JPAE
JOURNAL OF PUBLIC AFFAIRS EDUCATION

The journal of NASPAA — The Global Standard in Public Service Education

FALL 2013

JPAE
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Journal of Public Affairs Education

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New Faces,
Different Choices

Globalization brings with it two trends; one is toward centralization, the other to diversity. Similarly, globalization represents inclusiveness and exclusivity. These same trends are found in contemporary public affairs and policy teaching.

In so many ways, globalization can be thought of as Thomas Friedman describes it in *The World Is Flat*. He describes a world with 10 trends that are flattening the world, pushing countries toward opening their borders and becoming more open to world commerce and technology, and in general to integrating their economies as part of a global one. Friedman described the successful countries as those that were flat; by this he meant those that were frictionless and opened and integrated their economies would be successful in a new global world, and those that were not and did not would fail. Yet, as we saw in 2008, globalization did not necessarily favor the flat, frictionless states, and perhaps those not fully integrated fared better in resisting the global financial crisis. Perhaps some friction was good.

The point is that the financial crisis of 2008 demonstrated both the best and worst of globalization. It revealed the virtues and dangers of becoming more integrated—of oneness. Maybe there needed to be alternatives to global institutions such as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and the World Trade Organization (WTO). Thus some turned to Brazil, Russia, India, and China (BRIC) as perhaps a different path to crafting a new world economic order based on differences.

How does all this apply to public affairs teaching? On one level, there are powerful forces shaping or driving public affairs training. The globalization of MPA programs, the apparent need for similar skills in managers and administrators across the globe, and the ubiquity of similar challenges suggest that perhaps there is one best curriculum or way to train students. But at the same time, this drive toward global education and the replication of programs across the world ignores unique national needs and cultures. It also might lead to a squelching of alternative perspectives and approaches to the teaching of public affairs. A flat, frictionless global public affairs curriculum might ignore the diversity of needs faced across regions and countries.

There is no one right way to teach public affairs. We should be encouraging a diversity of pedagogies and the fostering of many new perspectives on how to teach. The assumption here is that new faces will produce new choices and approaches on how best to address the changing and unique needs of our students.

The Fall 2013 issue of *JPAE* devotes less attention to the drive toward oneness that has accompanied globalization and more to exploring the tension between unity and sameness versus diversity. The issue features a special symposium on

public affairs teaching in Latin America, edited by Nadia M. Rubaii and Cristian Pliscoff. In their introduction, they generally describe the unique challenges in delivering public affairs teaching in this part of the world, leaving the three symposium articles to provide details regarding specific trends in three different countries. The symposium features these articles: "Strategies Outside the Formal Classroom: Nonprofit Management Education in Transparency and Accountability: The Case of Ecuador," by Susan Appe and Daniel Barragán; "Public Service and Good Governance vs. Corruption and Self Promotion: MPA Programs in Mexico," by Abraham D. Benavides, Adira M. Fierro-Villa, and Eduardo Cobián Aguayo; and "Public Administration Education in Brazil: Evolution, Challenges, and Opportunities," by Fátima Bayma Oliveira and Marilyn Marks Rubin. The three symposium papers perform several tasks. They describe some general trends in public affairs teaching in Latin America, revealing some similarities in issues and tensions found across the globe. But they also specify unique issues and trends in this part of the world and in three specific countries, seeking to detail the challenges found in emerging democracies and in countries located at different spatial points in a global economy.

The other articles in this issue highlight different aspects of the pull toward one or the many, unity or diversity, in public affairs teaching. The numbers of women and minorities have steadily risen in the United States federal workforce, yet studies suggest these groups are still underrepresented in high-level positions. Meghna Sabharwal and Iris Geva-May, in "Advancing Underrepresented Populations in the Public Sector: Approaches and Practices in the Instructional Pipeline," note that the reasons for this underrepresentation are not well researched, and their article is an important step to fill in this research gap. They survey academic heads of U.S. schools accredited by NASPAA, focusing on four key areas: academic support, financial support, recruitment strategies, and training and development. Some of the findings show, for instance, that schools with a lower percentage of students from underrepresented groups use scholarships, tuition waivers, and teaching assistantships to recruit students from these populations; in comparison, schools with higher percentages of students from underrepresented groups are able to attract faculty from minority groups at twice the rate of schools with lower percentages of students from underrepresented groups.

Across many disciplines, a debate goes on regarding whether there is a canon of literature and, if so, whether the teaching of it fosters either common knowledge or a core curriculum. This is the subject of Lisa L. Fan's "Canonic Texts in Public Policy Studies: A Quantitative Analysis." She undertakes a syllabi review of public policy courses, seeking to identify a core set of readings that dominate or repeat themselves. Fan's list of greatest hits contains some surprises, but it also offers a great opportunity for discussion and debate regarding whether the existence of such a list fosters not simply a common body of knowledge but also a tool to include alternative voices and perspectives.

MPA programs are flourishing across the world, and not just in Latin and South America. One of largest potential markets is in China, where the demand for competent professional public administration is growing. Many universities in the United States have sought to create collaborative programs in China, yet there is a genuine need to adapt American teaching methods and curricula to serve the needs of this new market. "Integrating Theory and Practice in MPA Education in China: The FITS Model at Northeastern University," by Xiaojie Zhang, Ping Sun, and Edward Jennings, describes one of these new collaborative ventures. The authors suggest that the largest problem in delivering a MPA curriculum in China is the wide gap between theory and practice. This article describes and assesses a novel MPA education and training pattern, called the Faculty, Infrastructure, Teaching, and Student (FITS) model, initiated by Northeastern University. There is a lot to learn from this case study. The authors consider issues such as what foreign universities should consider when setting up in China, how education has evolved to meet specific cultural needs, and why a cookie-cutter approach does not work.

Increasingly, public affairs programs are enlisting community partners in the delivery of their curriculum. There are good reasons for it. Internships and service learning provide context-based learning and experiences for students that cannot be readily replicated in class. Yet these partnerships often serve the needs of the school or of the students more than those of the clients. Ultimately, this situation makes for less than an ideal learning environment, and it creates less of an incentive for community partners to get involved if they do not perceive a value.

In "From Traditional to Client-Based Nonprofit Management Course Design: Reflections on a Recent Course Conversion," Jennifer Shea and Amy Farah Weiss consider the role of client-based community service-learning courses in MPA programs. The authors focus on how to design client-based service-learning courses that benefit students and community partners without placing undue burdens on faculty. The authors also describe their experiences with a course conversion and design to make it more client focused. The strength of the article is the authors' discussion of the details and lessons that resulted from creating the conversion.

We hear it all the time; there is the classroom and then there is the "real world." Many assume that a gap separates the perceptions of academics from those of practitioners: Perhaps the former are more theoretical and bookish, the latter more practical and experiential. But is there any truth to this received wisdom? In "Building Bridges? An Assessment of Academic and Practitioner Perceptions with Observations for the Public Administration Classroom," Paul Battaglio Jr. and Michael J. Scicchitano test this hypothesis. They survey American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) members, finding that other demographic variables are more robust in explaining perceptual differences than is the divide between being an academic or a practitioner. Their results raise

fascinating implications for teaching and curricula, especially in light of many public affairs programs staffing their classes.

Finally, Muhittin Acar reviews the revised *The Handbook of Public Administration*, edited by B. Guy Peters and Jon Pierre and originally published in 2003. Acar describes the text favorably for its depth and editing, but also indicates that it is wanting in some areas when it comes to essays regarding international issues and public affairs teaching. Overall, the *Handbook* serves as a metaphor that almost perfectly captures the tensions of globalization—it includes many core topics while excluding others that should perhaps be addressed.

This issue of *JPAE* thus explores the many faces of public affairs education in a global world. Its authors seek to understand what should be universally taught while recognizing what diversity demands, and when.

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Public Administration Education in Latin America—Understanding Teaching in Context: An Introduction to the Symposium

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In public administration and public policy, context matters. Although many of the core functions of public administrators and terms used to refer to fundamental public service values are similar throughout the world, the meaning and application of knowledge, skills, and abilities can vary greatly depending on the context in which public administrators work. Public affairs education must be responsive to these differences. If the practice of public administration is uniquely affected by place with all of its corresponding political, cultural, and economic systems and norms, so too must the education of public administrators. So what is the Latin American context, and to what extent and in what ways does it shape public affairs education? That is the focus of this symposium.

Current and future public administrators in Latin America are faced with many of the same challenges confronting public officials elsewhere in terms of enhancing economic development; promoting improved health, education, and security; and reducing crime, inequality, discrimination, and poverty. But they must do so in a region with generally weak public finances, various manifestations of corruption, and lack of social recognition for professional public administration due to a history of malfunctioning government and poorly conceived and implemented reforms. In this context, understanding how public affairs education is structured and implemented in the region is crucial to understanding the practice of public administration in Latin America.

Latin America is a region of sharp contrasts. It has well-developed areas with affluent populations where incomes are as high as any of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, and other areas where large populations live in abject poverty. Countries in the region employ a

variety of political, governmental, and educational models (Pulido, Cravioto, Pereda, Rondo, & Pereira, 2006) to serve their populations who speak not only Spanish, Portuguese, French, English, and Dutch but also hundreds of indigenous languages. In some Latin American countries, public agencies are leading the use of new technologies or have developed new techniques to improve efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery, whereas others are riddled with maladministration and corruption. Higher education systems in Latin America differ dramatically in terms of size, the relative proportion of public and private institutions, and the level of accessibility (Garcia Guadilla, 2000; Holm-Nielsen, Thorn, Brunner, & Balán, 2005). They also differ in terms of the existence and prominence of professional graduate degree programs designed to prepare public administrators.

An underlying assumption of professional graduate degree programs in public administration and public policy is that professional public affairs education can improve the quality of government and governance. Nations with quality higher education systems generally rate higher on public commitment to civic virtue and experience lower rates of corruption (Arruda Filho, 2012). Throughout the region, there is a consensus about the need for government officials to demonstrate higher levels of professionalism. In an increasingly interdependent global world, the complex or "wicked problems" of governance—poverty, malnutrition, illiteracy, discrimination, environmental degradation, human rights abuses, violence, crime, rampant corruption, and the like—demand professional public administrators at all levels of government. Professionalism, in this context, implies not only competence in the form of knowledge and skills but also a high standard of ethics and a commitment to the values of democracy, transparency, participation, and accountability. MPA programs "are a key resource in advancing sustainable human, economic and administrative development by providing graduates with knowledge and technical skills, along with an awareness of justice and equity in the public service" (Newman & Rubin, 2009, p. 2).

To be effective in this role, public administration programs must prepare graduates with a full range of competencies, including knowledge, skills, and public service values, and they must do so in ways that are relevant to the culture and context where public administrators will work. Program design, course content, and the roles and relations among academic, government, and civil society organizations in the provision of public affairs education need to be tailored to historical and current political and policy environment. Unfortunately, this is not the case in Latin America, because most of the literature, cases, methodologies, and theories were drawn initially from Europe and in later years from the United States.

There are plenty of scholarly works on the political and administrative functions (or dysfunctions) within individual countries in Latin America and across the region. Particularly relevant is the work of the *Centro Latinoamericano de Administración para el Desarrollo*, or CLAD [Latin American Center for Development Administration], which hosts an annual conference, where practitioners and scholars share ideas regarding the state of the art in this area. CLAD also publishes

a journal, *Reforma y Democracia* [*Reform and Democracy*], that is one of the few journals in our field included in the Thompson Reuters ISI Journal Citation Index. Similarly, the journal *Gestión y Política Pública* [*Management and Public Policy*], edited by the *Centro de Investigación y Docencia Económicas*, or CIDE [Center for Research and Teaching in Economics] in Mexico, also provides an outlet to disseminate academic work in public administration and public policy. The efforts in these venues are largely scientific and practitioner oriented; what is lacking is a focus on public affairs education in these contexts.

The three papers in this symposium contribute greatly to the foundation knowledge on the status of public affairs education in Latin America and the extent to which, and manner in which, public affairs education is responsive to context. Individually they provide country case studies of particular aspects of public affairs education in Ecuador, Mexico, and Brazil. In its own way, each article provides insights into the historical and present-day factors that result in current demands being met or not being met by existing public affairs programs. Collectively, they provide the basis for appreciating the diversity and challenge across the region.

In the first article, Susan Appe and Daniel Barragán begin by noting the absence of formal nonprofit management education within universities in Ecuador and then share insights into how nonprofit organizations in Ecuador are filling this gap by producing and disseminating knowledge about nonprofit management. Using participatory research and content analysis of archival documents, Appe and Barragán illustrate that this approach, while outside the formal university structure, still promotes the values of transparency, ethics, and accountability and the corresponding skills of managing a nonprofit to reflect those values. Nonprofit organizations in Ecuador are thus crucial players in this aspect of public affairs education, and the systems they have developed are critical to organizational success.

