in the competition between Member States to attract private investors.

Additionally, the transformation of the European labour market has become a strong incentive for human resources management modernization. Competition has developed between government and the private sector and with NGOs, (which is a rather new issue). Finally, new information technologies have begun to play a key role in the processes of organizational and management transformation.

Main Trends

Increasingly, managerial responsibilities are being transferred from the center to the local level. Meanwhile, the development of general frameworks have been implemented which emphasize the objectives to be reached instead of detailed regulations, thus allowing greater flexibility of remunerations and conditions of employment in the public sector. Obviously, the increase of managerial responsibilities has paralleled the development of performance evaluation, which has become a major issue in HRM.

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Contractualization and new methods of recruitment have developed and been expanded on the basis of profile requirements and the search for equity. Nevertheless, equity (aiming at diversity) has to be combined with equality.

In several countries, a significant reduction of costs (salaries and staff) has been reached. However, only infrequently has a cost/benefit analysis of budget cuts been carried out and the rise of efficiency has been paid for at a high price in terms of demotivation, loss of competencies, and service to users.

Indeed, some crucial issues have become apparent:

1. Decentralization of HRM responsibilities increases the diversity of salaries and conditions of employment. But the lack of coordination hampers mobility. Furthermore, it creates the conditions for the abolition of a unified civil service system and encourages government fragmentation. The United Kingdom (UK) experience certainly suggests this.

   How far should we go? It is necessary to look for a balance between the establishment of general guidelines by a central authority and the decentralization of day-to- day management. In fact, decentralization of Human Resource Management is easier in a more specialized job system then in a highly generalized career system; but there is no doubt that a career system has serious advantages, especially on the ground of impartiality and neutrality.

2. The issue of motivation/demotivation. One significant issue is the question of how to develop performance and motivation while reducing costs and staff. Cost reduction creates a perception of insecurity, which is increased by the negative effects of the enhanced flexibility of remunerations.

   Moreover, the question of the impact of performance evaluation has to be raised in terms of career progression, salaries, and allowances. There should at least be a consensus on criteria, methods and objectives. This consensus should include the middle management that frequently has been neglected – although they often play a key role in the implementation of reforms.

   Obviously, there is not a uniform approach of human resource management reform. Some countries (UK, Sweden, Netherlands, Finland) have introduced radical changes in breaking with the past. Others have gone through the reform process on a more progressive and incremental style.

The French System

The French system is a good example of the implementation of an HRM modernization policy on a career system. It includes over 4 million civil servants ruled by statute and divided into three parts (state civil service, local civil service, hospitals civil service) ruled by common legislative principles and different regulations. (The local civil service is a complex combination of a career and a job system.)

As a general principle, recruitment is based on competitive exams. Seniors officials are recruited through a network of schools which include specialized schools

(police, health, finance) and regional institutes (IRA). Most senior civil servants are recruited through Ecole Nationale d'Administration (generalists) or technical schools such as Ponts et Chaussées, Polytechnique, Ecole des Mines.

Each minister (department) is responsible for HRM. The Civil Service and State Reform Department (depending on the Prime Minister) has coordination responsibility for regulations, reforms, and the development of new practices (quality, new management methods, etc).

Once a year, the Interdepartmental Council for State Reform (Comité Interministériel pour la Réforme de l'Etat) introduces reforms. In that context, an important program of HRM modernization was launched in November 2001, as part of a new management policy; it emphasizes recruitment and career management.

1. **Recruitment: Within 10 years, half of the French State Civil Service will have retired. This represents a very important challenge and a very strong incentive in order to renew management and develop new tools on recruitment planning. The reforms will be based on:**

   - the recognition of professional experience
   - experimental pre-recruitment procedures aiming to attract and select students
   - the development of special information policies in order to meet the needs of public institutions through a profile based approach
   - the review of selection procedures to make competitive exams less academic and more job oriented: what skills are required by different types of jobs?
   - the gender agenda: appointments at the senior positions are to be increased in order to increase the proportion of women; moreover, departments are invited to reconsider the working times, in order to allow senior civil servants to reconcile their private life and their career

2. **Career management: The main trends resulting from the recent decisions taken by the Interdepartmental State Reform Council are the following:**

   - day-to-day management deconcentration-decisions are to be taken as close as possible to the public servants (within broad guidelines aimed at preserving the global cohesion of the system)
   - the promotion of professional mobility including mobility within European Member States administrations is to be encouraged
   - the encouragement of transparency in promotions appointments at the most senior positions
   - the development of continuing education emphasizing interdepartmental in-service training, and the organization of special courses at specific stages of the career (appointment as deputy director, mobility); at the request of the Civil Service Department, the ENA organizes sessions on HRM for newly appointed deputy directors

- the utilization of new assessment procedures in order to increase the responsibility of officials in achieving a true assessment of their staff and to reinforce the impact of the assessment on career development.

Conclusion

A radical reform of public finance was introduced by the French Parliament in August 2002. It aimed to increase the efficiency of State policies by emphasizing results instead of detailed resources allocation, and to provide for true information on policies in order to help public choices. The crucial point is that managers will be granted significant financial autonomy and will be accountable for the results of their actions (with performance based assessments). Within five years (the time allowed for the implementation of the reform) new tools will have to be developed in order to measure performance, while internal management at different levels will be deeply reorganized.

Public Adminstration Modernisation and Decentralisation:
A Comparative and European Perspective

Paul D. Collins *

This essay addresses a broad topic: public administration modernisation and decentralisation. The topic is approached from a global or comparative perspective. It complements other contributions, especially those from Slovakia which address legal aspects and those which deal with implications for institutional training and education. In doing so, the essay focuses particularly on the governance aspects of public administration modernisation and decentralisation.

Global and Comparative Perspectives

Over the last 50 years, issues of public administration reform, decentralisation and local government have been among the enduring themes of many transitions documented by Public Administration and Development: the International Journal of Management Research (PAD) – from early decolonisation to transition to political pluralism and the market economy.[1] This essay approaches the subject from the vantage point of consultancy- based, policy-oriented case studies of public sector management and reform, drawing on the rich sources of PAD.

In presenting an overview of trends and lessons[2], it should be stressed that many developmental issues have taken on a global character and cannot be readily allocated to regions historically regarded as "developing", "less industrialised" and the like. Thus, debates over particular reforms now extend for example to Eastern and Central Europe. And indeed extend beyond what are now seen as the "transitional" countries to OECD countries such as Canada and New Zealand. (McKinley, 2000; Wright, 2000)

This essay, by taking a governance approach, sets out to link this subject with public administration and development in a wide ranging fashion. Lesson drawing in this connection is both backwards, as well as forward looking, and addressed to a number of questions and issues:

- First, in sharing common experience across national frontiers, what has been and is working, has not or does not work and why?

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[1] PAD has also historically placed emphasis on the role of training, as the former journal of the Royal Institute of Public Administration (RIPA).

[2] This draws on the volume emerging from the 1999 Jubilee Conference of PAD held in Oxford: see Paul Collins (Ed), *Applying Public Administration in Development: Guideposts to the Future*, John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, 2000.

- Second, it is important to get beyond the rhetoric and hackneyed phrases. Amongst these, modernisation can at times be one. What exactly does it mean and to whom? Often in the E/C European context, state modernization is connected with European accession and integration – if indeed we know where this is going. (Collins, 1995) In relation to decentralisation, the concept of subsidiarity also has a strong perceived connection to European integration. This point is returned to later.

At a higher level, there is the concept of globalisation itself. In a sense, European integration or regionalisation is a subset of globalisation. But again, globalisation is not without its ambiguities. Recent international security problems centred on Afghanistan suggest there is hardly global consensus over where we are going.[3] For example, in a recent essay, the leading UK development economist Paul Streeten lists well over 100 definitions of globalisation. (Streeten, 2000)

Regional and Functional Perspectives

Perspectives on governance and its relations with public administration and development may be drawn from a variety of relevant sources, according to type of actor (academic, politician, administrator) and according to region of origin. Four such approaches are assembled here.

Paul Streeten (Streeten, 2000), reflecting on "Globalisation: Threat or Opportunity", stresses two factors which resonate with the perspectives of leading actors from both political and administrative walks of life:

- an increasingly ungoverned (and ungovernable) global society;
- the need for leadership at all levels.

The latter is also of particular concern to professionals from schools and institutes of public administration and management. Leadership does not emerge from a vacuum – national administrative leadership is prepared in large part by national public administration training institutes. For E/C Europe, an important aspect of this role is preparing the new generation of senior civil servants. Current administrative leadership will sooner or later eventually retire: who will succeed them? (Collins, 2002)

For Streeten, two other pressing agenda items are:

- humanising globalisation (a process that would appear to have been moving with inadequate speed, if the events of September are any sign of the times); and

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[3] Duffield (2000) draws attention to an increasingly important item on the agenda for the 21st century (beyond the scope of this essay): Managing Conflict: the Evolving Links between Development and Global Security. Even before the events in Afghanistan, it was clear from the Bosnia conflict, for example, that the age old concern with administrative reform was rapidly becoming displaced by the need for rebuilding administrative structures in war torn societies and the advent of new players, notably the security arms of intervening states.

- development BY and FOR communities. This theme is returned to later in this essay.

Before moving to the latter, it is appropriate to show that these perspectives are shared across all regions – including E/C Europe.

From the political end of the spectrum, former President Masire of Botswana also stresses the need for strong leadership (but one which is honest and democratic). The X-ray lesson from his experience at the helm of one of Africa's "success" stories (Masire, 2000) is that

> efficient, adaptable institutions of governance based on strong leadership" nevertheless require partnership and are process oriented and must be rooted in community, integrity and honesty.

Former top administrator Pachampet Sundaram (Sundaram, 2000) speaks of the need to recast the notion of governance more in the local context and the need to include more non state actors. Reflecting on his experience amongst the major changes taking place in India, he singles out the importance of the following:

> the development of new and informal institutions bridging the gap between public service reform and non state actors improving society's capacity to address social gaps and generate mutual trust recasting the notion of governance in a more local context.

The common theme of human development running through all these perspectives is not one that is exclusive to developing, non OECD countries. However, it is often one that can be easily overlooked.

Grzegorz Kolodko (former Polish Finance Minister) has stated:

> "When I was minister, the bilateral and multilateral donors never asked me what Poland was actually doing against poverty in our country. It was always a matter of which bank or tobacco company would be privatised." (Kolodko, 1999)

And this concern is real: the last UNDP Human Development Report for E/C Europe showed some dismal human development indicators for some countries in East Europe and other regions of the world, in terms, for example, of increasing rates of morbidity.

Emerging Global Scenarios in a New Millennium

These various perspectives along the professional and geographical spectrum clearly underscore the universal importance of seeing public administration modernisation or reform in both a governance as well as a developmental context. Against this background, what are the emerging global scenarios in the new millennium? Six key global scenarios can be seen as dominating the agenda in the 21st century (Collins, 2000: Chapter 17):

- the ongoing management of transitions, so full of promise at the beginning but, with hindsight, clearly more painful, prolonged and less linear and cohesive than some had expected;
- dealing with crises in public service delivery: including the issue of integrity;
- the paradox of poverty in the context of globalisation;
- corruption and the increasing vulnerability of micro states in the same connection;
- managing conflict: the evolving links between development and security; and,
- the increasingly central place being given to the international human rights agenda.

The first of the two prime concerns of this essay is with the first scenario: ongoing management of transitions and the false starts that have been made.

Again, the comments of former Polish Finance Minister Kolodko are relevant. In his recent book – From Shock to Therapy: The Political Economy of Post Socialist Transformation – he makes a key point, close to the heart of public administration professionals, about the neglect of government institutions so far in the so-called management of the transition. Institutions are important in building market success, he stresses, but they take time to nurture.

Focus On Management of Transitions and Decentralisation

Regarding the second scenario of immediate concern – dealing with crises of public service delivery and integrity – there has been a range of experience with decentralised approaches to service provision.

In E/C Europe, overall there have been ambiguities over the scope and form of decentralisation – be it in the form of deconcentrated service delivery or devolution to local self government or local governance. Authority is fragmented between a variety of actors, making consistent policy difficult to develop. As Davey puts it: one obstacle in dealing with these unresolved design issues is "the tendency to think in terms of legal authority ("competence") as property rather than responsibility". (Davey, 2000: 280) The region thus might have a lot to learn from some of the others reported on below with regard to partnership approaches.

Examples of Decentralising Governance Frameworks

In terms of global, non E/C European experience with decentralisation, what is happening and what are the lessons?

In delineating trends, it is important to recognise that decentralisation is a process, with strong political components. The heading of this section therefore reflects this reality and the nature of what most states are as yet only moving towards. Central power and authority is characteristically reluctant to loosen its grip. In fact, genuine local governance is still elusive in many countries. There is

often a disconnect between the policy process and the local community. (McKinlay, 2000)

Nevertheless, there is a body of case experience which presents a number of ongoing contemporary initiatives and experiments in which at least some countries, across all regions, are trying to develop new, effective, genuine decentralised governance frameworks.

- India is addressing policy challenges in service provision, (by encouraging) NGO roles in partnering for local self governance and institutionalising participation of the poor (Sundaram, 2000; Acharya, 2000; Webster, 2000);
- in Asia/Pacific more broadly, there are further examples of community driven development and partnerships (Turner, 2000; Gonzalez & Mayfield, 2000); and
- in Africa and Latin America there are cases of decentralised rural and urban governance and partnerships for poverty reduction and capacity building (Fiszbein, 2000; McCarney, 2000; Belshaw, 2000).

Community Driven Governance Paradigm

Collectively, these case studies suggest the possibilities of a *new community driven governance paradigm*. Such a paradigm would represent a far more inclusive and ultimately more productive approach to decentralization. Among other things, it is based on the following conditions:

- mutual trust and legitimacy
- access of the poor to decision making roles
- legitimacy of decision making and power sharing
- local acceptance
- enabling/supportive environment
- cooperative action and partnerships.

Conclusion

The alighting point of this essay is: first, a return to the opening one about concepts and the need to transcend rhetoric; and second, the posing of some questions for further enquiry.

Regarding the first, and in particular, the concept of subsidiarity, an insightful statement was recently made by EU External Affairs Commissioner Chris Patten in addressing the Royal Institute for International Affairs in London. He highlighted the importance of subsidiarity as a guiding principle but stressed that it needed to be made to work in particular institutional contexts – rather than being used as a vague slogan.

Taking our cue therefore from the latter, more needs to be known about the meaning of subsidiarity in the local contexts of E/C Europe. Further:

- how can the experience of countries in other regions (OECD and industrialising) be made more relevant in the search for local self governance and institutionalising community participation therein?

- In this connection, what is the role of public administration schools and institutes in local capacity building for local self governance?

- and indeed, how can the capacities of national schools and institutes themselves be further developed for such purposes: for example through international cooperation, twinning and local partnerships?

These are all important questions that will require much research and further consideration.

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Part II

Democratic Governance and the Processes of Decentralization

Decentralization in Comparative Perspective: Some Lessons for Building Effective and Democratic Local Governance

Allan Rosenbaum *

It is understandable that the government of Slovakia is increasingly concerned about both the modernization of the state and the decentralization of governance. One of the most important developments of the past two decades in terms of government modernization and democratization has been the movement toward the building and strengthening of local governance throughout the world. Demands for increased governmental responsiveness and accountability, combined with the work of many international and donor organizations have all played a significant role in this development. The historic roots of these concerns, however, go back much further than the past two decades. Indeed, in the writings of Jean Jacques Rousseau and Alexis DeTouqueville, much attention is devoted to the importance of developing strong and effective local governments as a critical element in the process of building democratic governance.

Local Governance and Democratic Modernization

The reality is that many factors contribute to the making of a modern democratic government. These include the insuring of accountability through free and fair elections and competing political parties, the existence of an open and unbiased judicial system that insures general respect for the rule of law and human rights within a country and the building and sustaining of a vigorous civil society. Another very important factor – indeed, many might argue the most important one – involves insuring that governmental and political power is dispersed.

The reason why the dispersing of governmental power is so important in the modernization process is a simple one. Government is the only institution of society that has the legitimate authority to take one's property, liberty and even ones life. That gives it an extraordinary degree of power and, thus, the need to both limit and disperse that power is at the heart of any effort to build democratic government. Indeed, as the famous British political commentator of a century ago, Lord Acton, noted "power corrupts, absolute power corrupts absolutely." One result is that those concerned with the building of democracy have increasingly turned their attention to the establishing of strong and viable local governments as an important means of insuring the dispersion of political power and government authority that is essential to the maintenance of democratic governance.

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Consequently, it is not surprising that there has been a dramatic growth in the establishment of democratically elected local governments throughout the world. In 1980, only 10 of the 48 largest countries in the world had elected local government officials. Today, 34 of those 48 countries possess elected local officials. The percentage of countries spending at least one quarter of their total public expenditures at the local level grew from 45% in 1990 to 57% in 1997. In 1998, sixty-three of the 75 developing and transitional countries with populations of over 5 million indicated that they were undertaking some form of decentralization. Perhaps most significantly, 95% of the world's democracies today have elected sub-national governments, to which, in differing degrees, political, administrative and fiscal powers have been devolved.

Local Governance and Economic Modernization

It is however not just issues of democracy that are driving the worldwide movement toward decentralization and the strengthening of local government as a part of the process of governmental modernization. Economic factors are clearly an important part of this development. Increasingly, it is being realized that the existence of viable, effective local governance is, an important contributing factor to rapid economic development. One very basic indication of this is seen in the fact that one finds a very strong relationship between the percentage of the total population of a country living in urban areas and the level of its per capita gross domestic product.

One finds a similar relationship in comparing the level of economic development of a region and the percentage of governmental funds and employment occurring at the sub-national level. The more highly economically developed countries of Europe and North America, as well as Japan, spend between 40 and 60% of all government expenditures at the sub-national level and over 50% of their public sector employment is at the sub-national level. In Asia (not including Japan), the figures for both sub-national expenditures and employment are at the level of approximately 40%. In Latin America, those figures drop to around 20% (although in a few instances they are a good bit higher); while in Africa, they fall below 10%.

In the past, not a great deal of attention has been paid to the role of local government in building a strong economic base for a region or a country. This has begun to change however as policy makers have come to realize that effective local governance is critical for economic growth. In part, this is due to a growing realization of the failure of central planning and the general lack of economic success of governments that have relied heavily upon centralized planning. In part, it is also due to a growing understanding of the importance of local government in terms of the shaping of successful economic development. There has been an increasing realization that economic development does not emerge automatically or magically from the environment. Rather, economic growth requires creative entrepreneurs, a skilled labor pool, an adequate infrastructure (in terms of roads, water, sanitary facilities and the like) and, of especial importance, an appropriate

facilitating environment in terms of laws, regulations, the availability of credit and other forms of technical assistance. All of these prerequisites are greatly facilitated by strong local governmental capacity.

Consequently, it is not surprising that among established democracies, and countries making the transition to democracy, those which have invested most heavily in the building of strong local governance have been the most productive economically. Among transitional countries, one need only note Poland and, to a somewhat lesser extent, Hungary, which have been the economic success stories of Eastern Europe and are also the two countries in the region that have had the strongest commitment to the developing and strengthening of their local governments. In Africa, one can point to the example of South Africa, and, in Latin America, Argentina and Brazil – countries that are both the most prosperous in their regions and the most traditionally committed to at least some measure of locally based governance.

Actually, China represents an intriguing case in this regard. While there is no precise data on these matters, it is generally assumed that the city of Shanghai has had a greater amount of new construction occur within it over the course of the past decade than any other city in the world has had at any time in history. Most observers would agree that, during a two decade period when there has been a growing emphasis upon decentralization in China, Shanghai has succeeded in gaining more autonomy than any other city in the country.

In West Europe, Sweden, recognizing a decade ago that its economy was beginning to stagnate, took major steps to streamline and downsize its national government at the same time that it was significantly strengthening and enhancing its local governments. The past decade has seen a dramatic improvement in the productivity and the economic well being of the country. Such developments are not by chance, but rather reflect the very high correlation between the productivity of urban areas and level of natural economic development. As recent World Bank research has shown, in highly economically developed countries, urban areas are responsible for 85% of gross domestic product. In mid-level developed countries, they generate 73%; while in low-income countries, urban areas are the least productive, generating only 55% of the gross domestic product on average.

One very important reason for this correlation between increasing economic activity and urban productivity is that local governments, as they emerge as serious actors, normally work very effectively to create an environment that is highly supportive of small business development. In contrast, national governments generally tend to be preoccupied with large-scale national and multi-national business and corporate development. Local governments have the time, the knowledge and the inclination to pay attention to the needs of smaller entrepreneurs. This is very important since in the new economy, small businesses are becoming a critically important generator of new jobs. Whether it is in the United States, where 50 – 80% of all new jobs are created in companies with under 100 employees (and 75% of those in companies with under 20 employees); in Latin America, where

studies by the Inter-American Development Bank have reported similar results; or in the less economically developed countries of South Asia (where increasingly micro enterprises are becoming a key source of economic development), local government is playing an ever more critical role in facilitating and promoting economic development.

Some Suggestions on Building Effective, Responsive, Democratic Local Governance

Because of the importance of local governance to democratic accountability and economic development, it is not surprising that issues surrounding the building and strengthening of local government have been a part of the government modernization process in numerous countries around the world. Consequently, initial experiments and, more recently, substantial systematic efforts in the building and strengthening of democratic local governance have been underway in many places for some time. As a consequence, there is now a substantial and continually increasing body of knowledge regarding what we can do to make these efforts of government modernization more effective. Among the key points in this regard are the following:

1) **Recognize the Complexity of the Task:** The reality is that many of the world's local governments are severely lacking in adequate resources. Moreover, in far too many cases, the likelihood of finding significant new resources is not very great. At the same time, the public problems with which local governments now must routinely deal have grown greatly in number, are becoming ever more complex and are often highly technical in nature. In many instances, there appears to be no clear-cut solution to a growing number of the problems faced by local governments.

   Indeed, one of the unfortunate realities of contemporary life is that there are rarely simple solutions (and sometimes not even complicated ones) to complex problems. At least in part this is because efforts to solve many of today's multi-faceted public problems often must rely upon collaborative action in many places and in many jurisdictions. The necessary coordination and cooperation is often a very difficult and costly thing to achieve. Likewise, efforts to solve many contemporary public problems require the utilization of new and complex technologies that are well beyond the resource capacity of many local governments. The result of this is increasing pressure upon local government to solve what often appear to be, and sometimes really are, insoluble problems.

   That this is the case should not undermine the ongoing, and growing, commitment to the constructing of strong and vigorous local governance. Local governments represent a new and creative force in improving the quality of governance in many parts of the world. While there are problems that they can not solve, there are many problems to which they can make important contributions to the solution. Consequently, it is imperative that, despite the

seeming complexity of the task, efforts at building, and sustaining, effective and creative institutions of local governance continue.

2) **Citizen Empowerment Underlies Effective Local Governance:** The single greatest virtue of local governance is its closeness to the people who are being governed. However, all too often only part of the people being governed are effectively involved in or able to influence their local governments. Frequently, the poor and the marginalized within a community are not able to effectively influence the decisions of their local governments. Such a situation serves in the long run to undermine the effectiveness of local government – both as a democratic institution and as a generator of needed economic development.

Consequently, it is critical that efforts to build and strengthen local government include major initiatives to encourage the empowerment of all citizens – especially the poor and the marginalized. Programs that reach out to the urban poor, that provide them with adequate information to understand both the opportunities for and the responsibilities inherent in local governance, are critical. As experience in many highly developed countries has shown, the failure to undertake such initiatives will have significant costs in ways ranging from civil disorder, to growing financial burdens, to a decline in basic infrastructure and economic capacity.

3) **Build Sustainable Partnerships:** Frequently the solving of problems requires the collaboration of different levels of government, neighbouring governments and even in some cases, international organizations. Equally importantly, many of the contemporary problems faced by local governments require the collaboration of both the public and private sectors and, increasingly, civil society. Often these groups have different and, in some cases, even competing interests and values. Consequently, it is essential that efforts be made by each of the participating parties to understand the needs of the other participants. Sometimes this happens, sometimes it doesn't. Whatever the case, the necessary widespread consultation requires a considerable degree of patience, understanding and hard work. However, in the end it is well worth the effort involved.

4) **Understand the Fragility of the Reform Process:** Even in the most highly developed and strongest local governments, the process of reform is a complex and difficult one. Frequently one must negotiate among many established interests with strong needs and/or desires to maintain existing practices. Such groups will sometimes resist efforts to bring about systematic reform. In transitional and developing countries, the problem of institutionalizing reform can become even more complex. Often the institutions of government are not strong enough to implement significant reforms. In other instances, where reforms are implemented, the pressure to revert back to past procedures and practices is often very strong.

The process of institutional reform can be further complicated by the fact that many of the organizations that support and encourage such efforts frequently

approach these matters with a very short-term perspective. The key advocates and supporters of reform frequently leave the scene much too soon, giving those who wish to lessen or obviate the impact of reform the opportunity to do so with little or no resistance. In other cases, economic or political circumstances well beyond the control of the participants in any reform process frequently complicate and undermine reform initiatives. Consequently, it is crucial that those involved in the process of building and/or reforming the institutions of local governance recognize that such efforts often require both much patience and a long-term commitment. Just as there will be success and triumph, there will be lossesand disappointments. Nevertheless, the experiences that have been reported above, as well as the lessons of history, make it clear that with sustained effort and commitment, governance reform can and will be achieved.

5) **Strengthen Management Capacity Systems:** It is imperative that the management capacity of local government be significantly enhanced. This is just as true in highly developed countries as it is in transitional and developing countries. In many instances, local governments lack adequate capacity to develop the kind of information on citizen needs that is necessary to respond effectively. Critical for performance is the implementation of various kinds of measurement and quality management systems. However, in many cases the need is even more basic than this. In many communities, basic financial management practices, both in terms of budgeting and accounting, are woefully lacking. The effective implementation of such systems is in many cases critical to maintaining public confidence and trust in government.

6) **Recognize the Centrality of an Adequate and Dependable Revenue Base:** In many instances, in transitional and developing countries, regional and local governments possess only the most limited revenue raising capacity – thus making them highly dependent upon central government subventions. Increasingly, as new demands are being brought to bear upon them, they become ever more dependent upon their national governments to provide funding either through routinized transfers or by specific appropriations. Such dependence inevitably limits the capacity of local governments to provide the services their citizens require and to play their role in the process of democratic institution building.

The authority and capacity to raise revenue, whether through imposing taxes and fees, or incurring reasonable debt, is essential to the building of strong local governments. That is so not just because revenue is a pre-requisite to the provision of effective and adequate public services, but also because the raising of revenue forces local public officials to act more responsibly. Public officials who are required to impose taxes upon the people who are going to vote them in or out of office will remain attentive to their constituents and behave responsibly. Public officials who do not possess the independence to, and the responsibility for, imposing taxes will remain dependent and, conse-

quently, can afford the luxury of acting irresponsibly and/or passing governance responsibility on to others.

7) **Build Coalitions of Support by Drawing upon the Strength of Civil Society:** Clearly one important development during the past decade for those concerned about the future of democracy and good governance has been the emergence of civil society organizations and grass roots activism in many countries of the world. The reality is that both through their own independent activities and, increasingly, through their ability to influence other institutions, civil society and its representatives are beginning to shape the policies and actions of both local and national governments in important ways.

On the other hand, governments, both at the national and the local level, can create environments that are either, friendly to and supportive of civil society growth or that retard and limit its development. Through the protection of such basic rights as freedom of speech, association and press, as well as through a variety of specific legislative actions (including taxation, financial support and regulatory activity) government – both national and local – can profoundly impact the ability of civil society institutions to develop and flourish.

It is crucial that civil society organizations and local governments work in partnership to explore the most effective means for delivering services to the citizens of a given community. In some cases it may well be that civil society organizations represent a more effective means for the delivery of the basic services that citizens require. On the other hand, it is equally imperative that governments not abdicate their responsibility for the delivery of needed service to their citizenry on the assumption that civil society organizations can provide them. The most effective system of delivering needed services to citizens involves both civil society and local government working together.

8) **Strengthen the Partnership between Local and Central Governments:** The growth and emergence of local government around the world has certainly been one of most notable achievements of the democratic institution building and governance strengthening efforts of the past decade. Grass roots activists, local leaders, national leaders and international organizations have all contributed to the strengthening of local governance. However, it does appear that the past few years have witnessed a decline in the commitment by many governments to this movement. One can see this in many parts of the world and that is a serious tendency considering how dependent local governments are upon the attitudes of national governments.

National governments – through their legislation and through their fiscal policies – shape the environment within which local governments operate and can limit or support their capacity to act effectively. Consequently, it is of critical importance to the future of local governance that national and local officials, as well as civil society representatives, work together. In that regard, it is especially necessary that those at both the local level and the national level rec-

ognize that the strengthening of one or another level of government does not represent a "zero sum game" in the sense that, if one level of government is enhanced, another will inevitably become weaker. Indeed, much contemporary experience, particularly in those countries where governmental institutions are highly developed, suggests quite the opposite. When one level of government becomes institutionally stronger and more competent, pressure builds for the other existing levels of government to follow suit and likewise enhance their capacity.

9) **Develop Effective Public-Private Partnerships:** For many local governments, resources are, if not shrinking, at least not significantly increasing. One very important consequence of this is that local governments need to turn to the private sector to obtain the skills and the resources necessary to address the needs of the citizens.

The building of effective public-private relationships can be a complicated and difficult task. In many instances, institutional cultures differ and both sides need to learn new ways of dealing with one another. In so doing, they often find that they need to reassess some of their own basic values and beliefs. As a result, both parties will often find the effort a highly productive one. There is much that local governments can learn from the private sector in terms of economy, efficiency and even accountability. On the other hand, private sector organizations can benefit from the broader perspective and the wider array of values that the public sector embodies. Consequently, when joint public-private ventures work, the resulting synergy can be extraordinarily beneficial – both to the participating organizations and to the citizenry of the community.

10) **Need Based Budgeting and Planning are at the Heart of Responsive Local Government:** There is no more important annual document produced by any government than its budget. The budget reflects both the specific priorities and the general goals of the municipality for that time involved. That is why it is critical that municipal budgetary processes be open, transparent and highly professional and that the staff of the budget agency be committed to such goals.

Almost as important as the budgetary process within local government are the planning activities that occur. This is especially the case when local planning activities, as they should, involve a wide spectrum of the citizenry. Community based planning that reflects the needs of the entire community – its women, its children, its elderly, its poor, its minorities, its youth – is perhaps the single most effective means to develop priorities that truly reflect the needs of the community. Consequently, the implementation of participatory strategic planning techniques is increasingly important to the development of effective local government and the linking of the outcomes of such processes to the development of budget priorities is even more important.

11) **Accountability and Transparency are Critical to Building Citizen Confidence:** Throughout the world, citizens are increasingly demanding that government be both accountable and transparent. This is especially true at the local level where citizen confidence in government is very directly related both to the responsiveness of government to the needs of citizens and its openness to participation and involvement by them. For citizens to participate effectively in government, they must be able both to understand it and to have confidence in it. Local governments in many parts of the world, being relatively new institutions, have the opportunity to set a new standard of excellence in terms of accountability and transparency and, in so doing, to help reverse the growing trend of citizen disillusionment with government institutions.

12) **Recognize the Importance of a Long Term Commitment:** Countries like Canada, the United States and Sweden quite rightly take pride in their highly developed system of regional and local governance and the very comprehensive system of social services that they provide. However, these systems did not grow instantly out of a single creative legislative act or one farsighted administrative initiative. Rather, they emerged over one or more centuries and required much building. Moreover, they are constantly undergoing change and refinement in order to respond to new needs and challenges. Even in economically fortunate countries, the process of governmental reform and the building of good governance require time, patience and effort. As a result, local governance reform must continue to be an important matter of concern for international organizations and donors as well.

Frequently, donors tend to support short-term reform projects designed to produce quick results. In the end, they often wind up with disappointing outcomes. While there can be no doubt that positive results have to be achieved in some reasonable amount of time, donor organizations need to develop strategies that provide continuing support to the process of governance reform and democratic institution building. The service delivery and governance needs of the world's peoples and communities are essential to our future well being. Ways and means must be developed for communities to realize their full potential through creative policy frameworks and sound management practices. The stakes are too important, and the opportunities for improving the well-being of the world's peoples are too great to do otherwise.

Decentralization:
The Case of Regional Reform in Hungary

László Vass *

Introduction: Phases of Decentralization

Municipal Autonomy: The initial legislation that followed the post Communist era in the Hungarian political system sought to establish the autonomy of local governments vis-á-vis the central government. There was very strong support behind this effort in the Parliament. Consequently, the then new Law on Local Governments created a dual system of territorial administration with separate central and local levels. The new law dealt with all local governments equally, despite their very different conditions, and established serious obstacles to any possibility of any intervention from above. However, this dualism meant that there was no middle level of the territorial administrative system.