The values of transparency, ethics (anticorruption), and accountability (public service and good governance) are also vital in the Mexican context, according to the article by Abraham Benavides, Adira Fierro-Villa, and Eduardo Cobian Aguayo. They make the case that the explicit attention to public service, justice, transparency, and good governance—as core values and as content within public administration courses—are essential to combat the tradition of corruption and the current problem of drug-related violence in Mexico. They then examine MPA programs throughout the country to determine the extent to which the curriculum reflects attention to these values and to the skills needed to practice such values. They identify differences in scope of coverage across the four values and across regions of Mexico. In so doing, they help the reader appreciate in what areas, substantive and geographic, additional attention is needed.

The Brazilian case study presented in the final article by Fátima Bayma Oliveira and Marilyn Marks Rubin is not limited to a specific subfield of public affairs education or the content of program courses. Instead, they provide a detailed history of the development of public affairs education at all levels within Brazil. In this way, the reader is provided with a greater appreciation for the historical

and political factors affecting public affairs education in Brazil and its place within the nation's broader system of higher education. Oliveira and Rubin identify challenges and opportunities associated with the current institutional arrangements and make specific recommendations for how to improve the structure and operation of public administration education in the Brazilian context.

We are particularly pleased that each article in the symposium represents an international partnership and coproduction of knowledge with teams from the United States and the three Latin American countries studied. In this way, these articles do not simply represent an outsider's assessment but also benefit from a within-country lens. We also note that the authors include scholars who are well established as well as those just starting their academic careers, and university-based faculty and researchers as well as public administration practitioners. We are confident that the coauthors of each article have found the process of working together across geographic and cultural differences to be as rewarding and informative as the process has been for the two of us as guest editors. As NASPAA embraces its role as the global standard in public service education and expands the scope of its international activities, we hope that this symposium represents only the first step in a process of internationalization of topics and authors on the pages of *JPAE.*

Saludos a todos y esperamos que los siguientes artículos sean de su interés, así como también que puedan aprender de la difusión de experiencias desarrolladas en América Latina expresados en los tres artículos de este simposio. [Best wishes to all, and we hope that the following articles are of interest, and that you are able to learn from the dissemination of unfolding experiences in Latin America expressed in the three articles in this symposium.]

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Strategies Outside the Formal Classroom: Nonprofit Management Education in Transparency and Accountability

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ABSTRACT

A demand for nonprofit management training and organizational capacity building exists in Latin America. However, few nonprofit management education (NME) programs in Latin America exist, and there is limited content related to ethics, transparency, and accountability. Using the case of Ecuador, we identify three strategies implemented by nonprofit leaders to cope with limited NME. We find that first, organizations engage in a process of collectivity that seeks to explore and give meaning to civil society in Ecuador. Second, this process leads to the production of knowledge about civil society in Ecuador. And third, based on both the process of collectivity and knowledge production, nonprofit leaders in Ecuador take ownership in the training of nonprofit leaders through several pilot courses related to transparency and accountability. The case of Ecuador reminds public affairs educators that organizations themselves can be successful producers of knowledge that can and should create and inform curricular content.

Keywords: nonprofit management education, accountability, transparency, Ecuador

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A demand for nonprofit management training and organizational capacity building exists in Latin America. This is especially true given the external pressures —by donors and governments, in particular—for nonprofit organizations in the region to implement transparent management practices and accountability mechanisms. It is also a reflection of the organizations themselves being internally

interested in more closely observing the values of ethics, transparency, and account-ability. Nonprofit organizations[1] in Latin America are recognized for playing key roles in the provision of public goods and services (Brautigam & Segarra, 2007; Cabrera & Vallejo, 1997; Heinrich, 2007; World Bank, 2005). Despite the strong presence of nonprofit organizations and the goods and services they provide, formal nonprofit management education (NME) programs in higher education institutions are not prevalent in the region (Mirabella, Gemelli, Malcolm, & Berger, 2007). This article acknowledges the limited supply of formal NME programs in Latin America but also observes that since the comparative study by Mirabella et al. (2007), several NME programs—inside and outside of higher education institutions—have emerged in the region. We focus on the lack of curricular content in NME programs that includes transparency and accountability issues, specifically in the country of Ecuador.

We examine strategies used by nonprofit leaders in Ecuador to build knowledge and transfer skills about organizational management and the values of ethics, transparency, and accountability in nonprofit organizations. Scholars posit that how NME programs cope with and adapt to the environmental conditions is a rich topic for inquiry (Bies & Blackwood, 2008). We find that the same holds true for nonprofit leaders who might not have access to formal NME programs as well as for those who have access to NME programs that might have limited curricular content. How nonprofit leaders cope with and adapt to such environmental conditions (e.g., limited NME programs and/or limited curricular content) deserves attention.

Ecuador is a particularly relevant and rich case because of the challenges involving NME. Formal NME programs are not in heavy supply, and there are ongoing regulatory reforms promoted by the government that target the nonprofit sector, especially regarding transparency and accountability (Barragán, 2010, 2011). We focus our attention, therefore, on NME programs in Ecuador that address transparency and accountability and identify three strategies implemented by nonprofit leaders to cope with current environmental conditions. We find that first, organizations engage in a process of collectivity that seeks to help explore and give meaning to civil society in Ecuador. Second, this process leads to an objective to produce knowledge about civil society in Ecuador. And third, informed by both the process of collectivity and knowledge production, nonprofit leaders in Ecuador take ownership in the training of nonprofit leaders through several pilot courses related to transparency and accountability.

In this article, we first discuss public affairs education and nonprofit studies literatures that inform the research. Second, we introduce our methodological approach. We then elaborate the case study of Ecuador and explain the three strategies taken by nonprofit organizations—collectivity, knowledge production, and training development. In the section on lessons learned, we present ideas to strengthen NME specific to transparency and accountability in Ecuador and the region. The article concludes with how the Ecuadorian case can inform public affairs education in general.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although the public administration literature on nonprofit training in Latin America is limited, several threads of scholarship help to shape our inquiry for the case of Ecuador. We intend to build on public affairs education scholarship in regard to the teaching of values and skills related to ethics, transparency, and accountability (Hejka-Ekins, 1988; Martinez, 1998; Menzel, 1997; Worthley & Grumet, 1983, Wu & He, 2009, among others). Called what "can't be taught" (Worthley & Grumet, 1983), ethics education—particularly in public affairs education—sees major challenges. Most often discussed are the issues related to the quantity of ethics training in public affairs curricula (e.g., if an ethics course is required for degree competition or is offered only as an elective, or if ethics is covered as a subject matter across the curricula rather than in a stand-alone ethics class [Hejka-Ekins, 1988]); variation in methodological approaches taken in ethics instruction (Worthley & Grumet, 1983); and the objectives of ethics in public affairs education programs (Hejka-Ekins, 1988). Questions remain about how to teach ethics (and if it is even possible) and how to teach related concepts, such as transparency and accountability in public affairs education.

Much of the debate on ethics (as well as transparency and accountability) in public affairs education has focused on the U.S. context; however, the issues are indeed relevant in Latin America as well. Freedom of information (FOI) laws and the right-to-know movements in the region have very much shaped how public affairs education is approached. In Mexico, for example, an integral part of securing a long-lasting and permanent culture of transparency is ensuring that students who enter the field have been exposed academically to the principles of transparency (Benavides, 2006). Professors at schools of public administration in formal higher education institutions indicate that their public affairs programs have been updated to include the topic of transparency (Benavides, 2006).

In addition, public affairs education literature is giving more attention to NME programs and their curricular content (Burlingame, 2009; Mirabella &Young, 2012; O'Neill, 2005; Wish & Mirabella, 1998). Although there is a growing body of comparative approaches to NME research (see Donmoyer, Libby, McDonald, & Deitrick, 2012; Jackson, 2009; Mirabella, 2007; Mirabella et al., 2007; Schmitz, Raggo, & Bruno-van Vijfeijken, 2013), literature on NME has also tended to focus more on the U.S. context. Several conditions have encouraged the growth of NME programs and their attention in the United States. O'Neill (2005) examines the macro-level conditions and finds that in the United States, the professionalization of several fields and the growth of professional programs in universities help explain the rise of NME programs. The increase in the number of management programs, in particular, has fostered the creation of NME programs. Management education was initially organized only in the public and private sectors (O'Neill, 2005), but professional expectations for nonprofit organizations and their personnel have contributed to recognizing the distinctive training and learning needs of nonprofit

managers (Bies & Blackwood, 2008; O'Neill, 2005). This situation has further led to the development of formal academic programs in nonprofit management and their growth.

Aside from the general history and evolution of NME, scholars have also covered the debates about the location and content of such programs. However, gaps in the literature still exist. In regard to content, NME literature does not fully address how thoroughly—or even how—NME programs are addressing the topics of accountability and ethics in their curricula (see Bies & Blackwood, 2008). Furthermore, attention to location has revealed that NME programs are indeed housed across several types of degree programs and disciplinary settings (Bies & Blackwood, 2008). Newer research has looked at the relationship between the location and content (Mirabella & Young, 2012). Mirabella and Young (2012) find that the location of a social entrepreneurship program—in a business school versus a public affairs school—influences the content of the program. Social entrepreneurship programs in business schools focus more on market skills, whereas public affairs schools are more likely to cover a variety of skills that include "market, political, philanthropic, generic management, and leadership skills" (Mirabella & Young, 2012, p. 55).

In addition to the public affairs teaching and NME literatures, we find that the recent scholarship on transparency, accountability, and the self-regulation of nonprofit organizations is relevant in the case of Ecuador. The Ecuadorian case engages in the emergent scholarly conversation related to accountability mechanisms and self-regulation by nonprofit organizations across the world (Bies, 2010; Bothwell, 2001; Ebrahim, 2003a; 2003b, Prakash & Gugerty, 2010). Recent scholarship has described and explained nonprofit self-regulation in the United States (Bothwell, 2001) as well as in Asia (Sidel, 2005), Africa (Gugerty, 2008), and Europe (Bies, 2010). However, little academic research in public affairs has covered these trends in Latin America in English. Rather, several research institutions across Latin America have paved the way for further examination. Research institutions like the Communications and Development Institute [*Instituto de Comunicación y Desarrollo, ICD*] in Uruguay (http://lasociedadcivil.org/) and the Autonomous Institute of Technology of Mexico [*Instituto Tecnológico Autónomo de México, ITAM*] (www.filantropia.itam.mx), just as examples, have made important contributions in curriculum development and applied research. In addition, as discussed later in this article, research institutions such as the Ecuadorian Center for Environmental Law [*Centro Ecuatoriano de Derecho Ambiental, CEDA*] have made significant contributions to the field in the context of Ecuador.

Several factors have contributed to concerns about accountability in the nonprofit sector globally. First, the quantity and the growth of nonprofit organizations are significant (Jordan & van Tuijl, 2006). With this increase, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) are more likely to receive attention when mishaps and scandals occur (Ebrahim, 2003b; Gugerty, 2008; Jordan & van Tuijl, 2006; Prakash & Gugerty, 2010). Second, there are more funding opportunities for organizations,

particularly in service provision (Gugerty, 2008; Jordan & van Tuijl , 2006). And third, nonprofit organizations have a growing voice within international politics and advocacy in several global topics such as environmental issues (Jordan & van Tuijl , 2006) as well as human rights and women's rights (Kaldor, 2003; Keck & Sikkink, 1997; Wong, 2012).

Although defining accountability for nonprofit organizations is no easy task, several scholars posit explanations. Ebrahim (2003b) defines *accountability* as "the means through which individuals and organizations are held externally to account for their actions and the means by which they take internal responsibility for continuously shaping and scrutinizing organizational mission, goals, and performance" (Ebrahim, 2003b, p. 194). Accountability includes not only external accountability (nonprofits are held responsible for their actions) but also internal accountability—nonprofits must hold themselves to higher standards, open themselves up to critiques from the public and the state, and be true to their objectives (Ebrahim, 2003a; see also Jordan & van Tuijl, 2006; Kaldor, 2003; Najam, 1996). Furthermore, research on nonprofit organizations has addressed what can be called the accountability gap (Schmitz et al., 2013, p. 2) between upward (e.g., donors) and downward (e.g., constituents, beneficiaries) accountability (Bebbington, Hickey, & Mitlin, 2008; Dagnino, 2008; Schmitz et al., 2013).

Concerns about accountability have driven several types of responses. Governments have become more likely to address regulatory frameworks and remedy shortcomings as they relate to accountability. Some governments have implemented restrictive regulatory laws and others more enabling regulatory laws toward nonprofit organizations in order to ensure civil society accountability (Brysk, 2000; ICNL, 2006, 2009; Rutzen & Shea, 2006; Salamon & Toepler, 2000). Although governments are major players in the regulation of nonprofit organizations, increasingly scholars and practitioners note two other types of entities: watchdog/third-party organizations and what Schmitz et al. (2013) call special initiatives. Examples of external watchdog or third-party organizations in the United States include entities such as Charity Navigator, GuideStar, and the Better Business Bureau (Schmitz et al., 2013). These types of entities often rely on government documents such as the Internal Revenue Service 990 form in the U.S. context, and they judge accountability based mostly on financial efficiency: what Schmitz et al. (2013) observe as upward accountability toward donors.

Special initiatives (Schmitz et al., 2013) are also becoming more common across contexts. Examples of these include what Prakash and Gugerty (2010) call voluntary accountability clubs, also called self-regulation regimes (Gugerty, 2008). These entities create standards or guidelines that organizations voluntarily follow. These special initiatives seek to mitigate "agency slippages," which can occur when nonprofit managers use resources and make decisions that stray from the original agreement between most often the funder (principal) and the nonprofit (agency), but such an agreement could also be between the beneficiary and the nonprofit organization (Gugerty & Prakash, 2010). Special initiatives often emerge within

the environment of other accountability checks by government regulation and watchdog oversight and seek to signal quality (Prakash & Gugerty, 2010), but questions remain as to what information is needed to signal such quality.

Public affairs education literature has indeed laid a foundation for teaching ethics and related topics of transparency and accountability; however, minimal discussion in the literature has included public affairs education in Latin America. Likewise, most NME scholarship has been U.S.-based. The body of research has centered on NME's history and growth, formal NME programs' curricular content, and its department or discipline location in higher education institutions. Although this literature greatly informs public affairs teaching and NME programs, it misses insights that can be generated from nonprofit training—specifically on topics of transparency and accountability—outside of the formal classroom which is prevalent in contexts such as Latin America. Given the limited offerings of NME programs in higher education institutions in Ecuador, we see the emergence of a type of special initiative (Schmitz et al., 2011)—a collective of civil society organizations. The special initiative seeks to produce knowledge on the sector and to develop training opportunities for nonprofit organizations in order to meet external as well as internal demands for transparency and accountability of nonprofit organizations in Ecuador.

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

This article builds on the literature of public affairs education—specifically NME programs—as well as the debates about accountability within nonprofit organizations. The research is conducted through academic-practitioner collaboration and fits well with core aims of this symposium, specifically getting at "creating and adapting contextually relevant teaching." Given the demand and interest in transparency and accountability through participatory research and content analysis, we explore how nonprofit organizations cope with the lack of formal NME programs and curricular content related to transparency and accountability in Latin America, specifically in Ecuador.

Data for the paper are constructed and collected from three sources. First, data are used from archival documents produced by the Collective of Civil Society Organizations [*Colectivo de Organizaciones de Sociedad Civil*] in Ecuador; these include, for example, meeting notes as well as related published reports and articles. Second, data are collected and analyzed from dozens of interviews that were conducted with Collective participants during the formation phases of the Collective in 2009 and 2010. Third, data are used from two pilot NME courses in Ecuador carried out by the Ecuadorian Center for Environmental Law (hereafter referred to by its Spanish acronym, CEDA), with the support of the Communications and Development Institute [*Instituto de Comunicación y Desarrollo, ICD*] in 2010 and the Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences [*Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales, FLACSO*] in 2011.

We find that these varied sources allow us to present a rich description of the case of Ecuador in order to elicit new research directions and recommendations

applicable to Ecuador and beyond. We focus on an NME experience outside higher education institutions that addresses specifically transparency and accountability. In the lessons learned section, we provide avenues on how to bridge these NME experiences more with university institutions and recommendations for public affairs education in general.

STRATEGIES FOR NME IN TRANSPARENCY AND ACCOUNTABILITY IN ECUADOR

We know from social movement theory that when organizations feel threatened, they are more likely to form coalitions (McAdam, McCarthy, & Zald, 1996; McCarthy & Zald, 1977). As such, nonprofit studies literature has recognized the proliferation of sector-level organizations and umbrella organizations, sometimes formed in response to government pressures, often with the objectives to improve organizational effectiveness and to represent member organizations in the policy process (Abramson & McCarthy, 2012; Young, 2001; see also Gugerty, 2008, 2009; Gugerty & Prakash, 2010). The case of Ecuador first provides us with the formation of an organization initially called the Collective of Civil Society Organizations and what then, in 2013, was formalized into the Ecuadorian Confederation of Civil Society Organizations [*Confederación Ecuatoriana de Organizaciones de la Sociedad Civil*]. Additionally, the Collective—and one of its organizational partners, CEDA—began to articulate a demand for and then supported the development of capacity-building opportunities for civil society organizations around transparency and accountability. The following sections discuss these three strategies undertaken by nonprofit leaders in Ecuador: the process of collectivity, knowledge production, and training development.

The Process of Collectivity

As mentioned, one of the challenges facing nonprofit organizations and NME in Ecuador is the ongoing regulatory reform. In 2008, the Presidential Executive Decree No. 982 (Presidencia de la República del Ecuador, 2008) in Ecuador reformed the regulatory framework for civil society organizations. Its stated objectives are to (a) improve the transparency of civil society organizations and (b) establish regulatory accountability mechanisms through the creation and implementation of a registry of civil society organizations and an accreditation process for organizations that receive public funds.[2] The Decree defines the registry of civil society organizations as a mechanism to keep records of legally recognized civil society and nonprofit organizations and make this information publicly available (Appe, 2011).

In addition to the release of Decree No. 982, in 2008 the government initiated discussion and drafting of a more comprehensive civil society legal framework, hiring a legal consultant group to elaborate a draft law (Grupo Legal Trade, 2009). As a result and parallel to the government-driven process, nonprofit organizations began to meet and discuss the regulation of civil society and the nonprofit sector. This process included 11 civil society networks of around 800 organizations nationwide and 18 of the larger foundations in Ecuador. In addition, several lawyers affiliated with civil society were included in the process for legal advice. From

April 2008 until January 2009, approximately ten meetings were held among participating organizations and three meetings with the legal consultant group hired by the government. A draft law was circulated by government, and nonprofit organizations were able to make comment, but soon the process would be tabled by the government. Although the process led by government died, it left Ecuadorian nonprofit organizations motivated to continue talking (Garcés, 2010).

The 2008 discussions about a civil society law and the concerns over the newly implemented Decree No. 982 were seen as windows of opportunity for debate and consolidation among some nonprofit organizations in Ecuador. The time seemed to represent a turning point for organizations, as some interview participants noted:

> There was not any process on which civil society organizations united, to improve their activities at the country level or strengthening their stance and improve their capacity.

Thus several nonprofit organizations in Ecuador started to meet to debate civil society's role in Ecuador, regulation of organizations, and how transparency and accountability within the sector might be better operationalized. From these discussions, there was a consolidation process of what might be considered a special initiative as defined by Schmitz and colleagues (2013), the Collective of Civil Society Organizations. First as an informal group, the organizations began to tackle larger and broader issues across civil society, as one interview participant reflected:

> This Decree called on us … the [group] was created … to handle themes that are not [only] directly related to regulation. Yes, it was [a result of] the regulation, but also … how can we make ourselves better? To better our work, and be transparent in everything we do, so, the Decree served as a gathering element but all that are part of the [Collective] have benefited from this.

The group of organizations began to talk about a national sector-level body that would coordinate and debate issues within the sector. Many observed that as a first step, the group needed to focus inward.

To explore broader questions about civil society internally, the group of organizations launched several working groups. First, a working group continued to explore the idea of a space for collective representation among organizations in Ecuador. A second working group was created to continue the discussion and drafting of a legal framework for civil society organizations in Ecuador. And third, of most relevance to this article, a working group was set up to explore regulatory mechanisms for civil society outside of government—focusing on transparency and accountability.

Knowledge Production by Ecuadorian Nonprofit Organizations

Before 2008, in Ecuador transparency and accountability were not issues on the civil society agenda. But with the implementation of Decree No. 982 and the initiation of the Collective, organizations began to reflect upon and analyze ways to improve organizational transparency and accountability. One of the main challenges was the lack of available information and knowledge about civil society in Ecuador and less so about civil society's transparency and accountability. There was a gap in available information, and this produced a need to collectively generate data and perspectives on the sector, which would then directly influence the curricular content of the training courses developed. The Collective worked on documents that became "position briefs" and helped give meaning to civil society in Ecuador. Collectively, the nonprofit organizations released two public documents: Citizen Contributions to the Regulations of Civil Society Organizations [*Aportes Ciudadanos a las Regulaciones de las Organizaciones de la Sociedad Civil del Ecuador*] in 2009 and its Manifesto [*El Manifiesto*] in 2011. These documents permitted the construction of a common vision regarding civil society in Ecuador. In addition, the Collective and organizational participants began a research agenda to develop and collect empirical data on the sector that helped identify capacity-building needs, specifically those related to transparency and accountability. Data collection and analysis included an exploratory research project and report by Collective participant CEDA and two collective accountability reports.

Position briefs. In 2009, what was then an informal group quietly released a public document that highlighted main concerns with Decree No. 982. The document was called Citizen Contributions to the Regulations of Civil Society Organizations [*Aportes Ciudadanos a las Regulaciones de las Organizaciones de la Sociedad Civil del Ecuador*]. In this document, the organizations began to use language about civil society in Ecuador from the perspective of the organizations themselves. The document explains the role of civil society organizations as complementary to the state: "Historically, civil society organizations have provided ideas, goods and social services that have contributed to the improvement … of communities and the country, especially to the most vulnerable sectors" (*Aportes Ciudadanos*, 2009, p. 1). The Citizen Contributions document highlights the norms set out in the 2008 Ecuadorian Constitution and in particular, the Constitution's acknowledgment of citizen participation and the construction of a more democratic society. During this time, several Collective participants recognized and explained the work of civil society organizations as fundamental to democracy, as a service to both the government and the public:

> This government owes a lot to civil society and NGOs because ideas, programs and political projects were not born [in the government], they were born in the NGOs, many of the ideas that today [that the government] is implementing, that they are talking about, even the discourse, it is not from the government, it is from the NGOs.

Another important document produced in the early stages of the Collective was a joint statement by organizations, the Collective's Manifesto. On January 7, 2011, sixty-seven civil society organizations in Ecuador signed a public Manifesto described as a "united message with multiple voices" (Estévez, 2011; OSC Ecuador, 2011). The Manifesto was published in two of the largest newspapers in Ecuador (*El Comercio* and *El Universo*) and rejected a new regulation proposed by government in 2010. The Manifesto lays out four agreed-on principles for the Collective of Civil Society Organizations: (a) better understanding of civil society organizations and the nature of civil society; (b) fostering a culture of transparency and accountability mechanisms; (c) respecting the Ecuadorian Constitution; and (d) developing the government's role in protecting and fomenting civil society development (OSC Ecuador, 2011).

Empirical research on the status of transparency and accountability in Ecuador. In addition to the construction of a civil society discourse and publicly diffused position briefs related to implemented and proposed government regulation, Ecuadorian organizations found it necessary to gather data and make available information about the sector itself. Like the other documents, this collected data and information would directly influence the curricular content of the training courses. In Ecuador, literature about civil society exists (Cabrera & Vallejo, 1997; Heinrich, 2007; Salazar, 2010; Unda, Guerrero, & Hidrovo, 2005; World Bank, 2005, 2007), but very little has focused on the sector's transparency and accountability. This situation was motivation to launch investigations in order to generate knowledge about the sector. An exploratory research agenda allowed, first, the creation of a baseline for the situation of transparency across organizations. In Ecuador, there are numerous studies and reports about transparency in relation to the public and for-profit sectors, but this type of study on transparency about the nonprofit sector had not been conducted (Arias, 2011). Second, efforts were made to collectively address issues around accountability, by collecting data on the management practices and programmatic impact of organizations.

In 2010, CEDA conducted an investigation that aimed to understand the perceptions of civil society organizations by different stakeholders. These stakeholders included nonprofit organizations themselves, international aid organizations, government entities, and beneficiaries. The process of collecting and analyzing the data on the perceptions by different stakeholders was crucial to identifying needs related to training for transparency and accountability issues. The investigation, of course, gets at nonprofit organizations' multiple accountabilities as previously mentioned in the literature review. Understanding the perceptions of nonprofit organizations across the accountability domains of upward (e.g., donors) and downward (e.g., constituents, beneficiaries) stakeholders helped define capacity-building needs of the sector in Ecuador (Bebbington et al., 2008; Dagnino, 2008; Schmitz et al., 2013). The research methodology was built by CEDA's international partner, the Communication and Development Institute in Uruguay.

CEDA, however, expanded the methodology by introducing focus groups with beneficiaries of programs and projects of civil society organizations. The focus groups sought to gather the perceptions about nonprofit organizations, what many Ecuadorian organizations recognized as the most important stakeholder for organizations—the beneficiaries. CEDA conducted 31 interviews, organized several focus groups, and led workshops across three cities in Ecuador (Quito, Guayaquil, and Cuenca). In 2011 the research document, "Situation of Transparency and Accountability in Nongovernmental Organizations" [*Situación de la Transparencia y Rendición de Cuentas en las Organizaciones No Gubernamentales*],[3] was published and distributed.

Findings from the research show that actors in Ecuador see transparency as a value that should be practiced daily and that organizational culture should be built around. Data derived from organizations themselves show that integrating transparency and accountability is part of an organizational learning process. Some organizations had already developed strategies and tools to ensure accountability. Other organizations have in development such strategies and tools to ensure accountability, pending future implementation. The research report also included tools, mechanisms, and strategies for organizations to replicate, particularly for those organizations that have yet to fully develop accountability mechanisms. For example, tools that were used across many organizations included workshops for the socialization of specific processes and outcomes, such as impact assessment, user satisfaction surveys, communication strategies, and self-regulation mechanisms. Most of the mechanisms related to self-regulation focused on human resources management (e.g., defining roles, identifying capacity-building needs), boards of directors governance (including diversity across members' professional skills, age, and gender), and the creation of internal strategies for strengthening accountability.