Deconcentration of State Organs: The other pole of the dualistic system is the central government, which was given nearly unlimited power in building the state administration. The central government successfully – and immediately – occupied the middle level of the administrative system with the so-called deconcentrated administrative units. From one point of view, the deconcentration might be interpreted as decentralization, but this is not the case: the deconcentrated offices are the local arms of the center rather than empowered subcenters. Additionally, the distribution of the tasks between the territorial administrative units of the central government and the local governments has not been clear-cut, therefore the activities of the deconcentrated units *de facto* limit the space for local autonomy. Another major factor is the lack of resources of the local governments which, consequently, depend on central government support. Thus, the dualistic system is, in reality, a highly imbalanced one.

The European Union (EU) accession process has significantly complicated the problem of the lack of a middle level – with the capacity for regional development in the administrative system – which can efficiently balance between the central government and the weak local governments. Moreover, the last ten years have further confirmed that the real issue of decentralization in Hungary involves the establishment of middle level structures in the territorial administrative system.

This paper provides a comprehensive analysis of the traditions and perspectives of regionalization in Hungary and shows how decision-makers have tried to "muddle through" on this issue. One way this has been done is through the adoption of regional policy:

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"Hungary was the first CEE country to have a specific regional policy. This is based on the Act of Regional Development and Physical Planning, which determines the guiding principles of policy, such as programming and the regional allocation of resources. Following this, the National Concept of Regional Development has been adopted setting out the aims and priorities of policy, and the authorities are preparing a National Development Program. Support is mainly targeted on less developed areas, industrial and rural regions and those with high long-term unemployment." (Sixth Periodic Report on the Social and Economic Situation and Development of the Regions of the European Union)[1]

While this evaluation praises Hungarian regional policy, the 2000 Report by the EU Commission on Hungary's progress towards accession points out that "While *no development can be reported concerning the territorial organization*, Hungary has adapted its legal framework for the implementation of future Structural Funds." This report also notes that "...*the role of the regions, which correspond to the NUTS level II, needs to be clarified*.[2] On the whole, the amended Act on Regional Development and Physical Planning of Hungary has had both positive and negative elements in the context of the future implementation of Structural Funds. The changes have increased the importance of the regions, which correspond to the NUTS level II, and further clarified the role of different institutions. However, the decision making framework on the regional level raises important concerns in respect to its capacity for efficient decision making and effective programming principles". This statement throws light upon one of the most critical issues in the decentralizing of the Hungarian administrative reform: the regional rearrangement of the Hungarian public sector.

Hungary has made serious efforts at decentralization in order to meet the requirements of the EU structural fund policy. Due to these efforts, the capacity of the administrative system has been rapidly growing, but the progress in establishing stable and empowered regions has not been adequate. Comparing the Hungarian situation to the Polish and Czech regional reforms, the Hungarian effort seems to lag behind in terms of institutional change. The key question then is why the Hungarian public administration has not been able to manage a clear territorial reorganization of its administrative structures.

An Idolized Tradition: The County System

Historically, the most important aspects of decentralization in the Hungarian administrative system has involved the *county-system*. Traditionally, the middle territorial level of Hungarian public administration has been the counties. That is why the history of regionalism in Hungary focuses upon reforms and plans directed at the system of counties (which developed during feudalism). Consequently, the

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[1]   http://europa.eu.int/comm/regional_policy/document/radi.

[2]   NUTS stands for Nomenclature of Territorial Statistical Units set by EUROSTAT, the Statistical Office of the European Commission.

question of regionalization in Hungary is raised in the form of whether the development of regional units in Hungary should be realized either parallel with or instead of counties. Historically, regional administration has involved the "rule of counties", since the system of counties, which originated in the 12th century, is still in force with only a name change in 1945. To understand the implications of the problem of the county-system in Hungary, it is useful to review its *historical traditions, cultural and political elements and related reform theories*.

History: Liberation from Ottoman occupation at the end of the 17th century resulted in a Hapsburg initiative to form *three regencies* as a part of a comprehensive plan for repopulating Hungary which was not *realize*d. Consequently, in 1723, the National Commission Office charged with administrative tasks related to regiments of the regular army stationed within Hungary created *four military districts* in the country. The number of districts was raised to six and then, in 1738, to seven. Later, the district division acquired greater significance with regard to members of Parliament. The Hapsburg Emperor, Joseph II, entirely re-arranged the traditional territorial division of the country by organizing *ten administrative districts* through the modifying and fusing of counties. The goal was the modernization of the Empire, and its Germanization. The traditional Hungarian interpretation of the reforms undervalues these modernizing elements because the traditional Hungarian *counties have become the symbol of national resistance* against Hapsburg power.

After suppressing the revolution of 1848 – 49, the Hapsburg Emperor divided Hungary into five crown lands, with their capital seats of Buda, Kassa (now Kosice, Slovakia), Nagyvárad (now Oradea, Romania), Pozsony(now Bratislava), and Sopron – each containing seven to ten counties. Following the Austro-Hungarian Compromise of 1867, the system of counties was continued without any attempt to weaken it.

After World War I, the Trianon Peace Treaty drew new borders for Hungary and the majority of its historical counties were attached to neighboring countries. The rest of the counties constituted the basis for the territorial administration of Hungary. After 1945, the counties were reorganized on the basis of interwar arrangements. Except for some minor corrections of county borders, the role of the counties was essential to the state-socialist period. It is because of this history that regions, or regionalization, do not have roots in Hungary.

Cultural Identification and Political Determinations: The historically strong role of counties in the administrative system of Hungary continues to have a significant impact. Research on regional identity revealed that 32.2% of the people think that the counties are necessary, while 22.6% say that counties are not needed. Nevertheless, a relatively high proportion of the population, 34.5%, had no idea about the issue, and 10.7% did not give an answer. However, the answers to another question are even more interesting:

What kind of middle-level administrative unit would be better than the county?

Answers	Female	Male	No answer	Average
none	7.2	6.8	12.9	7.2
province or region	2.3	4.6	6.5	3.6
province or region with smaller circles	1.5	2.7	-	2.1
smaller circles or city-and-outskirts	2.7	3.4	3.2	3.1
free associations of municipalities	20.0	21.5	35.5	21.2
other	0.6	1.0	-	0.8
only the current counties	21.5	19.7	6.5	20.1
don't know	25.1	21.0	22.6	22.9
no answer	19.2	19.1	12.9	19.0
Total	46.1	51.2	2.7	100.0

The finding that 41.9% of the respondents didn't know, or had no idea, and 20.1% wanted to keep the current system makes it clear that there is no critical mass behind any potential reform of the territorial administrative system. The high proportion of "liberal" answers is also instructive: 21.2% say that any kind of new territorial structuring should be based on the free and voluntary cooperation of municipalities. Those people who want to keep the counties usually refer to the county as having "*historically proved to be good*". The researchers did not find any real cohesive factors mentioned by respondents (ethnicity, minority, religion, language or dialect, economic relations, etc.) to explain county-identities.

When the elected mayors of the municipalities were asked about the necessity of counties, the responses, as noted below, differed significantly.

What kind of middle-level administrative unit would be necessary?

answers	mayors in 1992
none	2.2
the current counties	46.7
regions with smaller circles	2.8
provinces or regions larger than a county	5.8
free associations of municipalities	12.1
other	1.4
no answer	26.1

Local politicians are very committed to the counties and this is the essential explanation for the slow process of regionalization. The national politicians, members of the Parliament and other government leaders, are strongly dependant upon local support and territorial administrative mechanisms (It is also worth mentioning that Communist era politics was also built on effective control over and through counties.).

The new electoral law prepared at the very beginning of the change in the system also uses counties as the fundamental elements of the electoral system. The mixed electoral mechanism sets constituencies for individual candidates and national and county lists of party candidates in order to insure proportionality. The county list is very important for the parties because leading politicians may avoid individual competition and get elected by compensation votes. *Changing the county-system would involve change of the electoral system as well*. Because it is hard to foresee the consequences of such changes, the parties are very cautious about any change in the county-system.

During electoral campaigns, parties would promise a more active regional rearrangement of the territorial administrative system, but after winning an election, they would forget about this in their government position. They immediately understood the political value of keeping the status quo on county and local levels as well. Consequently, one is not mistaken in predicting that efforts at regionalization must fight against the historic tradition of counties in Hungary. Regionalists will encounter opposition from the supporters of counties whether they prefer choosing "either regions or counties" or "regions together with counties".

Reform Theories

Nineteenth century theories of administrative reform mostly presented *proposals for country planning rather than any effort targeting the dissolution or modification of the county system*. The next great wave of reform theories raised the idea of a radical transformation of territorial structuring because of the dramatic changes that resulted from the Trianon Peace Treaty in 1920. In the 1920's, Hungary was divided into 28 economic units based on 28 regions of agricultural production. Other concepts were elaborated in this period including a proposal prepared for the Ministry of Interior about planning for 14 counties that would be composed of 162 districts. In 1930's, the Hungarian Institute of Administrative Sciences led by Zoltán Magyary (the "Hungarian Luther Gulick") proposed creating small regions out of corresponding districts that would form one large region. This idea, included in the National Labor Plan of the Mussolini follower, Prime Minister Gyula Gömbös, was never realized. The next plan, for a three level public administration, also failed.

In 1939, Ferenc Erdei proposed eliminating the system of counties, and replacing it with a plan for 80 urban centers and seven regions. However, this was never seriously considered. After World War II, Ferenc Erdei, as Minister of Interior and István Bibó, the Director of the Department of Public Administration, presented a common plan on behalf of the National Peasants' Party which would have divided the country into 75 – 80 "city-counties". They argued that the historical – feudal – county-system had been an obstacle to the modernization of the country, a symbol of the rule of the conservative Hungarian ruling class, and was an irrational configuration by size, economic capacity and social structure. The counties, they argued, are political creatures, too small to have real integrating power and coordinating capacity, easily controlled by the central government, and too big to be able to understand the needs of the municipalities. (Pálné Kovács, Ilona)

After the Communist takeover, soviet-type councils were introduced on a coterminous basis with the counties. The counties became effective tools for the government as administrative offices of the executive. In 1956, the Communist Party intended to rearrange this system by forming 12 counties instead of the previous 19. The ideas presented in the 1960's and 1970's, involved establishing regions in conjunction with the counties rather than as an alternative solution. This theory of settlement development was prepared in 1958 – 63. It later became the basis of the National Concept of Settlement Development. It divided the country into three central regions and six peripheral ones. In 1960, another plan was formed at the University of Economics which divided the country into ten economic units. In 1970, the Ministry of Water Management and Housing created a system of six planning and economic regions. In 1975, István Bibó elaborated another plan based on a system of 80 – 110 city-districts, and developed a proposal for larger regions as well. Thus, the existence of counties has regularly been questioned in the literature of administrative reform.

Changing the System: In 1990, the Hungarian Parliament passed the Act LXV on Local Governments as one of the first "system-changing" legal regulations. (Verheijen) The establishment of real local autonomy was the goal and the Parliament created a strict separation between the power of the central government and the autonomous local self-governments. As a result, the counties lost their strong position but the administrative system also lost a middle level structure. The need for the "missing middle" (Ágh) provoked new discussions about the counties during the transition period.

Also during this period, local government elections were held and were won by the parliamentary opposition parties. This motivated the government to establish a system of regional commissioners for "supervising" the local governments from a "legal" point of view. Partisan candidates were appointed to these administrative positions in order to balance the opposition political composition of the local governments. With this move, party politics came to dominate the issue of regional reorganization of public administration for a long time. (Vass, 2000) Consequently, the question of regions has become over politicized and a neutral approach has very limited chance in the current discussions. Because of this political background, the system of regional commissioners only functioned until the end of 1994 and the newly elected government re-strengthened the counties.

Raising the Issue of Regionalization: The first program on the modernization of public administration after the change of regime, which was issued by *Government Resolution 3603/1992,* made no mention of regions or regionalization. Instead, it spoke about the role of the counties, county self-governments and the perspectives of county reform under the title "Administration of Self-Governments". It also spoke about institutions of special administration that were subordinate to the central government, as well as commissioners of the republic under the title "Central Administration".

In 1996, *Government Decree 1100/1996. (X.2.)* on the reform of public administration, served as a basis for further work and discussed the question of regionalization in connection with county reform and county authorities. Comparing Hungary with other European countries of similar size, this reform program did not consider it necessary to change or reform the counties or to form smaller ones, but rather focused on the establishment of a system of larger counties. It did not support the idea of the Parliament consolidating smaller counties without local initiative, but did encourage the free association of counties. The reform program encouraged the future association of smaller counties for special purposes to meet local demands. Later these spontaneous associations would serve as a basis for a system of larger counties. The reform program expressed unambiguously that "developing gradually a system of larger counties does not require creation of a new level of general power and function operating between the county level and that of the central administration, which in fact is the region itself. The functions of a region should be fulfilled by larger counties or by spontaneous associations of counties". (Verebélyi, 1996) This reflected the government's view in 1996.

In 1998, an evaluation of the results of the reform process supported the government's position (Verebélyi, 1998) and the original conception did not change. However, the summary of the first phase and the discussion of the next tasks of the modernization process raised the idea of forming regional units of the central administration. This possibility was to be cleared up by further research concerning the merger of the territorial units of the central administration beyond the county level. However, its position concerning regions as self-governments did not change from the official position of 1996. It indicated that there is no need to establish a new organ between the county level and the central level. Tasks of regional character should be performed by spontaneous county associations in cooperation with other organs concerned. All of this assumes cooperation between the counties.

To set up administrative regions in Hungary, a well balanced plan for territorial development of the country, the social-economic and cultural development of its different regions, the regional policy of the European Union and its basic principles, including the requirements of the integration to its system of means and institutions, must be taken into consideration. The guiding principle should be that the European Union does not require the modification of the administrative division of a country (Agenda 2000). The establishment of regions conforming to the European Union's regional policy may be provided without modifying the actual territorial structure of the public administration. In Hungary, the statistical-measuring units conforming to the NUTS should be shaped, but they may not necessarily require the transformation of the administrative structure of the country, even if this seems inevitable for a longer term. The White Book, which outlines the requirements for European integration has no indication of administrative divisions. Administrative capacity is the focus of EU attention and this might be handled relatively separately from the problem of the territorial reform. (Verheijen and also Vass, 1999)

When the Hungarian government gave and published the answer to the questionnaire of the European Union there were only a few quotes touching upon this topic. It says that there are no larger units of self-government than the counties – although the idea of shaping regional units is planned in the Act XXI./1996; however, it appears only as a recommendation.

Institutional Changes for Regional Development

In the modernization of regional policy in Hungary, and through the realization of the institutional system specified in the Act XXI./1996. on Regional Development and Physical Planning, a new, higher level, separate central state administrative organization has been established, the National Regional Development Council, as a completion of the previous system for regional and spatial development. In addition, apart from this, almost every central state administrative organization (ministries, national range organizations) administers certain regional development or physical planning functions. (Horcher, Nora)

Hungary and NUTS: The system of NUTS for development on local and regional levels was to be formed prior to negotiations on European integration in accord with the regional policy of the European Union. The structure of NUTS in Hungary was to be established by creating levels of NUTS 2 and 4 between the existing local level (NUTS 5) and the national level, and beyond the county level (NUTS 3).

In Hungary, the formulation of the large regions at the level of NUTS 1 did not seem reasonable due to the size of the country, although the possibility of creating three regions was already raised. Therefore, neither the XXI./1996. Act on Regional Development and Physical Planning, nor the National Concept on Regional Development takes this into consideration. In other words, this means that the NUTS1 unit is to represent the whole country as an entity.

Units of NUTS 2 have a high priority in the conception and programs of regional development elaborated on certain levels as well as in the uniform and closely attached system of country plans. Section 5.E of Act XXI./1996, the Act on Regional Development and Physical Planning, determines that statistical regions shall cover the territory of several counties.

On 20th March 1998, according to the Section 6.A of the Act, the Parliament passed the National Conception of Regional Development in the form of a resolution which establishes the statistical gathering system of regions and, at the same time, determines the seven planning-statistical regions. This means that regional level units of NUTS 2 were established in Hungary. Regions established in this way have an average territory of 13,000 km², an average population of approximately 1.5 million (These index numbers are similar to the EU average: 15,700 km² and 1.8 million). Disregarding the region of Central Hungary involving the capital, the differences between the regions are not significant. Each region is constituted of three counties (units of NUTS 3) except for central Hungary. Each region consists of 21 – 22 units of NUTS 4 and cca. 450 units of NUTS 5. The largest region, Southern Great Plain, has a territory twice as large as the one of the smallest region, South Transdanubia. The region of Northern Great Plain has the largest population, half again as much as Southern Transdanubia, the region having the lowest population.

There are large differences between the regions as regards GDP per capita, but there is something common in them: none of the Hungarian regions has an average as high as 75% of that of the EU average. Also, neither Northern Great Plain nor Northern Hungary has an average as high as 75% of Hungary's average.

Concerning the units of NUTS 3, the counties comply with this level taking either their size or their population into account. The parameters of the 20 units of NUTS 3, established in this way, including the capital, are approximately half as much again than that of the EU average (their average territory is 4,700 km², the average number of population is 510,000 versus the average of EU 3,100 km² and 360,000). In the European Union, there are some smaller, as well as larger, units of NUTS 3 than the smallest and largest county of Hungary.

In summary, we may declare that the establishment of the units of NUTS is an organization of territory, based on a special decision made by the central power, which neither concerns directly the structure of public administration nor changes it. That is why a decision of this kind has less political significance than the organizational decisions of territory concerning the administrative division.

Hungary is the first country among the CEE countries to accept a legal framework similar to the structural policy of the EU. The act specifies the modern institutional system of spatial policy which was established after the implementation of the act. However, the factual provision of conditions for their operation and the regional differentiation of the institutional system with respect to experiences take a longer time. A principal goal of the act is the reinforcement of partnership co-operation between ministries and main offices, specifically between the central and regional institutions in order to promote efficient procedures and the integrated utilization of financial resources. Regional co-operation of counties is also an aim of the act.

As far as the actual implementation of the act is concerned, – along with the institutional system – the controlling of authority and resources demands further elaboration. Licenses are controlled in the act so that the medium level licenses of public control go to county local governments. At the intermediate level, the body of local governments of a county, the so-called General County Assembly is the only body in Hungary that is formed through election, by lists raised by the political parties. Thus the General County Assembly, as a sort of first chamber, gains the authority to approve spatial plans and operate the regional informational system, whereas the role of the regional development council is to elaborate concepts and programs, and to allocate the decentralized means for regional development.

The National Regional Development Council

The increasing importance of regional development in the past few years in Hungary is reflected in the establishment of a separate governmental institution for regional developmental tasks, the National Regional Development Council. It prepares decisions of Parliament and the government, harmonizes national and regional development actions, offers suggestions for Governmental Decrees and participates in the administration of regional organizations. The composition of this body is specified in XXI./1996, the Act on Regional Development and Physical Planning. Members of the body are: representatives of county development councils, presidents of national economic chambers, representatives of the interest-conciliatory council, concerned ministers, the Budapest mayor and a representative of national-local government partnerships. The National Regional Development Center administers the basic functions of the council.

Decentralization is one of the determinant principles in the renewal of Hungarian spatial policy, in accordance with principles of the European Union. In this spirit, the Act XXI./1996. started the specification of the institutional system of modern regional development from underneath in that the smallest spatial category

mentioned and governed by the Act XXI./1996. is the sub-region, which has no administrative equivalent, (although in its dimensions, it is rather similar to the former district or environs). Sub-regions are basically the institutional frameworks for development activity for settlement and sub-regional economic and infrastructure development, carried out in co-operation with local governments.

Since forced partnership is alien to the Hungarian local government model, the co-operation of sub-regions is voluntary, in the form of so called regional development partnerships, which is proposed by the Act XXI./1996. This partnership is a legal entity, and thus, can assume individual rights and responsibilities, possess its own resources, work with other organizations, etc. These voluntary partnerships are established by the relevant local governments within the area and with a number of members that local governments reckon to be optimal to achieve the objectives of the co-operation. However, the regional development act includes an indirect enforcing element to insure that these partnerships function at an optimal number, size and geographical situation, and in regional cohesion. According to the Act XXI./1996., the number of representatives of sub-region partnerships in county development councils follows the number of statistical regions.

One consequence of this regulation has been that community associations that formed spontaneously in the previous years formally established themselves as public act type partnerships, adjusted to the statistical regions. However, real activity is still centered around the former partners. This confusion will require some remedy in the near future, and the re-examination of the structure of the statistical regions will provide an opportunity for that.

County Development Councils

In the First PHARE Regional Development Program, executed between 1993 – 96 as an experiment, county level regional development councils were created in two counties in Hungary: Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén and Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg. Observations about their functioning were so positive that a Governmental Decree was issued to provide for the countrywide introduction of this new type of organization. By 30th June 1996, county development councils had been established in the 19 counties of Hungary, which became key elements in the decentralization of decision procedures for regional development. The county in Hungary, a territorial level that is also important from the administrative aspect, has a key role in regional development. At present, county development councils act on county regional development plans, and oversee the distribution of decentralized governmental development resources.

The county development council organizes and unifies activities of concerned local governments and state administrative organizations in the field of regional development and co-ordinates their operation. County development councils co-operate with local governments, with regional state administrative organizations that directly participate in the development of the county, with concerned social trade organizations and county councils of labor affairs, which play an important role in

employment policy. In accordance with the National Regional Development Plan, they elaborate and adopt the long-term regional development strategy of the county, its development program and sub-programs and the financial plans necessary for their realization. They oversee considerable financial resources and decide upon their utilization, as well as the realization of public improvements through call-systems.

The county development council is a legal entity, with its own competence. According to the act, members of the council are: the president of the county assembly, mayors of cities in the county, a representative of the national government, representatives of the regional economic chambers, one representative for each agglomeration region of local government partnerships for regional development and a representative of the county council of labor affairs. Sectoral ministers can also be asked to participate. The president of the county assembly serves as President of the development council and the vice-president is elected. The council determines its rules of operation. Operating costs are provided by the represented institutions. The county development council organizes its own administrative apparatus and staffing.

Regional Development Councils

During Hungarian history, there have been a few initiatives to form larger regions than the counties (although, never on the basis of representational local governments), but social-political acceptance of the regions could not be secured. Thus, such initiatives as occurred were short lived.

In Hungary, traditional counties correspond to the so-called NUTS III. spatial level administrative units in the European system. However, it is a requirement for receiving regional development support from the European Union, to elaborate development programs for much larger regions. In the spatial policy of the EU, this means the NUTS II. dimension. An elementary condition of the preparation for accession in Hungary is the elaboration of regional development plans that can be the bases for complex development programs. This has led leaders of the renewal of Hungarian spatial policy to develop regional arrangements involving several counties that correspond to the NUTS II. range. The XXI./1996. Act on Regional Development and Physical Planning indicates its importance, but *leaves the formation of the regions to the free decision of the counties*.

By Parliamentary acceptance of the National Regional Development Plan, the following, so-called planning-statistical regions will be established:

1. Central-Hungary
2. West-Transdanubia
3. Central-Transdanubia
4. South-Transdanubia
5. North-Hungary
6. North-Alföld
7. South-Alföld

The planning-statistical regions, made equivalent to the European NUTS II level, are not the same as regionalization deriving from natural organization processes. Therefore, it is possible that the territory of the decision-making institutions will differ from the statistical spatial planning jurisdictions. Full equalization will not be effected in the near future, since it is only possible to tell after the modernization of administration – probably after the acceptance of the new constitution – whether the thousand-year-old counties will continue to be the main administrative units of the country, or the administration decides to follow processes of regionalization. Nevertheless, by the establishment of the planning-statistical regions and regional development councils, it is possible to form the basics of such a planning and institutional system that is compatible with the European structure.

In 1997, the regions were restructured to include more counties and to cover the whole of Hungary, and they now have formed their own regional development councils. These are the following regions, in order of their establishment:

1. North-West Hungary
2. South-Transdanubian
3. South-Plain
4. Balaton
5. Budapest Agglomeration region

The act only obligated the agglomeration of Budapest and the accentuated recreation area of Lake Balaton to establish regional development councils. It specified the institutional system and rules of operation of these two regional development councils. The members of the regional development councils included: presidents of the county development councils, the Minister of Environment, the Minister of Finance, representatives of the Ministers of the Interior, Transport, Communication and Water Management, Agriculture, Industry and Trade, Welfare, Labor, and Culture and Education; one representative from each economic chamber, a definite number of representatives from the concerned regional developmental local government partnerships, etc. Their rules of operation are set in the accepted statutes. Members elect the president and work out staffing and operations. Regional development councils work out and adopt regional development plans. They organize and co-ordinate the regional developmental process and evaluate the county regional and spatial development plans.

Conclusion

1. Hungary is a unified, homogenous nation-state. Considering this, it is evident that a regionalization of ethnic, linguistic, cultural or historic base cannot be realistic since there are no regions or territories separated on these bases. Furthermore, one of the above factors in itself does not serve as the necessary basis for regionalization. There is no possibility for a natural structure of regionalization based uniquely on geographical factors due to a lack of distinctive features. But the regional economic differences, including the ones between the center and the periphery, could serve as significant factors of regionalization

in Hungary. Consequently, it is not accidental that contemporary theories of regionalization are of an economic development character. (Temesi)

Oláh listed the necessary conditions required for a regional reorganization of the territorial administrative system as follows:

- professionally well-elaborated region-policy
- minimal consensus of the majority of the key experts
- a strong, committed political party
- this party should win the parliamentary elections in absolute majority
- support from the administrative elite
- support from the cultural and media elite
- supporting citizens

This fortunate combination of the conditions has not come into existence. In the past, administrative units were first established in compliance with political power relations as examples of the development of European practice even though regions, city-counties, city-circles never existed in Hungarian practice. Regions might be established, no matter how reasonable they are from the professional point of view, by a political decision. Since the beginning of the transition period, no political forces wanted or even ventured to make this decision, and so far no significant political party has seemed to plan for such a decision for the near future or even to put it in its political program.

2. The EU regular country report in 2000 exactly reflects the controversies between the legal-functional developments and the stalemate situation with the regional-institutional rearrangement. The real question of the future is whether the statistical-planning regions without administrative and political power have enough capacity for the efficient and economic use of the EU structural funds and additionally, whether the overlapping and rather confused structure of the statistical regions and the regions of the regional development councils can hinder each other in forming and implementing regional development projects

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Decentralisation and Modernisation of Local Public Administration in the Slovak Republic

Jozef Liška *

In Slovakia, as in other countries of Central and Eastern Europe after World War II, local and regional governmental administration was carried out by national committee offices which operated at local (urban), district and regional levels. While some limited elements of local self-government were present in this system within a very narrow range of activities, they were of a marginal character. This system did however allow the appeal of decisions at one level to a higher tier national committee (or the respective ministry) and under certain circumstances even allowed the possibility of appeal to a court. Local self-government however was not institutionally separate from the national state administration and was fully subordinated to the Communist Party whose pre-eminent governing role was inscribed in the Constitution.

Initiating Reform

In 1960, a change of territorial and administrative structures substantially reduced the number of the higher tier National Councils – from seven regions to three (later by including Bratislava, the Capital, it was increased to four). The number of districts was reduced from 100 to 38 (later 43). However, the large number of municipalities – nearly 2900 – despite enormous political pressure in the late 60s and early 70s, were reduced only very slowly, because these efforts were met with a high level of resistance in the society.

First Stage Reforms: Because of political and social changes in Slovakia at the end of 1989, including termination of the leading role of the Communist Party in government, transforming the system of national committees became a necessity, as the system of local and regional administrative bodies had to meet the needs of a democratic society. Consequently, the process of the progressive transformation, i.e. the reform of the local public administration, was launched.

The first stage of the reform began without any prior comprehensive plan but with several short term objectives. The first was to separate the local self-government from the state administration. The second was to divide the state administration into a series of state agencies or departments along functional lines. The third stage, based on the concept of organizational structure involving direct relationships between cities (understood in the sense of ancient Greek's *polis*) and the national government, was to establish a two level system involving local and national government without a regional level. This stage was initiated in 1990 by the adoption of the Act on Municipal Establishment, as well as the Act on Ter-

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ritorial and Administrative Subdivision and other laws regarding the organisation of the local state administration. This legislation:

- abolished the national committees at all levels;
- established real territorial self-government in 136 towns as well as in the more than 2700 municipalities (these received a substantial part of the property and some of the decision making authority of the former local level national committees);
- created a system of 121 sub-district (obvodný) offices of the local state administration (mostly from staff of the local national committees) as the first tier organs of general state administration at the local level;
- created a system of 38 district (okresný) offices (mostly from staff of the former district national committees) – these were the second-tier (appellate) organs of the general state administration. The responsibilities of the district offices did however vary somewhat based upon the different administrative arrangements that characterized different functional activities;
- established, by sub-division from district (or sub-district) offices, specialized local state offices with specific territorial competencies within a respective sector of state administration subordinated to a certain ministry.

Regional national committees have been totally abolished and their powers have been partially delegated to the district and branch offices of the national state administration. However, at the time of the drafting of the Constitution of the Slovak Republic in 1992, it was also recognized that there was a need to establish some form of territorial self-government at the regional level. This was because it was clear even with the district and the regional offices of the national state administration all of the governmental needs of the public will not be adequately met. However, the Constitution – unlike in the case of self-government for towns and municipalities – left the establishing of the regional self-government to subsequent legislation.

Second Stage Reforms: Subsequently, after the independent Slovak Republic had come into existence and had become a candidate country for entry into the European Union, a second stage of public administration reform was initiated 1996. Central to this reform has been the restructuring of the local state administration in order to bring it closer to the citizens. Within this stage:

- most of the specialised independent bodies of the local state administration have been abolished,
- 79 districts have been created (instead of 38) with full-profile district offices in each district capital to represent the various agencies of the local state administration (with numerous permanent or temporary branch offices outside the district capitals). The majority of the activities of the abolished independent bodies of the specialised state administration have been integrated into these bodies;

- 121 sub-district offices of the local state administration have been abolished;
- eight regions, each with a regional office, have been established as second-tier organs of the integrated local-state administration.

Controversy over the responsibilities and number of regional self-governments units in 1997 – 98 prevented the creation of higher territorial self-government units, although a draft of the relevant legislation passed two readings in the Slovak Parliament. As it has not been possible to pass legislation enlarging the competencies of the towns and municipalities, a substantial part of the responsibilities that might have been carried out by regional self-government continue to be executed by the bodies of the national state administration.

The Programme of the Slovak Government from November 1998 regarding the relationship of local public administration indicates these crucial tasks for the future:

- continuous decentralisation of the competencies of the national state to lower levels of public administration, respecting the principles of subsidiarity with respect to the overall efficiency and effectiveness of the economy in such a way that the decentralised tasks are being adequately funded by financial resources;
- to carry out further decentralisation of the competencies of the bodies of the local state administration to the local territorial self-governments and the envisaged regional self-government – based on the analysis, and according to the principles of, the European Charter of the Local Self-Government;
- assuring the financial independence of the territorial self-government with the focus on strengthening and establishing stabile financial resources and cash flows so that the interventions of the state into the independence of the municipalities by the means of system of subsidies is limited;
- to asses the need for changes in legislation regarding the territorial and administrative subdivision of the Slovak Republic.

Third Stage Reforms: The next stage of the government's public administration reform programme was initiated when The National Council of the Slovak Republic asked the Government to present a Concept paper for Further Progress of the Public Administration Reform in the Slovak Republic by June 30, 1999. This task was initially assigned to the Minister of Interior. Subsequently, the Vice-Prime Minister I. Mikloš was assigned responsibility for the reform and Ing. V. Nižnanský was appointed the Plenipotentiary for the Reform with responsibility to submit a strategy for the decentralisation of public administration in the Slovak Republic.

In the summer of 1999, the Government adopted the Strategy for the Reform of Public Administration and in spring 2000 the Government passed several parts of the Decentralisation and Modernisation of the Public Administration Concept. This included a variety of economic-managerial tasks and the designating of a variety of activities which were to be decentralised from the national state admin-

istration to local self-government and the self-government of the higher territorial units. At the same time the Government developed a wide-ranging programme of legislative and other goals which were necessary for the implementation of the envisaged decentralisation.

After considering the Concept paper on the Decentralisation and Modernisation of the Public Administration within the Government a series of meetings involving the Vice-Prime Minister and the Government's Plenipotentiary and representatives of the individual Ministries occurred during the spring of 2001. In these meetings various ways of delegating the powers of the national state administration to territorial self-government were defined more precisely. At the same time, it became evident that the ministries were trying to limit the range of the activities to be turned over to the local self-governments.