Collective accountability reports. With encouragement from its participants and after the well-diffused CEDA report on transparency and accountability, the Collective continued its contribution to knowledge production. It released its first report of aggregated descriptive data on civil society in 2010—"Report of Collective Accountability 2010" [*Informe de Rendicion Colectiva de Cuentas 2010*]—and its second, "Report of Accountability 2011" [*Informe Rendicion de Cuentas 2011*]. Both reports are part of a regional process, the Regional Initiative for Accountability [*Iniciativa Regional Rendir Cuentas*], that exists now in nine Latin American countries (http://www.rendircuentas.org/).

The first report, "Report of Collective Accountability 2010," is a 25-page document that includes data from 37 organizations and was signed by 11 more organizations in support. It provides descriptive data on participating civil society organizations, making the argument that organized civil society is an "important sector" in Ecuador (Collective of Civil Society Organizations of Ecuador, 2011). The report ties civil society to a strong democracy, arguing that civil society is where many ideas for reform and citizen well-being are initiated,

mirroring many of the ideas first presented in the public document "Citizen Contributions in 2009" and again in the published January 2011 Manifesto.

The "Report of Collective Accountability 2010" committed the participating organizations to accountability, defined as "an expression of responsibility" and including "transparency and ethics; … the autonomy of a sector that assumes self-regulation; … cohesion with which we preach and ask of other actors in society, and … unity within a diverse sector" (Collective of Civil Society Organizations of Ecuador, 2011, p. 3). The report then provides data on various subjects including where organizations are working, thematic areas of work, who and how many are beneficiaries, information about the amount of money organizations manage, and so on. These data previously had not been aggregated or made available to civil society organizations and the public. Also, the information provided in the document previously had not been covered in media outlets in Ecuador (Collective of Civil Society Organizations of Ecuador, 2011).

The second report of collective accountability, "Report of Accountability 2011," was released publicly on September 2012. The report gathered information from 102 civil society organizations, representing an increase of 175% from 37 participants in 2010. Based on the lessons learned from the process in 2010, the Collective focused on how to involve more organizations through more personalized outreach and communication; it also provided more technical assistance for filling out the forms during the information gathering (Collective of Civil Society Organizations of Ecuador, 2012).

The report offers a variety of data related to organizational management, coverage, and impact. Specific to transparency, 62.7% of the organizations audited their financial reports and financial statements; but the Collective determined that there was still room for improvement, because only 52% of the organizations' audits are accessible to the public. Thirty-five percent of the 102 organizations have a formal policy for receiving funding, but only 25% make the policy accessible to the public. Although 52% of the organizations have an ethics code, almost 58% have no policy directly related to organizational transparency. Based on such data, the report found that transparency and accountability tools needed to be promoted more widely and reinforced the demand for more specialized NME opportunities (Collective of Civil Society Organizations of Ecuador, 2012).

The Development of Training Courses by Nonprofit Organizations

Through the exchanges among Collective participants and research by the Collective and CEDA, one of the themes most relevant for organizations in Ecuador was the lack of capacity-building and training opportunities for nonprofit leaders in Ecuador. Indeed, CEDA's report finds that a principal weakness of Ecuador's civil society is the lack of knowledge and technical capacity regarding the practice of transparency and accountability (Arias, 2011). The development of training courses on transparency and accountability falls under CEDA's rubric of capacity

building for nonprofit organizations. Broadly defined, nonprofit capacity building can be considered "increasing the ability of an organization to fulfill its mission" (Wing, 2004, p. 155). However, to better measure capacity building and its effectiveness, its definition needs to be more tailored to the given situation (Wing, 2004). In Ecuador, capacity building is broadly considered a process of strengthening and constructing knowledge and skills related to organizational management. In the context of nonprofit transparency and accountability, this definition becomes about strengthening the knowledge and skills required to use the tools and practices of transparent management and organizational accountability.

As mentioned, few formal NME programs exist in Ecuador. For example, currently an annual open course for nonprofit management exists at the Andean University "Simón Bolívar" [*Universidad Andina Simón Bolívar*] in Quito, Ecuador; but even if nonprofit managers are aware of the course, they say that it has several weaknesses. The course is targeted for in-service nonprofit managers and is organized into three modules: (a) marketing, (b) project design and administration, and (c) regulatory requirements. The module of marketing is oriented toward improving the ability of the organization to communicate its work; the module of project design and administration allows for the improvement of project formulation and management generally; and the module of legislation addresses the regulations that organizations need to observe. Although these topics are important to organizational management, nonprofit managers observe that specific topics about transparency and accountability are not fully taken into account in the course's academic curricular content. This view is confirmed by a review of the modules' syllabi and conversations with the academic director of the course.

The gap in available training in Ecuador regarding transparency and accountability, in addition to the research results and knowledge production by nonprofit organizations, was further motivation to plan and execute training opportunities on these topics. Led by nonprofit organizations, two courses were offered in Ecuador.

Course 1: Concepts and mechanisms for transparency and accountability.
The course named Moving Forward: Concepts and Mechanisms for Transparency and Accountability of Civil Society Organizations, was organized virtually as a collaborative effort between CEDA and its international partner, Communication and Development Institute from Uruguay, which had experience in this type of online training. The course focused on theoretical frameworks of transparency, experiences in the Latin American region, and good practices related to transparency and accountability. Forty-two participants were selected from more than 80 applicants. Participants were from distinct geographical locations in Ecuador and worked in diverse types of organizations. Most of the participants worked in civil society organizations including foundations, NGOs, and international NGOs. Most participants worked one of three in areas: social development (38%), democracy and transparency (21%), or gender (12%).

The course lasted for three months and was organized into seven modules, which included lecture, a required bibliography, and a recommended bibliography for those who wanted deeper analysis of the themes. The course included exercises that centered on the reflection and evaluation informed by participants' own organizational experiences in order to give them the ability to improve their own organizations' practices.

The course was very well received. A survey to capture the level of satisfaction by participants demonstrated that a significant majority of the participants felt they would bring new knowledge to their organizations. The evaluations were positive; for example, in the words of one participant:

> This course has served our organizations, I have already identified some weaknesses that we have and also the strengths. We are going to replicate this course with a group of volunteers that we work with to incentivize civil society. … In addition, this strengthens us as an organization to establish good accountability and have more credibility in civil society.

The user satisfaction surveys were useful in continuing to build training content as demonstrated in the second pilot course, which is discussed next. However, in Ecuador, nonprofit organizations are still addressing the issue of evaluation and how to measure the effectiveness of capacity building. The nonprofit leaders have not established a rigorous mechanism to evaluate the knowledge acquired based on the comparison of previous knowledge. Current questions on the course evaluations target user satisfaction, as in these examples: "Did the course, in your opinion, meet its objective to advance knowledge and understanding of transparency in Ecuador?" and "Did you find the exchange of information and experiences between the students favorable?" (CEDA, n.d.). Continued examination of evaluative tools that can help to measure the effectiveness of capacity building in transparency and accountability for the nonprofit sector in Ecuador will need to be explored further (Wing, 2004).

Course 2: Tools for transparency and accountability. However, the user satisfaction survey did prove helpful in designing a second pilot course. Participants from the first virtual course indicated on the course evaluations that they felt it necessary to develop more concrete tools that facilitate organizations' ability to improve the transparency of their organizations. Thus a second course was offered, called Training Civil Society Organizations in Tools of Transparency, Accountability and Measuring Impact of Their Management. The course was carried out in collaboration with the Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences [*Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales, FLACSO*]. The 25 participants were again selected from distinct geographical regions of Ecuador and across different focus

areas of the organizations, such as environment and water management issues (28%), transparency (20%), and social development (16%).

The course included six modules that followed similar pedagogical principles as in the first course. Although the course this time around was in person, it still included a lecture format, a required bibliography, and a recommended bibliography. The modules were executed through September and November 2011 and elaborated the following themes: (a) transparency policy, (b) legal frameworks that regulate the actions of civil society organizations; (c) tools for monitoring and evaluating organizational impact; (d) management models in social responsibility; (e) strategic communication for transparency and impact; and (f) construction of cross-sector dialogue. Like the first course, the course evaluation showed the participants' positive experiences:

> The principal contribution of the course has been the ratification of the importance that the theme has and to take on at personal and institutional levels the challenge of qualifying as a transparency organization. With a lot of satisfaction, I consider that my organization has various tools of transparency and accountability and others that we have to include. They are considered in the proposal to be presented to the Director and staff of the organization.

> I have realized two workshops with organizations from the zone…, where lessons were replicated.

In both experiences, the course evaluations (i.e., the user satisfaction surveys) recognized the utility of these types of courses. Although the courses were organized as pilots conducted by nonprofit organizations themselves, they were in response to an intense demand from civil society to strengthen its capacity. Also noteworthy from the evaluations, attendees reported that they intended to replicate the courses at local levels across Ecuador. The intention of local replication shows the interest that exists in Ecuador for information and knowledge related to the transparent and accountable management of nonprofit organizations.

The course evaluations also permitted the identification of opportunities to deepen concrete themes where the need is indicated. For example, CEDA organized a workshop in February 2013 about sustainability reports as integral tools for accountability. A sustainability report is an organizational report that gives information about economic, environmental, social, and governance performance.[4] The workshop was a joint action with the Collective of Civil Society Organizations and the Ecuadorian Consortium for Social Responsibility [*Consorcio Ecuatoriano para la Responsabilidad Social—CERES*]. It gave participants strategies to initiate sustainability reports based on guidelines from the International Standards Organization and the Global Reporting Initiative.[5] According to the facilitators and participants, the shorter workshop format complemented the two longer

courses and has allowed for more in-depth capacity building of nonprofit leaders in Ecuador.

Lessons Learned and Next Steps

Using Ecuador as a case study, how are nonprofit organizations coping with the lack of formal NME programs and limited curricular content related to transparency and accountability in Latin America? We have identified three strategies: the process of collectivity, the production of knowledge, and the development of training courses. Several lessons are learned from the Ecuadorian case that can inform other countries in Latin America and other contexts beyond the region. When we conducted data analysis for this research, one of the most surprising findings was the emphasis on knowledge production by nonprofit organizations in Ecuador. The two other strategies identified—collectivity and training development—directly benefited from knowledge production. The strategy of knowledge production will inform organizational practice and may encourage dialogue between nonprofit organizations and universities about NME and its curricular content in Ecuador. In addition, the use of transnational networks was critical to the implementation and success of all three strategies and deserves more attention.

In Ecuador, nonprofit organizations have assumed a large role in knowledge production. Nonprofit organizations are collecting data that seek to inform administrative behavior and practice at both the organizational and sector levels. As nonprofit organizations continue to build understanding around the topics of transparency and accountability, capacity in data and knowledge management as well as the creation of information systems in nonprofit organizations will need to become more advanced (see Stoecker, 2007). Scholars also call for a shift in how nonprofit organizations understand data and the need to examine data that might already be collected but not used (Stoecker, 2007). This call might be questioned given some scholars' concerns and cautions about the pervasiveness of managerialism in nonprofit organizations and its implications (see Lewis, 2001; Roberts, Jones, & Frothling, 2005). Although beyond the scope of this paper, implementing knowledge and data management might create burdens for nonprofit organizations and challenge organizational programming, as some scholars warn. Further research can help assess possible implications and burdens. Additionally, because so much knowledge has been produced recently concerning civil society in Ecuador, research might examine not only how nonprofit organizations and their behavior are influenced but also if such produced knowledge is informing government policy.

Knowledge production by nonprofit organizations should also signal to universities the needs of the sector. Universities are not the only places to gain NME. For example, in Mexico, Benavides (2006) observes that students are often exposed to the subjects of transparency and freedom-of-information issues outside of the formal classroom through seminars, workshops, and conferences.

Both inside and outside of universities, we have learned that better exchange among universities and nonprofit organizations can advance the creation of better NME programs. Indeed, there have been calls for NME programs to recognize that nonprofit leaders are not just consumers of knowledge but also producers of knowledge (Burlingame, 2009). The work of such special initiatives like the Collective and the knowledge produced, we have found, has not yet highly influenced public affairs education in formal higher education institutions in Ecuador. It is our opinion that the sector will benefit from more dialogue between the nonprofit leaders and universities concerning needs of the sector.

As mentioned, Andean University Simón Bolívar provides a three-module course about nonprofit management (one of the only NME offerings in Ecuador). However, the course does not address many of the current needs of nonprofit organizations in Ecuador. That is, even as transparency and accountability in civil society are debated in the public sphere in Ecuador, both through government regulatory reform and as a result of the production and dissemination of information by the Collective and its partners, these debates have not yet influenced the curricular content of the nonprofit management course at Andean University. Recently, however, in May 2013, the Ecuadorian Consortium for Social Responsibility, with the support of the Andean University Simón Bolívar, has organized a course called Capacity Building on Social Responsibility and Strategic Partnerships for Civil Society Organizations. Carried out through six sessions, the course will cover transparency and accountability under the topic of information management. This step might indicate the start of more inclusion of such issues across the Andina University's coursework related to nonprofit management.

The content of Andean University's nonprofit management course speaks to the debate in the literature on NME programs in regard to the relationship between location and content (see Mirabella & Young, 2012). In the case of Ecuador, indeed, we have learned that the location of NME programs has largely affected the content of the curricula. Curricular content in the nonprofit management course at Andean University is perceived by nonprofit organizations as very different from the courses offered and led by CEDA. The curricular content framework—market skills, political skills, and management skills—proposed by Young and Grinsfelder (2011) and used by Mirabella and Young (2012) with an addition of philanthropic skills might offer a way to more systematically compare content of NME programs in Ecuador across different locations (e.g., formal universities versus other nonprofit training opportunities). We would encourage such analysis across Latin American countries. Additionally, in the final evaluations of the courses, many nonprofit managers indicated they would replicate many of the courses' themes at the local level across Ecuador. We believe that diffusion and adaptation of NME programs on transparency and

accountability to the local level deserves greater attention. Such research might help to articulate how universities in particular can better integrate the needs of the nonprofit sector in Latin America and beyond.

In addition to nonprofit organizations constructing more robust NME programs through collectivity, knowledge production, and training development, the roles of transnational networks in these strategies in Latin America deserve more scholarly attention. Although transnational networks have been studied—often by examining their influence in advocacy at the international level, especially related to human, women's, and environmental rights (Keck & Sikkink, 1997; Wong, 2012)—little attention has been given to the transnational diffusion of special initiatives (Schmitz et al., 2013) like civil society umbrella organizations (such as the Collective), their objectives, and strategies. Transnational networks are making significant contributions to public affairs education—specifically related to NME and its curricular content—as the Ecuador case shows. Further exchange with Latin American regional networks, such as the Regional Initiative for Accountability [*Iniciativa Regional Rendir Cuentas*], and continued work with international partners such as the Communication and Development Institute in Uruguay as well as the Confederation of Colombian Nongovernmental Organizations [*La Confederación Colombiana de Organizaciones No Gubernamentales*, *CCONG*] has the potential to further strengthen NME in Ecuador, Latin America, and elsewhere.

After a process lasting approximately four years, the Collective of Civil Society Organizations was formalized in 2013 into the Ecuadorian Confederation of Civil Society Organizations. The Confederation continues to sign up organizations from across Ecuador, calling on new organizations to join the process; in April 2013, it notarized an act of official incorporation. The Confederation seeks to strengthen and represent its associates, to promote the self-regulation of the sector, and to contribute to the sector's transparency and accountability. Its objectives demonstrate the solidarity built around transparency and accountability through the strategies of collectivity, knowledge production, and training development in Ecuador during the last several years.

Conclusion

Given the contextual challenges, that is, the limited supply of formal NME programs and its curricular content as well as the implementation of regulatory reform for nonprofit organizations, in addition to the opportunities—the growing interest by organizations to understand, explore, and develop better recognition of ethics, transparent management practices, and accountability mechanisms—Ecuador offers a rich case to explore NME in Latin America. The case of Ecuador reminds public affairs educators that organizations themselves can be successful producers of knowledge and that they can and should create and inform curricular content. It is the responsibility of public affairs educators

to respond to the needs of nonprofit leaders and the organizations they manage. In contexts like those in Ecuador and beyond, dialogue among public affairs educators in universities and nonprofit leaders regarding curricular content is paramount to an ethical, transparent, and accountable civil society.

Notes

1   Nonprofit organizations are considered self-governing entities that do not distribute the excess of their revenues over expenditures among stakeholders, are noncoercive, and are assumed to have a purpose for the public benefit that is agreed upon by associates of the organization (Boris, 2006; Frumkin, 2005; Vakil, 1997). Civil society and nonprofit organizations are also sometimes called *third sector organizations, voluntary organizations*, or *voluntary associations*. Depending on the context, terms such as *community-based organizations, social organizations, grassroots organizations*, and *nongovernmental organizations* are used, just to name a few. Although in U.S. practice and scholarship the term *nonprofit organization* is more commonly used, in Ecuador, the term most used is *civil society organization*. The term *nongovernmental organization* also appears in Ecuador, as this term is common in the context of international development. Thus, in the case of Ecuador and for this article, we use the terms *civil society organization, nonprofit organization*, and *nongovernmental organization* interchangeably.

2   In Ecuador, definitions for civil society and nonprofit organizations, in the Decree, are divided into two groups, foundations and corporations/associations. To be a foundation, an organization must be legalized, be not-for-profit, and engage in activities that promote and develop social, cultural, and educational programs for the public benefit. A corporation must also be legalized and be not-for-profit but is to provide a common good for its members or a determined community. Corporations are further divided into three levels. A first-tier corporation (also called an association) represents a group of people of at least five members, such as clubs, committees, professional groups, and centers. A second-tier corporation is considered an umbrella group of first-tier groups, such as a federation or chamber. And finally, a third-tier corporation is an even more encompassing umbrella group of the second-tier organizations such as confederations, national unions, or similar organizations (Ministry of the Coordination of Social Development, 2008).

3   The digital version can be downloaded at http://www.ceda.org.ec/publicaciones2.php?pasa=0&menu=18&submenu1=48&cod_doc=2212

4   For more information, see https://www.globalreporting.org/information/sustainability-reporting/Pages/default.aspx

5   For more information, see https://www.globalreporting.org

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Public Service and Good Governance vs. Corruption and Self-Promotion: MPA Programs in Mexico

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ABSTRACT

The article looks at Master of Public Administration (MPA) programs in Mexico and identifies four basic themes that compose Mexican public administration. Public service, justice, transparency, and good governance are all found in MPA programs in Mexico. The paper begins with an examination of public administration in Mexico and suggests that Mexico is currently undergoing its own progressive era. It looks at the administrative reforms and corruption in Mexico and their impact on various functions of government. MPA program curricula in Mexico are assessed to examine course offerings as they contribute to the reform movement. We introduce our study by highlighting key issues in the country of Mexico and then proceed to discuss their absence in some MPA programs. Finally, our findings show the various course offerings and regional differences in MPA program curricula.

Keywords: Mexico, public service, corruption, MPA programs in Mexico

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After 71 years of single-party authoritarian rule and 12 years of opposition-party administration, Mexico continues a transition to democracy and a more open and transparent government. The recent election of President Enrique Peña Nieto in the fall of 2012 will be either an indication of continued reform or a return to pre-reform practices. Mexico currently faces a number of challenges that will require an educated public sector. These public administrators will need to implement policies that will bring relief and lasting change to a deserving people. Mexico, for instance, despite recent progress has the second-highest level of income inequality, according to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2011). The organization noted that "the average income of the richest 10 percent of the population is 26 times that of the poorest. The OECD

average ratio is 9. The poverty rate is the highest within OECD nations, with poverty being especially elevated among indigenous peoples" (OECD, 2011, p. 22). Rapid urbanization has caused a number of pressures on the water supply and sanitation (CONAGUA, 2011); car emissions and other pollution (OECD, 2013a); and a housing deficit of 8.9 million homes—a number that increases annually by 200,000 (Mexican Housing Authority, 2011). Although Mexico has invested a significant amount in education, "only 35 percent of the population aged 25–64 has at least upper-secondary education, among the lowest rates in the OECD" (OECD, 2013b, p. 23). Finally, and perhaps most troubling, is the harmful instability caused both locally and nationally by organized crime, violence, and the drug trade. Archibold (2013) notes that although Enrique Peña Nieto has rolled out a crime prevention program, violence continues to be a problem even for his new administration.

During a recent Network of Schools of Public Policy, Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) conference, the Honorable Diana Quintero Cuello, vice minister for Strategy and Planning for the Republic of Colombia, gave an inspiring presentation on her country's efforts against corruption and the drug trade. Literally speaking, public servants in that country place their lives at risk as they perform their civic duty. Mexico has similar fundamental problems, as recently highlighted in the death of former Tiquecheo mayor Maria Santos Gorrostieta. It is suspected that her death was related to drug cartel violence and its dominance in her jurisdictional area. During the 6-year administration of former Mexican president Felipe Calderon, more than 20 mayors lost their lives. Whether employed as mayor, police chief, journalist, or other public servant, people working in the public sector in Mexico —or Latin America, for that matter—take on additional risk dimensions not found in public administration in the United States.

Mexico traditionally has had lower levels of public participation and citizen involvement. It could safely be said that this lack of participation is rooted in the Mexican citizens' general distrust of its government officials. It could also be argued that corruption and electoral fraud have contributed to an environment of suspicion and hopelessness for Mexicans in what government can do for them. Democracy has been an elusive reality for Mexico throughout its history, and recent events confirm that the struggle continues. The present-day struggle for transparency and good governance will overcome the corruption and injustice so prevalent in this country (Benavides, 2006). However, this gradual change has been tempered by the persistent corruption that is woven into the Mexican political system and its society. Nevertheless, Mexico has a distinct advantage over other Latin American countries: an existing, well-established educational network that can overcome the corruption, concealment, injustice, and self-promotion that plague its bureaucracies.

The article begins with an examination of public administration in Mexico. We argue that Mexico is currently undergoing its own progressive era as it continues to develop. Next, we look at the administrative reforms and corruption in Mexico

and their impact on various functions of government. These reforms have been significant and have brought structural change to Mexico. At this point, we look at Master of Public Administration (MPA) curricula in Mexico to assess course offerings. We introduce our study by highlighting our model of Mexican public administration, which is composed of public service, justice, transparency, and good governance. We then proceed to discuss the methodology and analytical procedures. Finally, our findings show the various course offerings and regional differences in MPA program curricula.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN MEXICO

Public administration at the beginning of the last century in the United States was dominated by corruption and questionable practices that resulted in the Progressive Era and significant reforms. We believe that Mexico is currently in a similar situation. According to Wilson (1887), it appears that most nations pass through three stages of development. The first stage is that of absolute rulers and administrative systems adapted to absolute rule. Mexico's administrative history is marked by this type of absolute rule, as evidenced by the viceroyalty of the Spanish crown (Ciaramitaro, 2008), the French occupation of Mexico (Figueroa, 2011), and the dictatorship of Porfirio Díaz as well as others (O. Guerrero, 2010). These periods were marked by a lack of democracy and preference to nobility. Wilson's second stage is achieved by establishing a framed constitution and doing away with absolute rulers. Although Mexico had previous constitutions, most significantly its 1857 constitution inspired by Benito Juarez, its current constitution—ratified in 1917—was unique in that it set out social policies and endeavored to guide the new republic at the beginning of the 20th century. In addition, the constitution was a model in progressive social justice for its people. Wilson's third and final stage of development for nations appears when the sovereign people undertake to develop and institute administration under the new constitution that brought them to power. In the case of Mexico, the country's new constitution brought among other things the right to assemble, the right of public education, the free exercise of worship, and the right to own property. Public administration developed extensively and began to consolidate its institutional structure from the process of democratization. Additionally, the Institutional Revolutionary Party was born out of an attempt to solidify the advances made from the Mexican Revolution. Although the party did not speak for all Mexicans, its dominance for so many decades was the facility that enabled benefits to be distributed throughout the country (especially in more rural areas) in exchange for support of the ruling party in elections.

Mexico has progressed and advanced through these stages of development to the point where it is currently undergoing its own progressive era. The recent elections of Presidents Vicente Fox and Felipe Calderón from the National Action Party and a relatively young current president from the traditional political party

indicate a sovereign's desire for actual institutional change. Its public administration, influenced by its unique history, has adapted to various historical circumstances in its attempt to provide services. For instance, professionalism in public administration took a big step forward in the 1930s, when a federal law approved a type of strategic planning with the novel idea of providing quality in public services (Morales, 1999). Also, in the 1950s, the National Institute of Public Administration and the National School of Political and Social Sciences at the *Universidad Autonoma de Mexico* [National Autonomous University of Mexico] created both the political science and public administration programs. Subsequently, professionalism, the modernization of public service, and the creation of a number of public administration programs were established (Sanchez, 2009). Woodrow Wilson (1887) once noted that only by establishing high-quality professional schools of administration could future public servants hired through merit have any chance of improving the circumstances of their day. Mexico today has a number of MPA programs, and the field is being studied both in theory and practice.

In 1945, William Ebenstein wrote an article in *Public Administration Review* on public administration in Mexico. It was one of the first attempts to capture the essence of public administration and what it meant to this developing nation. A number of other scholars also have written about public administration in Mexico; for instance, Rodriguez and Ward (1991) studied opposition politics, power, and public administration. Specifically, they looked at the role of policy implementation within bureaucracies and found that the implementation process has been frustrated by "a multiplicity of agencies and departments whose functions frequently overlap; a large turnover of officials every time a new administration takes office, and a long-standing custom of self-serving bureaucrats" (p. 31). The emphasis on politics and policy research and the minor connection to public administration was customary due to the significance of the former in the Mexican political governance structure. A number of other authors have looked at Mexican public administration in its various forms, ranging from motivation of public servants to the effects of New Public Management (Arellano-Gault, 2000; Cabrero, 2005; Cejudo, 2008; Saint-Germain, 1995). Others have looked at governance, capacity building, and public policy issues (Cejudo, 2003; Grindle, 2006; Sullivan, 2006). And finally, other studies have looked at specific cities in Mexico and their government structure (Arellano-Gault, 2000; Grindle, 2007; Klingner, 2000; Perlman & Guadarrama, 2011). We mention these studies to illustrate that Mexican public administration has matured to the point that it is being practiced, researched by academics, and studied by students in public administration programs. It has reached the period in its development when progressive change can occur for the betterment of society. Therefore, accountability, reorganization, transparency, and an ethical government are now possible with continued significant reforms.