Consolidating Reform

A comprehensive amendment to the Constitution, passed by the National Council of the Slovak Republic (which is the single chamber Slovak Parliament) in February 2001, widened the range of provisions regarding the competencies of the higher territorial units so that they became analogical to the provisions on competencies for municipalities.

Following the amending of the constitution, a variety of draft laws regarding the decentralization were introduced into the National Council of the Slovak Republic. On July 4, 2001, the first of these laws which designated eight self-government regions (The Act on Regional Self-government Units) was passed. It delineated the responsibilities and competencies of the self-government regions, and the manner in which they would relate to other units of government, different legal entities, territorial units and regional authorities of other states and international associations. It gives the regional self-government units the authority to issue generally binding provisions and defines the officers of the self-government regions, which include a Chairman and a Board of Representatives, elected directly.

The law also contains provisions regarding the responsibilities of deputies, the Chief Controller, Commissions and the Office of the Self-Government Region. It also included general principles for the financing of the self-government regions and provisions on its property (detailed provisions on this will be subject of special legislation). The law itself did not change the provisions of the Act on Territorial and Administrative Subdivision of the Slovak Republic, so the eight regions of the state administration remained valid and the new legislation launched eight almost conterminous regional self-government units. With the passage of this legislation, the Government's Plenipotentiary, Ing. Niznanský, resigned his position and the Vice-Prime Minister, I. Mikloš, ceased to co-ordinate the further progress of the reform.

On July 4, 2001, simultaneously with the Act on Regional Self-government Units, the National Council of the Slovak Republic passed the Act on Elections to the Regional Self-government Units. The law establishes the majority voting

system, mandates election wards, specifies the number of deputies in these wards for election to the board of the self-government regions and establishes provisions for the election of the Chairperson of the Regional Self-government Unit. It allows for the nominations of candidates by the political parties and independent candidates as well. In addition it gives voting rights to foreigners who have permanent residence in the territory of the Slovak Republic. The District Courts are given responsibility to review any decisions concerning cancellation of individual candidates or non registration of the list of candidates.

The draft of the law on self-government regions originally contained a detailed list of future competencies of the self-government regions. However, after discussing the draft the government decided that there was a need to draft a special law providing more detailed specification of these competencies, as well as on the way and time of their transfer from the organs of the state administration to the territorial self – government (including the self – government of the towns and municipalities). The preparation of such a draft was, after the personal changes in the co-ordination of the reform, a task for the new leaders of the Ministry of Interior. The Ministry fulfilled this task after a new round of discussions with the representative of other ministries, as well as with the participation of several deputies of the National Council of the Slovak Republic. This draft has been approved by the National Council of the Slovak Republic on September 20, 2001 as the Act No. 416/2001 Z.z. on Transfer of Some of the Competencies from the National State Administration to Municipalities and Regional Self-government Units.

The law, in an extensive first article, lists more than 300 activities (competencies), which, within the next two years, will be transferred to municipalities and regional self -governments. The law also amends the provisions of other pieces of legislation, by providing more details on the activities of the territorial self-governments and their relationship to the national state administration and other relevant entities.

Additional legislation, adopted by the National Council of the Slovak Republic on October 2, 2001, amended Act No. 369/1990 Zb. on Municipal Establishment (as Act No. 453/2001 Z.z.) initiated the provisions on the relationship between the municipal board of representatives and the mayor; on elections and removing of mayors and lord mayors; stated new regulations on conditions for the execution of direct democracy; and established standards for transforming municipalities to towns (cities). In addition, conditions for the subdividing and establishment of municipalities have been made tougher (a minimum of at least 3000 inhabitants). Provisions regarding the independent activities of municipalities and the process of transferring competencies from the national state administration to municipalities (including controlling) have been made more precise and conditions for the more effective internal control of the execution of self-government functions have been created – including provisions regarding those situations in which municipalities failed to act on transferred responsibilities. It also established provisions regarding domestic and international co-operation by municipalities.

On October 3, 2001, the National Council of the Slovak Republic adopted several laws dealing with financial and economic matters for the territorial self-governments. These include:

- The Amendment to the Act on Budgetary Rules – Act No. 445/2001 Z.z. – which enlarges the act's scope to budgets and financial responsibilities of the regional self-governments, establishes funding for municipalities and regional self-governments within the framework of the national budget and specifies budgetary rules of self-governments.

- The Act on Property of the Higher Territorial Units No. 446/2001 Z.z. which provides the regional self-governments with higher authority regarding property issues. It also establishes the provision for services in the area of education, social care, health care and culture and indicates that respective property derived from the transfer of the state property shall be used for its original purposes. It also limits the transferring of financial liabilities to the regional self-governments.

- Act No. 447/2001 Z.z., amending the Act of the SNC No. 138/1991 Zb. on Municipal Property addresses the issue of the transfer of state owned property to the municipalities.

- Act No. 438/2001 Z.z. includes provisions dealing with salaries and other conditions of employment with regard to the Head of the Regional Self-Government.

Conclusion

The implementation of these various pieces of legislation will represent an essential turning point in the decentralisation of activities from the local state administration to the territorial self-governments of towns and municipalities and the regional self-governments. This will mean a greater commitment to the principle of subsidiarity in the Slovak Republic. It brings the country more into line with the provisions of the European Charter of the Self-Government as it has been recommended by the various bodies of the European Union and Council of Europe.

The election of deputies and the heads occurred on December 1, 2001; with a run off election occurring on December 15, 2001. The Ministry of Interior in co-operation with the Ministry of Finance and Regional Offices over saw the election process and developed materials for the initial meetings of the Boards of Representatives. Parallel to these activities the ministries and the organs of the towns and municipalities are preparing themselves for the step-by-step transferring of the powers, activities and employees from organs of the local state administration to the regional self-government.

These steps have resulted in the establishment of what had been the missing level of regional self-government, which represents an important element of organising the relationships within Slovak society and can stimulate its further development. Undoubtedly it will be necessary to create adequate possibilities for further train-

ing and education in the area of public administration for all deputies and other employees of the newly created authorities with regard to widening their range of activities, as well as for the deputies and employees of the towns and municipalities. It is surely the common wish of all that this training and education may bring a new quality into the execution of the public administration.

The State Modernization Process and the Decentralization of Chile

Ximena E. Núñez with Javier Espinoza Gajardo and Cristina A. Rodríguez-Acosta *

Chile has been, throughout its history, an extremely centralized country with all decisions being made at the national level. The basis for this is found in the structure established by the Spanish Empire to administer its kingdom in the Américas. Later, as an independent republic, the various Constitutions of Chile – the 1833, 1925 and the present Constitution of 1980 – structured a unitary state where the central government was responsible for most decisions in almost all areas of public affairs and the President of the Republic was the central figure of the government.[1]

The Chilean decentralization process, begun during the military government in 1975, gained a degree of strength that had not been seen before in the history of Chile. It became an important and strategic theme and was especially important for government authorities. This reform was understood as an integral whole that could not be limited to only one area of activity. The adoption of a lower profile by the national government was a fundamental element of this process. The reform defined a new way of participation and created new relationships in the political, economic and social areas – thus widening the possibilities for the private sector to assume tasks that, until then, had been the exclusive responsibility of the State. A key element in the change was to engage the private sector to be an integral part of the engine of the country's development.

The process of decentralization was initiated by the military government upon the assumption that the State could no longer provide services and that the private sector could and should be involved in such provision of services. The State could not be the sole promoter of economic development. Decentralization was a decision from the central government aimed at desconcentrating the provision of goods and services but with a close supervision from the central government.

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1   For a historical analysis see Bravo Lira, Bernardino. Historia de las Instituciones Políticas de Chile e Hispanoamérica. Editorial Jurídica de Chile, 1986, Santiago, Chile. Góngora, Mario. Ensayo Sobre La Noción De Estado En Chile, Siglos XIX Y XX. Editorial La ciudad, 1981, Santiago, Chile y, Boeninger, Edgardo. Democracia en Chile. Lecciones para la Gobernabilidad. Editorial Andres Bello, 1997, Santiago, Chile.

As a first step towards this goal, the process of "regionalization" was started in 1975. To start the needed reforms required at the public administration level, the National Commission on Administrative Reform (CONARA) was created. This process of regionalization continued from 1975 through the present. Its objective was to help achieve a balanced development of Chile taking advantage of the country's national and regional resources. With that in mind the country was divided into regions, the regions in provinces and the provinces in "*comunas*" (municipalities). In fact, the regionalization process responded to mainly three very specific objectives:

1) A geopolitical goal aimed at promoting the most extremes regions of Chile and at solving the population and economic imbalances between different parts of the country. It was a way of controlling population and territory.

2) A political objective aimed at reforming the way populations used to interact creating a more corporative model and thus dismantling traditional social organizations and political parties.

3) A clear economic objective of transferring services and responsibilities to the regions that could later be privatized. This was a logical consequence of the open market and liberal economic policies adopted by the military regime.

This new political – administrative division defined the creation of thirteen regions; of fifty new provinces, and the slow creation of new municipalities. Today there are 335, municipalities – all established within the principals of a unitary state and the maintaining of national integrity. The chief administrative official of each governmental level is:

National level	President
Regional level	*Intendente*
Provincial level	Governor
Local level	Mayor

The new hierarchical structure included an *Intendente* in charge of each of the newly created regions. The *Intendentes* were and are the representatives of the President of the Republic in the region with clearly defined roles of coordinating the regional administration, promoting development, administering the financial resources, in general, a lot of very important areas. The governors were and are in charge of the provinces and are senior officials trusted by the President. From 1970 to 1990, the municipalities were subordinated to the central government with mayors that were appointed by the President and with limited responsibilities.

A new administrative structure was created to give support to the newly created regions and sub-national governments. Towards this goal all national ministries were territorially de-concentrated as well as the national services. The de-concentration of the ministries was done through the creation of ministerial regional secretaries

(SEREMIs) in charge of providing technical assistance to the *intendentes* in each of the different topics.

At the technical or planning level, the National Office of Planning (ODEPLAN) became very important. In each region a Coordination and Planning Secretariat was created as technical units to provide assistance to the *intendentes*. This system was not implemented at the provincial level; and at the municipal level the Communal Secretariats of Coordination and Planning were established.

At the participatory level, a corporative system was established. Both at the regional and municipal level Regional and Communal Councils of Development were created. In it only the most important actors of the region or municipality participated: businessmen, workers, representatives of universities, armed forces. At the provincial level this system was not established.

Among of the most important changes (and the ones with the most significant impact) were the ones made to the financing of the State. In 1975, the State Financial Administration System was established. This decree/law still regulates the financing of every organ of the State. In the same year the National Fund for Regional Development (FNDR) was also created. The Fund finances investment in infrastructure through a structured process for identifying and selecting projects. The funds of the FNDR are distributed annually to the regions. Most of the funds have been – and are being – allocated to projects related to drainage improvement; rural and urban roads; health and elementary and intermediate education infrastructure; electricity, etc.

At the local level it is worth noting that very specific changes in the financing of local governments did occur during this time. Of significance was the promulgation of the Law of Municipal Revenues that considerably increased municipal resources; the creation of the Common Municipal Fund (a redistribution fund to benefit the neediest of the municipalities); the incorporation of the municipal financial system into the State System of Financial Administration; and the transfer of the administration of cemeteries, basic health care and schools to the municipalities.[2]

The first phase which was called Regionalization was followed by a more active process called Municipalization because most of the reforms were directed towards this level. Starting in 1979 and throughout the 1980s and 1990s those reforms increased the competencies of the municipalities making them responsible for the implementation of the social policies decided by the Central Government.

Even though the 1980 Constitution gave autonomy to the municipalities, it was not until the 1988 Organic Municipal Law was enacted that this autonomy became effective. The popular election of the mayors was not possible until 1991

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[2]   For further detail see Núñez, Ximena y Vergara, Jorge *La gestión Municipal en la década 1990 – 2000*. En La Administración del Estado en Chile. Decenio 1990 – 2000. Facultad de Derecho Universidad de Chile. Rolando Pantoja coordinador. Editorial Jurídica, Cono Sur Ltda. Noviembre 2000, Santiago, Chile.

when the Constitution was reformed. The first mayoral election under the new lagislation took place in 1992.

The regions were governed by an *Intendente* and a regional council. They became decentralized with their own resources; not only from the already mentioned Regional Development National Fund but with their own budget and the capacity to decide how those funds were to be spent. They did not however have the capacity to formulate their budget because this is still done by the Central Government under the provisions of the National Budget Law approved annually by the National Congress.

In 1993, the regions also gained access to the Regionally Allocated Sectoral Investment Funds (ISAR) which were funds destined to finance projects and programs normally under the responsibility of a Ministry but to be implemented in a specific region. In 1995 the Programming Agreements were created. These were agreements between one or more regions and one or more ministries for the implementation of specific programs. Also in this year, the regions were given the capacity to approve their own strategies for regional development and at the same time, they can hire their own professional and administrative staff. Thus, gradually, the regions are able to increase both their financial and their administrative autonomy.

In 1996, to the above mentioned funds, the Locally Allocated Sectoral Investment Funds (IRAL) were added. These funds allowed each community (municipality) to define and prioritize – through its local council – the projects they wanted to finance. The funds were ministerial funds allocated to the regions, but the municipalities had some influence on how the funds were to be invested.

With all these changes and sources of funding, by the end of 2002, 42% of public regional investment was decided at the regional level. This increased capacity to define how the funds were to be spent was and is decisive to strengthening the decentralization process even though some contradictions persist.

Among the most noticeable of the contradictions is the fact that the *Intendentes* keep their dual role as direct representatives of the President of the Republic in the Region and as executives of the regional government without the capacity to formulate their own budget.

At the municipal level, contradictions also persist. Even though from the judicial point of view municipalities have total autonomy (established by the National Constitution), and their mayors are freely elected by their constituents every four years, and they define their own development strategy and budgetary framework; in reality, a great percentage of municipalities do not have the resources to practice this autonomy and must depend upon the regional and central government to accomplish their municipal development goals. Of the 300 or so municipalities in Chile only a very small percentage have the capacity to be effective in the different areas of municipal activities (health, education, social policies, sports, etc.).

Basically, the strategy behind the administrative reform of the military regime was synonymous of diminishing the presence of the public sector in the national arena. In this context, the decentralization process was conceived and based mainly on principles of fiscal balance and fiscal adjustment.

Through this process, the central government has delegated to the municipalities responsibility in many areas, especially in the social sector, as in public education and primary healthcare and others. However, the central government has not delegated the decision making process, only administrative responsibility and execution. This approach to decentralization, of course, has produced a lot of problems in term of professional competence and the defining of responsibilities for good performance.

The financial decentralization process has been especially precarious and uncertain. Most of the municipalities of Chile have had a lot of problems financing public services and it has been the same for the other sub national levels of government.

Another problem has been personal management. There is a great need to prepare professionals who can understand the different legal, technological and others instruments necessary to enable a community to offer higher quality service at a time of tighter budgets. There is a great need to build capacity, especially at the local level, to govern efficiently and effectively.

Another very important subject is citizen participation in the decision making process at the regional, provincial and local level. Such participation provides important opportunities for feedback, evaluation and involvement in the policy-making process. It is critical to good governance and building government capacity and it is necessary to make major efforts to develop it further.

Conclusion

The focus of this review has been the state modernization process and the decentralization of Chile. It has presented a general analysis of the process from 1975 to the present and an examination of how the decentralization process has structured a new public administration and a new public management.

In reality, to strengthen the decentralization process, certain conditions should be present:

1) Increased local autonomy that would include not only transferring responsibilities but also the capacity to make decisions and assume the consequences of those decisions.
2) Increased strengthening of municipal administrations through new technical assistance organizations and a more professional and responsible staff.
3) Ensuring sufficient sources of revenues and creating the necessary conditions to hire and motivate professional and technical staff willing to work in the neediest municipalities.

These conclusions are valid for all municipalities in the country.

Part III

Implications for Education and Training

A. North American Experiences

Models of Education and Training in Canada

Mohamed Charih *

Introduction

Since the late 1980s, as in many parts of the world, a wind of reform known as New Public Management (NPM) has swept through Canadian public administration. The promoters of these reforms wanted to redefine the role of the State and reduce its size, eliminate the deficit, balance public expenditures, remove red tape, clear away obstacles to effective management, and focus the attention of public agencies on client satisfaction. As a consequence, Canadians governments started to look for new ways of producing and delivering services by resorting to privatization, subcontracting, user fees for public services, and partnerships with the various levels of government, volunteer organizations and private enterprise (Public Service 2000, 1990; Charih, 1997).

Many factors can explain this sudden interest in better management in the public service. Among them are the strong challenges that governments are facing in most countries. These challenges are economic, institutional and ideological in nature. Economic forces include the general slowdown in economic growth, the strong recessions experienced in the last few decades, global economic competition, and the rise of government debt. Pressures to recover control of the public purse led to serious concerns about the size of government and the way it operates. Institutional forces, for their part, relate to the way government is organized to provide services to its citizens.

Since the early 1980s, governmental bureaucracy has been under constant attack from those who believe that it is lethargic, cautious, bloated, expensive, unresponsive, a creature of routine and incapable of accepting new challenges. There is a strong conviction among many scholars and practitioners that a more innovative structure could provide better service to the public at lower cost, as well as better morale among the ranks of public servants. The key to achieving these improvements many critics suggest is to be found in effective, relevant education and training. This realization leads one to raise two fundamental questions. What are the different models involved in educating and training public servants in Canada? Which model or models played an important role in the latest reforms in Canadian public administration?

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Education and Training in Canada: A Typology

As part of the process of answering these questions, it is useful to present a typology of different models involved in the education and training of Canadian public servants. In Canada, one can identify six approaches to, or models of, public administration education and training. These are the: Public Policy Model; Public Administration Model; Public Management Model; the Business Model; Government Training Center Model and Non-governmental Organization (NGOs) Model (see table 1).

Table 1
Models of Education and Training in Canada
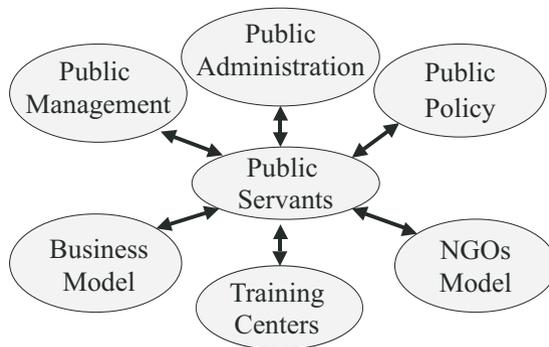
1) Public Policy Model

The Public Policy Model focuses on policy making, and policy analysis, as well as the study of political institutions, their structures and processes. This model served Canada well during the construction of the welfare state. During the period in question, developing new national policies, designing new programs, and spending huge amounts to implement these policies was the norm. This was the era that the Canadian journalist, Peter Newman, called "spend and share".

By the beginning of the seventies, the public policy model and its practitioners started to lose ground in favor of the Public Administration Model and the Public Management Model.

For marketing reasons, public policy programs became public policy and management programs. For a while, this cosmetic change made public policy programs look "chic", and attractive.

After balancing the books, senior Canadian public servants realized that too much emphasis on management had destroyed Canada's policy formation and analysis capacities and many public affairs issues could not be resolved simply by good management. They, in fact, needed policy analysis and policy decision. Therefore, the Public Policy Model has begun to gain ground once again.

2) Public Administration Model

The Public Administration Model is the youngest child of political science. It gained its relative independence in 1947, when the Institute of Public Administration of Canada was created. Public Administration is a hybrid field. It is built on a collection of courses borrowed from different fields and disciplines like: political science, economics, law, organizational theory, sociology, psychology, financial management, accounting, budgeting, etc. Unlike the Public Policy Model, the Public Administration Model aimed at educating and training public servants *for analysis and action* by balancing its curriculum between theory and practice. Further more, public administration is concerned with the administration of government and the administration by government.

3) Public Management Model

To start with, the focus of public management model, as its name suggests, is on management, a narrower understanding of government administration. The focus on management shifts attention to the individual "customer" and away from the larger "community" so highly cherished by the public administration proponents. The public manager is centred on the individual clients, thus getting away from the communitarian conception of public administration. The proponents of public management promote managerial approaches – techniques and values borrowed from the private sector.

4) The Business Model

This model is often ignored or its importance is minimized when examining public servants' education and training. However, since the sixties, it has provided Canadian public administration with a large number of graduates in accounting, financial management, human resources management, and labor relations to mention just a few fields. With the advent of new public management, this model is gaining momentum.

5) Government Training Center Model

Government training centers are not models of curriculum in themselves. However, their programs and training are built on an implicit or explicit model. They differ from other programs and universities in many aspects. They do not have university status and hence cannot provide degrees. Their focus is fundamentally on training, they do not have a permanent academic staff, and a large part of their financing comes from the government or from cost recovery.

In Canada, the most important and prestigious government training center is the Canadian Centre for Management Development, a federal government institution created in 1991. The Canadian Centre for Management Development's mission is to support federal public servants by providing learning programs and courses, learning events and strategic research in public administration and management.

6) Non Governmental Organization Model

Non governmental organizations are emerging as a new force in training public servants. The Public Policy Forum, the Institute of Research on Public Policy and the Institute on Governance are a few examples. These organizations play an important role in shaping how public decision-makers see the issues facing the Canadian state and by providing studies and advice on public policy and management. They also organize conferences and seminars for the higher echelons of public servants.

The Six Models in Practice

Having reviewed these basic approaches, we can now ask: which models played an important role in the latest reforms in Canadian public Administration? In order to answer this question, at least in part, it will be useful to make a distinction between the five stages involved in the adoption and management of reforms: the design stage, the implementation stage, the management stage, the performance stage and the measurement stage (see table 2).

Public servants, consultants, and politicians were the most important actors in the design stage (Armit and Bourgault, 1996). This contrasts with a venerable Canadian tradition where governments relied largely on Royal Commissions. Royal Commissions possess many advantages. They are impartial, research oriented, and open to the public. Since the sixties, two royal commissions have been the designers of reforms in Canada: the Royal Commission on the Organization of Government (Glassco, 1962), and the Royal Commission on Financial Management and Accountability (Lambert, 1979). These two commissions assigned a large number of studies to academics, including those in public policy and public administration. In the nineties, academics and schools of public policy and public administration were left out of the design stage.

Table 2
Impact on Recent Reforms

•Designing stage
   – Consultants, politicians and public servants
•Implementation stage
   – Public management and Business models
•Management stage
   – Public Adm., Public Management, and Business Model
•Performance measurement stage
   – Business model is leading

Given this context, two Canadian academics lamented in 1996 that :

> "…major reforms were introduced in Canadian public organizations, without the proposals, assumptions and consequences of these changes having received the benefit of any rigorous research…" (Kernaghan and Charih, 1996, p. 4).

In the implementation stage, the New Public Management Model and the Business Model led the way. Departments were asked to define their mission and their core functions, to introduce strategic corporate planning like in the private sector, to find new economical ways to produce and deliver public services, to adopt management by results and to focus on client needs.

In the management stage, we find the Public Administration Model, New Public Management Model and the Business Model. The first continues to provide general managers sensitive to politics, democracy, public administration values, ministerial accountability, efficiency and effectiveness

The New Public Management Model and the Business Model became important in a period of budget deficits and restraints. Better management, similar to the private sector, seemed to many public servants and politicians to be the answer. Unlike public administration, which considers politics and public interest as the essence of the state, the New Public Management and Business Models consider politics as an impediment to good public management. The fundamental problem with the New Public Management Model and the Business Model is their limited understanding of democratic principles and their legal and structural effects on state management.

Finally, the Business Model and New Public Management Model are the ones focusing on performance and measurement. Consulting the public, evaluating client's satisfaction, strategic planning, performance indicators and management by results are some of the major tools promoted by proponents of the Business and New Public Management Models.

Conclusion

As we have seen, in Canada there are, six models of education and training, the: Public Policy, Public Administration, Public Management, Business, Government Training Center, and NGOs Models. All involve educating and training Canadian public servants. When it comes to their impact on recent reforms in Canada, it seems that the Public Policy Model is gaining ground, because many issues facing government cannot be resolved by effective management alone. However, public policy and public administration academics were left out when the government was designing recent reforms. This was partly due to the rising interest in public management but also to the fact that the critical mass of public administration researchers and academics is becoming too small. On the other hand, public management and business management are taking more space in reform implementation, management, and performance measurement.

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The Development and Implementation of Human Resources Management Policy: The Case of the USA

Margaret T. Gordon *

Introduction

How governments in the U.S. recruit, train, and manage their employees is an enormous topic. Not surprisingly, the organization of the U.S. government and U.S. human resource policies are strongly influenced by the way the nation was born and developed. Suspicious of autocratic leaders, those involved in the initial design of the U.S. national government were determined to build a system that no one person or group of persons could usurp and rule undemocratically.

There are checks and balances among the three major branches of the federal government (executive, legislative, and judicial) so that each has some way to limit the power of the others. For example all taxing and spending bills have to originate in the Legislative branch, but the President (Executive branch) can veto them. However, the Legislature can override the veto if members can get a super-majority (two-thirds) to vote for the override. Further, the U.S. Constitution defines divisions of power between the Federal government and state governments. States have the right to decide how they will organize to carry out their responsibilities, and this has resulted in a lack of uniformity among states in the forms of sub-state local governments (e.g. counties, townships) and different forms of municipal governments (e.g. city manager, mayor).

I. Levels of Government and Approximate Numbers of Governmental Units in the U.S. Recruiting and Training Employees [1]

The U.S. has a very large number of governments. They include:

   --Federal government (1)

   --State governments   (50)

   --Counties   (number varies by state, 3043 total)

   --Municipalities (19,296)

   --Township and Town governments (16,666)

--School districts (14,556)

--Special districts,e.g., fire, utilities, etc. (33,131)

--Tribal governments[2] (550)

In 1992, Starling[3] estimated there were nearly 20 million people working in the approximately 87,200 governmental units listed above. In addition, there were approximately 12 million paid employees of non-profit organizations. This means there were approximately 32 million people working in the public sector at the time.[4] As Starling also points out, however, the number engaged in public service is actually much larger because the 32-million figure does not include volunteer work which—using Gallup Poll data—he estimates is the equivalent of another nine million full-time employees.[5]

II. Federal System Executive Branch as Model

As indicated above, the U.S. federal government is organized into three branches, each with powers over the others:

- the executive branch (President, Cabinet level Departments and administrative agencies);
- the legislative branch (the House of Representatives and the Senate of the U.S. Congress and various committees and agencies that support their work); and
- the judicial branch (the Supreme Court and Appellate Courts).

Because the organization and management of personnel policies of the executive branch of the Federal system has served as a model for many states, it is useful to focus on that.

III. Departments and Administrative Agencies (Cabinet Level) of the Executive Branch

The Executive Branch of the U.S. Government is comprised of several departments and administrative agencies. Each department is headed by a Secretary who is nominated by the President but must be approved by the U.S. Senate—another example

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[2]   Not included in Starling's listing. There are approximately 550 federally recognized Native American tribes, each with its own sovereign Tribal Government. Of these, 314 have Tribal reservation lands, some of which extend across state borders. For example, the Navajo Nation with over 250,000 members spreads across parts of four states (Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado and Utah) and has 110 Chapter Houses, or local governments. Of the 550 sovereign Indian Nations about 250 have preserved their Native languages, several of which are unwritten and/or taught only to tribal members.

[3]   Starling, p. 12.

[4]   Ibid., Figure 1-1, p. 13.

[5]   Ibid., footnote 3 on p. 12.

of the built – in checks and balances. For the purpose of administering programs, each of the federal cabinet – level departments has ten regional offices.

Departments – -There are 13 Departments of the Executive Branch of the U.S. Federal Government and the Secretaries of each serve in the President's Cabinet. The newest is the Department of Homeland Security, which was just recently established. They vary dramatically in number of employees, budget, and political influence. In alphabetical order, they are:

- Department of Agriculture
- Department of the Air Force
- Department of the Army
- Department of Commerce
- Department of Health and Human Services
- Department of the Interior
- Department of Labor
- Department of the Navy
- Department of State
- Department of Transportation
- Department of the Treasury
- Department of Veteran Affairs.

Administrative Agencies and Commissions – -In addition to the departments, there are a number of administrative agencies and commissions—many of which cut across the departments—charged with implementing the policies of the President and the Cabinet. Key ones include: the General Services Administration, Office of Personal Management, Nuclear Regulatory Commission, Army Audit Agency, Defense Audit Agency, Defense Threat Reduction Agency, Environmental Protection Agency, Pension Benefit Guaranty Agency, and the Social Security Administration.

III. Recruitment for Federal Jobs and Careers

The Office of Personnel Management, whose collective job it is to identify, recruit, test, train, manage, and evaluate the majority of the U.S. Government's employees, currently has such responsibilities for nearly two million employees[6]. OPM's workforce has been dramatically reduced since the 1993 publication of *Reinventing Government* by David Osborne and Ted Gaebler which began and fueled a now well-known approach to government as business, citizens as clients or customers, and evaluation in the form of the National Performance Review. One result of the reform and reinvention has been a shrinking of the entire federal government, including a 52% decline at OPM.[7]

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[6] See OPM Website at http://opm.gov

[7] See OPM Website, directors statement.

The drop in staff at OPM and other federal government departments and agencies involved both a decentralization of many formerly federal responsibilities, and an increase in state and local government employees as federal responsibilities were "devolved" to the more local levels of government. Because the devolution has not always been accompanied by new funds to the states for carrying out these responsibilities, there have been new tensions between the states and the federal government.

OPM uses a wide variety of methods for identifying, recruiting, testing, and training of personnel for management positions. Important among them is the Presidential Management Internship (PMI) program. Talented students are recruited annually for this program from graduate schools, especially those students from public policy/administration institutions that are members of the Association for Public Policy and Management (APPAM) and the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). The competition for these positions is fierce, as they carry significant prestige for both the individuals selected and the institutions that trained them. The positions include opportunities to both train in and rotate among four to six Federal departments over a two-to-three-year period, as well as full-time, management-level salaries.

OPM also identifies, selects, trains, and retrains personnel through its Federal Executive Institute and its Management Development Centers. The agency advertises its "innovative customer-focused service" and their "unique customized courses." A new course being offered since the September 11th attacks on New York and Washington is "New Homeland Defense: Understanding the Enemy." The primary objectives of the course are described[8] as intending "to provide some closure and understanding regarding these attacks and to help participants understand the culture and psychology of terrorism." The week-long course includes a history of terrorism and its evolution, discussions of the changing nature and dynamics of international terrorism, cultures that facilitate fanaticism, the psychology of terrorism, dynamics of 'home grown' terrorism, learning to think like an adversary and learning how other countries deal with this threat.

"Students" or "customers" for these courses are usually already employed by the government, and costs are borne by their agencies. Often they involve interagency, residential training, thus also encouraging communication and collaboration across departmental and agency lines.

For additional recruiting of personnel, OPM also has a major responsibility to create, administer and score the U.S. Civil Service exams at numerous sites across the nation. It also maintains lists of qualified applicants for each job level throughout the federal government. And finally, it also maintains an extensive, interactive job-listing service, USAJOBS.

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[8]   See http://www.leadership.opm.gov/np66.html.?

V. Training for Federal Government Service is Very Decentralized

In marked contrast to many other Western nations (e.g. France, England), training for federal government service in the U.S. is very decentralized and not at all uniform, especially at the highest levels (i.e., political appointees at the secretarial and assistant secretary levels). Preparation may take place in public and private schools, public and private colleges and universities, executive training programs, in-service training, military training academies, public and non-profit agencies, and in private companies.

For high-level appointments, the role of university-based education in policy and administration is secondary to the individuals' political connections to the elected officials appointing them. At lower levels—below political appointees—the schools and colleges of public administration and policy play a much bigger role with department and agency staff making regular recruiting visits to universities. The Office of Personnel Management (OPM) is central in setting human resources policy and defining the rules and regulations regarding such recruitment.

VI. OPM's Role and Functions

Another major role of OPM is "to improve the performance of all federal government departments and agencies." The agency's vision statement indicates it's perception of its role in the quality of the U.S. Government:

OUR VISION
Great Government Through Great Employees

"How well the Federal Government works depends on Federal workers. Our role at the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) is to help agencies get the right people in the right jobs with the right skills at the right time so they can produce results for the American people. To do this, we work with agencies to create systems to recruit, develop, manage and retain a high quality and diverse workforce, and to do it in the right way. Congress has entrusted us with regulating these systems, and the President relies on us to continuously improve them. Our vision is a Government that meets and often exceeds the public's expectations because of the impressive competence and commitment of Federal employees."[9]

Exactly how it attempts to implement its vision is outlined in its "Strategic Goals"[10]:

  A. Provide policy direction and leadership to recruit and retain the Federal workforce required for the 21st Century.

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[9]   http://opm.gov/html/mission.htm

[10]   Ibid.