Administrative Reforms in Mexico and Corruption

Trust in government is essential in providing a secure foundation for open and honest communication, cooperation, and governance. A lack of trust erodes confidence and plants the seeds of distrust that make it difficult to govern. Villoria, Van Ryzin, and Lavena (2013) note that "administrative and political corruption damages the legitimacy of government in the eyes of citizens and weakens the social fabric of democratic society" (p. 85). Werlin (2003) argues that the difference between poor nations and rich nations is not so much their wealth but rather the way they are governed.

Unfortunately, public service in Mexico is perceived by the public as a way to enrich one's own pockets at the expense of others. Corruption is most often defined as "the abuse of official duty by public officials, entailing a direct or indirect benefit derived from a public service position" (Villoria 2007, p. 86) and "a betrayal of the public trust for reasons of private interest" (Rosenbloom, 1998, p. 533). Waite and Allen (2003) suggest that "corruption of the sort that pervades Mexican society is compounded, even made possible, by pyramidal hierarchical structures, such as is found in most modern bureaucracies" (p. 283). Corruption in Mexico has been the major barrier in providing good governance to its people. The country's bureaucratic history is perhaps one of several causes for its corruption, but not an excuse. The pervasiveness of deceit has created a culture of corruption that runs deep in the government. By this we mean that corruption has been so prevalent for so long that it has become part of the administrative culture.

In some agencies, corruption is the standard operating procedure, to the point that it has lost most of its negative stigma and is the accepted way to conduct the government's business. For instance, Arellano-Gault (2012) analyzed data sent to internal control agencies in Mexico that are on a path to administrative reform. He concluded, however, that although these agencies provide a discourse of reform and co-responsibility, corruption persists in a deep-seated culture that prevents the agencies from abandoning organizational values that promote control and a watchdog mentality. Bohorquez (2006) has looked at Mexico's corrupt activities that range from stealing and accepting bribes to agreements with criminal organizations. One Mexican federal agency, the National Institute of Statistics and Geography, has audited programs of other federal agencies that have corrupt and illegal activities (*Instituto Nacional de Estadistica y Geografia*, 2011). Nevertheless, corruption has a varied and distinct history in Mexico that has influenced current political circumstances and, ironically, inspired transparency and administrative and political reform similar to the U.S. experience (Benavides, 2006). It appears as though at some point, a certain degree of corruption spawns or at least triggers administrative reform. Mexico has reached the point where the trigger has been pulled and reform is inevitable.

The introduction of institutional reforms in the public sector in Mexico began in the early 1980s (Cabrero, 2005; Sullivan, 2006). At the core of the decentralization reform movement was the attempt to rebuild and reestablish the public trust and institute efficiencies that have long been lost because of corrupt governments. Additionally, the movement's aim was to encourage civic duty in both public administrators and the public at large. Laura Sullivan (2006) notes:

> The democratization and decentralization reforms that have taken place in Mexico have dramatic implications for local governance. The political reforms produced significant change and have opened opportunities for participatory local governance by enhancing the powers of the state and municipal governments and expanding the voice of the people. (p. 41)

It is clear that years of nonparticipation would require the government and its citizenry to learn the most successful methods of participation. Cejudo (2008), for example, argued that the administrative reforms such as downsizing, account-ability, economic liberalization, and political democratization were all part of the New Public Management (NPM) movement in the early 1980s. All of these tech-niques were part and parcel of attempting participatory management.

Universities and professional organizations have also had a role in promoting open government and encouraging transparency. Since 2001, the *Centro de Invest-igación y Docencia Económicas (CIDE)* [Center for Investigation and Economic Teaching; a prominent university and research center in Mexico] has awarded the *Premio de Gobierno y Gestión Local* [Government and Local Management Award] to local governments that participate in performance measurement systems that improve their local governments. Another organization that is having an impact on Mexican local government reform is the International City/County Manage-ment Association (ICMA)–Latin America. Through its Center for Performance Measurement, ICMA–LA has identified indicators as units of production and pro-ducts that provide insight into the implementation of goals. In Mexico, ICMA–LA launched the program SINDES (the Spanish acronym for Performance Indicator System), a tool that measures key areas of local government management. It has been successful in achieving efficiencies in a number of cities.

However, it is not clear how much impact these reforms have had on citizens' political participation, perception, and civic engagement. The average citizen has long accepted sub-par performance and corruption as part of the normal way to conduct the public's business. Scholars have also argued that electoral reform has little influence on Mexican local government performance (Cleary, 2007). Other structural difficulties placed on institutions and practices tend to impede account-ability. For example, electoral term limits have a direct impact on public sector

performance and citizens' political participation. At the local level, for instance, a mayor is elected for a 3-year term without the possibility of immediate reelection. The practical effect of this arrangement on local elected officials is to govern for the short run. Thus roads are paved and bridges constructed (a tangible sign of success in office), but the long-term administrative reforms such as instituting a performance measurement system or creating a real civil service system for employees are generally neglected. Thus the current political framework does not allow for sustained improvement in government performance. Clearly, the electoral structure is linked to disincentives to adopt real administrative reforms. Furthermore, opportunities for citizen participation might be high in one mayoral administration, and in the next they could be completely nonexistent. Nearly all newly elected mayors create and establish a new administration and place new emphasis on strategies, an approach that sometimes means changing the previous administration's policies and management practices even though they were successful (Cabrero-Mendoza, 1999; Sullivan, 2006).

Finally, Cabrero (2005) notes the importance of expanding the capacity of government management to offer better solutions and results as well as rebuild social confidence. He notes that these "types of strategies will strengthen a professional and technical focus in administration, which will improve regulation and control systems, therefore giving more transparency and clarity to government action" (p. 81). Hiskey and Bowler (2005) make a related argument, though it is more relevant to local participation. Mexican citizens are more likely to participate in politics and support administrative reforms if they perceive the process as fair, and this perception stems from their local experiences. Although federal reforms are important, local institutions and political culture are also essential in motivating local citizens to participate in the democratic processes. Thus it should be remembered that the "causal relationships between government corruption, legitimacy, and the trust of citizens in a society are likely to be reciprocal, complex, and evolving over time" (Villoria et al., 2013, p. 86). In short, the professionalization embedded in good government should have positive impacts on the citizenry. Many of the articles written about Mexican public administration end with a caveat, as in Cejudo (2008): "As the public administration becomes more professional and accountable, it will be necessary to reopen the debate about reform" (p. 124). How will public administration become more accountable, if not for the professional education offered in schools of public administration in Mexico? The reform efforts thus far illustrate Mexico's own ongoing progressive era. As in the United States at the turn of the last century, these reforms or this era will not be marked by one event or act but by a series of events and developments accentuated by individual actions of dedicated public servants that will culminate in significant transformations. The following section addresses these reforms through MPA programs in Mexico.

MPA Curricula in Mexico

Mexico is the third-largest OECD country in terms of economy. Its population is very young: The average age is 26, in a population of approximately 113,000,000. Mexico has a centralized federal government and Federal District, and 31 states that contain 2,411 municipalities of vastly different sizes. The need for properly trained public administrators or civil servants is evident now more than ever.

To better understand Mexican public administration and MPA programs in Mexico specifically, we created a model with four general themes. We identified these themes as public service, justice, transparency, and good governance. Each of these areas was composed of sub-areas for which we expected to find MPA courses in the curriculum. Our particular concerns were whether MPA programs considered their political and administrative environments and provided courses to address relevant issues. In the case of Mexico, we expected to find programs that offered courses, workshops, lectures, or other instructional pedagogies related to a traditional MPA program. We also anticipated finding courses on governance and how to combat corruption, concealment, injustice, and self-promotion. Were classes on ethics being taught? Did MPA curricula reflect the grim realities of the drug trade and organized crime and how to deal with and confront them? What values and skills were currently being taught? We categorized these questions within the domain of risk dimensions. We defined risk dimensions as circumstances that inhibit the free exercise of governance within a jurisdictional area. These "circumstances" are the known presence of drug cartels; homicides of civil servants and elected officials, known corruption including the giving and receiving of bribes; and the lack of government transparency.

According to the *Secretaria de Educación Publica* [Secretariat of Public Education] in Mexico, there are currently 749 recognized institutions of higher education. Of these, 55 have the potential to offer the MPA degree. Information was obtained through online university websites, e-mail contact, and direct phone communication with university programs. We were not able to obtain information on 19 programs. These programs had no website, and repeated telephone communications were unsuccessful. The cases where contact was made and no information on the program was available led us to conclude that the program was not functioning. Additionally, eight Mexican states did not have MPA programs. Three of these states had the program on the books, but the universities within those states did not really offer the program. Therefore, the following findings are based on information obtained from our sample of 36 universities with MPA programs. The themes captured our four main components of public administration: public service, justice, transparency, and good governance through prescribed delineated sub-elements (Figure 1). The current sub-elements are tentative course descriptions that would most likely capture our themes. Our basic descriptive analysis examines the influence of regional contextual factors on MPA curricula.

Figure 1.
Mexican Public Administration
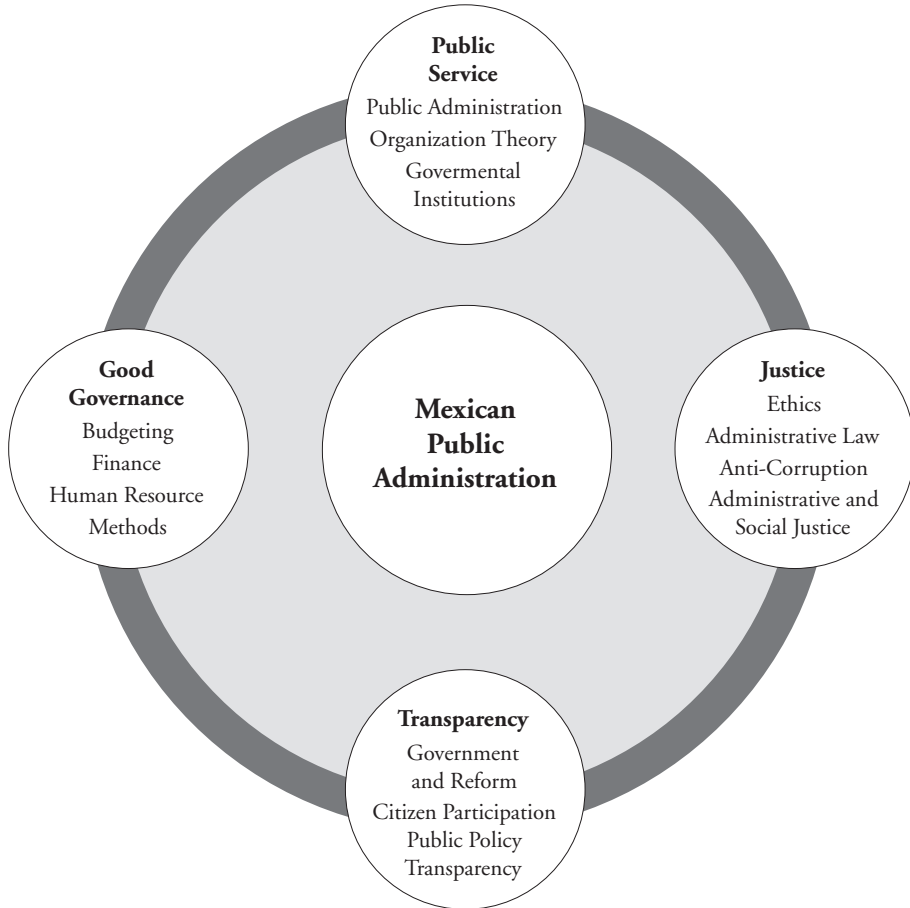
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on our four themes of Mexican public administration (see Figure 1), the course offerings in the MPA programs we analyzed covered all four areas. For the area of public service, we found that a general course in public administration is being offered by 28 of the 36 programs (77%). Eight programs did not offer the basic introductory course that establishes a foundational outlook to the practice of public administration in Mexico. Organizational theory is being offered by 21 of the 36 programs (58%), and 15 programs do not offer the course. The principles of leadership, how organizations work, the concepts of efficiency and effectiveness, and agency integration are missing from a number of the current Mexican government agencies. Therefore, additional emphasis in this area would fortify an

understanding of how government organizations work in Mexico. A final topic within the theme of public service is government and institutions. A course on this subject is found in 28 of the 36 MPA programs (77%). Our analysis suggests the popularity of this course lies in its connection with the institutions themselves. In Mexico, institutions or government agencies are paramount and their study is essential.