B. Protect and promote the merit-based civil service and the employee earned benefit programs through an effective oversight and evaluation program.

C. Provide advice and assistance to help Federal agencies improve their human resources management programs to effectively operate within the economy, demographics and environment of the 21st Century.

D. Deliver high-quality, cost-effective human resources to Federal agencies, employees, annuitants and the public.

E. Establish OPM as a leader in creating and maintaining a sound, diverse and cooperative work environment.

Scrutiny of OPM's workshops and classes indicate they teach "performance management" techniques that include creating a vision, devising mission statements, articulating values and understanding their roles. They also teach goal setting and evaluation techniques, and gather and keep the statistics needed to measure progress. These are used in "performance reports" to demonstrate the agency's accountability to the public and to facilitate OPM planning.

Of special interest in the past decade has been the use of awards to both bring recognition to beleaguered public servants and to demonstrate desired behaviors or "best practices" in government. Of special note is the "Innovation in Government" awards program funded by the Ford Foundation and administered by Harvard University's John F. Kennedy School of Government. After a rigorous, year-long process, ten "winners" are selected and presented with checks for $100,000, while fifteen other "finalists" receive $25,000. Winners are encouraged to disseminate their innovations, and are assisted in doing so by foundation-supported publicists.

VII. State, County and Local Government Jobs

While the work of OPM is limited to federal government jobs, to some extent, a number of state personnel offices have modeled themselves after the federal system. For example, many (but not all) states have offices of personnel management that perform many of the same functions described above but at the state level.

However, recruitment efforts at the state level are even more decentralized than at the federal level, and the process is still more decentralized at the county, township and municipal levels. The 250 or so schools and institutes of public administration/policy in the U.S. play a much bigger role in staffing the state and local government offices, especially those located in close proximity. Many APPAM and NASPAA schools have close ties to their local governments, and graduates play important leadership roles in a range of departments.

VIII. Current Issues at All Levels of Government

Whatever the level of government, there are a number of current issues receiving special priority as departments and agencies seek to recruit qualified staff and

update the training of current employees. Among these issues are:

- Security—Following the September 11th attacks, many government employees at all levels of government in the U.S. are being trained or retrained in order to increase the overall national security. While issues related to airport security workers have been the most visible in the U.S. news media, new rules and precautions are widespread.

- Rising Unemployment Figures—With a significant slowdown of the U.S. and the worldwide economies, unemployment has risen significantly and the rules and regulations for layoffs are receiving additional scrutiny in order to ensure equal treatment.

- Diversity—As a result of political, moral, scientific and social arguments and discussions, governments at all levels are more aware of, and are paying more attention to, issues related to racial, ethnic, and gender disparities. Initiatives in some states have made it illegal to make choices based on any of these factors, undermining "affirmative action" gains of the recent decade.

- Transparency and Accountability—Personnel in all agencies at all levels of government are much more aware of the need for their actions to be transparent to citizens if their departments and agencies are to be accountable to the public. The new emphasis results in more attention to evaluation.

- New Job Classifications—Largely because of the increased use of computers and the Internet, there are many new jobs (as well as elimination of many others) that are fueling a major updating of (if not the complete revision of) government job classification systems, along with related compensation schedules. Achieving comparability across jobs and geographical areas has proven difficult.

- Social Security and Pension Protection—Potential future shortfalls in the U.S. Social Security system threaten many American workers. Debate about whether there is a shortfall and, if so, how to handle it, have affected the political climate, as well as individual attitudes, about retirement and fear of poverty in old age.

- Intergovernmental Relations—There is ongoing debate and discussion about how different levels of government can more effectively relate to one another, and how agencies within a given level of government can complement and support one another for the benefit of all citizens.

Conclusion

As this brief overview of both personnel management and education and training activities in the United States has demonstrated, the U.S. situation can best be characterized as one of great diversity, both in terms of personnel management and education and training activities. That this is the case is hardly surprising to anyone with any knowledge of American government. Few, if any, countries in the world have the same level of decentralization that characterizes U.S. government and politics. That decentralization leads to great decentralization in terms of both

personnel management and education and training. The great benefit of this is that the diversity of the systems produces many different and highly creative responses. The negative side of this is that one can really not speak of a system of personnel or human resource management or a system of education and training. One rather can speak of many systems, sometimes competing and sometimes collaborating.

Management Development in a Turbulent Environment: New Roles and Responsibilities for Schools and Institutes of Administration

Blue Wooldridge *

Many of the public organizations served by the schools and institutes of administration (SIA) that are members of the Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee) and/or the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) operate in a turbulent environment. This turbulence may be caused by changes in economic systems, devolution of government responsibilities, fiscal de-centralization, public sector reform, privatization, changes in residents' demand for services, or the changing demographics of the population and the workforce. Such "turbulence" calls for new roles and responsibilities for those SIAs providing human resources for the public sector. Indeed, these SIAs must develop a "Strategic-Contingency" approach to management education and development.

The "Strategic-Contingency" approach to management training suggests that "*The specific design and delivery of a learning experience effective in achieving the strategic mission and objectives of the client organization should be contingent on the specific learning objectives to be achieved and the anticipated learning styles of the participants*" (Wooldridge, forthcoming). The *strategic* component of this definition stresses that the learning objectives of the training must be related to the strategic mission of the organization from which the training participants came. The *contingency* component stresses that the idea that there is "no one best way". It is, of course, transposed from the organizational theory literature. It also promotes the idea that the design of an effective training experience (including the choice of trainers, the instructional methods/strategies employed, the exercises and assessment methods used), must be *contingent* (depend) upon the learning objectives to be achieved and the anticipated learning styles of the training participants (Wooldridge & Bracey, 1999; Wooldridge, 1988; Wooldridge, 1978).

The first step in this "Strategic-Contingency" approach involves identifying the activities needed to achieve the Strategic Mission of the organization. This step obviously requires that the faculty of SIAs ensure that their client organizations have implemented a well thought out Strategic Planning process. At the heart of this process is the task of strategic planning, which may be defined as:

1) "a systematic process by which an (organization anticipates and plans for its future" (Gordon, 1993, p. 1).

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2) "a disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions that shape and guide what an organization is, what it does, and why it does it" (Bryson, 1995, p. 5).

3) being "vitally concerned with the intersection of an organization with its environment and with the creation and maintenance of a dynamic balance between the two, ensuring that the fullest feasible use is made of actual and potential organizational resources in taking advantages of environmental opportunities and repulsing threats" (Dodge & Eadie, 1982, p. 2).

It is important to remember that, unlike some other approaches to training design which stress the importance of planning (Sims, 1993), the "strategic-contingency" model focuses on the strategic planning of the organization(s) from which SIA training participants will originate – *not* the strategic plan of the SIA itself.

Such a process would include the following steps:

Identify stakeholders: Stakeholders are any persons or groups outside the organization that can make a claim on the organization's attention, resources, or output or are affected by the organization's output.

Environmental scan and analysis: This step involves identifying pertinent factors in the environment external to the organization and projecting their future shape and magnitude

Implication analysis: In this step, the public manager/planner assesses the present and the future impact on the organization of the pertinent factors identified above.

Analyze community/organization strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT): Here the organization assesses its major strengths and its major weaknesses and identifies the major opportunities and threats facing the community/organization.

Identification of community/organization needs: Once the implication of the future ends on the organization has been recognized, the future needs of the community/organization can be identified.

Develop a statement of strategic mission: "The mission statement of an organization reflects its essential purpose—its raison d'etre," (Gordon, 1993, p. 23).

Establish and prioritize strategic goals: Now that the mission of the organization has been identified, analysis must be conducted to determine the gap between the condition described by the mission statement and the actual condition in which the organization finds itself. The removal of this gap is articulated in terms of the *strategic goals* of the organization. S*trategic goal*s are defined as the broad aims of the organization, relatively timeless, normally not quantifiable, and reflect the desired "state of nature" sought by the organization's clients, community, etc.

Internal resource audit: This step involves taking stock of the managerial, operational, fiscal, workforce, natural resources and location opportunities of the

organization/community. Assessment should be made of the amount of financial and personal resources available to carry out the chosen strategies; the skills and technologies that can be used; organizational energy and cohesion; the strengths and weaknesses of the organization; and its experiences in implementing similar programs.

Develop strategic objectives: A strategic objective is a precisely defined statement of intended accomplishments quantified to the maximum extent possible, related to the organizations strategic goals. It is specific, rather than general, and specifies the "**what**," "**how much**," and "**when**." *Strategic objectives* identify the intended outcomes including the specific change in the clients, community, and/or residents.

Generate and Analytically Assess Alternatives. Once the strategic objectives have been identified, the next step is to generate a list of possible alternatives for reaching the objectives. Each alternative should be assessed, at a minimum, using Life Cycle, Present Worth Costing Principles; estimating the benefits/effectiveness; analysis for Risk and Uncertainty; and Sensitivity Analysis.

Select the "Best Alternative(s)" Based on this analysis, the organization can identify the "best" alternatives to be used as the organization's strategies for achieving its mission. These strategies form the basis for the rest of the steps in the "Strategic-Contingency Approach to Management Education and Training." The next steps in this approach requires SIA faculty to:

- ❑ Identify specific job performances required by the selected strategies to be necessary to meet the organization's Strategic Mission;
- ❑ Determine the "performance gap" caused by a lack of competencies;
- ❑ For those employees identified in the previous step, identify learner's training needs;
- ❑ Identify behavioral "SMART" learning objectives;
- ❑ Groups learning objectives into useful categorizes;
- ❑ Sequence learning objectives;
- ❑ Select appropriate learning strategies based on level and type of learning objectives;
- ❑ Identify relevant learning styles;
- ❑ Modify learning strategies to respond to learning styles or take corrective action to lessen deficiencies in strategies;
- ❑ Implement learning strategies in the most effective manner;
- ❑ Evaluate Results;

The Turbulent Environment of Client Organizations of U.S. Schools and Institutes of Administration: A case study. In the U.S., there are many forces urging public organizations to change. Citizens are placing increasing demands for more and higher quality services on the public sector at a time when most governments face tighter budgets (Popovich, 1998; Shafritz & Russell, 2000). The US national

government is once again faced with the prospect of deficits for the next few years. Currently in Virginia, a typical case, the governor is faced with a $3.8 billion revenue shortfall, over the next two and one half years. At the same time, the privatization movement has raised the performance stakes in the public sector.

In addition, workers have also forced organizations to change. According to Price & Chen (1995), today's workers are searching for job satisfaction in five areas – salary, accomplishments and regards, learning and challenge, career advancement and enjoyment (p. 115 – 137). As such, the turbulent public sector environment increasingly requires managers to adopt innovate approaches to solve emerging problems (Berman & West, 1998). Agencies also are asking how to bring about dramatic process improvements, organizational culture shifts and agency overhauls in response to increasingly complex environments (Van Wart, 1994, p. 577 – 579). Changes in the demographics of the workforce require new responses from public organizations (Wooldridge, 1994; Wooldridge and Maddox, 1994).

Any strategic plan of US public sector organizations would identify many turbulent factors in their environment. One of the major factors in this "turbulent environment" is what a U.S. National Academy of Public Administration (NAPA) Task Force calls a "transformation of governance." According to NAPA's Priority Issues Task Force (2001), this is, "the most critical issue facing government – and governance" (p. 3). The Task Force suggests this "critical issue" is identified thusly:

> Governance, in the United States and around the world is undergoing a fundamental transformation, in an ever-evolving number of ways. In pursuing their missions, government agencies to a large and growing degree, share responsibility with other governmental agencies and with non-governmental institutions. This transformation is redefining institutional roles and straining the capacities of all those involved in the pursuit of public purpose. Reducing tensions and improving performance requires redefining the role of institutions, building new capacities, and redefining the basic relationships within government and between government and civil society. (p. 2)

The implications of this transformation for Schools and Institutes of Administration in the United States are profound. In a recent issue of *The Journal of Public Affairs Education*, published by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA), Jim Perry states: "The institutions and organizations that public affairs graduates enter are experiencing unprecedented change. Global forces are transforming governance. Information technologies are transforming commerce and communications. Contracting out, outsourcing, privatization, and reinvention are transforming entire public service industries." (2001, p. 209)

However, the NAPA Task Force went on to say:

> The Task Force was concerned that many – indeed perhaps, most – of the nation's schools of public affairs, public administration, and public policy have not adjusted themselves to cope with the transformation well underway in public institutions. As a result the Task Force concluded, future public servants, who will pursue the public interest both within and outside government, might well fail to receive the education they need. (Priority Issues Task Force, 2000, p. 6)

"Adjusting" to cope with this transformation is made even more difficult in the United States because of the extremely decentralized and non-integrated natured of SIAs in this country. As in most things in the US, public management development and training is provided through a multitude of confusing entities, with each of the 50 states (sub-national governments) having its own system. At the national level, the Office of Personnel Management operates a very prestigious residential program for top level administrators (members of the Senior Executive Service) and promising GS 15s, called the Federal Executive Institute (FEI) (similar to the UK's Administrative Staff College).

The FEI is located in Charlottesville, Virginia, approximately 120 km from Washington, D.C. The Office of Personnel Management also has two other residential management development centers – in the states of Colorado and West Virginia. Many federal agencies have their own, specialized training facilitates, and the federal government has training centers located throughout the country to provide short courses. It also provides for federal employees to take courses at colleges and universities (Office of Personnel Management, 2001).

At the state level, it would be impossible to generalize. In the state of Virginia, the Department of Human Resource Management (formerly the Department of Personnel and Training) operates some training courses. There is a Virginia Executive Institute, which offers periodic management development opportunities for top level directors and managers, and the Commonwealth Management Institute, which also provides the same for mid-level managers. Both of these institutes are run by the Center for Public Policy at Virginia Commonwealth University, an institutional member of IASIA.

Academic public management education in the US is mostly at the Master's degree level. For example, for the academic year 2000 – 2001, in U.S. universities there were approximately 8,700 students enrolled at the Bachelor (or first degree) level, 29,300 at the Master of Public Administration level, and 2,900 at the PhD or Doctorate in Public Administration level. More than 10,200 Masters of Public Administration's were granted that year, as were nearly 300 doctorates.

Academic programs providing public administration education can be organized by professional schools, (either public administration, business administration or

policy), in academic departments within schools or colleges – either as a stand-alone department or combined with Political Science or some other discipline or within an Institute (National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration 2001).

One response to the NAPA Task Force's concern as to the adequate preparation of public managers is seen in the increasing preparation of public managers to be competent to face one turbulent factor in their environment – privatization. Privatization has been defined by Savas (2000) as the act of reducing the role of government or increasing the role of the private sector in an activity or in the ownership of assets. Savas goes on to say that privatization means changing from a higher-ranked to a lower-ranked strategy in terms of approaches to service delivery: governmental; intergovernmental agreement; government vending; contracting out; grants, vouchers, franchises, the use of free markets, voluntary provision of goods and services and self-service. It would appear that all privatization strategies are currently being utilized in the US. Grants and subsidies are used more frequently in social service, health, mental health and retardation; and transportation, whereas education agencies use vouchers, and franchises are used by parks and recreation, higher education and social services.

Not surprisingly, privatization of public sector functions has been receiving a great deal of attention recently. Osborne and Gaebler stimulated present trends aimed at changing the role of government in their book; "*Reinventing Government*" (1992). In the book, the authors demand that government be different and emulate some of the efficiencies found in the private sector. They also suggest that it is now up to the public manager to achieve this goal, while not compromising accountability or public trust this is no minor mandate by any account. These trends have put public managers in the limelight and have changed the way government conducts business.

Utilizing private entities to achieve public sector goals is nothing new; however, the extent to which this option is being considered is almost revolutionary. As such, public sector managers will likely face this issue sometime during their career and will either be making the decision to privatize or face private sector competition directly. Three reports on privatization efforts in US state governments were recently reviewed in the *Public Administration Review* (Chi, 1998). In one report, fifteen different agencies in each of the 50 states indicated that they had increased their privatization activities.

In the US, "Contracting out" appears to be the most widely used privatizing strategy. Chi's 1998 survey indicates that it is the most widely used method, with eight out of ten privatization activities are using this method. "When local government contracts out service delivery, government still remains responsible for the finance and provision of the service, but production and delivery are carried out by (others)" (Warner and Hefetz, 2001, p. 2).

The term "*contracting out*" is frequently reserved for those privatization strategies involving contracts with for-profit, or non-profit, or neighborhood groups – although it is recognized that governments also contract with other governments. Analyzing data from the International City/County Management Association's 1997 survey of all counties with a population of more than 25,000 and cities over 10,000, Warner and Hefetz (2001) concluded that approximately 24% of local government services are delivered through contracting out. They also indicate that between 1992 and 1997, approximately 96% of local governments contracted out a new service (p. 13).

Because of the emerging importance of "*contracting out*" as a public sector service delivery strategy, public administration research is currently underway to identify the tasks needed to successfully accomplish this important new responsibility of contemporary U.S. public managers. For example, Savas (2000) suggests that "*contracting out*" can be accomplished through the following twelve steps: 1, Consider the idea of contracting out; 2, Select the service; 3, Conduct a feasibility study; 4, Foster competition; 5, Request expressions of interest or qualifications; 6, Plan the employee transition; 7, Prepare bid specifications; 8, Initiate a public relations campaign; 9, Engage in "managed competition"; 10, Conduct a fair bidding process; 11, Evaluate the bids and award the contract; 12, Monitor, evaluate, and enforce contract performance. Once the tasks necessary to carry out a new (or current) responsibility are identified, efforts, such as a review of the literature, *Delphi* processes, and focus groups of *subject matter experts* can be used to identify the competencies (i.e., knowledge, comprehension, and skills) needed to carry out this activity (Wooldridge and Van Gelder, forthcoming, Wooldridge, 1998). The results of these efforts, integrated into the *Strategic-Contingency* approach to management development and education, would result in new curricula and instructional strategies.

It is important that faculty of SIA begin a dialogue on the competencies needed by public administrations to effectively and efficiently implement the privatization strategy of "contracting out" to for-profit and non-profit organizations and neighborhood groups. Through this process the core competencies required of the modern public administrator will be adequately assessed with regards to the question of outsourcing (Wooldridge, 1999). Only then can the faculty and staff of SIAs meet these new roles and responsibilities in better preparing managers to improve the living conditions of their residents.

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The Role of Non-governmental Organizations in the United States in Delivering Effective Education and Training for Public Administration Reform

Michael Brintnall *

I. Non Governmental Organizations and Public Administration in the United States

Anyone familiar with the public sector in the United States is aware of the growing role played by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in delivering public services, citizen outreach, and other public activities. What is less often recognized, however, is how interdependent the relationship has become between government and NGOs. Training and education initiatives for public service cannot afford to overlook this. Consequently, this paper will examine the relationships between government and non-governmental organizations in the United States, with a particular look at the implications of these relationships for public service education and training.

1) The case of Glen Echo, Maryland

Instructive lessons in public sector – NGO relations turn up almost anywhere one looks in the United States today. Indeed, for this author, a simple, but illustrative case lies close at hand. It may be unusual to begin an academic paper with a report about one's hometown, but in this case it is instructive. This town, Glen Echo, Maryland, lies just outside of Washington DC. It has only 250 residents. On the map it appears to be part of the broader Washington DC metropolitan area and, economically, that is indeed the case. But politically and administratively it is independent and, within modest limits, sovereign. Glen Echo has its own official town government, with powers to pave streets, issue tickets for parking, and carry out other simple municipal tasks. It is too small for other responsibilities, so it is necessary to rely on the larger county government for police protection and schools, on a separate water district for water and sewers, and so forth.

One unusual feature of the town is that inside its boundaries there is national parkland owned by the federal, or national, government and managed by the US National Park Service. This includes some historic buildings and natural land along the Potomac River that the federal government wants to preserve – a site called Glen Echo Park. The National Park Service in turn, however, is eager to share responsibilities and costs. Thus, it has reached an agreement with the State and county government to help renovate the park. And consistent with the theme that introduced this paper, the National Park Service has contracted with an NGO

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to operate the Glen Echo Park – to run a theater for children, organize dances, maintain an old carousel and provide classes for the public in arts and crafts.

What we have in Glen Echo, Maryland, then, is a local government that includes within its boundaries a national government installation that in turn is maintained in partnership with other governments and managed by a nonprofit NGO. This is a perfect example of how NGOs, what are also called non-profit organizations, are richly interconnected with government. One cannot understand or analyze one without understanding the other in the United States.

II. US Public Administration's Education and Training Systems Involve Both Government and NGOs

The interrelationship of NGOs and government is reflected in systems of education and training for public service as well. Most universities in the United States that teach public administration (PA) at the graduate level also offer courses in nonprofit management education, and students often do not decide which direction to follow until they graduate and enter the labor market.

1) Numbers of programs

In US programs for public administration and management, about two-thirds of the graduates go to work for government, most at the state and local levels. But one-sixth instead choose to work in NGOs, both domestic and international. This represents about 2000 students a year entering NGO's with professional masters training in public management, emerging from academic programs that jointly teach government and NGO management.

2) Guidelines for non-profit management education

The National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) has developed guidelines for these programs to be sure that the academic content for degrees that are promoted for one sector or the other are appropriate. (1998) These guidelines acknowledge, among many other things, that, at least in the American context, professional education in public service is incomplete without training in the performance of both sectors.

III. Three Challenges: Effective Training and Education for PA Reform calls for Partnership with NGOs

1) Training to strengthen NGOs

The number and scope of activities addressed by NGOs in the United States has experienced remarkable growth in recent years. These organizations and activities, often called the independent sector, are assuming unparalleled responsibilities for the ways we care for each other and organize our common business as communities, as a nation, and as a global society. How the sector develops and cultivates the leadership and management skills to fulfill this role is a matter of no small importance. (Brintnall)

Cultivation of management and leadership skills is not a new concern for the sector. Creative work has occurred at many levels, and with many audiences in mind, but real challenges also remain. Resource limits, pressures to focus on compelling needs for immediate service delivery, and the often fragmented and inchoate nature of the sector itself have worked against long-term investment in the sector and its capabilities.

Management and leadership training initiatives provide the NGO sector with a tool to build bridges to other sectors – with business, academia, government; across space—between neighborhoods or between nations; and across policy arenas – between health care and criminal justice, or environmental action and faith based action. The independent sector cannot achieve its goals in isolation. Brian O'Connell has recently eloquently shown how civil society is a layering of voluntary and community based organizations and government and business. (1999) And there is much evidence of how intensively these relationships are now a reality. (Weisbrod 1997, 541 – 55)

At the same time, one must take caution in extending the American experience internationally. Keven Quigley, for example, documents the difficulty that US donors have had in transferring US training materials to support the emergence of new NGOs in Central and Eastern Europe. In particular, limitations in knowledge of local circumstances, laws, and political conditions can undercut training efforts. (Quigley 2000, 575)

2) *Training to provide integrated understanding of the sectors*

Few major initiatives of the independent sector stay strictly within bounds of that sector alone. Managers of major projects will almost always have to work closely with government and private sector partners. As Backman et al. put it "strategy in the nonprofit sector must take into account numerous cross-sector relationships." (Backman et al. 2000, 2 – 7) This does not mean necessarily that managers in each sector must learn all the skills of the other (O'Regan and Oster note with some insight that even in the face of increasing levels of cross-sector collaboration in projects, we "find a world in which there are clear divisions of responsibilities across sectors according to comparative advantage." (O'Regan and Oster 2000, 2 – 7)). But it does mean that managers will need to understand how to work across these boundaries in order to make collaborations successful.

Leadership and management initiatives in the independent sector have to prepare principals in the sector for working in this complex multi-sector environment. There are models for doing this from other settings — cross-sector fellowships, new higher education curricula, case teaching methods, and shared work assignments. There is much to achieve and much excitement and creativity in accomplishing it. Salamon think this last goal so preeminent as to question the continued value of stand-alone degree programs for nonprofit management, since the paramount challenge for solving public problems is learning how to manage the complex collaborative relationships among the sectors. (Salamon 1998)

3) NGOs providing training for government officials

One of the most interesting developments in PA education and training in the United States is the growing role of NGOs in providing training and support for government institutions. The National Academy of Public Administration (NAPA) is one of many such organizations. Federal agencies, Congress, state and local governments, and education and philanthropic institutions frequently seek the Academy's assistance in addressing both short-term and long-term challenges –including budgeting and finance, alternative corporate structures, performance measurement, human resources management, information technology, devolution, strategic planning, and managing for results.

The Academy's most distinctive feature is its membership of more than 550 Fellows: current and former Cabinet officers, members of Congress, governors, mayors, legislators, diplomats, business executives, public managers, and scholars. They are the foundation of Academy activities from inception through implementation, serving on project panels and guiding other major endeavors. Fellows elect new members of the Academy each year. The principal criterion for selection is a sustained contribution to the field of public administration through public service or scholarship.

A related organization is the Council for Excellence in Government. The Council is similar to the Academy in concept, but is composed mostly of private sector business people who have previously served in government. It too is private, independent, and nonprofit. In its own words, "In working to improve government performance, the Council draws on its unusual strengths as a convener, catalyst, and communicator. Its membership —men and women who have served at the leadership level in both government and the private sector —is a unique resource. Embodying their experience and insight, Council programs bring together individuals, institutions, and ideas in both sectors to help develop creative leadership and management in government and raise the quality of the dialogue between public and private institutions and individual citizens. Programs often employ innovative concepts and methods tested in the corporate arena, translating them into a government context. The Council seeks practical public-sector reform, enabling government at all levels to produce the kinds of results that Americans increasingly demand."

There are many similar organizations working at federal, state, and local levels, such as the International City-County Manager Association (ICMA), the International Personnel Management Association (IPMA), or the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA). Frequently it is public sector grants to these NGOs that allow them in turn to provide training and consulting support to government. Arguably, the use of nonprofits as training organizations provides independent and fresh perspective and insight into the training process, while the use of government contracting allows for government control and focus on relevant and desired topics.

IV. Coordinating Role of Associations

Finally, one of the most under appreciated roles of NGOs in training and development of the public sector is through the activities of professional associations, such as that represented by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) in the United States, the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) in Brussels, the Network of Schools and Institutes of Administration in Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee), and by practitioner member organizations such as ICMA or the International Union of Local Authorities (IULA).

Such associations provide an on-going training resource for members, and participants, through common sharing of information. Where can practitioners learn best but from each other and from the opportunity to see by example what peers are doing? These associations provide linkages and connections to help public workers identify with their professional responsibilities as well as to their agency employers. This in turn helps to resist corruption and to build a sense of ethics and responsibility to the public.

V. Conclusion

Just as the practice of public service in the United States involves a combined and coordinated role for both government and NGOs, so must education and training support an understanding of this combined effort. As discussed above, there are active efforts in graduate education for public administration to integrate teaching about management in both sectors and to foster a cross-understanding of the work of the two sectors. But this is not the limit of the inter-relationship between the sectors in public service education. NGOs become an important resource for delivering public sector training and education – indeed universities themselves, especially private ones, can be thought of as NGOs. And finally the activities of professional associations, that are NGOs themselves, also become important resources for training and education. As such, they serve as building blocks of democracy and of independent but responsible public service.

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B. European Experiences

The British Civil Service College in Comparative Perspective

Michael Duggett *

In Strasbourg stands the *Centre des Etudes Européennes* and the Strasbourg centre of the *Ecole Nationale d' Administration* (ENA). Here, for six to seven months of every year the young French future elite, the '*Enarques*', selected after tough competition, decamp from their Parisian heartlands and spend some time in the east of their country, on the borders of Germany, in Alsace, where the European Parliament has its seat. The building in which they do so is an old women's prison, elegant, stark, with a gravelled courtyard, carefully manicured trees, a modern glass – and – marble entrance hall and a vast conference room where ex-prime ministers of France like Michel Rocard address the *Enarques* about their experience in government. Strasbourg's civil service training buildings announce a clear purpose. Yet, the institution has no training staff of its own; its teachers come from the University or on the fast train from Paris.

Sunningdale is the single most important location for training the British civil service and for exploring the culture and the trends in how that has happened over the last twenty years. Much of the site of what is now entitled the Civil Service College Directorate of the Centre for Management and Policy Studies (CMPS) (from April 2000) and what has been simply the Civil Service College since 1970 is covered in training or residential blocks. But at the heart of the site is 'Northcote House', a baronial hall, built by coalowners in the century before last and rebuilt by an aircraft manufacturer before falling into the hands of the state. During the 1940s it was inhabited by the Chinese ambassador, escaping the bombs of London, and in the 1950s the Civil Defence College was based there, but in 1970, Edward Heath, a very new Prime Minister, opened it as the Civil Service College as recommended by the Fulton Report.

Strasbourg's facility for ENA is an urban building in an essentially urban location; an assertion of national will, conveying messages of logic and planning, of modernity and a kind of bureaucratic detachment. Prisons carry their own lesson; it is necessary to obey the law. There could hardly be a greater contrast than with Sunningdale. Northcote is an English country house, set amidst a rolling park with a lake. In spring its rhododendrons are superb; in summer its swimming pool rings at night with the sound of civil servants doing lengths.

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It has been in this setting that United Kingdom civil service training has evolved since 1970. Nevertheless, despite its deliberately rural setting and historic-looking exterior, the seat of civil service training in the United Kingdom has moved fast and responsively to national and international trends. Indeed, the Civil Service College experience represents a microcosm of trends in United Kingdom civil service training which fits in terms of recent history into four eras:

- 'professionalisation' in the 1970s
- 'managerialisation' in the 1980s
- 'service-orientation' in the 1990s
- 'modernisation' now.

Each era attempted to give its own answer to the question implicit in the North-cote-Trevelyan Report of 1854: namely, how do you ensure that you have a civil service that is capable of meeting the demands of ministers as elected representatives of society and of that society itself?

The Post-Fulton Civil Service and its College

The ideas that underlay the changes of the 1960s and the 1970s came from the Fulton Report. The Royal Commission chaired by Lord Fulton and set up under the Wilson Labour Government of 1964 – 70 was notable for initiating a number of innovations in the structure of government — the Civil Service Department in particular, as well as the Civil Service College that was set up within it and under its control. The text of the report is famous for its characterisation of generalist civil servants as 'amateurs', and it is not surprising that, in tune with the trained economist that sat in Downing Street, the urge to recast the traditional civil service into a more professional style was made one of the early tasks of the new Civil Service College. This meant, essentially, taking a service whose young recruits had been selected after the Civil Service Selection Board (CSSB) and the Final Selection Board (FSB) — modeled upon the Army's procedures for selecting its officer-class — because of their perceived ability to demonstrate agility of mind, subtlety of drafting, decent interpersonal skills and a complete lack of political bias - and ramming some professional knowledge into them.

The Fulton committee had debated the long-term British prejudice against 'relevant' university training, but it remained the case that although to become a fast-stream official you had to have a 'good degree', there were no advantages in that having been Economics or Law rather than Ancient Greek. Hence, training people to become professional meant, above all, getting them versed in the basics of the social sciences.

The very first Principal of the Civil Service College was a professor of social science. Accordingly, the College had a small research function. Under his aegis young civil servants on training courses would undergo some superficial training in statistics, economics and early management theory, delivered by uncomfortable and out-of-place academics from the nearest university. Since a degree was not

involved, they generally had little impact. Earlier, the College had attempted some serious academic training — a course on 'Economic and Social Administration' run by the college in 1972 consisted of 12 weeks of lectures (including one week's regional visit) at the London centre of the College.

Even now stories abound in the folk-memory of the College of students in rebellion, of bread-rolls hurled at baffled lecturers, of locked doors. The 'long' training course for Administration Trainees was famous for being unpleasant to run and under-appreciated. The mandarin class did not choose to become undergraduates again when there were no career benefits. Unlike their *Enarque* equivalents, there was no series of examinations during or at the end of their training which would determine their future careers and on which a place in one of the prized *grands corps* would hang. They had jobs, they had a post in a department, and they wanted to learn on the job, back in the Private Office or the policy division; not, in their view, from professors again.

Making the generalist civil service professional in the Fulton 'social science' sense has never ceased to be part of the function of the Civil Service College, and to this day it has some excellent people to teach economics and some to teach law. They are the proud maintainers of the Fulton tradition. The neo-academic divisions of the College went into disuse in a later period. The division called 'Policy and Administrative Studies' became a Business Group. However, it is fair to observe that the legacy of Fulton and the very title 'College' has had its impact since, unlike the ENA, the College does employ, as civil servants, 'teaching staff', and over 100 of them. The College has never fully followed the academic route however and has only used an academic terminology for its staff at 'Lecturer' (Senior or Principal) level (never 'Professor').