Our second theme in the study of Mexican public administration is justice. Here we found a dichotomy of sorts: 27 out of 36 (75%) of the programs offer a core class in administrative law, but ethics and other related subjects ranked very low. The basis for this emphasis appears to be historical and traditional because Mexican public administration was originally founded on the French and Spanish systems of administration, which were established in law. U.S. MPA programs by comparison are based on themes of constitutionalism, liberty, and freedom. Five programs did offer an additional course on liberty and constitutional law; however, it was not significant enough to substantially influence the profession. We found that 14 of the 36 programs (48%) offered a course on social justice and admini-stration. However, this area is not emphasized in MPA programs, as evident by the lack of professionalism found in governmental agencies tasked with this area of service. Finally, we note that only 15 of the 36 programs (41%) offered a course on ethics. The lack of emphasis on ethics and professional values in the Mexican public sector has led to a perception of corruption that has negatively affected the image of civil servants. Additionally, we found no classes on how to combat corruption. The absence of such a course and lack of emphasis on anticorruption practices have led some Mexican public administrators down a path of corruption. This in turn has led to instances of institutional corruption that have become imbedded in Mexican public administration and resulted in an administrative culture of corruption. This negative perception has been combated in the past and will be confronted in the future; however, it will take generations to overcome.

The third area of public administration in Mexico was captured by a theme we called transparency. Of the 36 MPA programs in our analysis, 24 (66%) have a class on government reform. NPM-type programs, performance indicators, and other reform technologies are currently being taught and viewed as essential in MPA programs. We view this as a step in the right direction. Nevertheless, only 9 of the 36 programs (25%) hold a class on transparency. The desire to use resources efficiently has taken precedence over how processes are being conducted. The danger here manifests itself in the perception of governmental institutions as being contin-uously secretive, closed, and uncooperative with the general public. Transparency is usually defined as an environment of open government decisions, well-defined costs, and public access to information about processes in government (J. Guerrero & Hofbauer, 2003). This less than enthusiastic desire to be transparent is also evident in courses on citizen participation. A mere nine MPA programs (25%) offer a class on citizen participation. The conventional authoritarian centralized rule of law in Mexico has staying power, and despite reforms, it continues to be

the recognized and customary way to run the public sector. One course within this theme that stands out is public policy. Our analysis shows that 33 of the 36 MPA programs (91%) offer this course. This finding exemplifies the narrow and constant relationship that exists between policy and politics within Mexican public administration. The political polarization between politics in matters of public administration is perhaps one of the biggest challenges for developing a strong independent public sector. A fundamental understanding of the politics-administration dichotomy is lacking in theory and practice.

The fourth and final theme we analyzed was that of good governance. Here we attempted to identify basic core courses requisite for almost any MPA program. Our analysis showed that 91% of the programs (33 of the 36) have a basic methods course. Due to the strong emphasis on politics, it is possible that these courses focus on public policy issues versus administrative ones. Nevertheless, students are receiving this basic training. Likewise, our findings showed that 80% of the programs (29 of the 36) offer a government finance course. These programs stress the importance of finance, and it is understood that this subject is a cornerstone of administration. Furthermore, an additional 15 of the 36 programs (41%) offer courses in public budgeting. Although these core public administration courses seemed to be covered, we argue that more programs should offer public budgeting. Mexico is a country with finite resources, and appropriate accounting and auditing practices should be expected of those entering the public service.

The core course in this fourth theme is human resources. Mexico does not have an official civil service, and most public servants work for a political administration until its term limits require them to leave office. Some public servants are able to move into positions within a new administration; however, there is no guarantee. The analysis showed that 12 of the 36 programs (33%) offered a course in human resources. This result is not surprising; however, the lack of this course prevents students who want to become public servants from gaining knowledge about the importance of human resources in general, the structure of organizational life and model organizations, and a basic understanding of how to treat employees and the general public. Having a human resources course can improve public administration in Mexico. The lack of this course, we argue, could be one of the factors that have defined Mexican public administrators as insensitive, inhumane, unethical, and lacking responsibility and accountability toward public service. All Mexican MPA programs offer a wide range of electives, ranging from courses in sustainable development, strategic planning, and public sector marketing to courses in international commerce and regional development, state and local modernization and administration, and public security.

Additionally, our analysis looked at possible differences within MPA curriculum and regional differentiations. We suspected that in addition to core MPA requirements, we would find courses unique to the needs, perspectives, approaches, and objectives of a particular Mexican state or geographic area. In the following text, we describe several cases in which our intuition appears to be correct. The metro

capital area, called the *Distrito Federal* [Federal District], is located in the south central area of Mexico. The MPA programs in this region have a tendency to provide courses in leadership and negotiation, seminars in quality and public management, marketing policy, and government procurement as well as marketing of products, public services, and sustainable development. These additional courses with specific contents detail the needs and describe the interest in this region in giving public servants more knowledge about the methods and procedures for improving the delivery of government services. This particular geographic area is highly urbanized and densely populated. Recent estimates by the *Instituto Nacional de Estadistica y Geografía* [National Institute of Statistics and Geography] (2013) of Mexico place the city population at 8,851,050. When we include the surrounding metropolitan area, the population surpasses 21 million, making it the third largest in the world. The area is replete with highly complex administrative, socioeconomic, and political challenges. MPA programs are tasked with addressing these issues and searching for solutions to alleviate urban and regional problems. Thus the correct way to deliver public services is one of the keys to improving living conditions for residents of this metropolitan area.

The southern region of Mexico is mostly rural, with a high concentration of indigenous peoples who in the past have participated in rural social and civic movements against the centralized federal government. MPA programs in this region have tended to focus on topics related to rural sustainable development, land improvement in terms of agriculture and agricultural production, and security and social justice. Courses found in these MPA programs include international trade and regional development, cultural development planning and government evaluation, and strategic management of the public organization. The *Universidad Juárez del Estado de Durango* [Juárez University in the State of Durango] has a typical MPA program that offers these courses. The *Escuela Libre de Derecho de Puebla* [Free School of Law in the State of Puebla] offers courses in economic law, environmental law and natural resources, strategic planning and formulation of public policy, public service, and defensive strategies in public administration. Again, these elective courses are regional in nature and are tailored to the specific needs of the area's public administration community.

Finally, in the northern region of Mexico along the U.S.–Mexican border, universities offer courses with the objective of improving the bilateral relationship between the United States and Mexico. These countries have a mutual interest in developing joint strategies to address issues such as security and the economy, including trade, immigration, environmental issues, and a number of other regional and political concerns. The University of Baja California, for example, has a course on governance policies and the border. Other institutions offer courses related to bilateral relationships and the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). The *Centro Latinoamericano de Estudios Superiores* [Center for Superior Studies in Latin America] offers courses in public policy, governance, and diplomacy and

foreign relations. It is quite clear that regional differences play a particular role in MPA elective choices and in tailoring programs to the region.

To further explore and compare regional differences with respect to various MPA courses being offered and level of corruption, we looked specifically at the states in Mexico, their region, a corruption index, and courses on ethics, transparency, and anticorruption (Table 1). Mexico's 31 states and the Federal District compose Mexico's 32 jurisdictions. Among these areas, only 23 have an MPA program at one of their universities. We then grouped the states according to their region in Mexico, based on the classification developed by the *Instituto Nacional de Estadistica y Geografia* (2012) of Mexico. The classification is based on the state's socioeconomic status, where the poorest states are in region 1 and richer states in region 6. Region 7 is the Federal District, and it is classified as the most well-to-do region in Mexico. The table also shows each state's geographical region, regionalization by activity, four selected MPA courses, and a corruption index. The corruption index was obtained from the National Index of Corruption and Good Governance, which was taken from a 2006 Mexican transparency study (Bohorquez, 2006). The study looked at citizen's experiences and perceptions of the 35 most used national services that directly affect the social development of citizens. Each state's raw score is based on the number of times, out of 100, that an individual citizen felt that some form of corruption was involved in obtaining a service. Therefore, in the state of Chiapas, region 1 (the poorest state in Mexico), its citizens felt that for every 100 services, 2.8 of them involved some type of corruption. The National Index of Corruption and Good Governance shows that the average score for the overall country is 8.35, including a maximum corruption score of 19.80 in the Federal District and a minimum corruption score of 2 in the state of Queretaro.

It is interesting to note that although the Federal District has the highest corruption level (20 out of every 100 transactions involve corruption), MPA programs in the capital offer classes on ethics and transparency. Additionally, we can see that MPA programs in the states of Hidalgo, Puebla, Durango, and Mexico, which all have a corruption index score higher than 10 (i.e., 10 out of every 100 transactions involve corruption) also offer a course on ethics. On the other hand, MPA programs in the states of Tabasco, Veracruz, Tlaxcala, and Morelos—which also have a corruption index score higher than 10—do not offer a course on ethics. We contend that MPA programs are aware of a need, and some programs are mitigating the ill effects of corruption by preparing the next generation of public servants. The reform movement is in process; and in time, more schools will offer a course on ethics. For instance, MPA programs in eight other states offer ethics courses, and their corruption index is below 7.5. Therefore, although we cannot conclude that a higher corruption index score will automatically result in an ethics course in an MPA program, we can argue that efforts are being made to combat the serious problem of corruption. In all,

Table 1.

Mexican States, Their Corruption Index and Selected MPA Themes

Region	State	Geographic Position	Regionalization by Activity	Corruption Index	Median of Corruption Index	Ethics Courses	Corruption Courses	Transparency Courses	Regionally Themed Courses
1	Chiapas	Southwest	south	2.80	8.10	Yes	No	Yes	No
	Guerrero	Southwest	south	11.10		No MPA program	No MPA program		
	Oaxaca	Southwest	south	8.10		No	No	No	No
2	Campeche	Southeast	oil	7.80	10.85	No MPA program	No MPA program		
	Hidalgo	East	center	11.40		Yes	No	No	No
	Puebla	East	center	10.90		Yes	No	Yes	No
	San Luis Potosi	Center–north	industrial restructuring	6.60		No	No	No	No
	Tabasco	Southeast	oil	13.60		No	No	Yes	Yes
	Veracruz	East	oil	10.80		No	No	Yes	Yes
3	Durango	Northwest	source materials	11.10	10.00	Yes	No	No	Yes
	Guanajuato	Center–north	industrial restructuring	5.20		Yes	No	No	No
	Michoacán	West	source materials	10.80		No MPA program	No MPA program		
4	Tlaxcala	East	center	10.00	6.85	No	No	No	No
	Zacatecas	Center–north	source materials	5.30		No MPA program	No MPA program		
	Colima	West	source materials	7.00		No	No	No	No
	Mexico	Center–south	center	13.30		No	No	No	No

Table 1.
Mexican States, Their Corruption Index and Selected MPA Themes (continued)

Region	State	Geographic Position	Regionalization by Activity	Corruption Index	Median of Corruption Index	Ethics Courses	Corruption Courses	Transparency Courses	Regionally Themed Courses
4	Morelos	Center–south	center	11.00	6.85	No	No	No	No
	Nayarit	West	source materials	5.70		No	No	No	No
	Queretaro	Center–north	industrial restructuring	2.00		No	No	No	No
	Quintana Roo	Southeast	tourism	9.40		No MPA program			
	Sinaloa	Northwest	source materials	6.60		Yes	No	Yes	No
	Yucatan	Southeast	tourism	6.70		Yes	No	No	Yes
5	Baja California	Northwest	border	6.90	6.80	Yes	No	No	Yes
	Baja California Sur	Northwest	tourism	4.80		No MPA program—no information			
	Chihuahua	Northwest	border	7.40		No	No	No	No
	Sonora	Northwest	border	5.20		No MPA program—no information			
	Tamaulipas	Northeast	border	6.80		No MPA program—no information			
6	Aguascalientes	Center–north	industrial restructuring	6.20	6.85	Yes	No	No	No
	Coahuila	Northeast	border	6.50		Yes	No	No	No
	Jalisco	West	industrial restructuring	7.20		Yes	No	Yes	No
	Nuevo León	Northeast	border	9.30		No	No	No	Yes
7	Distrito Federal	Center–south	center	19,80	19,80	Yes	No	Yes	Yes

13 of the 23 states (including the Federal District), or 57%, have a university with an MPA program that offers a class on ethics. Similarly, 7 of the 23 states have universities that offer courses on transparency. Here again, there appears to be no recognizable pattern. Three states and the Federal District have a course on transparency and have a corruption index higher than 10; and three states have an index below 7.5 yet also carry the course. It is, however, significant to note that no MPA program offers a course on anticorruption strategies.

Finally, there appear to be no regional differences with respect to offering courses on ethics or transparency. Every region offers a course on either ethics or transparency. However, it is interesting to note that in the border states of Baja California, Chihuahua, Sonora, Tamaulipas, Coahuila, and Nuevo León, only two MPA programs offer a class on ethics, and no programs offer a class on transparency or anticorruption strategies. It is also remarkable that two border states either have no universities that carry an MPA program, or no information is available on the program. We would have expected the MPA programs in these border states to carry a stronger justice and transparency component. It is clear, however, that two of the border states offer regionally themed MPA courses to deal with border issues.