If one were to ask the question 'why did the Government wish to make its officials proficient in social sciences?' the answer is given by the historical context of the 1960s and early 1970s, when it was seriously believed that the application of social scientific techniques would make the economy grow. Thus the Social Science Research Council, founded in 1965. It is fair to say that the gradual tarnishing of those images, and the emerging triumph of the alternative model coming from across the Atlantic, had by 1979, ensured the success of another way of doing things and another model of what made for an effective civil service. Improving management in government became the theme of the next decade.

The Civil Service Under Mrs. Thatcher

From 1980 onwards, the ideas that drove reform of the civil service could be said to have been as follows:

- a political drive towards a smaller state machine
- an intellectual drive towards flexible management of smaller units
- a financial drive towards a cheaper state

Margaret Thatcher epitomised all of these. Under her Conservative Government, the Civil Service College increasingly began to focus upon 'management training'. To deliver more for less, to treat citizens as customers, to provide value for money, to emulate as far as possible the ground-breaking American companies that demonstrated 'excellence' and to waste not a penny of tax-payers money: all of these characterised the Civil Service College in the 1980s. Training would take the form of focusing upon where officials needed to change their mind-sets.

Illustrative was a major programme during those years called 'The Policy Programme for Managers'. This focussed, as relevant training always does, upon the tension points in the system. Among these were the need to apply the techniques of management training to the policy field, so that 'policy' people, as the British civil service calls them, would not feel left behind by latest developments in policy assessment and evaluation, project management, the use of performance indicators and objectives, benchmarking and how to apply quality techniques in their work. Equally, it was designed to make what the Fulton decade would have called 'professionals', such as economists or engineers or scientists, feel comfortable in the classic civil service roles of writing submissions to Ministers and writing minutes of meetings.

A typical session on a course (1-week, designed for, in civil service jargon, all grades between EO and G7, aimed at the SMDP competencies and delivered five times a year in the Hankey building to 18 officials) would feature Bill St Clair, an Under Secretary from the Treasury, talking about 'The Evaluation of Policy' using the latest Treasury guidance. The Financial Management Initiative inserted permanently into the vocabulary of the civil service a set of behavioural and attitudinal predispositions that are now taken absolutely for granted. This was only partly done through training, but 'the three e's' of economy, efficiency, and effectiveness became deeply ingrained. The Civil Service College research function, for example, was abandoned in the early 1980s, as irrelevant, costly and not necessary for the business.

The literature of change in these years was dominated by the American world of management theory, especially Peters and Waterman and Osborne and Gaebler. Dame Ann Mueller, head of the Management and Personnel Office, which replaced the Civil Service Department, would recommend the 'Excellence' book to her staff and see no disadvantages at all in the management reforms being driven through. The doctrines of 'sticking to your knitting', of 'steering not rowing' and the basic view that 'Government should only do what only Government can do' were spread extremely effectively. Apparently, France was not affected at this time by these ideas in the same way, but in the United Kingdom they went straight into the intellectual bloodstream of a civil service eager *not* to be seen as conservative and resistant to change. Its legitimacy depended upon its being seen to be able to match private sector standards, or at least to be seen to be trying to do so – especially, of course, in the realm of the delivery of services.

The most important reform to the British civil service that occurred during the Thatcher Government spanned both the 1980s and the 1990s. Its main driver was Peter Kemp, a Treasury official who in February 1988 became Permanent Secretary at the Office of the Minister of the Civil Service OMCS – which replaced the Management and Personnel Office and *Next Steps Project Manager*. That a member of the regular Wednesday morning meeting of the Permanent Secretaries should choose so to describe himself as a "project manager" was itself a kind of revolution. 'Is "Must" a word to use to Princes?' someone had once said of the proud mandarins of Whitehall, and now one of them was wilfully choosing to characterise himself in a language (project management) that Whitehall would once have disdained.

The 1990s; Next Steps and Service to Citizens

The Civil Service College was in 1988 a regular, if slightly unorthodox part of the OMCS, itself coming under the Cabinet Office. It had for years been teaching management, and it is not surprising that it leapt at the chance offered by the new dispensation. For under the Next Steps programme, that had been launched after a report written by Sir Robin Ibbs of the Prime Minister's Efficiency Unit, and which was intended to drive further into Whitehall the management mentality and way of working, departments were asked to find candidates for 'agency status'. An Executive Agency was meant to be a smallish slice of a big department with a defined and focussed task, which would be set up with a degree of autonomy, still within the service and the department, but with a Chief Executive, a Framework Document and an agreed set of targets and indicators. Peter Kemp and his dynamic but small team, led by Diana Goldsworthy fanned out through Whitehall asking for candidates, and woe betide the Permanent secretary who had none to offer. For Kemp reported directly to the Prime Minister, and any backsliding would be reported upwards.

The Civil Service College quickly jumped on this band-wagon and became the ninth Executive Agency to be established in 1989. The College had to preach what it practiced. A major training programme was launched to prepare the civil service for the changes underway, and the College felt itself to be part of the wave of change that by 1999 had created 180 agencies and in which 80 per cent of the civil service were employed. Some, such as the Benefits Agency or the Employment Service were huge — the former having over 67,000 staff — but the majority were small and tightly focussed upon delivering war pensions, running Royal Palaces, regulating pesticides or educating forces' children. As the nature of the service changed, so did the training. Particular agencies would require particular training and instead of the bulk of its work consisting of open courses delivered in Sunningdale or the London centre, by 1997 much of the time of College teaching staff was spent out in the agencies as consultants, designing training, helping with human resource problems.

That it remained close to the centre was a difficult trick to pull off. Peter Kemp used to descend upon Sunningdale to pass on his advice, and members of the Next Steps team endlessly spread their message on College programmes. Even after Kemp passed on (the OPSS — Office of Public Service and Science under Richard Mottram replaced the OMCS in 1992) and the focus moved to delivering a new Prime Ministerial message, the Citizen's Charter, from 1991, it remained a key task of the College as an agency to deliver a change of culture and to epitomise that culture in how it worked itself.

By 1996, the College had become entirely self-financing with no central payment from Cabinet Office, raising all its income from charging departments for the training offered to their officials. This very fact changes the relationship — if your 'students' are 'customers' who has the power? It would not be true to say that there was no competition in the College's business, for in some areas of management training, competition indeed existed and exists (with business schools, Cranfield, Henley, etc.). But the necessary focus upon course members as customers (or was it their departments who were the customers? a never-ending and largely fruitless debate) made the College very aware of the need to improve its services. So it provided en-suite accommodation, heated its swimming pool, improved and privatised its food provision and its hotel services, modernised its training facilities and above all asked for endless feedback, on its courses and its facilities. Every wall held a copy of the Civil Service College 'Charter', signed personally by its chief executive, setting out what students could reasonably expect. New areas of college business emerged including, training in facilities services, in customer care, in creative thinking and improving personal impact. The then government needed a civil service that reflected its rhetoric of small steps and concrete improvements, and the Civil Service College did its best to train it.

Modernising Government: the New Labour Government 1997

Just as there remains an element of the Civil Service College's mission left over from the 1970s, so the 1980s and 1990s have inserted a continuing focus upon customer care and managerial efficiency within its work and its training practice. But the arrival of the Labour Government in May 1997 led to further changes within the civil service and its College. It is clear that the intellectual origins of the new Government's drive to modernise the state machine go back to the critique of its inefficiency made in the 1990s by writers like Peter Hennessy and others and to the work of the Constitution Unit under Robert Hazell. Many of these critics did not find fault in the management reforms in the civil service per se but in the policy delivery and constitutional machinery. Indeed the Agency reforms were generally welcomed by the Opposition and not seen as partisan, as shown by the continuing work of many of them. The Charter was renamed 'Service First' but its rebranding did not halt the continuing progress of the Chartermark system, now well inserted into the local government and public services world (hospitals, fire stations, schools have competed regularly for the honour of having such a symbol of service).

The first of the changes regarding the civil service has been the clear sense among the leaders of the service that they have to be seen to be responding to ministerial wishes to modernise the whole structure of the British state. The devolution agenda has moved the College to establish a new (or rather a revived) centre in Scotland, in Edinburgh, and alongside Strathclyde Business School in Glasgow, to capture the market within the Scottish Executive that may no longer wish to journey to Berkshire or even London to be trained in essential civil service skills and techniques. Equally, it is important for the College to be aware of new developments in the devolved administrations. The new Government's desire to spread the message of British Public Administration around the world led to an enhanced role for the international consulting arm of the College. Its focus on the presentation of policy has changed how policy training is done. Sunningdale acted as the host for the autumn 1999 meeting of Permanent Secretaries, chaired by Sir Richard Wilson, Cabinet Secretary and Head of the Home Civil Service. It was there that a major programme of reform was put in place, to drive towards a more diverse and representative service.

However, the modernising government agenda has affected the Civil Service College even more directly. One of the aims of that report, published in 1999, was to make policy-making a more informed process, to use the knowledge resources that the information technology revolution has made available and to 'join-up' government. As part of that process it was decided to appoint a new permanent secretary as Director General of the new Centre for Management and Policy Studies (CMPS) and to incorporate the Civil Service College into the CMPS as a proper part of the Cabinet Office. The Civil Service College was renamed the Civil Service College *Directorate* and as such it ceased to be an Executive Agency in April 2000, one of the first such agencies to 'go back' into its home department. The CMPS was based in Admiralty Arch in London and its vision was to be able to respond to Ministerial and Prime Ministerial requests for information, for evidence bearing on policy choices and for ideas about best practice across government. As such a new policy studies division was set up, and a renewed commitment to research and the involvement of social science expertise in government. The CMPS Director General, Professor Ron Amann, until 1999 the chief executive of the Economic and Social Research Council, the renamed (1965-established) SSRC, took early retirement in the summer of 2002, but CMPS remained as a brand within central government.

Other aspects of the work of the Civil Service College Directorate continue. Mr Ewart Wooldridge, an experienced public sector manager, but not a civil servant, is now the Civil Service College Directorate's Principal (the title as used 1970 – 1989, not Chief Executive as under the Agency). The College still runs, as it did in the 1970s, fast-stream courses on *Parliament, Government and the Civil Service*. It is still necessary for new officials to understand their role alongside ministers, and Parliamentary Questions have not ceased to trouble ministers and require good answers. *Effective Manager 1* is taught to middle managers who are operating in agencies or departments, as in the 1980s. The preparation of action

plans to improve performance is still necessary. *Emotional Intelligence for Senior Managers* is still taught to managers whose success depends on their ability to coordinate the efforts of their staff as part of a team, as in the 1990s. There were 450 open programmes in the Prospectus, and 31,000 students passed through the doors in 2000.

Conclusion

The initial comparison of the Civil Service College and civil service training in the United Kingdom with the ENA and its sister bodies in France was meant to help illustrate certain key things about the British approach to training. It is non-elitist, brief in duration, vocational in style, contemporary in content, with little emphasis on law, delivered by professional trainers rather than academics, businesslike, set in real-cost context and aimed at modest but real improvement in performance. The British emphasis on training on the job is distinct from the French style. Not only the ENA, but also the *Instituts Régionaux d'Administrations* all over France, set up to train regional *fonctionnaires*, make their main job to be initial pre-entry training. There is a new tradition of *formation permanente* in France.

Products of the Civil Service College do not go on to dominate the political class; it never has and probably never will produce among its 'graduates' a United Kingdom Head of State, like M. Chirac in France, himself an *Enarque*. It is not entirely impossible that a civil servant could cross the divide and become a politician, an MP, a Minister and eventually a Prime Minister (like M. Jospin in France) but the odds are against it.

There should be no claim that the Civil Service College is as central to the British state as is the ENA, for good or ill, in France. M. Le Bris (Director of ENA 1995 – 2000) was able to command the columns of *Le Monde*. In September 2000, the appointment of the new director of ENA, Madame Marie-Françoise Bechtel, was announced on page 11 of that establishment journal. She was the first woman and the first to have been an 'internal' *concours* (entry exam) student (in other words an experienced civil servant not a new graduate) to head the school; the latter point being regarded with more interest and surprise than the former. The position of the ENA is regularly debated. (In the winter of 2002 Madame Bechtel was replaced by a new official, Monsieur Antoine Burlemann, closer to the thinking of the new government.) There are jokes reflecting the mix of resentment and respect in which it is held. On its 50th anniversary, the French post office issued a stamp to commemorate the fact, which will not happen in Britain in 2020 for the College. In the UK, the political class and the administrative classes are quite distinct. For innumerable historic and constitutional reasons, in France they are much more permeable.

However, it is arguable that the Civil Service College (now Directorate) is always in some ways close to the heart of the type of civil service that any government wants. Successive Prime Ministers, from Wilson to Thatcher to Major and on to Blair, have sought to use it to reshape the civil service so as to make

it responsive to the wishes and preferences of the government of the day. Seated in a country house, it has nonetheless felt the wind of change from Whitehall, whenever it has blown.

The initial question stated in the title of this brief account was about the definition of the customer. It is clear that in France the ENA defines the customer as the State, l'Etat, for whom it exists to produce an excellent elite, much as the Indian Staff academy at Mussoorie does for India. The Civil Service College also serves the Government and its staff, but in the usual pragmatic British fashion no director of it would conceptualise their job as serving the state – it would be in terms of being the manager of "Europe's leading provider of training and development for public sector managers which cover the skills and knowledge that public servants need to meet the challenges of improving delivery in the 21st century." But that is still not an entirely *modest* mission.

Delivering Effective Education and Training for Public Administration Reform: The Case of Poland

Barbara Kudrycka *

Introduction

Poland was the first former communist country in Central or Eastern Europe to take measures to reform its public sector. The first set of reforms dealt with the establishment of democratic procedures for the operation of state organs, the establishment of local self-government and the creation of a constitutional Bill of Rights. The second stage of reforms dealt with decentralization, the reform of social security, the health services and the educational system. These reforms were introduced in the late nineties and they created a new system for the delivery of public services. Political change, changes in the delivery of public services, as well as the process of European integration for Poland resulted in a new set of expectations from, and duties of, public servants.

In this situation, the old model of a public servant characterised by subordination alone is obsolete. As Demetrios Arggyriades notes, the new public servant is an antithesis of the old stereotype of a public servant that is self-righteous, pedantic and concerned with formalistic issues – so well described by Dickens, Balzac and Gogol. The new public servant is a good manager; a sensitive, proactive person interested in an effective way of achieving results, friendly towards citizens and capable of adaptation to new expectations and demands[1]. The new system of education and training developed in Poland after 1990 is designed to "produce" that type of public servant.

In describing the Polish public institutions supporting the education and training of public administrators, one should note the differences between educational services and training. Responsibility for supporting educational services to prepare for work in public administration and the support of training are vested in different administrative agencies. These differences have legal implications such as the legal status of the providers, the length of programs, the status of those receiving services and the rights resulting from certificates obtained after completion of programs.

Educational services for those preparing for work in public administration (political science, public sector management) are delivered mostly by institutions

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[1] Demetrios Argyriades, *Governance and Public Administration in the 21st Century: New Trends and Techniques*, General Report on the International Congress of Administrative Sciences, Athens, 9 – 13 July 2001

of higher learning established under statutes enacted by the Sejm (Parliament) in case of Universities or by decision of the Minister of Higher Education in case of other institutions of higher learning. Training on the other hand can be provided by any entity (public or private) which in their bylaws have such an objective or by companies providing such services as a matter of business. Education in departments of Political Science or Public Administration is provided (in principle) through programs lasting three years (leading towards a B.A) or five year programs leading towards an MA or 1 – 2 year postgraduate programs – some of which lead to an MA degree, while others are in a form of postgraduate programs without a degree upon completion. Training on the other hand is usually shorter in duration – typically from one day to two weeks depending on the subject matter. Educational services aim at high school graduates who want to continue their education in fulltime programs or through a variety of extension opportunities provided by degree granting institutions.

The recipients of training are most typically public servants who want to improve their qualifications or acquire some specialised knowledge or skills. In institutions of higher learning, students acquire broad general knowledge and specialised knowledge in a chosen field. Thus, they obtain a broad range of knowledge of a theoretical rather than applied nature. After completion of university, graduates have a diploma which entitles them to apply for jobs in public administration requiring that level of education. After completing training, participants obtain certificates attesting to the specialised knowledge (or skill) acquired during particular training. Usually training provides practical rather than theoretical knowledge. Certificates are a proof of completion of training and professional development.

Administrative Organs Supporting Higher Education in the Field of Public Administration

In Poland, education in the field of public administration is provided in three types of institutions of higher learning: universities, other public institutions of higher learning without the status of a university and private institutions of higher learning (established after 1990). It should be noted that after the systemic reforms in Poland, the first private schools, in response to a very high demand, provided education in private sector management. Schools with different profiles emerged later – among them schools of public administration or political science. Presently, 29 private institutions of higher learning provide programs in public administration, political science or social work and only 19 public institutions have corresponding fields of study[2].

The administrative organ responsible for the development of higher learning in Poland is the Ministry of Education (from 1992 Ministry of Education and Sport). The Ministry secures public funding for such institutions and is an organ of supervision and control of their activities. The Ministry has the important power of

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[2]   B. Kudrycka, P. Suwaj, Public Administration Education in Poland, in: *Building Higher Education Programmes in Public Administration in CEE Countries*, EPAN & NISPAcee, Bratislava 2000

recommending to the Parliament as to the establishment of a new university and decision making power as to the establishment and renewal of a licence in case of private institutions as well as establishment of new fields of study. Decisions of the Ministry are in a form of a licence and are based on the recommendation of the State Accreditation Commission (until the year 2000, the General Council of Higher Education).

In Poland, the state is the guarantor of the degrees issued by all institutions of higher learning. Graduates thus obtain a state-sanctioned diploma. The State Accreditation Commission provides a common and binding system of accreditation and provides the Minister with information necessary for policymaking purposes in the field of higher education. Its importance is based on the obligatory process of approval of programs and the power to refuse a license if the applicant does not meet program quality requirements.

In Poland there is also a system of professional accreditation by a variety of professional associations. The Association of Business Education established in 1994 is the first professional group providing for accreditation and it has a large number of schools of management amongst its members. The Association of Education in Public Administration, established in the year 2000, is also preparing to undertake such a task. Accreditation by professional groups is voluntary and usually based on much higher standards than those demanded by the state licensing minima.

The curricula of private schools are designed to prepare graduates for work in public administration. Therefore these programs are delivered by practitioners as well as academics. Although private schools improve the educational performance in Poland, their activities are frequently criticised. It is said that such schools are more interested in profit than in the quality of education. Some argue that the quality of instruction and the infrastructures are inadequate.

On the other hand, private schools are more "flexible" in designing programs and courses to meet the demands of the market. Such schools generally are more open to innovative programs – based on foreign models. Private schools are often smaller and thus may have more efficient administration. Presently, about 1/3 of all students in Poland study in private institutions. Public universities prepare future academics and conduct research and concentrate on preparation of students for work in different professions. This system already seems to be a fairly stable one.

The National School of Public Administration

The National School of Public Administration (KSAP) in Warsaw performs a very important role in preparing individuals for national government administration in Poland. KSAP provides a postgraduate program of 20-month duration. Candidates for admission have to be graduates of an institution of higher learning, not older than 32 and eligible to work in Polish Administration (Polish citizens with full public rights). Admission is on the basis of a four step competitive exam and those who complete the program have a legal duty to work for a minimum period of five years in public administration.

KSAP is established and operates under the authority of an Act of Parliament of 14 of June 1991 and an order of the Prime Minister. These legal instruments provide for program independence, on the one hand, and connection with the Prime Minister who is chief of all of the employees of the state administration.

KSAP admits approximately sixty students a year who succeed in passing the difficult set of examinations. The program is free and students receive a scholarship in the amount of three times the lowest civil service salary. While carefully modelled on similar Western institutions, the annual output of graduates, around 55 per annum, is unlikely to provide the "critical mass" necessary to quickly transform the overall quality and attitudes of the civil service.[3]

KSAP doesn't have its own teaching staff but relies on some 250 highly qualified experts from all over Poland. In addition, students have meetings with prominent politicians, economists and lawyers from both Poland and abroad. During the program students have two internships – domestic and abroad. During the program students have duties similar to those of public servants. It is a very intensive program with very frequent tests. Participation in all lectures and other forms of education is mandatory. On the basis of all results, students are given rankings which can have an impact on types of jobs received.

The National School of Public Administration, in addition to its regular program, also offers a system of in-service training for public servants. In this area the National School competes with the Civil Service Office which also is involved in a wide range of in-service programs for the members of the civil service.

State Agencies Supporting Training Services

In Poland, prior to 1990, there was an Institute for Organisation and Improvement of Cadres. That institution performed the function of co-ordinating training activities throughout Poland for public administration. This Institute was totally financed by the state and had a duty to provide territorial centres with uniform training materials, carry out research on training needs, provide methodological training for regional training directors (2 – 3 times a year), organise national conferences, train managerial cadres for central and territorial administration. The Institute also published a journal "Organisation and Management".

Territorial training centres which were financed totally from the central budget in the past and co-ordinated by the Institute, after 1990 changed their status and now they must be self supporting and generate funds from training activities .Due to financial problems several such training institutions have been closed. Presently such training centres exist only in Szczecin, Gorzow Wielkopolski, Rzeszow, Poznan, Koszalin, Wroclaw, Jelenia Gora, Warszawa, Lublin and Bialystok. These

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[3]   J. Greenwood, B. Kudrycka, *The Unfinished Revolution; Public Administration and Training in Poland in: Serving the State. Global Public Administration Education and Training*, Vol. II, Diversity and Change, (ed. M.R. Davies, J. Greenwood, L. Robins, N. Walkley), Asgate 2000, p. 98.

centres provide entry training for new civil servants on behalf of the Civil Service Office and mostly are financed by the Vojevoda's office (territorial representative of national government). In addition, these centres provide training for police, army, custom officials and local self-government employees. Trainers in these institutions complain that they lack central co-ordination and support in providing them with new knowledge, programs and methodology. Training programs and personnel selection is done on the basis of local initiatives.

The National School of Public Administration (KSAP) in some sense is the inheritor of the Institute but, given its focus upon its longer term programs, it entered the field of training much later and never took upon itself the role of co-ordination of local training centres. After the establishment of the civil service in Poland in 1996, the Civil Service Office also started training programs for the members of the service.

Presently, the Civil Service Office supports training programs for people entering work in central administration and organised by local training centres. The Civil Service Office provides, in Warsaw, different training programs for employees of the central administration approved by the Head of the civil service in competition with KSAP. In 2001, the Civil Service Office started publishing an annual journal "Civil Service". Neither the Civil Service Office nor the National School of Public Administration is considering entering into activities aiming at accreditation and standardisation of training programs for public servants.

Role of Non-Governmental Organisations in the Delivery of Training Programs for Public Administration.

In Poland, the training of bureaucrats of the local self-governments is primarily conducted by non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The www page of NGOs, lists 51 organisations which are associations or foundations – all of them are involved in provision of training. Such training is provided for businesses as well as for public administration. Twenty-six organisations from the above mentioned group provide training for the public sector. In order to "survive" in the market place these organizations must continuously adapt and change their programs to meet the needs and expectations of local self-governments. Some rely on foreign assistance; others create permanent links with local governments.

The main vehicle of local government training has been the Foundation in Support of Local Democracy (FSLD) founded in 1989. Non-political in approach, the Foundation operates through a headquarters in Warsaw and some 17 regional centres. Although its activities include information, advice and consultancy, its main role is training. Its target groups include public servants concerned with local government, employees of the voivods and poviats, local government officials and councillors. Trainers are drawn from a wide range of sources, including universities, overseas experts and local government practitioners.

Training is the Foundation's primary, and systematically expanding, activity. There is a continuous increase of the number of training participants, e.g. in 2000,

73,653 individuals attended 2,733 training programmes. Altogether, the training sessions, conferences and seminars organised by FSLD throughout the 11 years of the Foundation's operation, were attended by more than 450 thousand persons.[4]

Training for local government officials and councillors was, from the beginning of the Foundation, seen as particularly important. Under the legacy inherited from the Communist period, Polish local government staff, accustomed to the superseded command system, were ill-equipped and reluctant to tender advice, while elected members felt inadequately informed to make sound decisions.

The role of local government officials in the Communist period had largely been restricted to implementing directions from the central government, an approach which discourages initiative, goal setting, responsiveness to local opinion and so on. Yet, many of these officials remained in post following the collapse of Communism. With elected members, 50,000 of whom were elected at the first "free" local government elections in 1990, there was similarly little experience of Western – style democratic practice. Thus, both officials and councillors were ill equipped to operate in the new democratic environment.

Training programmes offered under the auspices of the FSLD were primarily focused on facilitating the transition from a centralised socialist system to a market economy with regional and local diversity. While there was heavy emphasis on technical skills – planning, accounting, auditing etc. – issues relevant to post-Communist reconstruction (such as public-private partnerships, encouraging local business, competitive tendering, etc.) were also covered. An early problem, subsequently recognised by the first President of FSLD, was that "no education about local democracy followed' the initial local government reforms. This omission was subsequently addressed by drawing on overseas experience and expertise under foreign aid programmes.

After the second part of public sector reforms in late 90s in Poland, it was clear that changing the existing law, or even transforming the institutions was not enough for local governments to be able to achieve their new goals. It was also necessary to educate staff capable of assuming responsibility for new local affairs.

In 2000, training programmes covering more than 100 subjects were delivered. They constituted the following subject groups: public administration reform, local government and legislation on local government, management of gminas and poviats, planning and strategic development, public procurement, local finance, protection of personal data, gminas as business entities, public utilities, land use, real estate management, environmental protection, organisation of work in the administration, support for entrepreneurship, citizens participation, information and promotion, EU accession, health and safety at work, local election law, education, health care, public welfare, culture and culture education.

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[4]   Annual Report of the Foundation in Support of Local Democracy, 2001, Warsaw FRDL 2001.

FSLD has established four schools of public administration, which are non-government, non-profit institutions of higher education. They are located in Bialystok, Szczecin, Lódz and Kielce. Almost two thousand graduates have received the licentiate degree from these schools and currently more than five thousand people are trained there. These schools are involved in close co-operation, conduct joint research, conduct joint foreign programs, exchange students etc. The Presidents (Rectors) of these institutions, as well as many teachers, are members of the Polish Association for Public Administration Education – which is located at the Bialystok School of Public Administration.

The Association is an NGO with 82 members who are specialists in public administration working in 46 private and public schools throughout all of Poland. Goals of the Association include: development of programs of public administration education, improvement of the quality of education in the field, accreditation of teaching institutions and facilitating the flow of information between academics and practitioners interested in joint research. The Association is a member of Network of Institutes and Schools of Public Administration of Central and Eastern Europe (NISPAcee), the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) and the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPA) as well as in the process of becoming a national section of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences (IIAS), and is a channel of exchange of information between programs abroad and those in Poland.

In evaluating the eleven years period of activities of the FSLD, it should be stressed that during this time the foundation changed from an organisation initiating self-government reforms and conducting training for academics and trainers to an organisation offering original training prepared by professional trainers and involved in the strengthening of professionalism in the training of public servants. The Association is also bringing a "breath of fresh air" into old structures and public institutions.

This success has been possible owing to substantial assistance from various foreign donors. Additionally, the Foundation has conducted numerous programmes of assistance to other countries in Central, Southern and Eastern Europe for which the Polish experience is particularly interesting.

Characteristics of the Training Activities Conducted by NGOs

In Poland, NGOs have become the main vehicle of delivery of educational services for public administration and in particular for local governments. It appears that this is because NGOs are very responsive to the changing needs and expectations of the recipients. In order to remain on the market, and survive the competition, they react quickly to market demands and are competitive both in terms of the "product," as well as in the quality of the services. Of necessity, such organisations must closely monitor needs for in-service programs in public administration and, in particular, by local governments. Such monitoring results in the greater capacity to provide in a timely manner the type of training which is needed by administra-

tion. Also, in many cases, NGOs are politically neutral and are not governed by the will and expectations of the changing political elite - both on the national as well as the local level.

NGOs are judged on the basis of the quality of the training provided. The political neutrality of NGOs allows for a more objective and professional evaluation of public policy and the performance of local and national governments. Political neutrality also creates a climate in which such non-profit organisations can work effectively, and in a friendly manner, with local and national governments regardless of their political stripe. Such organisations, in a manner similar to that of FSLD, are part of a national network and have access to trainers, lecturers and experts throughout all of Poland. Creation of a network of several training centres located in different parts of the country facilitates the logistics of effectively organising training for all local self-governments. This is in contrast to a recent program of training for all poviats financed from EU funds which was supposed to be delivered by a public university (working jointly with an Italian consulting firm) which was cancelled at the last minute and the funds withdrawn because the university did not have the logistical system necessary for the delivery of the program throughout the country.

NGOs often also have a more "mobile" organisation with an adaptive capacity due to their focus on effective means of achieving goals and objectives. Given significant experience in delivering training programs financed by European Community, USAID or World Bank, with strict accounting rules, NGOs have learned to think in cost benefit terms and maintain transparency in both financial and operational terms. Such practices lead to improvements in effectiveness and the sound economic base of their activities. In addition, administrative staff and trainers in NGOs are employed on short-term contracts, or contracts for service, which leads to an increase in motivation and often higher standards of performance.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it should be noted that teaching public administration comes closest to teaching participatory democracy or co-governance by citizens. It is therefore a positive development that NGOs and private institutions of higher learning have joined with the public sector to participate in this endeavour. There are important roles for both the public and the private sectors. Development and participation in provision of educational services by both sectors in Poland has lead not only to increased competition among such entities but also to functional integration between public and private entities, their growing collaboration and increased learning one from another.

A Strategy for Education and Training in Public Administration in the Framework of Decentralization and Public Sector Modernization in the Slovak Republic

Gejza Petrík *

The Ministry of the Interior of the Slovak Republic, in cooperation with the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic, developed the Concept Paper for Education in Public Administration, which was approved by the Government of the Slovak Republic on 23rd August 2000. This plan follows the Strategy of Public Administration Reform and the concept of the decentralization and the modernization of public administration approved at the Slovak Republic Government meeting in April 2000.

The principal aim of the concept paper, and the system of lifelong education in public administration proposed in it, is to provide for the preparation of human resources in public administration in order to realize the aims of the Government of the Slovak Republic with regard to the decentralization and modernization of public administration and the entry of Slovakia into the European Union. The methods of achieving this aim include numerous gradual steps to create an effectively functioning system of lifelong education for public employees and the elected representatives of the public.

This concept paper draws upon prior experience in organizing education in public administration, mainly the education strategy approved by the Government of the Slovak Republic in December 1995. It takes into account the knowledge and recommendations of the most developed countries as it responds to new needs connected with the implementation of the concept of decentralization and modernization of public administration, as well as the accession process of the Slovak Republic to the EU. The systematic education of public employees and elected representatives of the public, without which the professional performance of public administrators and public sector reform is impossible, is one of the main goals of this process.

The proposed system of education in public administration is based on the principle of lifelong education. As such, it suggests principles of education, defines target groups of participants, establishes standards for professional preparation prior to entry into public administration and insures further professional education following entry into public service. In professional preparation prior to entry into the public service, it stresses the role of universities and secondary schools in preparing experts for public administration. Continuing education is intended to

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systematically respond to the needs of public administration employees during the whole period of their working activity following their entry into the public sector. It does this by adapting education to the professional preparation needed for performing managerial activities. The aims, as well as the planning, module structure and content of additional education are stressed. This facilitates the differentiation of the scope and content of education for specific employees and the harmonization of their educational needs with the requirements of their employer.

The system of education in public administration contains provisions regarding the education of elected representatives of the territorial self-government (communities and towns, also since 1st January 2002, the self-governing regions), as well as other key target groups (especially managers) which will participate in an important way in the realization of the initial stage of public administration reform. The preparation of specific educational programs for mayors of towns and communities and deputies of municipal and community councils, as well as for elected representatives of regional self-government units, is emphasized. These programs must be organized soon to satisfy the educational needs of newly elected officials and thus help them to successfully fulfill the mission for which they have been given a mandate by their electors.

In keeping with current human resources development practice, the proposal builds upon the principle that education is a sub-system of the system for the development of human resources. Although this sub-system is an important component, the successful realization of the proposed conception for education in public administration calls for a comprehensive approach to personnel management. That is why the concept paper emphasizes that the interaction of education with these areas must be solved systemically and be based upon a long term strategy of developing and managing human resources in public administration.

From the point of view of institutional structure, the conception relies upon the maximum utilization of existing educational institutions. Simultaneously, it relies on drawing upon experience from abroad and assumes that new tasks, especially the systematic education of state administration, top management and employees and elected representatives of territorial self government, will be provided by specialized statutory educational institutions operating on a non-profit basis. In conformity with the principle of utilization of current capacity, some of the present educational institutions can be transformed in this way. Coordination of education in public administration is an important issue. For fulfilling tasks connected with it, the establishment of an Office of Civil and Public Service in the Slovak Republic has been proposed.

One of the main requirements for the realization of the proposed lifelong education system is adequate financing. To achieve this, the conception envisages an obligatory minimum financial commitment for education related to the employees´ wage fund or of a fixed sum per employee. This is similar to methods used abroad, including in the Czech Republic.

Principles and tasks aimed at the gradual implementation of the conception for the provision of education in public administration are reflected in the draft of legislation. In addition, the Government of the Slovak Republic has adopted a decree in which the long-term task of implementation was imposed upon the ministers and the chairpersons of other executive organs of state administration. They are to provide education in public administration in conformity with the decentralization and modernization process.

Concrete tasks with fixed deadlines were imposed upon the various Ministers, jointly or individually, and to the chiefs of the Country's regional offices. The decree also provides for territorial self-government representatives (the President of the Association of Towns and Communities of Slovakia and the President of the Union of Towns of Slovakia) to develop public administration education for territorial self-government and to cooperate with the state administration on the fulfilling of relevant tasks.

The realization of the conception will involve a process influenced by many objective and subjective factors. Recent experience suggests that some aims are being achieved relatively well, others less well, and some, partly and gradually. Of the relatively well achieved aims and tasks, the following can be mentioned:

- The proposed system of education and training of public employees was integrated into the Civil Service Act which was developed by the Ministry of Labor, in cooperation with the Ministry of the Interior. It includes adaptation, functional training, updating qualifications, upgrading qualifications and requalification.

- The Ministry of Education has included a requirement for the compulsory accreditation of education and training programs for public employees and elected representatives in an amendment to a bill on continuing education, which has been passed by the government and submitted to the National Council of the Slovak Republic.

- The Minister of the Interior, in cooperation with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, submitted to the government a proposal to ratify Article 6, Clause 2, of the European Charter of Local Self-government (which has already been ratified by the government and submitted to the National Council of the Slovak Republic for approval).

- The Ministry of the Interior has restructured the status and form of management of the Institute for Public Administration (IPA), with an objective of rebuilding it into a modern school of public administration and a center for a uniform system of education in public administration. Since January 1st, 2002, IPA operates both on funds received from the Ministry of the Interior and on a fee for service basis.

As regards those objectives carried out with certain difficulties, the following can be noted:

- The requirements for the further education of employees and elected representatives of territorial self-government have only partially been integrated into current Acts (the amendment of the Act on Municipal Establishment and the Act on Regional Self-government Units). The intention of the conception is that education and the upgrading of the qualifications of employees of communities, mayors, lord mayors and chairmen of self-governing regions be formally made a part of their duties.

- The non-acceptance of the proposal to establish an Office of Civil and Public Service as the central organ for the control and coordination of education for all public employees. The Act of Civil Service does create an Office of Civil Service but it only has the authority to oversee the continuing education of the civil service.

- Only partial acceptance of provisions for developing a long term strategy of management and human resource development in public administration. This original objective (to be carried out by the Ministry of Labor in cooperation with the proposed Office of Civil and Public Service) was reduced to working out principles of personnel planning and management in the state government.

- The failure to accept the proposal to include with in the Amendment of the Act on Further Education the duty of state financed organizations, and organizations jointly financed by the state and from fees for service, and of municipal and regional self-government units (after their establishment) to allocate in their budgets at least 1% of the total paid wage fund from the previous year for further education of their employees in order to be able to carry out the tasks devolved from the state administration

This latter proposal is derived from an analysis of expenditures for educating public employees in 1999, which was submitted to the government by the Ministries of Interior and Education in August 1999. This analysis found that the ratio of expenditures for the education of employees of the state administration to the total salaries paid in 1999 represented 3.13%. For the education of employees of selected towns and communities, it was 1.31%. The results of this analysis have confirmed the logic of the proposal submitted to the government. However, as of now, this objective of the conception has not been implemented because of the negative attitude of the Ministry of Finance.

Conclusion

Despite the fact that not all aspects of implementing the strategic plan have been equally successful, the initial phase of implementing the conception is nearing completion and the next and most decision phase is about to begin. It will involve the implementation of key acts by which requirements for the decentralization of public administration are to be implemented (especially the Act on Regional Self-

government Units and the Act on Transfer of Selected Responsibilities from the Authorities of State Administration to Municipalities and Regional Self-government Units, as well as the amendment to the Act on Municipal Establishment). Most notably in this regards, it will involve implementing human resources policies including requirements regarding education and training (especially the acts on civil service and on public service and the Labor Code). The developers of the strategic plan for education in public administration understand that problems in implementation are always a part of system transition. They are determined to overcome these obstacles and to jointly create conditions for encouraging the realization of the approved strategic plan for education in public administration.

Public Administration Education and Training in the Slovak Republic: Issues and Problems

Stanislav Konečný *

Slovakia is a small country with 5.3 million inhabitants and a abour market for approximately 2 million economically active people. Consequently, the country's small size places some limits on its capacity to carry out training in public administration. For example, there are fewer options available in terms of both types of educational institutions and potential specialisations in public administration than would be the case in other larger countries. That creates an even greater need for high quality public administration training for individuals who have entered government service.

One consequence of this situation was that much of the legislation regarding qualifications for holding particular positions in the public administration was limited to requiring a general degree rather than any more specialized requirements. Moreover, in many cases exceptions were made to these requirements. As a result, individuals occupying the same position may have many different levels of education with, in some cases, comparable positions being occupied by individuals with just a grammar or secondary school education and by individuals who have completed doctoral studies.

There has also been considerable latitude in terms of required subject matter expertise mainly in area where capacities of specialised schools have not been sufficient. One example is the area of social work, where this specialisation was offered for the first time at the Bachelor's or Master's level at the beginning of the nineties. The lack of experts resulted in having employees in this field of activity with degrees in veterinary education and natural sciences. Furthermore, it has been quite common that such positions are held by economists and graduates in the humanities.

During the nineties, the first specialised study in public administration emerged at Slovak universities. These new programs can be divided into more specific areas, as for example traditional "Public Administration" (being offered for example at the Public Administration Faculty of the P.J. Šafárik University in Košice; the Bachelor's Degree is also being offered at the Faculty of Socio-economic Relations of the Trenčín University) and more specialised programs with an orientation to public administration and economics (for example, Public Economics and Administration at the Faculty of Economy of the Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica); geography and public administration (by the Faculty of Natural Sciences of the Comenius University in Bratislava) and on the management of public administration and regions (at the Faculty of Humanities and Natural Sciences of the Prešov

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University). But these new programs can only cover a fraction of the needs of the Slovak public sector. On the other hand, the graduates of these programs do have sufficient room for mobility even within the limited Slovak labour market.

Secondary education with specialisation in public administration is being offered in Slovakia only in the form of post-secondary certificate education – the two-year study of public administration – organised by some of the business academies[1]. Hence, the vast majority of the public administration employees, *before entering* the public administration, still continues to go through many different departments at various universities (especially law and economic studies, but also some technical and humanity studies) or at secondary schools (especially Gymnasium/High School or Business Academy). Consequently, they do not acquire any, or at the least only a very limited, knowledge regarding public administration and this is insufficient to cope with the administrative activities that play a key role in the operations of public employees.

Therefore, it is necessary to concentrate efforts on employee training *after* individuals enter the public administration. The expectations are that such training should:

- represent the specialisation phase of the whole public administration education and training, and

- at least partially compensate for the practical impact of the liberal approach taken to the fulfilment of the education qualification requirements before entering the public administration,

but the reality is different, mainly on a level of self-government.

Local self-government (the self-government of towns and municipalities) has a relatively short history in Slovakia but it has influenced public administration training in the country. After decades of a centralised, hierarchical model of unified public administration, the benefits of a somewhat unified system of public administration have been eliminated along with the negative aspects of statism and centralism, at the beginning of the nineties. In 1990, the self-government of towns and municipalities was established as the basis of a democratic, decentralised, but also dual model of public administration, where the local self-government organs (both legislative and executive) were completely separated from the state administration bodies in their competence and accountability.

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[1] As regards the question of whether the public administration structure in Slovakia is suitable in terms of the proportion of public administration employees with secondary or university education, a comprehensive statistic is missing. However, within the District Offices of the local state administration in 2000, 38.2% of the employees did have a university degree and 56.2% of the employees had full secondary education (the rest were employees with only a basic education). This gives a picture of a higher educational level attainment by the Slovak public administration that compares favourably with several West European countries. On the other hand, this higher level of education is relevant given the complicated, not perfect and always changing Slovak legislation, which often requires enormous efforts from the Slovak public administration employees.

It is doubtful whether such a small country as Slovakia can afford a duplicity of structures with parallel operating local state administration (presently, eight Regional Offices and 79 District Offices of the local state administration) and additional local and regional self-governments (from January 1, 2002, there have been eight Regional Self-government Units with almost conterminous territory as the Regional Offices and approximately 2,860 towns and municipalities, all of them, apart of the two largest, having the same duties, regardless of whether there are seven or 150,000 inhabitants...). Towns and municipalities, after becoming self-governed, have found themselves on one hand carrying out the competencies of self-government – their so-called original competencies, on the other hand, they have been charged with some of the goals of the state administration.

The question of whether the self-governments of the towns and municipalities posses a public legal or private legal character is often answered by our leading experts that, in a sense, they have a "mixed character". This means that the towns and municipalities can act within their original competencies in such manner as is not forbidden by law. However, there is no comprehensive system of training and education for those involved in the self-government of towns and municipalities – either for their elected representatives or their employees. Though there is specialised legislation on the role and remuneration of the lord mayors and city mayors, there is no obligation for them to go through any training.

Currently, the training of representatives of the local self-governments is very occasional and non-systematic in character. As a matter of fact, there is practically no training for the over thirty thousand deputies of the municipal and local authorities. Among the 2,860 city mayors and lord mayors, there are only a few who really do care about training. The more than twenty thousand employees of the authorities in towns and municipalities receive training only about the new legislation on local self-government. Since approximately 1994, the Foundation for Training in Self – Government, founded by the Association of Towns and Municipalities of Slovakia, has started to play a key role in developing training for these target groups. Together with its network of 11 regional training centres, established thanks to funding by the PHARE programmes, the Foundation has created a basic organisational network for the training of the representatives of the local self-government. This role belongs to the regional training centres, most of which are involved in inter-municipal co-operation. The towns and municipalities of a given region finance the training activities of their employees and mayors by means of membership fees as a joint venture. In addition, various other training activities are being offered to the towns and municipalities by some other specialised state training institutions (for example, IROMAR Banská Bystrica), as well as by NGOs (for example, ORE Bratislava).[2]

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[2]   It is not possible to analyze the training needs of the elected representatives and employees of the self-government regions (Regional Self-government Units), as these have only recently been created.

As regards the training of the employees of the state administration following their having *entered* the public administration, it is necessary to draw a distinction between the training of the employees of the central bodies of the state administration (ministries and other agencies) and the training of the employees of the local state administration (at present, the Regional and District Offices). There is no generally binding legal regulation regarding the training of the employees of the central bodies that requires detailed training requirements. On the other hand, the employees of the central state bodies usually have a higher level education with relevant subject matter expertise that has been undertaken before entering public employment. Some of the ministries do have a relatively regular system of employee training (most often language training in English).

The only comprehensive training system within Slovak public administration is the training of the employees of the Regional and District Offices of the local state administration. This training is mandatory according to the provisions of Law No. 222/1996 for all employees of these offices who independently execute professional and managerial activities. It is made operational under the provisions of the Government's Decree No. 157/1997, where the material conditions, and the content of training, are set in a inked-up form of first, Adaptation Introductory Study and then, Adaptation Preparation Study.

Newly recruited employees go through the Adaptation Introductory Study within three months from beginning their job. They acquire by means of self-study of standardised textbooks, the basic knowledge of structure and organisation of the state, organisation of the local state administration and territorial self-government, legal provisions and their power and the legal protection of data within information systems. They also study administrative procedures and administrative fees, official procedures in dealing with the agenda (according to job descriptions), accountability for any damage caused by the incorrect decision of a state administration body, technical terms and concepts in the area of public administration, Registry and Office Order, etc. An integral part and, at the same time, an output of the Adaptation Introductory Study should be the ability of the employee at its completion to be fully operational in executing the activities within his or her own job description. This study is concluded by an interview with the employee's immediate superior.

Within two years of *entering* a public administration job, the employee should pass Adaptation Preparatory Study, but because of capacity reasons it is not always possible to keep this deadline. The Adaptation Preparatory Study is carried out throughout a year-long period and consists of the following parts:

- General Theory – identical for all employees, lasting five working days (plus three more days for employees in managerial positions, focused especially on managerial aspects) and including basic knowledge of constitutional, administrative, civil business, financial and labour law; control in state administration; economics of public administration; economics and administration of territo-

rial units; public administration management; state policy in the area of EU integration of the Slovak Republic, etc.

- Specialised Theory – differentiated according to the 23 different fields of activity executed by the Regional and District Offices (Defence, General Internal Administration, Entrepreneurship, Consumer Protection, Fire Protection, Civil Defence, Environment Protection and Development, Finances/Prices and State Property, Agriculture, Forestry and Hunting, Landscaping, State Veterinary Care, Transport and Roads, Social Affairs, Health Care, Education, Youth and Sports, Culture, Cadastre of Real Estates, Regional Development Strategy, Control, Informatics, Personnel Activities and Remuneration, Administration of the Office Register, and Archive Keeping). It lasts for three to ten days and the content for the individual fields of activities has been set by the relevant line ministry: the crucial point is the acquiring of detailed knowledge of legal provisions ruling the given field of activity and capability to apply them in practise.

- Practical Training – takes place directly on the job, lasting a minimum of two months, during which the employee is coached by his immediate superior, independently carries out tasks related to his position, and utilizes the knowledge acquired during the theory parts of the study.

- Closing Seminar – a one day event during which the participants in small groups present the acquired theoretical knowledge, as well as practical skills, with highly experienced experts from the relevant ministry serving as facilitators. Based on participation in all three parts, the Head of the Regional or District Office decides upon fulfilment of special qualification requirements of the employee. In 2002, passing the Adaptation Preparatory Study became for public administration employees in the given positions a prerequisite for transition into the position of civil servants.

The above mentioned law also establishes an obligation of the Ministry of Interior to arrange for the professional training of the employees of the Regional and District Offices in co-operation with the relevant line ministries. The Ministry of Interior carries out this task through the Institute for Public Administration – a state contributory organisation. Each year the Ministry signs a contract with the Institute, stating the scope of training activities for the Regional and District Offices that has been agreed upon by the Ministry and the Institute. The training of these employees is free of charge (financed from the state budget through the Ministry of Interior). Regional and District Offices only have to fund the transport, accommodation and catering of their employees during the training. According to the provisions of the Government's Decree, the Institute is to be the centre of the unified system of training in public administration. The Institute publishes textbooks for Adaptation Introductory and Preparatory Study. In addition, Adaptation Preparatory Study is being carried out by the Institute in co-operation with other ministries' training institutions.

The Institute for Public Administration (IPA) also offers to employees of the local state administrations other training activities, especially professional seminars on new legislation, courses of controlling, archive keeping etc., both for the state administration and local self-government. Most of these courses or seminars are financed in the same way as the Adaptation Preparatory Study. However, some of them are being paid for by the participants (Regional and District Offices). As the Institute is a non-profit organisation, its fees are considerably lower than some other training institutions. However, besides the IPA, similar training activities are being offered by training institutions of the other line ministries (for example Agroinštitút Nitra – Ministry of Agriculture, Institute for Education and Training of the Employees in Forestry and Management of Water Supplies – Ministry of Agriculture, Institute for Training of Veterinary Doctors – Ministry of Agriculture, Institute for Training and Services – Ministry of Construction and Regional Development, Slovak Environmental Agency –Ministry of Environment, Training Centre – Ministry of Finance, Slovak Post-Graduate Academy of Medicine – Ministry of Health, Academia Istropolitana – Ministry of Education, Training and Technical Institute of Civil Defence – Ministry of Interior, Institute of Foreign Trade and Training – Ministry of Economy, etc.). Some training is also offered by groups such as civil associations (Academy of Education, Academia Istropolitana Nova), Foundations (City University Bratislava Foundation), organisations founded by associations of legal entities (Co-operative Institute for Education, Ltd. – Slovak Union of Consumers Co-operatives, House of Technique, Ltd. – Union of Scientific–Technical Society) and others.

Non-governmental Organizations and the Education and Training of Civil Servants in Georgia

Mzia Mikeladze *

Introduction

At independence in April 1991, Georgia appeared to be one country among those in the former Soviet Union (FSU) with good preconditions to make a successful transition to a democratic market economy. It had a highly educated labor force, a long tradition of entrepreneurship, a substantial underground economy (which indicated that some market mechanisms, and market-oriented behaviors were, to some extent, already in place), a prosperous agricultural sector and substantial natural resources. Its location made it a primary transit corridor in the Caucasus. Despite these strengths Georgia experienced one of the most painful transitions in the FSU. The reasons are both external and internal [World Bank, 1998].

The Georgian education sector was one of the few sectors that did not collapse during the period of post-independence civil wars and social unrest. Generally, education is one of the most important public services supplied by the government. It is not just government "spending." Rather, it is a medium – to long-term investment in human capital. This investment, if executed consciously and continuously for a sufficient period of time, pays off. In Georgia, the system of education continued to perform its basic function in a very difficult environment, with few resources and scant government support. The quality of that education, however, diminished considerably [UNDP, 1999]. There were several major reasons for the decline of the educational system:

- ♦ Lack of money
- ♦ Absence of a national educational and training strategy
- ♦ Shortage of well-educated faculties with modern and updated knowledge, corresponding to the changed conditions and environment
- ♦ Absence of modern textbooks, teaching and methodological materials
- ♦ Terminological chaos in the newly introduced disciplines that had direct connections to the quality of teaching.

The education and training of civil servants has not been an exception. It has faced all of the problems noted above. In December 1997, the Parliament of Georgia enacted a new Law on Public Service that, among other things, specified that personnel of public agencies be appointed on the basis of "merit" or "competence." This requirement helped put the formation of quality educational institutions for public administrators on the agenda, strengthening existing institutions and spurring the introduction of new ones. It also became evident that non-governmental

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organizations could play a significant role in the education and training of civil servants.

Development of Non-Governmental Organizations in Georgia

Non-governmental organizations in Georgia might be conditionally divided into three types:

1. Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) that are successors of public organizations from the Soviet period;
2. New NGOs that were introduced after the collapse of the SU;
3. Religious organizations.

The first group of NGOs involves the professional unions that were an important and specific element of the Soviet political system. In the changed environment they do not fulfill the mission of ideological support for the political system. Indeed, they have lost the material privileges that they used to have. These NGOs need to transform themselves, find new functions and new rules of actions in the changed circumstances. However, often organizational and psychological inertia create barriers and do not allow these NGOs to find their proper place in the changed environment. Some of these organizations still are subsidized by the state. Consequently, they are in a questionable status – they are not the true nongovernmental organizations and, at the same time, they have lost their role in the governmental structures.

The second group of NGOs was first introduced during the wave of perestroika liberalization in 1988 – 89 based on private initiative (Movement of Greens; Democratic Elections in Georgia; Tbilisi Political Club; etc). It was a time of extensive political activities and these first organizations were mainly involved in the political struggle for independence.

The first nonpolitical party related organizations were introduced in 1992 (The Caucasus Institute, The Institute of Peace, Democracy and Development; etc). 1994 and 1997 appeared to be the turning points in the development of such organizations as the new Law on NGOs and new Civil Code were adopted correspondingly. They unexpectedly created a strong stimulus for the introduction of more new NGOs. Since then, the Ministry of Justice, and regional courts, have registered several thousand NGOs. Among them several hundreds are really active. The international foundations play a very important role as they financially support these NGOs. Among such foundations are: Open Society – Georgia Foundation (part of the Soros Foundation), Eurasia Foundation (which is financed by the US government), American Foundation ISAR-Georgia which was transformed to the Georgian Foundation in 1997, TACIS Program of Democracy (EU program), and the Friedrich Ebert Foundation (Germany). In 1997, the charity foundation "Cartu" was introduced that created the hope that Georgian business would provide support to the NGO sector.

NGOs are very active in the areas of environmental protection, human rights, civic education, civil society development, developing of the legal basis for democratic reforms, conflict resolution, social and humanitarian aid, problems of youth and women, etc. One strong feature of such NGOs is their attempt to consolidate their activities and establish partnerships with each other. NGOs also are quite active in their relationships with government authorities. As a result, the government pays attention to such organizations, takes into consideration their opinions and involves them in various discussions, meetings, development of different documents, legislation, etc.

The general limitations of NGOs include their concentration in Tbilisi, the capital city of Georgia (however the tendency for the introduction of NGOs in different regions of Georgia has grown), their somewhat elite character (NGOs became a strong source for the employment of the younger generation which restricts the involvement of wider social layers of the society) and their financial dependence on external sources. Unfortunately, so far, Georgia hasn't managed to develop neighborhood and community organizations and is just starting to formulate interest groups.

The majority of religious organizations, similar to the NGOs of the first group, do not consider themselves as the part of the civil society and don't even perceive themselves as non-governmental organizations. Despite that, several religious groups were officially registered. The relationship between them and the state, and also between the major religious groups and other organizations, should be clarified and the Law on Religion should be adopted [G. Nodia, 1998].

General Description of Educational NGOs

In the opinion of experts in education, and representatives of the third sector, the results of the education reforms, which began in 1995, could be improved by:

- the active support of educational reforms by NGOs;
- timely and widespread reporting about the problems of the educational system to the society;
- engagement of the society in the formation of educational policy and strategy – especially through the involvement of the third sector;
- active participation of NGOs in creation of mechanisms against corruption;
- development of recommendations for the efficient functioning of the educational system.

The major characteristics of NGOs working in the field of education are presented below. These were revealed by the Foundation Horizonti as a result of an analysis of educational non-governmental organizations in 1999 [Horizonti, 2000]. The analysis focused on several major concerns:

Table 1
Legal Status of NGOs Working in Education
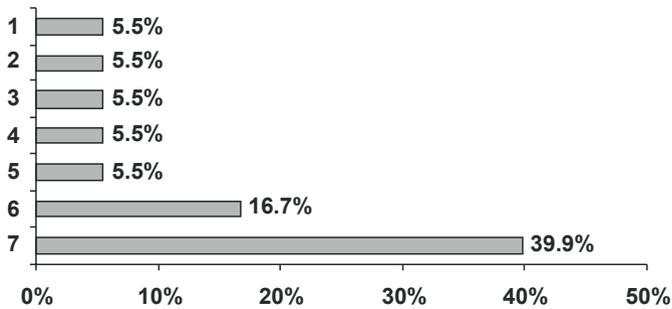
1. Information centers; **2.** Not-for-profit foundations; **3.** Members of international organizations; **4.** Members of union functioning within the country; **5.** Branches of international organizations; **6.** Groups of professionals; **7.** Local citizen's associations.

In 1997, 40% of the surveyed organizations working in the field of education were local citizen's associations, 16.7 % of them were groups of professionals, 5.5% – members of unions functioning within the country; 5.5% – not-for-profit foundations, 5.5% – members of international organizations and 5.5% - information centers.

Table 2
The Sources of Financing of Educational NGOs
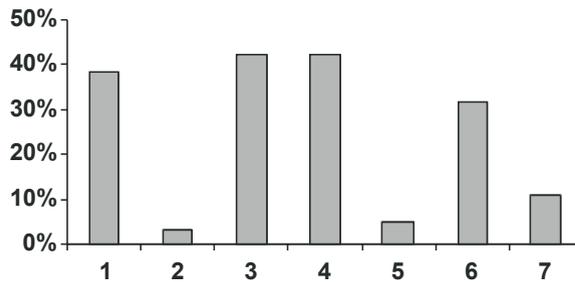
1. Membership dues; 2. Personal donations; 3. Foreign grants; 4. Grants of ISAR-Georgia; 5. Governmental grants; 6. Self-financing; 7. Local business donations.

Table 3
Fields of Activities of Educational NGOs
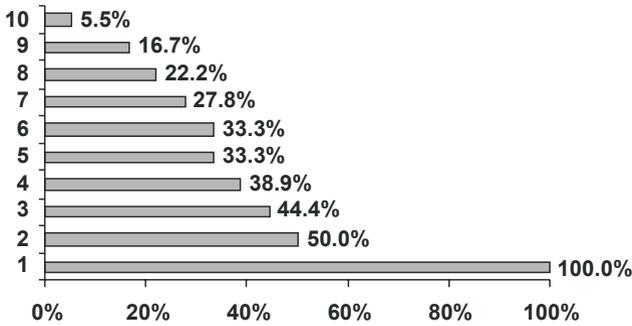
1. Education; 2. Culture; 3. Youth/children issues; 4. Social sphere; 5. Environment; 6. Health care; 7. Charity; 8. Sport; 9. Legislative reforms; 10. Trade unions.

Table 4
Forms of Activities of Educational NGOs
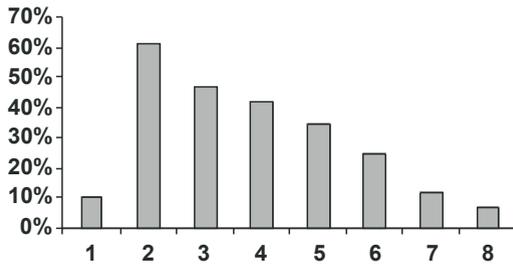
1. Education/training. 2. Cooperation with organizations. 3. Exchange of information. 4. Scientific research. 5. Public examination. 6. Lobbying/lawmaking. 7. Actions of protest/other actions. 8. Defense of scientists' rights.

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Table 5
Relationship between the NGOs and the Public Sector and the Media
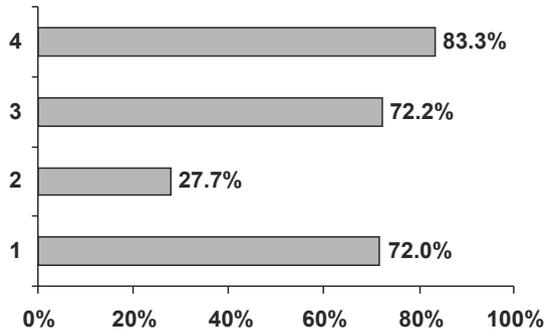
1. Educational NGOs maintain a relationship with central government; 2. Cooperate with local administrative bodies; 3. Cooperate with other public agencies; 4. Relationship with the media.

Educational NGOs consider the following factors as disturbing and limiting of their activities:

- political and economic problems of the country;
- red tape in public agencies;
- inefficient relationship with the public agencies, business sector and international organizations;
- lack of coordination between NGOs;
- the social passiveness of the society;
- lack of information about the activities and current conditions of the Third Sector;
- absence of special sources of information for and of NGOs.

Involvement of NGOs in Public Administration Education

The involvement of NGOs in the education and training of public administrators have become especially notable since the end of 1994. The Public Administration College of TACIS (PACT) and Georgian Institute of Public Administration (recently renamed the Georgian Institute of Public Affairs – GIPA) are examples of the first NGOs that were created for the purpose of training civil servants.

The GIPA was founded in 1994, and funded by the US foundations. The School of Public Administration at GIPA provides a graduate level program modeled after that of the Maxwell School of Public Administration at Syracuse University (USA) annually to 30 students. The courses are presented by qualified visiting American

and local Georgian faculties. The professors have both academic experience as well as the practical experience of serving in government at the national and local levels. Such a mix of theory and practice plays a crucial role in preparing students for real and vitally important tasks.

PACT was introduced under TACIS, which supported Georgia's Civil Service Reform and Training Program (TACIS is a European Commission program in support of state reform in Eastern European countries). It started in 1995, and provided in-service training to 1,800 civil servants representing all three branches of government. In 1998, the TACIS program ended. Unfortunately the College was unable to obtain budgetary support from Georgian government, and ceased its existence.

Various other NGOs, including the Strategic Research Center, Young Lawyers and Young Economists Associations, Partners for Democratic Change, Partners – Georgia, with the financial support of mainly international foundations, provide training sessions for civil servants working in all three branches of government. These trainings address the most problematic areas of public administration. For example, in 2000, the United Nations Association of Georgia (UNAG), with the financial support of the Friedrich Ebert Foundation, implemented the project "Developing the Capacity of the Public Relations' Services of Executive Government". The aim of the project was to assess the capabilities of the Georgian executive branch public relations (PR) services and provide recommendations for the improvement of their activities based on relevant international experience.

In most of the executive branch in Georgia, PR services continue to operate under the format typical of Soviet external relations departments – serving as a chancellery to the given agency and the gatekeeper, rather than as an access point to the ministry/agency. The newly adopted Administrative Code of Georgia and its provisions related to the free disclosure of information, demands substantial reorganization of these services. The assessment of PR services in the ministries of Georgia has been conducted, and the German model of government's work with media and society has been analyzed and translated to Georgian in the framework of this project. As a result, corresponding recommendations were developed for an improved framework of PR services at the executive agencies and training sessions for the heads of PR departments were provided. In 2001, such sessions were arranged for local government authorities.

Training of local government officials and staff is another broad area where NGOs are involved. In 1998, Georgia started to reform its local governments. Despite the initial hope that the election of multi-party Councils would help increase the transparency and accountability of local governments, no significant results have been achieved due to two basic reasons:

1. There is still no clear understanding of the essence of local government transparency and accountability. Local government officials endlessly refer to the principle of the "open door" but nobody ever explains what it means;

2. Regional NGOs, media and different interest groups are rather passive. They seem to believe that government should be responsible for transparency and accountability and that they have no power to do anything about it.

These problems lower civic participation in local decision-making and weaken public control over the local governments. This reduces the effectiveness and efficiency of the local governments, undermines the reform processes and provides excellent grounds for corruption.

The NGOs noted earlier, together with Civitas Georgia, provide intensive training for local governments and local councils, officials and staff, NGOs, business and mass media representatives. Training is devoted to the promotion of local government transparency and accountability to the public, also to the discussions of relevant laws and local budgets, the effects of corruption in the context of local finances and the relationships of the legislative and executive branches. In addition, Civitas Georgica conducted training for information officers of local councils of towns with special status in 1998 and published the booklet "Citizen's Guide to Local Elections" in the Armenian, Azerbaijanian and Russian languages. The aim of the booklet was to explain the significance of local elections to ethnic minorities in Georgia, raise their awareness and support the involvement of minorities in the ongoing democratic processes of the country [Civitas Georgica web-site].

Council members were the focus of training provided by the International Center for Civic Culture, Public-Information Center "Alternativa", Partners for Democratic Change, Partners Georgia, and Young Lawyers Association (the subjects of the seminars were the organization of work within councils, the Law on Local Self-Governance, the Law on Status of Local Council Member, the need for outreach and improving constituent relations). The Association of Georgian Local Councils and the Center of Local Self-Government Development conducted training on local budgets and corresponding legislation, transparency of local councils, relationship of local councils and voters. The Center of Strategic Research and Development together with the Young Lawyers Association also held a seminar on local budgets, their functions and principles, on the Laws on Elections and Local Government and Self-Government, on dividing authority and competences among different self-government levels and on the Administrative Code of Georgia. The UN Youth Association addressed the problem of public relations and information publicity in local governments [International Center for Civic Culture, 2001].

In 2000, the auditing company "Audit", with the financial support of the Eurasia Foundation, developed training courses in local government finances and economic development and conducted 22 seminars for city and village council members. In the framework of the same project, the concept of an information center has been introduced and a permanent system of consultancy for councils of different levels has been organized. The Eurasia Foundation also provided financial support to several local NGOs, which conducted meetings and seminars, prepared information bulletins and introduced informational centers in different regions of Georgia. The Georgian Union of Mountain Activities held seminars,

which were devoted to the international policy and legislation of mountains, the Law on Social-economic and Cultural Development of Mountain Regions and the ways of its proper implementation

Conclusion

In conclusion, it should be mentioned that NGOs are a new feature on the Georgian landscape, and their appearance is linked to the profound changes that the country has undergone in recent years. NGOs, providing education and training for public administrators, are financially dependent on the donor community and thus, accountable to them. Diversification of activities, expansion of problem areas covered, and the creation of solid basis for becoming financially self-sustainable are issues that NGOs currently face. Despite that, third sector organizations present active and growing bodies, shaping necessary conditions for the establishment of democratic and "civil" values in the society and for the creation of development tools to build the civilized future of the country.

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C. African, Asian, and Middle Eastern Experiences

Education and Training for Public Administration Reform: An African and South African Perspective

Hendri Kroukamp *

Introduction

International experience has shown that the radical transformation of constitutions often creates fear, uncertainty and panic among citizens. These apprehensions are expressed differently by differently affected communities. South Africa is no exception.

What was learnt during the past seven years regarding the South African transformational process confirms global experiences that public sector transformation and change is a complicated process that needs more than just the generation of creative ideas and the formalising of them in policy documents. It requires a knowledgeable, skilful and dedicated workforce to put ideas into practice. This, in turn, will depend on the quality and appropriateness of the training provided. In this regard, tertiary institutions can play a vital role. Aspects that will be touched upon in this paper are as follows:

- training defined;
- training in the African context;
- a failed legacy set to change;
- training institutions and the needs of the South African public service; and
- the way forward.

I. Training Defined

Klingner (1980:244) defined training as a systematic and planned effort to increase employees' job related skills. According to Nigro and Nigro (1986:312) and Gomez-Mejia (1995:293) the purpose of training is to help employees improve their capacities to contribute to organisational effectiveness. In view of the fact that the participants in the rendering of public services are not necessarily employees, the dictionary explanation of training, which *inter alia* reads as follows, is also appropriate: "To bring to a requisite standard, as of conduct or skill, by protracted and careful instruction" (Funk and Wagnalls 1969:133).

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Training therefore means to instruct and discipline in or for some particular art, profession, occupation, or practice. Although training is sometimes seen as an activity separate from education, international trends and developments reject this distinction which equates training with operational skills development and education with knowledge acquisition. The arguments are based on the assumption that training and education are equally weighted components of a holistic capacity building process that should become the foundation for all programmes for the training and education needs of the public service (McEldowney *et al.* 2000:99).

For purposes of this exposition, the perception of the interrelatedness of training and education will be adopted. The concept of training may furthermore be taken to comprise the following areas: (i) non-formal training which proceeds voluntarily in a planned, but highly adaptable manner in institutions and in areas outside the work situation; (ii) informal training which takes place spontaneously; and (iii) formal training which is planned and undertaken at recognized institutions such as schools, technical institutes and universities (Clapper & Wessels 1997:44). The latter explanation will also be adopted in this exposition.

II. Training in the African Context

It is generally accepted that training is not a miracle cure by which all management and administrative problems can be solved. It is, however, one of the human resource development practices which, in an integrated manner, can be used to obtain meaningful change and renewal. South Africa is in the fortunate position that the lessons to be learnt from independence in the rest of Africa, and globally, are now dramatically evident and South Africa has the opportunity to learn from these experiences. The extent of the public sector today does not only differ from the previous public sector, but essential changes come to the fore when we move towards the Africa context. Apart from the organisational and constitutional changes that took place, public administration *per se* also changed. In this sense, labour relations (see the Labour Relations Act, 1995), personnel administrative practices, management styles and public management practices have changed.

Jones (1990:59) is of the opinion that there is a tendency in African Public Administration to focus primarily on inputs. Claims about vast increases in spending on health, education and housing are often heard, but little is heard about outputs/outcomes achieved in terms of quantity, quality, service and client satisfaction. The author furthermore states that in the public sector the usual reaction is rather to enlarge and multiply failing organizations – whose operations frequently become increasingly costly, sucking in resources and producing only paper, and whose services become more and more irrelevant to the needs of the people.

Jones (1990:60) continues:

> "The immense complexity of maintaining a public sector charged with initiating and managing change would test the abilities of the most supremely competent managers. In the African situation

generally such abilities were scarce at independence. Furthermore, the colonial administrators had themselves never performed their tasks, and were therefore not able to pass on a tradition of dynamic management."

Further general tendencies associated in the African context, which highlights the need for training are:

- a pre-occupation with control rather than service rendering;
- a pursuance of democratic ideals (with demands for delegation, decentralisation, consultation and participation) which often leads to a high degree of centralisation;
- poor human resource management;
- emphasis on certificate qualifications at the expense of experience and proven ability;
- politicising of public services to serve the politicians; and,
- the belief that training will mend everything with the consequential enormous spending on sometimes unnecessary and irrelevant training (Kroukamp 1998: 86).

Kibasomba in Theron and Schwella (2000:85), believes that the African crisis is basically a crisis of scarcity of public and social goods/services ranging from security, healthcare, education and information to good governance. Scarcity of these commodities has created the belief that they are hidden in government and the best way to access them is to join the government service. Training programmes should therefore respond to such appeals for supply-side economics. Attention should be paid to long-term economic growth rather than short-term manipulation of demand. Economic growth requires that productive capacities should be expanded, natural resources be found and developed, productivity be improved, incentives for savings and capital investment be provided and technology through continuing learning, research and development be improved (Dye 1992:254).

The African crisis is, however, extremely complex, caused *inter alia* by the collapse of state organisational capacity. The public sector has therefore lost its fundamental meaning, value and mission. Earlier educational and ethical values describing the public sector and not-for-profit sector as a vocation are practically outdated, as governmental services have become the highest profit-making business opportunity. People no longer join the public sector to generate public goods and services and serve the public interest. The history of post-independent Africa provides evidence that governmental services generate enormous wealth to the few ruling elites – indeed more than any private sector initiative can do. The dynamics of violence, criminality, war, corruption and instability results from the struggle to control or access the governmental system, particularly its resources and monies (Kibasomba in Theron & Schwella 2000:90).

To prevent a recurrence of the abovementioned situation in South Africa, it is therefore necessary to determine whether South Africa is making the same mistakes that were made in the African context.

III. A Failed Legacy Set to Change

Education and training policy has always been a hotly contested area of public policy in South Africa, especially during the apartheid era. Although racial and gender discriminatory policies were central to both education and training systems, a further problem was that the two systems themselves grew apart in ways that are problematic. During the apartheid years, the training system was formed around a number of apprenticeship training courses that mainly equipped young white men to work within an industry. With rapid changes in technology, new methods of work organisation and the shift towards the global market, these apprenticeship courses became an insufficient basis for competition in the new world. When Black learners entered the system after reforms in 1981, there was a tendency for them to get the theory and not the practice – with the result that they are unable to build real competence. While many other developed and developing countries adapted to the global economy, South Africa lagged behind, constrained by the imperative to first resolve its political problems before concentrating on the skills of its workforce (Skilling SA 2001:2 and compare Mokgoro & Cloete 1995:96).

Following major upheavals in the schools and in the labour market in the 1970's, racist training legislation was replaced by the first non-racial law on training in the form of the Manpower Training Act, 1981 (MTA). The immediate post-1994 era saw the introduction of a new dispensation in education and training in South Africa. To ensure quality in training and education, the South African Qualifications Act, 1995 was passed and, in 1996, the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) was established. SAQA is charged with the responsibility of establishing a new National Qualification Framework (NQF) that seeks to merge the separately developed education and training systems into a new unified qualification structure that integrates learning in formal institutions with that in workplaces as well as in the development sector. The NQF therefore encourages lifelong learning and discourages isolated pockets of learning. SAQA has the responsibility for establishing two subsidiary sets of institutions: National Standards Bodies (NSB's) which register the national standards and qualifications, and Education and Training Quality Assurance Bodies (ETQA's) which ensure that the standards set are achieved (Engelbrecht 1999:4 and Mokgoro 2000:5).

With the launch of the Presidential Strategic Leadership Development Program on 23 July 2000, President Thabo Mbeki noted that: "If government is to play a central and leading role in the process of ensuring that our country is not left out of the information society, to avoid technological cumulative slow down which will lead to economic marginalisation, then we need to act urgently on this issue of bringing appropriate skills and training in the public sector". Skills development is therefore one of the major challenges to improve living standards, to increase

productivity levels and to be more competitive on the world market. The need for this is necessitated by the fact that particular provinces in South Africa (Northern Cape, Eastern Cape, KwaZulu Natal, Mpumalanga, and Northwest Province) experience problems such as:

- *Comparatively low skill levels*: highly skilled personnel constitutes 3% of the Public Service (excluding teachers);

- *High levels of unskilled employment in economic services and infrastructure*: these provinces house 65% of the national population, but employ 85% of all provincial employees in public works, transport, local government and agriculture. Two-thirds of these employees are unskilled;

- *Low employment in education relative to population, but a high share of personnel spending in education.* Historically black schools have almost no supporting staff (cleaners, security and clerical workers). Non-educators make up only 11% of employment;

- *Low employment in high-level planning and regulatory functions*: including finance, economic affairs and planning, as there is an inability to attract skills to these areas. This impacts upon the effective management of departments and therefore becomes increasingly costly on the public service; and

- The public service (national and provincial departments – totaling 1,065,997 people) is fairly youthful with 49% of public servants in national departments under the age 30. (Fraser-Moleketi 2000:2)

The needs of the state in building a more skilled public service are clear and training institutions in South Africa should ask themselves whether they are developing the country's human potential in a way that supports the state and develops a better skilled nation.

IV. Training Institutions and the Needs of the South African Public Service

The South African Management and Development Institute (SAMDI) is currently charged with building the capacity of public servants in the work sphere. The assistance of tertiary institutions, however, is necessary to equip potential public servants with relevant skills before they get to the work sphere. In this regard, various efforts were made to establish an informal discussion forum consisting of academics, researchers and practitioners in the field of public administration and related disciplines to promote the transformation of public administration in South Africa.

An example of that is the New Public Administration Initiative (NPAI) in 1992, but it soon disintegrated due to a lack of funding and enthusiasm from participant members, who became involved in the processes of competitive institution building in the country. No other body has since filled this vacuum, although the Hill Forum, the Joint Universities Public Management Education Trust (JUPMET), the KwaZulu Natal Regional Forum, NAPISA and PASA succeeded in mobilis-

ing regional and functional groupings of academics involved in the field of public administration and management (Cloete in Theron & Schwella 2000:23). More of these types of groupings are needed, however, to rationalise and mobilise all scarce academic resources in the various regions, and to enhance capacity building in historically disadvantaged institutions. An attempt was made in 1997, with the aid of USAID, to investigate the feasibility of establishing an Association of Southern African Schools and Departments of Public Administration and Management (ASSADPAM). This, however, did not materialise, although a similar effort was launched in September 2001. In 1999, the South African Association of Public Administration and Management (SAAPAM) was established and it shows potential to develop into a legitimate umbrella organisation in this field (Carstens in Theron & Schwella 2000:159).

It is thus evident that there is an urgent need to establish legitimate vehicles to promote the interests of the discipline of public administration and its teaching and research staff at national level in South Africa, as well as mutual accreditation of courses and qualifications.

V. The Way Forward

On the issue of the impact of training in the public sector, one of the factors which must be considered is the quality of the work of the service provider. Quality of work relates to the qualifications, skills and experience of teaching staff and the relevance of the information being shared. Various factors influence the qualifications, skills and experience of teaching staff, *inter alia* (Carstens in Theron & Schwella 2000:161):

- The unequal distribution of human resources. In the *public administration discipline* there were, towards the end of 2000, 18 South African universities with a full-time staff of 314 and an enrollment of 19,391 students. There were 12 technikons with a full-time staff of 134 and an enrolment of 34,818. The figures exclude private and foreign universities with local campuses. From these figures, it is obvious that technikons must make use of part-time lecturers to train and educate;

- the current rationalization process of tertiary institutions which should be completed by 2003 will undoubtedly enhance the individual ability of lecturers and researchers. A further compelling argument necessitating rationalisation is the increase in the number of local and foreign *private higher education institutions.* By 1 February 2000, there were 209 private higher education institutions which had applied and obtained, or were in the process of obtaining, registration in terms of the Higher Education Act, 1997. Qualifications obtained from these institutions will be equivalent to certificates, diplomas, degrees, higher degrees and professional qualifications, thus adding to the complication of mass production of undergraduates in public administration/management;

- the private institutions of higher learning will further reduce the pool of academics from which rural-based South African institutions of higher learning may recruit; and

- rural-based institutions of higher learning do not have financial resources to offer as an incentive to recruit academics from metropolitan areas where the majority of tertiary institutions are situated. Empirical evidence also indicates that more students, even from the rural areas, opt for an education in the urban areas because of the multiplicity of higher education opportunities.

A need therefore exists to *compare and rank* the South African universities, technikons and private higher education institutions which offer public management and administration with regards to, *inter alia* their

- courses and curricula;
- profiles of their teaching and research staff;
- research produced;
- nature and scope of consulting assignments;
- training and educational amenities; and
- other requirements which are valued by public sector professional associations.

In this regard SAAPAM might play a decisive role in maintaining such a ranking list. This would be to the benefit of candidates who want to pursue their studies and enhance the discipline.

However, the following issues also need to be investigated:

- a reorientation of the curriculum, especially for senior administrators and political executives, to emphasise the regional and international context of South African public administration. Being a leader of the region and also of the continent, South Africa's senior administrators need to be exposed to changes such as the scrapping of SACU (South African Customs Union) and the abolition of import duties among SADC countries;

- more emphasis in the curriculum (for public servants at all levels) should be provided on the issues of economy, productivity and efficiency, concerns for a social safety net, effectiveness of stated policy objectives and responsiveness to clientele groups. With the expanding agenda for policy and service provision along with wage constraints and further expenditure cuts, the need for economy and efficiency is urgent. Public administration/management training establishments will not only be required to train public servants in "how to do more with less", but also to familiarise the public service with the new socio-economic development strategies, including new areas such as the environment and foreign trade, which the new leadership of South Africa are launching in rapid succession, and investigate their administrative implications;

- government recognition to different short-term and long-term training programmes should be secured as required qualifications for appointment or pro-

motion to certain posts in the public service. Curricula, if needed, should be adjusted for this purpose;

- as part of long-term training programmes for newly recruited civil servants, provision for short-term secondments to leading national private sector organisations and a period of residence or study in an adjoining country should be contemplated;

- in addition to the long-term degree and diploma programmes in public administration and management, there is a need for 8 – 12 weeks professionally oriented short-term courses;

- sectoral management training capacity in priority sectors such as public enterprises and public utilities management, rural development management, international affairs and foreign trade management, local level development management should be initiated and increasingly more training capacity should be allocated to these areas;

- the inclusion of some academically oriented practising administrators in part-time public administration programmes; and

- the development of sabbaticals and exchange programmes for public administration academics to spend 6 months to 1 year in the public service and for public servants to spend periods at universities undertaking research and training.

South African tertiary institutions of higher learning should therefore, as a matter of urgency, open and lead intellectual debate on the efficiency and effectiveness of the public sector. Intellectuals should be urging renewal and reform in the public sector, which is clearly lagging behind various OECD countries which have embarked on reform programmes since the early 1980s. Leading institutions of higher learning must also pursue the African Renaissance challenge to advance public administration and management. South African academics therefore have an obligation to be internationally competitive and to play a leading role in SADC countries.

VI. Conclusion

From the above – mentioned discussion, it is clear that various interventions, such as training, quality improvement in service delivery, culture change, rationalisation, and performance measurement are usually employed in improving organizational performance. Training is one mechanism which, if properly used, could bring about visible change in the performance of the public service. However, significant results from training in South Africa are yet to be demonstrated.

Tertiary institutions should therefore develop a much closer relationship with government. National alliances, and eventually national organizations, should be constructed to ensure country-wide delivery of competency-based courses. The first period of transitional democracy has been successfully seen through in South Africa. The new challenges of delivery require a much closer configuration between tertiary institutions involved in public management and development issues and the government. This will require national political, policy and technical harmonisa-

tion around educational and training priorities. Whenever training interventions are considered, it should, however, be remembered that *training is not what is ultimately important, performance is.*

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Capacity Building in Support of the Modernization of Public Administration: The Experience of Tanzania

Gelase Mutahaba *

Introduction

As many African countries attained independence, one of their preoccupations was to modernize their public administration systems to enable them to cope with the tasks of statehood [Mutahaba: 1989]. Tanzania attained its independence in 1961 and embarked immediately on the modernization process. That task is still continuing.

In this short paper, first, we identify the measures taken by Tanzania over the forty year period since independence, paying particular attention to those measures that have had a capacity building/training component. Second, we assess the extent to which these measures have been successful.

The efforts to strengthen the Administrative system can be divided into four phases.

Phase One: Creating Institutional Infrastructure, 1961 – 1970

During this phase, activity was directed at realigning the administrative system to make it development-oriented, as opposed to the law and order orientation of the system inherited at independence. This involved, on the one hand, creating new central institutions – ministries/departments with a focus on development/ nation-building and, on the other hand, creating corresponding institutions at the province, district, ward and village level.

While organizational structuring was a daunting task, it was made more difficult by the fact that the country did not have trained human resources to staff the new organizations/institutions – let alone to replace the colonial officers who would have to be relieved of their responsibilities in existing structures. The enormity of the problem is indicated by the fact that in 1961 Tanzania had only 21 university graduates in all disciplines and had no University or equivalent higher learning institution. The expanded administrative infrastructure required 420 graduate level personnel; or 630 if the positions occupied by colonial officers were to be immediately localized [Africanization Commission: 1962].

The newly independent government responded with determination and adopted a frontal-approach towards addressing the critical shortage of skilled human resources; and, in this effort, the international community, (including the UNDP, bilateral donors, etc.) played a major part. The efforts involved (i) starting a National University in 1961, initially offering courses in law, and the social sciences;

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to be followed later by physical sciences and engineering; (ii) creating a multiplicity of sector-specific tertiary institutions – in medicine, agriculture, engineering, water resources, town/urban planning – all of which made major contributions to developing skilled people at middle level.

There was a particular need for administrative officers – who were needed to coordinate the technical development activities at the centre, the provinces and the district levels. To address that need an Institute of Public Administration; later renamed the Institute of Development Management (IDM), was created in the early 1960s. It initially offered short-term training programmes in various aspects of administration/ management and, in so doing, helped to upgrade the skills of non-graduate experienced administrators, who helped to fill the vacancies left by the departing colonial officers. To address the long term need for administrative officers, IDM started a two year Diploma in Public Administration and admitted young school leavers (sixth form). The training programme included six-months of on the job-training.

In an earlier study, the author has noted that these efforts paid off well; the critical shortage of skilled human resources existing at independence was addressed in a very short period [Mutahaba: 1986]. The colonial officers were replaced within four years of independence and, apart from a few specialized professional areas, many of the skilled/professional/administrative and technical positions which resulted from the expansion of the administrative system were comfortably filled by Tanzania nationals by the early 1980s. By the same token, by the early 1980s, the University of Dar es Salaam, Sokoine University of Agriculture, the Institute of Development Management, as well as the many sectoral tertiary higher level institutes, were producing about 3,000 graduates a year. If the public administrative system was not performing well, therefore, (which was the case) it would not be correct to blame it on the paucity of skilled professionals.

However, the frontal approach had a few draw-backs. With each sector having its own higher level training institution, many resources – teachers, classrooms, equipment – were being tied up unnecessarily without being utilized optimally. If the efforts had been coordinated, say concentrated at the University of Dar es Salaam, the use of those resources would have been rationalized.

Phase Two: Structural Adjustment Phase: 1980 – 1992

By the mid eighties, commentators on the health of the Tanzanian administrative system were noting that it was facing a lot of stresses and strains, in spite of the fact that many efforts had been directed to restructuring it on the one hand, and on the other hand, there had been heavy investment in developing human resource capacity.

There are suggestions that while the strains and stresses were due in part to the constant restructuring and redesign of the administrative system, more importantly they were due to the system being overloaded with too many responsibilities. As a result, it was consuming too many resources, at a time (especially in the early

1980s) when the level of available resources was shrinking [World Bank: 1985]. To address the problem, the Government was advised to adopt a Structural Adjustment Programme, which involved inter alia:

i)   reducing/curtailing government involvement in many of its activities;
ii) reducing the size of the work force employed by the Government; and,
iii) ocusing on budget containment/reducing the deficit

While there is little evidence to show that the adoption of these measures did reduce the strains and stresses appreciably, they did seriously harm the country's capacity building/training efforts. On the one hand the three elements were invariably implemented using experts made available by the World Bank/IMF and other donors. As such they did not entail the training of local personnel. On the other hand, the containment of the budget meant that resources available for training related activities – either to fund training institutions or training budgets in government departments – were almost non-existent. Many of the institutions which had developed in the period 1961 – 1980 decayed and, in some cases, collapsed. Trainers/educators left the country in throngs for other countries and training/educational institutions were denuded of their skill bases.

Public administration performance declined considerably, and morale was very low. With retrenchment, workers felt very insecure and could not see much reason for being enthusiastic in their performance [Saidi: 1983].

Phase Three: Modernization of the Public Administration System 1992 – 1999

The reform of public administration through structural adjustment involved focusing on reducing government scope and size and containing the budget. This may have done more harm than good to the administrative system. In recognition of the problem, the Government of Tanzania, starting from the 1990s, changed its administrative reform strategy and focus. Without neglecting the need for fiscal discipline, it embarked on the modernization of the public administration system and adopted several concurrent reform actions/programmes including:

- The Civil Service Reform Programme – which focused on the definition of the role of government on the one hand and the scope of its activities on the other hand. It also addressed how delivery should be organized; therefore, ministries were realigned and rationalized.

- Reform of Local Government – creating and strengthening the local government system; with a new law establishing autonomous local government in urban and rural areas.

- A programme focusing on reforming public enterprises and concurrent activities relating to privatizing the same.

- A reform programme focusing on strengthening of the public financial management system and budget reform.

- A reform programme focusing on ethical behaviour, accountability and good governance.

While all these measures were positive in orientation and set a good base for improving the health of the public administration system, they were deficient in not giving adequate priority to skill development. Their implementation relied significantly on foreign consultants with occasional contributions by local consultants. This phase, therefore, did not see a reversal of the trend to neglect training and development of public servants – which, as was noted earlier in the paper, had occurred in Phase Two.

Phase Four: System Improvement/New Public Management, 2000 + Beyond

While a good base for improvement in the administrative system was set in the previous phase, and there was internalization at both the political and senior administration levels on the need for reforming the administrative system, the impact on performance remained limited. This was in part due to the fact that the reforms did not address adequately systems, procedures and processes. In addition, questions of integrity, accountability, citizen empowerment, etc. were not quite on the agenda. To rectify that situation, the current Administrative Reform Programme: 2000 – 2011 is now directing attention to those issues. Fortunately there is also recognition that administrative improvement is essentially a "People Issue" and training is being given primacy. In that regard the Government has:

- Articulated a Policy on Training and Development for Public Servants and directed all departments to devote at least 5% of their budgets to training;

- It has established a Public Service College, as an autonomous agency, with the mandate of undertaking statutory and voluntary training for public servants. The College is already operating and is doing a good job; it is working hand in hand with the various reform programmes.

It is too early to comment on the extent to which good progress has been made during the past two years, but discussions with many of the stake-holders, as well as a review of the monitoring reports, reveal that there is both hope and optimism that the beginning of a turn-around in the performance of the public administration system is in sight.

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Action Learning Practice in the Field of Chinese Public Management: A Case Study of Training and Development for Senior and Middle Civil Servants in Western, Poor Provinces

Chen Weilan *

Action learning developed principally in Europe. However, in 1991, it began to attract the attention of the senior training agency of the Chinese central government. In 1998, modified to better reflect the Chinese situation, officials of the Chinese Training Center for Senior Personnel Management (CTCSPMO) applied this method to the training and development of senior and middle level officials from poor western areas of China. In so doing, they partially changed the traditional practice of action learning in order that it better conform to the Chinese system and culture – especially the situation of Chinese poor areas. This project has made a very important impact in improving cooperation in intergovernmental relations, encouraging the transformation of local government, developing new techniques of senior and middle civil servant management and training and promoting the modernization of the human resource policy of provincial governments.

Action Learning Practice in Executive Training for the Western Poor Provinces of China

The development of action learning owes much to Professor Reg Revans. After he moved from Manchester University to Belgium, he created a new management development course for high potential managers on the basis of his working experience in the United Kingdom (UK). In this course, each participant was required to put forward a difficult and sensitive problem, and then transfer the problem to his or her profession, in order to develop more general knowledge and experience to solve these problems within a specified period. This approach was successful and was called "action learning". In 1970s, Professor Revans returned to the UK and opened, jointly with another colleague, an action learning course for the British Electrical Power Company. This has received great attention by specialists in management training and development, and is publicly regarded as very important for its combination of theory and practice in learning.

At the beginning of 1990s, CTCSPMO began to examine this approach and study it. By partially changing and redesigning it, action learning was made more suitable for the Chinese system and culture. An international collaborative project was used as a means to draw upon external expert resources. This project was applied to the training and development of the senior and middle level officials of Gansu province–an economically underdeveloped area in the Western China, where it played a very important role in the functional modernization of government work at the provincial and municipal level.

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The action learning training program developed for senior and middle officials in Gansu mainly focused on three topics over three years: 1) how the government supports the development of medium and small sized companies; 2) protection and programming of the ecologic environment; and, 3) human resource development. Each training program lasted for one year. At present, the first and second programs have been completed and the third one is in the process of implementation. Over the past two years, as the director of CTCSPMO, I led and participated in the entire project – first, in the area of program design and then on the implementation for the study and learning of the first program. Now, based on the implementation of the first program, I would like to briefly discuss the application of action learning in a poor province of Western China and how we modified this approach.

I. Preparation

I. 1 The preparatory work was mainly in three phases:

First, in order to fully understand and grasp action learning, CTCSPMO invited experts from Hong Kong and the UK to Beijing on four occasions. The purpose was to introduce the relevant professional rules and experience gained from practice in the UK and other European countries as well as in Hong Kong, China. Based on in-depth study and exploration, CTCSPMO applied action learning to three small programs of executive training and development – thus developing a set of professional trainers, who could understand the rules of action learning and skill-fully grasp the techniques of program design, organization and facilitation.

Second, this approach was introduced to the international training program practiced in the province of Gansu, in Western China. Before the initiation of this effort, the program manager of CTCSPMO discussed it with the leadership and the personnel management bureau of Gansu province many times to confirm the study topics. Their final decisions were shaped greatly by proposals of the Provincial Assembly in the spring of 1998, which laid out a series of very complicated problems relative to a variety of fields. To support the development of the program, the program managers of CTCSPMO actively initiated research and studies in order to better understand the current situation and problems of the government work relating to as many topics as possible.

Due to the great interest of the provincial government, Gansu province established a program team consisting of its highest leadership, to directly guide the personnel authority and select the 24 program participants from provincial agencies and the central cities of various regions. All of the participants had the responsibility for policy making and implementation in their fields. Of them, fourteen were senior officials, six were middle level officials, two were research fellows and two were presidents of medium sized state-owned enterprises.

The process of choosing the study topics gained understanding, support and leadership from the Provincial Assembly, the highest provincial leadership and the provincial personnel agency (which was responsible for the senior and middle civil

servant management). Moreover, it also gave the Provincial Training Center of the Personnel Bureau a chance to completely participate in this program.

Third, CTCSPMO provided a one-week pre-training activity for eight program managers including heads, facilitators and program members of the Center, during which it systematically introduced the training principle and action learning knowledge, repeatedly reviewed the facilitating techniques, and used the last day to discuss about the plan and activity method for program implementation in Gansu.

I. 2 Program Design and Implementation

After the preparatory work, the program moved to the practical stage of implementation.

There are three major objectives in the design of each annual action learning program:

1) submitting a policy proposal report to the highest authority of province;

2) developing the necessary tools related to the needs of functional transformation practiced in the participant's unit; and,

3) building a closely cooperative relationship among the participants in the course of study and learning.

Based on the learning set, each program consisted of eight senior and middle managers with rich work experience. Of the eight, there was one head and one advisor. Efforts were made to organize participants with similar professional backgrounds, but from different workplaces into a learning set. Before the program started, every participant would have an in-depth talk with his or her boss, and try to discuss their study orientation in accordance with the agency's needs. The first step of program was an initial off-job training. This one-week training had four objectives: 1) understanding action learning and building up the learning sets; 2) listening to a presentation on related policies of the central government addressed by senior research fellows; 3) breaking down the topic into three sub-topics for learning sets and various study problems and closely connecting with the individuals' practical work by way of research and the workshop; and, 4) making a learning set study plan and an annual agenda.

After the first centralized training and discussion, each set began to develop its own plan. Since Gansu is a long and narrow province across 1200 km, and 60% of the area is plateau and desert, travel there is not convenient, and as leaders of organizations, most of the participants had very busy schedules. Therefore, each learning set met once for one or two days every one and a half months. The second meeting occurred 20 days after the first one. CTCSPMO invited three experts in economics and management from Europe to lecture in Gansu and participate in the set activities. According to the set and individual topics, CTCSPMO and the Provincial Center jointly organized 24 participants to travel to Europe for an 18-day study trip on *development of middle and small companies.* Before the departure,

the Provincial Center transmitted the individual research outlines by e-mail to let the European receiver know the training needs. During the 18 days in Europe, daytime was for study and evenings were for discussions. The visiting time was equally distributed to the lectures, discussions and on-spot visits.

After ten months of research and discussions, experience or observation of practical operation at his or her workplace and the study trip to Europe, each individual developed a paper about their research during the first stage of study. In the following two months, they completed policy proposal reports for the highest leadership of the provincial government.

During the study and learning, CTCSPMO assisted Gansu Provincial Training Center in avoiding artificial problems and keeping oriented to key, essential problems, repeatedly pushed the team-building forward and made the learning and practice more energetic and vigorous. Due to the close combination of learning and practice, the results of learning could be directly used for practical work and constantly improved and developed in study and practice. This further encouraged the enthusiasm of participants and their workplace colleagues to be actively involved and gradually build up confidence in the program.

After the program implementation and training, an evaluation was made through the use of focus groups, structured interviews, written material and on-spot visits. The evaluation involved four levels – provincial leadership, organizers, participants and international & domestic coordinators – which helped guarantee the objectivity and comprehension of the evaluation results.

I. Three Special Features of the Chinese Practice of Action Learning

Action learning practice in Western Gansu Province was mainly characterized in the following manner:

1) *The making of concerted efforts by the central and provincial governments, and the forming of a very broad province-wide action learning network of participants and sets.*

   The action learning practiced in Gansu Province involved many departments, regions and cities. In the effort to solve key problems of provincial social and economic development, as well as the institutional reform, its practice required that all the participants work out and draw upon the wisdom of the people.

   The close cooperation among the central government, provincial government, CTCSPMO, the Provincial Training Center and all participating agencies insured the effective organizational procedure of this complicated program, encouraged effective intergovernmental coordination, and made action learning a sustainable, in-depth development.

2) *Breaking Down the Topic, Ring Upon Ring, and Forming Effective Topic Study Networks*

In order to obtain successful program development and implementation throughout the whole province for the practice of action learning, a topic-study network was formed. Each set had a first level subtopic, and each individual of the set had a second level subtopic. During the one-year program implementation, most of the participants organized themselves into internal research groups for three to ten months within their agencies and broke their second level subtopics into third level ones so as to create an elaborate topic network. The detailed three level topics ensured the breadth and depth of the programs professionalization, and reduced the difficulty of problem resolution. This approach was very beneficial to resolving complicated problems.

3) *Assuming Independent Responsibility while Mutually Cooperating in the Set Activity while the Head and the Facilitator Continuously Promoted Discussion and Practice.*

Accepting action learning as the principal means of executive training and development for senior and middle officials, we designed it as a dual learning procedure of both "cognitive discovery" and "cognitive reception", with special attention paid to commitment and experience sharing. Consistent with Chinese culture, the heads of learning sets were the more senior experienced officials who took charge of leadership and external coordination. The set facilitators took the responsibility of obtaining training resources, collecting learning materials and facilitating the discussions. The focus of the program was problem resolution with emphasis upon "learning-practice-challenge-improvement", and the continuously turning of study measures into practical results.

4) *CTCSPMO and the Provincial Training Center Played the Role of Program Advisor*

There were three tasks of CTCSPMO and the Provincial Training Center: (1) being facilitator to the set heads and advisors; (2) coordinating the sets to provide the training resources; (3) supervising the quality of the annual learning and research of the sets.

5) *Introducing the Expert Resource from the Developed Countries and Learning from the Relevant European Experience*

Action learning as practiced in the project was not limited to the Chinese experience in that, through the international project, the participants who traveled to Europe were able to learn about and grasp the European situation and experience directly. Also, during the action learning training, several European experts directly participated in the program design and organization, provided a great amount of material and professional lectures and constantly put forward useful suggestions and proposals to the learning process and study orientation.

II. Achievements of Action Learning Practice in Western, Poor Areas of China

Action learning practice in western poor areas of China has gained obvious success and became a very important experience to support the development of Western China through training. Two evaluation specialists, Professor Rolf Dbus from the Swiss University of St. Gallen and management specialist Professor Chen Long from the Psychological Institute of the Chinese Academy of Sciences evaluated the experience in Gansu, China, as the first real practice of action learning and not just a slogan. In summary, action learning practice in Gansu accomplished the following major achievements:

1) *Developing an Organizational Approach to Action Learning that Conformed to the Chinese System and Culture*

   The implementation of action learning at the provincial level was limited by systems and culture in certain ways. The executive training approach invented and developed in Europe could not be completely adapted to the Chinese situation. Therefore, when it was used in Gansu Province, necessary innovations were made.

2) *Helping Gansu Province Solve Some Key Practical Problems*

   The successful implementation of action learning in Gansu played a positive role in helping the government to solve some key and important problems. The one year action learning program on "government support for middle and small enterprises" produced policies and plans for the government to foster the development of middle and small enterprises at the provincial level. This included proposals to use middle and small enterprise development as an important vehicle for provincial economic development, the positive guiding of middle and small enterprises toward professionalization and specialization, the building up of various development funds for middle and small enterprises and the reducing of the financial difficulties of middle and small enterprises. It also involved vigorously developing needed intermediary organizations, creating the environment to build up the "incubators" for middle and small enterprises, and the transforming government efforts from management to service in the development of market mechanisms.

   At the provincial personnel department level, it produced policy proposals and practical plans for improving the internal standard of human resource development in the government for middle and small enterprise. At the county and municipal level, it produced the working system for and the practical plan of how to serve middle and small enterprises. The participants also developed two sets of tools – one for banks to evaluate the loan applications of middle and small enterprises and the other for intermediaries to evaluate the management and operation standards of middle and small enterprises. As regards provincial policies and regulations, a dual-evaluation system for middle and small enterprise loans was developed and during the program, diagnosis and consultancy

for several middle and small enterprises were carried out which helped some struggling small enterprises to turn a profit. All of these efforts involved basic reforms for transforming provincial government functions, greatly reducing procedures for approvals, and building up the market economic system for when China entered into World Trade Organization. As a result of the broad and successful implementation of action learning in the western poor areas, it will play a much more important role in the development of Grand Western China.

3) *The Important Achievement of Helping the Gansu Provincial Government Build a Strong Intergovernmental Network*

In the past, the provincial government and the local governments often thought about their own interests. Consequently, in solving serious problems that required cooperation, they always needed a great amount of time to coordinate and make the compromises necessary to gain mutual support – thus significantly reducing the efficiency and benefits of government work. Through action learning, officials from the provincial and local governments met together and discussed counter measures to a problem, and also, in the course of resolving detailed problems, the participating agencies and regions realized the need to develop new functions in accordance with the requirement of the market economic transformation and the need for mutual support and close cooperation. Such cooperative experience further strengthened intergovernmental relations. Government agencies and regions are no longer isolated but have formed a real working network, which has laid a good foundation to further improve the quality of intergovernmental relation.

4) *Developing a Group of Specialists who Understand and can Implement Action Learning to Develop Human Resources and their Organizations*

In now nearly three years of practice of action learning in western poor areas of China, more then fifty persons have studied and been trained in the practice of action learning and grasped this approach. This has provided a core of professionals for the Gansu province's future human resource and organizational development activities.

III. Action Learning: An Efficient Way of Solving Problems and Promoting Individual and Organizational Development

The practice in Gansu has demonstrated that action learning is indeed an efficient means of executive training. In summary, it has the following features:

1) *Action Learning is a Four-dimensional Way of Learning Knowledge, Sharing Experience, Creatively Solving Problems and Implementing Practical Action.*

Action learning includes the learning of professional knowledge, but its major purpose is to obtain this knowledge and use it to analyze and study practical problems, put forward a proposed resolution and then implement it. Therefore,

action-learning practice in Gansu includes five elements: learning knowledge, sharing experiences, creatively defining and assessing problems, resolving these problems, implementing in practical conditions, and creating learning groups in participants' agencies. The final is a four-dimensional way of taking action as the basis of problem solving, relying on the participants' experience and supports, focusing on the problems, and regarding knowledge and creative thinking as the conditions that are key to problem solving.

In the practice of action learning, professional learning is very necessary. Without it we cannot know the real problem. The relative individual experience, and his or her understanding of the practical problems, is another valuable resource in the process of the learning set's studying. The theory can be gained through reading materials and lectures by experts, but the experience sharing and field exploration can only be obtained by the mutual exchanges and comparisons among the members of the learning set.

The key to action learning is to find practical problems that need to be discussed. The first step often is that the participant directly finds his or her own practical problem, and then analyzes the problem gradually under the guidance of experts. But the final solution to the problem usually is the result of creative thinking within the highly responsible and mutual trusting environment of the learning set. When we identify the problems, we begin to design the resolution to the problems while absorbing the various proposals and thinking of other partners. Once the resolution comes back to the participating agencies, the practice, studying and learning lead to the interaction of thinking and practical operation. The constant gaining of experience and revising of the plan and re-implementing of it leads to gradually solving the problem in a satisfying way.

2) *Action Learning is a Way of Supporting On-Going Individual Development.*

As mentioned before, action learning is a kind of circulation of understanding – action – then rethinking. Learning begins from individual practical problems, and by studying and repeated thinking and discussion leads one to gradually understand the problems and then devise relevant solutions, and finally take needed actions. This action is the end of first stage, not the end of the whole learning, and it's also the beginning of the second stage. After a period of action, we make a summary and rethink, and then find new problems to resolve. This problem – solving circulation forms the whole procedure of learning.

In action learning, each individual must actively participate in every element and creatively develop his or her potentials. This is done by professional learning to gain or enrich knowledge; by defining and exploring practical problems to improve one's competences for finding and analyzing problems and by resolving problems to gain practical experience and capability. The interaction of participants promotes the group-building of the learning set, strengthens mutual understanding among participants, enhances communicating capability, and makes participants constantly gain new experience about how to think, feel

and plan needed actions. The one-year study and learning makes the participants trust each other, and lays a foundation of mutual-support for their future work. Consequently, action learning promotes individual development.

3) *Action Learning is an Efficient Way for an Organization to Continuously Grow.*

The action-learning program in Gansu was implemented in the form of action learning sets mainly participated in by senior and middle level officials. Since the participants came from different agencies and formed various learning groups in their own units and authorities, it also gave their units the opportunity to develop. Action learning is a kind of approach that can solve the practical problems within the units, and enable one to learn at the workplace while working – thus, organically encouraging the integration of learning and work and unit development. Constantly finding and solving the difficult problems of the workplace can greatly stimulate the participants and enable them and their work units to gain tremendous self-confidence and mutual trust, thus gradually creating a dense learning and development atmosphere in those units.

Lastly, it should be noted that action learning and its practice in the course of Chinese government modernization is still a new task. It has not drawn broad attention or been applied to the practices of public management reform and enterprise restructuring. It still needs further study to develop and spread. Practicing action learning in China Gansu is an important program of assistances from the central senior personnel department to the western provinces. Gansu provincial government agreed to this program plan and took the primary leadership and organizing responsibilities and, in fact, provincial officials proudly called it "our provincial program". This successful cooperative practice between the central and provincial government has set a significant example and thus will play a more important role in Chinese government modernization and executive training and development for senior and middle level officials.

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Effective Education and Training for Public Administration Reform: The Case of India

R.K. Mishra *

India is a country undergoing significant socio-politico and economic transition. The three levels of Indian administration- central, state and local, are faced with the daunting challenge of transforming their method and approach to public management. The supply side orientation to public management is yielding to the demand side orientation which places greater emphasis on effective service delivery. This paper will outline the main contours of Indian public management within the broad spectrum of public administration, examine the existing methods adopted in transacting public management activities and outline a new approach for educational and training institutions to revamp their teaching, training, research and consulting programmes to meet the challenges of the future.

Contours of Public Management

The Indian view echoes the general perception that public management is a vital segment of public administration. Whereas public administration includes the governmental activities carried out by all of its different departments, public management deals with activities concerning public goods. In the Indian context, the supply of power, public transport, telecom, insurance and banking[1], food security, education and health broadly constitute the core of public management. These sectors employ a large portion of organised labour and represent a major shore of public investments. They are also recognised as infrastructure services which play a decisive role in the optimisation of economic growth and the facilitating of distributive justice – federally, provincially and locally.

The economic paradigms governing these sectors (including the whole gamut of public economic theories) are under revision as new constructs are emerging relating to the process of organisation, production, exchange and distribution. It is this change which is leading to the re-writing of public management theory in which the public aspect largely remains unchanged but the managerial facet is undergoing complete transformation. It is not the administration i.e., the public element (comprising administrators, administrative theories and administrative apparatus) which is in a dominating position, but it is the management element (of people, goods, prices, investment and quality) which holds sway[2]. Viewed from this angle, the syllabi and course structures of institutes and educational institutions in India which deal with public management may have outlived their purpose. These often are devoid of the contemporary context – which is no more federal, provincial or local but gradually is acquiring a global orientation. This clearly points to the

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need of attitudinal change on behalf of institutes and educational institutions – or government agencies will no more depend on them for recruitment and training.

Existing Methods

Weber's model of bureaucratic management continues to guide public management at the three levels of administration in India. However, globalisation and liberalisation have brought some respite from traditional approaches and initiated a climate for change. The traditional Indian bureaucratic approach does not treat users of public goods and services as customers who prefer quality goods at reasonable prices at the desired location. However, new technology can play an important role in responding to and accomplishing these needs. The bureaucratic approach is not customer centric and this prevents a happy relationship between public management personnel and the beneficiary. Rather, this approach is typified by the dominance of public power and authority. Existing methods are grounded in the assumption that public management has to necessarily have a complete government orientation. The present era of globalisation explodes this myth as it advances a new construct of coming together of public and private institutions. In other words, whereas the final responsibility may overtly rest with the government agencies, there is no bar on developing a number of permutations and combinations where both public and private sector can work together to achieve the best possible results to the advantage of the masses.

Existing Curriculum

The educational institutions and institutes of India offer courses at the undergraduate, honours and post graduate level leading to M. Phil. and Ph.D. degrees. Post-experience training is provided in the form of training courses of one week to one-year's duration. However, they often lack focus on need based requirements. The educational courses cover the origin of public administration, planning, district administration, theory of public administration, developmental administration, rural development administration, correctional administration, comparative constitutions and Indian administration. This curriculum emphasizes knowledge acquisition but does not focus on practice. This deprives the recipient of the opportunity to understand the true needs of the people as well as their ability to bear costs. Consequently, about eight million public managers in India do not command the desired respect from the masses as they hardly understand their role as service providers.

The New Approach

The new approach has to be built around the offering of revamped courses, new training programmes and pedagogy and the need for their continuous upgradation. Public management training has to draw more upon business management. This will require a wholesale revision of educational courses at all levels.

Some of the topics that need to be included in the revised curriculum are: e-governance, customer relationship management, outsourcing, competitiveness,

performance evaluation, organisational theory, globalisation, entrepreneurship, legal and institutional framework, pricing strategies, institutional financing, public finance, environmental interface, interim and post project evaluation, operations research, statistical methods, primary health, hospital management, regulation, power sector management, telecom sector management, convergence of telecom services and the management of education- primary, secondary, higher and technical. The new public management will provide inputs on micro-economic management leading to the understanding, among other things of, capital market operations, the concepts of interest, income and costs; dividends; consumer delight; R&D; and networking.

The current understanding of public policy among public managers at various levels has proved to be ineffective and, in some cases, even counter productive. The lack of an in depth understanding of the relevant socio-politico-economic models on which public policy is based has been a serious problem for the Indian public services. The adaptability and limitations of policies to Indian situations; the lack of evaluation and feedback about the impact of policies; the absence of rigorous statistical and mathematical treatment of facts and figures and the failure to relate the theory and practice behind the various public policies; and the mistiming and non-compliance of delivery schedules of various public projects have emerged as major impediments to effective public management.

The Indian educational system, in so far as public management is concerned, is highly structured, lecture based and far removed from the public and the actual scene of the action. The educational and training institutions in India need to adopt a variety of new pedagogical methods – which preferably are participatory in nature. In the long term, courses in the area of public management need to include project work. The application of Information Technology will go a long way in improving the quality of public management and access to it. The Andhra Pradesh experiment[3] (AP is the fourth largest state in India and a leader in the Information Technology revolution) of *e-seva* [e-services] has revolutionised local public management. Under this project, the entire state has been divided into zones. E-centres have been opened at convenient locations where the users of various services such as power, telecom, water, land registration, motor vehicle licenses, pensions, birth and death certificates, air/rail/bus reservations could make payments and receive various documents. The district collectors have a video-conference every day with the Chief Minister of the State. The concept of data warehousing is being used by the various public management executives to effectively manage their work. This new approach to public management has won wide appreciation among the public. It saves time, money and energy, brings in transparency and has led to greater empowerment of the masses.

The Andhra Pradesh approach to post experience training for executives in public management relies upon a nodal agency for training public managers which has developed linkages with national and international institutions. It has brought about a fundamental change the approach to management development and training as shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1

Management Development and Training in Public Management in India

From	*To*
Supply Oriented	Demand Oriented
Procedure Oriented	People Oriented
Conservative	Liberal
Generic	Specific
Functional	Cross-Functional
Hierarchical	Participative
Periodic	Continuous
Risk Aversion	Risk Taking
Formal	Informal
Traditional	Modern & Topical
Unsystematic	Systematic
General	Goal Oriented
Closed	Open
Skill Based & Narrow	Concept Based & Comprehensive
Static	Dynamic
Ad hoc	Planned
Structured	Customised
Inorganic	Organic
Directed	Environment Driven

As the above suggests, India is opening up to new approaches. The challenge of opening up provides a wide range of opportunities subject to the acquisition of relevant skills, competencies and concepts. Management development and training in the pre-reform era of 1947 – 1991 required limited innovation and highly focused thinking dealing with the needs of internal progression within organisations and the development of methods and techniques that could increase the production and productivity of workers and supervisors whether delivering services to public or in their offices. The present day concept of management development and training involves comprehensive development covering all of the needs of the individual, team, organisation and society.

However, many of India's training institutions are trapped in a vicious circle of repeating run of the mill programmes without analysing the needs of the various sectors or the real levels at which public managers function. A Training Needs Survey is carried out once in five – six years and on the basis of it a training

calendar is formulated. The operating departments (and the management services department/corporate strategy department) are approached to obtain appropriate inputs. Small changes may be carried out in the training calendar depending on the feedback of the participants. The major gaps in different areas for the three levels of management are given in Table 2:

Table 2
Levels of Public Management

Gap Areas	Top/Senior	Middle	Junior
Knowledge	Technology	Procedural Knowledge	Implementing Knowledge
Skills	Conceptualisation Planning	Analytical/Adaptive	Executive Skills
Attitude	Towards Environment	Logical	Towards Work and Organisation
Performance	Target Setting	Application and Skills	Appraisal & Recognition
Policy	International Scenario & Public Policy	Sensitisation	Nil

Conclusion

Government at different levels (and its various implementing agencies) in India is experiencing a paradigm shift wherein new approaches are being developed with the objective of providing efficient and people-centric administration. Public management acts as an instrument to make this change effective in all the spheres of the public domain. The existing knowledge base drawn from conventional education to vocational and post-experience training falls short of providing the needed skills for practising and aspiring public managers at various levels to perform efficiently. This calls for a total revamp of the education and training system to make the public delivery mechanism more effective and people oriented.

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Delivering Effective Education and Training for Public Administrative Reform: The Role of the Public Administration Institute for Turkey and the Middle East

M. Turgay Ergun *

Origin and Status

The history of public administration education and training in Turkey can be traced back to the 15th century. Ottoman palace schools, called Enderun, were established and these institutions were involved with the education and training of young people for administrative positions in the Sultan's palace.

Public administration education and training in modern Turkey began with the foundation of Public Administration Institute for Turkey and the Middle East (TODAIE) in Ankara in 1952. TODAIE was established by UNDP as a project not only for Turkey but also for the Middle East region as part of a UNDP initiative involving the establishment of four regional public administration institutes in different parts of the world. It is one of the oldest public administration institutes in the world. In 2002, TODAIE will celebrate its 50th anniversary. When founded on 8 May 1952, TODAIE was the only public administration school in the Middle East region.

TODAIE started its activities in March 1953 as an autonomous organization functioning in cooperation with the School of Political Science of Ankara University. Under its organic law dated June 1958, TODAIE acquired the status of a corporate entity with academic, financial and administrative autonomy. As it was created to serve the Middle East, TODAIE also opened its doors to participants from neighbouring countries through UN scholarships. Between 1952 and 1958 TODAIE was affiliated with New York University and had an international faculty. Professor Marshall Dimock acted as a co-director in the beginning years; Robert Presthus acted as the director of studies.[1]

With the establishment of TODAIE, public administration courses were added into the curriculums of Turkish universities beginning with Ankara University in

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[1] There were other well known names as the members of international faculty such as Lynton K. Caldwell, Lashley G: Harvey, Joseph Kingsbury, Gertrude McKitterick, Laurence L. Barber, Guthrie S. Birkhead (USA); Gunnar Heckscher, Eugen Olssen (Sweden); Carl J. Lochan, Leslie J. Rogers, Margaret Walker, Vivian E. Lawrence (Canada); Jan Textor, Abram Mey (Holland); Hassan Zahedi (Iran); Ourania Hadjioannides, Henri Peron, Maurice Chailloux-Dantel (France); Ernst Egli (Switzerland); A.H. Hanson, Pauline M. Jequier, George Evans-Vaughan (UK); Edmond Janssens, Lucienne Talloen (Belgium); Norman C. Angus (New Zealand); Wolfgang Jungwirth (Austria).

1953. At present, there are 76 public or private universities in Turkey, and 36 of these universities have public administration departments. Current enrollment in undergraduate public administration programs is 11284 (8083 male and 3201 female students) for the 1998 – 1999 academic year – which constituted 1.7 percent of the country's total undergraduate enrollment. The same year there were 1401 graduates. These are impressive figures when the employment possibilities in public service are considered. In fact, survey data indicates that 65 percent of the graduates of Middle East Technical University's Department of Public Administration sought and found jobs in private companies. The educational quality and knowledge of English as a second language make these graduates competitive in private business (which pays better than the public service).[2]

Purpose and Aims

The general purpose of TODAIE is to improve public administration in line with modern concepts and approaches, to train public officials in the field of administration and to help civil servants improve their administrative capacities. In this framework, TODAIE is entrusted with three essential functions: education and training, research and consultation, documentation and publication. Other functions of TODAIE include: coordination of research and training in the field of public administration, participation in the management and allocation of scholarships to be given to trainers and researchers in this field and provision of facilities to competent students and academicians for research and training in foreign countries.

Administrative Structure

TODAIE's highest decision-making body is its Administrative Board which is composed of the senior members of TODAIE's faculty, and representatives from various universities and ministries. The duty of the Board is to oversee the operation of and supervise the activities of the Institute. The General Director, who is the head of all administrative units of TODAIE, is elected by the Board from among full professors for three years and can be reelected. The Executive Committee is composed of the General Director, Deputy General Director, Directors of Academic Divisions and two representatives from the Administrative Board of TODAIE. There is also an Academic Council, a consultative body for academic affairs, composed of the members of the TODAIE faculty.

Academic services in TODAIE are organized into three divisions: Education and Training, Research and Consultation; and Documentation and Publication. Directors of these divisions are elected by the Administrative Board for one to three years and they can be reelected. The Education and Training Division aims to improve human resources in the public service by organizing education and training programs. The Research and Consultation Division conducts research relevant to the problems of public administration, prepares training material for

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[2]   G. Saylan and S. Sezen, *The Paradigmatic Crises of Public Administration and Teaching Curriculum: Turkish Case*, Turkish Public Administration Annual, Vol. 24 – 26 (1998 – 2000), pp. 59 – 76.

institutions providing education in the field of public administration, mobilizes specialists to search for measures to develop public administration in Turkey and makes suggestions about major issues. TODAIE has become the main research center for administrative reform efforts since the 1960s. The documentation and Publication Division has published 350 books in the area of public administration and related fields. Six periodicals are being published by this division.

Graduate Programs

TODAIE has two graduate degree programs: a Master of Public Administration Program, established at the beginning of TODAIE, and a doctoral program to be offered in 2002 – 2003 academic year for the first time. The aim of MPA program is to provide a comprehensive understanding of the theory and practice of administration for public officials, and to contribute to satisfying the need for higher administrators and increasing qualified human resources. The students of this program are public officials who are not over 45 years of age, and who have worked in the public service for at least five years after graduation from university. They are selected from among applicants by a written and oral competitive examination. Each year there are about 2000 applications for the written and oral entrance examinations and only about 100 individuals are selected for the program. Eligible applicants are given allowance by their agencies for one academic year and their professional rights are protected. Those who complete the program successfully are awarded a two year promotion in terms of their career.

The MPA program is a two year program. In the first year, students attend both required core and elected courses, as well as non-credit bi-weekly lectures given by eminent national or international scholars, politicians, bureaucrats, high level judges, successful business people, journalists, or artists. In the second year, the students return to their agencies and prepare their master's theses at their own agencies. Although the teaching language of this program is Turkish, foreign nationals who are fluent in Turkish may apply to this program.

TODAIE started another graduate program in1995. In this program lectures are given in the English language for young civil servants with five years of experience in public service from countries going through the development and transitional process to a market economy, as well as from the countries to which Turkey gives technical aid. It is designed to provide participants with essential information and skills required to solve certain administrative problems. The program is carried out in two phases of ten weeks each and a three-week internship in public agencies in Ankara. Successful participants are awarded a diploma.

Training Programs: Continuing Education Center

TODAIE has a Continuing Education Center which is responsible for conducting short term training programs and seminars for middle and higher level administrators as well as experts working in various public agencies. These seminars are of two types: They can be specially organized upon demand from institutions in order

to satisfy their in-service training needs or they can be general seminars offered to all public organizations.[3]

Local Government Research and Training Center

A Local Government Research and Training Center was established at TODAIE in 1989 with the aim of organizing training programs for employees of local government units and related agencies; providing consultation to these institutions and planning and implementing research and other activities contributing to the improvement, effectiveness and efficiency of local governments.

The Local Governments Research and Training Center organizes a number of seminars on local government especially for municipalities. In these seminars, which last from two to twelve weeks, basic issues related to organization, personnel, financial management, public health, urbanization, tourism, municipal police, and public relations are assessed. The seminars are offered separately for mayors and their deputies, personnel directors, directors of municipal police, directors of clerical affairs, directors of public relations, director of public improvements and accountants. The Local Government Center also gathers relevant regulations and documents. These documents are transmitted to local governments, related institutions and researchers via a local web site and a periodical.

Human Rights Research and Documentation Center

A Human Rights Research and Documentation Center was established as part of TODAIE in 1975 with the aim of contributing to the improvement of human rights thinking and satisfying the needs of the Turkish public service in this field. The Human Rights Research and Documentation Center is responsible for gathering relevant domestic and foreign materials, organizing activities like seminars and conferences on human rights, conducting research and publishing in the field of human rights as well as improving relationships and cooperation with domestic and foreign institutions.

The Center provides researchers with domestic and foreign materials it has collected and catalogued over the years; and exchanges publications with foreign

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3   Some of the general purpose short term training programs and seminars offered by the Center are as follows: Management by Objectives, Archives Management, European Union, European Human Rights Law, Body Language, Office Management, Conflict Management, Environmental Issues, Administrative Behavior, Change Management, Democratic Culture, Control Techniques, Empathic Communication, Ethic Development, Effective Listening Techniques, Effective Speech and Presentation Techniques, Group Dynamics, Public Relations, Human Rights, Human Resources Development, Performance Evaluation, Crises Management, Public Finance, Organization Culture, Organizational Policy Making, Motivation Management, Organization Development Techniques, Project Management, Privatization policies, Protocol norms, Problem Solving Techniques, Strategic Planning, Stress Management, Team work techniques, Total Quality Management, Meeting Management, Creative Thinking, Vision Development, Job Simplification, Visionary Leadership, Leadership in Administration, Time Management, Administration and Law, Internet and Web Technologies, Information Technologies, E-Government, Electronic Information and Documentation Management.

institutions working in the same field. The Human Rights Research and Documentation Center keeps in touch with the European Council as a "national correspondent." It gathers relevant laws, decrees with the force of law, publications, parliamentary debates and judicial decisions related to human rights and sends them to the European Council. In recent years, the Center has focused its activities in the field of human rights education and is publishing a series of handbooks on Human Rights and Democracy Education, in addition of its two Human Rights Yearbooks in Turkish and in English.

Membership in International Organizations

TODAIE has been a member of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) since 1986 and has been the Turkish National Section of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences (IIAS) as a result of a Council of Ministers' decision in 1992. Since its establishment, TODAIE has organized many scientific meetings in the field of public administration, and in recent years, it has intensified such activities at the national and international level. In this context, as the National Section of IIAS, the Institute organized the Symposium on the Public Administration Discipline in 1994 at the national level, and published the papers presented in the Symposium in two volumes. In 1997, as part of the series of activities for the celebration of its 45th Anniversary, TODAIE organized symposiums on "Public Administration in the 21st Century" and "Women and the Future at the End of 20th Century" at the national level; and conferences on "Administrative and Political Corruption" in cooperation with IIAS, and "Governance" in cooperation with PUMA of OECD at the international level. In 2002, TODAIE will celebrate its 50th Anniversary with IASIA's Annual Conference on "Globalization and Decentralization" which will be held in Istanbul between 17 and 20 of June.

Future of TODAIE

TODAIE was established to provide service not only at the national level, but also internationally for the region of the Mid East. Public servants from the Middle East countries, supported by United Nations scholarships, participated in TODAIE programs for some periods. However, with time, countries established their own national public administration institutes and thus the activities of TODAIE are confined to the national level today.

In recent years, however, TODAIE has taken important steps towards operating as a regional research and training center. TODAIE signed a cooperation protocol with the Azerbaijan Academy of Public Administration in 1997, and accepted students for the MPA, and other programs. Another convention for cooperation was signed with the Kirghiz National State University for the establishment of a public administration center within this university in 1997. A protocol of cooperation was signed with Ukrainian Public Administration Academy's Odessa Branch in 1999, several Ukrainian civil servants participated in long and short term programs. TODAIE is accepting offers for the provision of seminars in different

countries including Yemen, Sudan and Nigeria. Another cooperation agreement was concluded this year with International Institute of Public Administration of France (IIAP) for exchanging lecturers and sending a group of students to Paris. Lastly, technical cooperation between TODAIE and Chinese Ministry of Personnel is in its 11th year and improving

Afterword

Final Thoughts on Education and Training for Civil Servants and Government Officials in Modernising and Decentralised State

Morton R. Davies *

As the various preceding chapters have suggested, this is both a time of change and experimentation in terms of approaches to education and training for civil servants public officials. As these chapters have also suggested, there are many different approaches that countries take to these matters. In some countries there is heavy reliance on the state to provide needed education and training for its new officials. In other countries multiple approaches are taken with government training institutes, higher education institutions and non-governmental organizations all being involved.

Traditionally, the former approach has been the norm in many European countries and in many transitional nations. This latter approach is one that is particularly characteristic of the United States and, as we have seen, is becoming the norm in the transitional countries of Central and Eastern Europe where there has been a pronounced movement from a highly unified state system of education and training towards a much more pluralistic one with significant involvement by non-governmental organizations.

Interestingly, even in those Western European countries where systems have been more unitary, one can detect change at work. Certainly one impetus towards this change has been the reforms that have been introduced into the public sector in many Western European countries. As Marie-Christine Meininger noted, European reform programmes have emerged out of a context which includes:

a) crises of legitimacy and the problem of keeping budgetary promises

b) new social needs which have arisen in recent decades and have ushered in issues of public service delivery

c) the sustained demand to enhance accountability and to reassure confidence in public services

d) the issues that have arisen from the process of European integration and therequirement to reform in line with EU directives and regulations

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e) the robust discussion of the relative efficiency of different levels of government and the principles of subsidiarity which surround EU programmes

f) a growing awareness of the imperative to introduce competitive mechanisms to guide relationships between the state, private and not-for-profit sectors.

The major responses to the above have been a tendency to decentralize human resource management in European public sector organizations, and to introduce more flexible schemes of remuneration and conditions of employment. Within a broad context of reform, programmes of decentralization resulting in a diversity of patterns of remuneration and conditions of service have had an impact on the mobility of public servants within their governmental organizations and have tended to fragment civil services – thereby reducing the traditional European reliance on a unified civil service. In some countries, these have been pursued through the practices of contractualisation with an emphasis on reducing costs and an insistence on education and training for public servants to adapt their skills. However, there is not uniform approach in Europe and each country determines its own responses to the requirements for reform.

There is certainly a very real question of how far such developments should be encouraged. While there are many virtues to decentralization, there is also value in having a common core of beliefs and policy. A second issue to arise relates to the motivation/demotivation of public servants arising from the competing demands to increase performance and commitment whilst reducing costs. A final issue relates to career management, more specifically about how to promote professional mobility in the current context. One approach suggested in the Meininger chapter is to abolish restrictions and to introduce a more transparent policy regarding promotions – an approach which is consistent with the general tenets of New Public Management.

In Slovakia, a major concern guiding the development of education and training programmes for public administration has been to establish an element of continuity linking the former experience, and the current focus on future development, to concepts of modernisation. As Gejza Petrík notes, in the CEE countries it would be useful to introduce training and education programmes not only for civil servants but also for elected representatives and the managers and employees of regional self government. He emphasizes the need for training programmes that are oriented to specific skills and goals rather than the provision of more general programmes. He also notes that recent trends suggest that there has been in Slovakia a reduction in the percentage of higher education graduates in the civil service and an increase in the percentage of civil servants who have only completed their secondary education.

An example of the kind of more targeted approach that Petrík is seeking is found in the chapter by Ms. Weilan Chen of the National School of Administration, China. She has provided an account of a training programme which had been developed in Western China, based on the principles of action learning. A significant aspect

of the program involved obtaining the commitment of political leaders and senior managers for the training activities. This was gained through extensive discussions with the most senior personnel in order to establish the focus of the programme in such a way as to make it most relevant to their needs.

The methodology of the programme, action learning, was drawn from a British model. In the context of the programme it involved the delivery of a Training of Trainers course which provided the basis for a strategy of disseminating the knowledge and skills imparted in the programme. The author makes clear the need to secure the support and commitment of the political and administrative leaders in the organizations from which the trainees were drawn.

One of the obvious realities involved in education and training for public sector officials is that countries put more or less emphasis upon this activity at different times. Professor Gelase Mutahaba divided the forty years since Tanzania's Independence into four phases, each of which had specific characteristics related to (a) the internal needs of the Tanzanian governmental system and its abilities to satisfy the needs of its society and (b) external factors such as the structural adjustment programmes of the World Bank which demanded particular reforms. This chapter placed much emphasis on the ongoing and evolving nature of reform and modernization efforts in the context of the contemporary world.

One important point is that the attitude of different groups to reform proposals affects a nation's approach to the education and training of its public employees. In France for example, the trade unions are broadly in favour of maintaining the centralized system of human resource management and therefore at times have been resistant to reform proposals. Consequently, if reform proposals are to succeed a necessary, but not sufficient, condition is that top political leaders and senior professional managers must in their various ways exert pressure to institute programmes of reform, particularly for the decentralization of human resource development. This is an especially important factor given the magnitude of the changes which have been introduced in recent decades.

In modern systems of government, political leaders and civil servants have different but complementary roles. This should be an important factor in the development and focus of training programmes. In different countries, there are very different models of the relationship between politicians and administrative officials. This reality must be taken account of in the design of training programmes in order to encourage each side to perform its role effectively. Especially in the European countries, the distinction between the political level and the administrative level is extremely important in theory with each having its own role to play. In practice however, the relationship is not so simple. Senior civil servants are invariably very close to and work with senior politicians. It therefore becomes a matter of fine political judgment of civil servants regarding which issues must be referred to politicians and which can be resolved by administrative or managerial initiative.

On the other hand, there are some positive advantages to having some degree of tension between politicians and civil servants. This has historically been the case in the United States – in part as a result of the overall system of checks and balances for which the country is justifiably famed. It certainly can be argued that as long as the relationship can be developed as one of "creative tension" it is likely to have a positive effect on the dynamics of the system.

In some situations however, it is necessary to bridge the gap between political figures and career officials. Consequently, in some cases there are real advantages to organizing joint training systems for civil servants and politicians. This is a practice which has had positive results in East Africa. Such joint endeavours might prove problematic in other settings. On the one hand, it might become difficult to retain the distinction between political and administrative roles. Furthermore, in some societies there would be a reluctance, especially on the part of politicians, to share training sessions with career officials.

Finally, there is the ubiquitous problem of trainees returning to their organizations with newly acquired skills and how these skills can be acknowledged, implemented, and used more broadly within the organization. The Chinese experience noted earlier is instructive in that it did not encounter this problem because the trainees in the initial programme were composed of senior officials. In addition, care had been taken to develop robust human resource systems, effective schemes of appraisal and evaluation and significant mutual trust among colleagues. In the end, the Chinese experience suggests that the development of institutional commitment to new skills and new thinking depended to a large extent upon the selection of appropriate methodologies and the careful development of clear working relationships and partnerships between the trainees and the trainers and the top level of government leadership