CONCLUSIONS

Our analysis verified that MPA programs in Mexico are teaching courses that prepare students for public service careers. In looking at the 36 functioning MPA programs in Mexico, we can generally say that they are highly structured to include basic courses in public administration. The Mexican public administration model presented earlier is descriptive of most programs. They offer courses with respect to public service, justice, transparency, and good governance. Regional differences were also noted in terms of elective offerings. These electives mirrored the needs of the region, providing public administrators with the tools necessary to govern their particular area.

However, if our model is viewed as a type of balance wheel, then we suggest that maintaining a strong balance between the four components of the model is a dynamic situation that requires significant effort. Our findings indicate that when we apply this balance wheel metaphor to our model, Mexican MPA programs lack equilibrium. For instance, the areas of public service and good governance appear to be covered by most programs, because classes in budgeting, finance, human resources, and methods are covered. Classes in general public administration, organizational theory, and institutions are also provided.

When we look at the other two components of the model, justice and transparency, it seems that the disequilibrium begins to surface. MPA programs in Mexico are not teaching courses that prepare students for the additional risk dimensions associated with public service careers in Mexico. We found no evidence of courses dealing with how to handle the drug trade or cartels, or with public

administration in jurisdictional areas dominated by a drug cartel. Our concerns whether MPA programs considered their political and administrative environments and provided courses to address relevant issues were not relieved. For the justice component of the model, we expected to find programs that offered courses on how to deal with and combat corruption, concealment, injustice, and self-promotion. There were no classes in these topical areas. Nor did we find classes that addressed the drug trade, despite its being a terrible plague to the citizens of Mexico. Less than half the programs offered classes on ethics. The transparency aspect of the model was also only sporadically addressed, causing further imbalances in the model. A lack of classes on government reform, citizen participation, and transparency was common, and most often such classes were offered only as electives. Additionally, it is interesting to note that the two weakest areas of the model were the components that citizens most closely identified with and understood—justice and transparency. Unfortunately, these areas of the model that produced the imbalances were precisely the areas needed for a balanced MPA program in Mexico. Current and future MPA programs need to evaluate their curricula to assure that a balance exists between courses that offer the basic MPA curriculum, integrated with the components of justice and transparency—areas that are vital to the public service of Mexico.

Finally, we confirm that circumstances inhibiting the free exercise of governance within jurisdictional areas in Mexico—the presence of a drug cartel, homicides of civil servants and elected officials, known corruption including the giving and receiving of bribes, and the lack of governmental transparency—are part and parcel of the public service environment and of being a public servant in Mexico. We therefore conclude that risk dimensions remain high for public servants in Mexico.

In conducting our study, we noted that future research can look into how MPA curricula in Mexico are constructed. Were MPA programs in Mexico modeled after U.S. programs? Do other international MPA programs offer similar curricula based on inherent governmental and regional service needs? What is the nature of, and relationship between, U.S. MPA programs and those in Mexico? What and where are the partnerships that currently exist? Why do eight states in Mexico have no MPA programs at state universities? What is the relationship between professional organizations in Mexico, such as the National Institute of Public Administration [*Instituto Nacional De Administracion Publica, INAP*] and Mexican MPA programs? Can NASPAA play a role in developing MPA programs in Mexico? Our study raises several issues that are interesting and practical for current MPA programs in Mexico. Despite the difficult challenges posed by the risks facing Mexican public servants, we have met many of that country's young students, scholars, and practitioners and have complete confidence that the future of public administration in Mexico is in good hands.

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Public Administration Education in Brazil: Evolution, Challenges, and Opportunities

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Abstract

Public administration education is provided in Brazil in two modalities: by government schools at all levels and branches of government, and by academic programs at the graduate and undergraduate levels. Education before entering the public service is primarily offered in public and private institutions of higher education at the graduate and undergraduate levels, with the latter predominating. Schools of government provide professional training that concentrates on skill and knowledge development for civil servants; a few offer academic degrees. Training is generally related to the focus of sponsoring agencies, although some schools have more expansive offerings. This paper addresses three questions related to the delivery of public administration education in Brazil: (a) How have the academic and professional training systems evolved? (b) How do their approaches compare? (c) What are the challenges and opportunities that face both modalities educating for public service in Brazil in the future?

Keywords: Brazil, government schools, generic administration programs

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With close to 200 million residents and covering nearly half the South American continent, Brazil is the world's seventh largest economy (CIA, 2013), the most populous country in Latin America, and the fifth most populous country in the world. Colonized by Portugal in the early 16th century, the country attained its independence in 1822 but remained a constitutional monarchy until the military coup of 1889, when it became the Republic of the United States of Brazil.[1] From then until the Revolution of 1930, Brazil was formally a democracy but power

was concentrated in the hands of wealthy land owners from the country's more powerful states.

The Revolution brought Getulio Vargas into power as president and then dictator of what is referred to as the New State [*Estado Novo*]. Vargas believed in extensive government intervention as a way to transform Brazil from a plantation-based economy favoring the few into an industrialized nation that would benefit the many. He saw public sector reform as a critical driver of this transformation (Barros & Passos, 2000; Pizzinatto, 1999). A key initiative to implement reform was the establishment of the Administrative Department of Public Service [*Departamento Administrativo do Serviço Público*—DASP] in 1938.[2] DASP was tasked with professionalizing Brazil's civil service through the introduction of a meritocracy system for employee selection and promotion. Previously, government service in Brazil, like in other Latin American countries, was patterned on a patronage system inherited from its days as part of a colonial empire.

To promote a more professional government, DASP provided short-term courses to civil servants in several substantive areas such as budgeting and personnel management (Fischer, 1984). In less than a year, these courses "recorded more than 8,000 enrollments" (Farah, 2010, p. 13). The DASP initiative established the precedent for government involvement in educating for public administration in its broadest sense that encompasses academic education and professional training—the two approaches to educating for public administration covered in this paper. Today, more than 200 schools under the aegis of all branches and levels of government offer professional training. The second type of public administration education in Brazil is provided by more than 90 academic programs at both the graduate and undergraduate levels.

This paper addresses three questions related to the delivery of public administration education in Brazil: (a) How have the academic and professional training systems evolved? (b) How do their approaches compare? (c) What are the challenges and opportunities that face educating for public service in Brazil in the future? The first two sections of the paper describe the evolution of the academic system and the development of Brazil's government schools. The third section looks at the way both systems approach public administration education. The final section identifies opportunities and challenges to educating for public administration in Brazil and makes recommendations directed at its continued growth.

Educating for Public Administration: The Academic Approach

Higher education in Brazil developed much later than in most other Latin American countries, where universities were founded under Spanish rule in the 17th century (Durham, 2003). In Brazil, the first university was not established until 1920, and it was more than a decade later that Brazil experienced significant advances in higher education under Getulio Vargas and the *Estado Novo*. Education reforms made during the Vargas years covered a wide range of issues, such as professorial appointments and curricula, and they solidified the strong influence

of the federal government on higher education in Brazil that continues today. As mentioned earlier, the major initiative of the *Estado Novo* specifically affecting public administration education was the creation of DASP.

In the early 1940s, however, efforts to train civil servants moved away from DASP and turned to establishing institutions outside government. The first was the Getulio Vargas Foundation[3] [*Fundação Getúlio Vargas*—FGV], a nonprofit higher education institution that was created in 1944 in Rio de Janeiro with assistance from the United Nations (Fischer, 1984). Its goal was to provide management training for the nation's public and private sectors (Wahrlich, 1967; Fischer, 1984). It conferred no academic degrees.

The first institution to offer an academic degree in public administration in Brazil and in Latin America was the Brazilian School of Public Administration [*Escola Brasileira de Administração Pública*—EBAP].[4] It was established at FGV in 1952 with assistance from the United Nations. EBAP conferred a *graduação* [graduation] degree that is equivalent to a bachelor's degree in the United States. What is called a graduate degree in the United States is referred to as a *pós-graduação* [postgraduation] degree in Brazil.

During the 20-year period of more open government that followed the authoritarian Vargas era, FGV and other academic institutions collaborated with their counterparts in North America, especially those in the United States, to advance public administration education in Brazil. For example, in 1959, Brazil entered into an agreement with the University of Southern California (USC) in which professors from Brazil went to the United States to take doctoral courses, and professors from the United States went to Brazil to provide assistance in areas such as curriculum development. At about the same time, the U.S.-based Ford Foundation became involved in educating for public administration in Brazil, primarily concentrating on ways to integrate policy courses into public administration programs. This was a reflection of what was simultaneously happening in the United States, where there was a growing focus on the importance of understanding policy processes and techniques for students studying public administration (Farah, 2010).

In 1964, a military junta assumed power in Brazil. The new government saw higher education as vital to its overall efforts to increase the nation's standing as a world power and established the Federal Council of Education. The Council promulgated guidelines for graduate programs across disciplines. Previously, legislation pertaining to graduate-level education had been ambiguous, and graduate-level courses were offered in many inconsistent formats (Parecer 977, 1965).

The first program in public administration at the master's level was established in 1967 at FGV in Rio de Janeiro. Over the next 20 years, two more master's programs were created: one at FGV-São Paulo in 1976 and one at the Federal University of Bahia [*Universidade Federal da Bahia*—UFBA] in 1983. During this same time, dozens of undergraduate programs educating for public administration were also established. By 2011, there were 80 programs educating for

public administration at the undergraduate level (CAPES, 2011)—almost seven times the 12 programs at the master's level (CAPES, 2011). This picture contrasts with that in the United States, where graduate programs predominate in public administration education. In 2010, there were close to 300 master's degree programs in public administration and related areas of study in the United States; 128 institutions offered undergraduate degrees.[5]

The predominance of undergraduate programs in Brazil reflects the dominance of undergraduate education across academic fields. For instance, an undergraduate degree in law is the accepted credential for entry into the legal profession along with passing the bar examination.

Undergraduate Programs

Today, of the 80 programs at the undergraduate level in Brazil, 21 are housed in tuition-free public universities and 59 in private institutions (CAPES, 2011). Both federal universities and private institutions are subject to the laws and regulations of the federal government with regard to accreditation and the creation, authorization, and recognition of programs (Laus & Morosini, 2005). State and municipal institutions operate under the aegis of their respective governments but are subject to federal laws and standards (Laus & Morosini, 2005).

Public administration at the undergraduate level is offered as a stand-alone program, as part of a generic administration program, or in a combined business administration and public administration program. The federal government establishes the general guidelines for all undergraduate programs including public administration. However, individual programs have discretion in several areas such as the number of courses that must be taken in public administration and the overall curriculum content. For example, some programs with a quantitative focus require students to take statistics, operations research, and similar courses.

Upon graduation from an undergraduate program, students receive a diploma that confers the title of *bachelor* [*Bacharelado*]. Candidates for the bachelor's degree must complete a minimum of 3,000 hours and obtain a minimum grade of 60 (out of a possible 100) in all courses to have it count toward the degree.[6] It generally takes from four to five years to earn a bachelor's degree in public administration. Some institutions allow a maximum of six years for degree completion.

Graduate Programs

In 2011, of the 89 administration programs in Brazil at the master's level, 12 were educating for public administration in eight institutions (CAPES, 2011). Collectively, 762 students were enrolled in the eight institutions (see Table 1). Most programs are relatively small; only two serve more than 100 students, and six have fewer than 50 students. All are housed in public institutions with the exception of the four offered by FGV, a nonprofit organization. Two of the 12 programs are located in the northeast; all others are located in the southeast.

Table 1.
Graduate Programs in Public Administration, Brazil (2011)

Institution		Program	Year Established	Number of Students	Type of Degree	CAPES Score
Universidade Federal do Rio Grande Norte (UFRN)		Public Management	2011	31	P	3
Universidade Federal da Bahia (UFBA)		Administration emphasis in Public Administration	1983	89	A	5
		Administration emphasis in Public Administration	1998	31	P	4
Universidade Federal de Espírito Santo (UFES)		Public Management	2011	25	P	3
Universidade Federal de Viçosa (UFV)		Administration emphasis in Public Administration	2005	32	A	3
Universidade Federal de Lavras (UFLA)		Public Administration	2011	30	P	3
Universidade de Braslia (UNB)		Administration emphasis in Public Administration	1998	91	A	5
Fundação João Pinheiro (FJP)		Public Administration	1999	36	A	4
Fundação Getúlio Vargas (FGV)	EBAPE– Rio de Janeiro	Administration emphasis in Public Administration	1967	147	A	5
		Public Administration	2011	78	P	4
	EAESP– São Paul	Public Administration and Government	1976	72	A	5
		Management and Public Policy	2009	69	P	4
Total				731		

*P = professional degree; A = academic degree.
Source. CAPES (2011); information retrieved from http://geocapes.capes.gov.br

Admission criteria across programs are similar. They include (a) scores on an examination developed by Brazil's National Association of Graduate Programs and Research in Administration Schools (ANPAD) that is similar to the GRE/GMAT in the United States; (b) the ability to present ideas clearly in written format as

demonstrated in a required writing sample describing the applicant's research agenda; and (c) the undergraduate record. Students who get through the screening based on these criteria must pass an interview with professors at the program to which they are applying as the final admissions step.

Degrees conferred. The 12 programs educating for public administration at the master's level confer what is called a *stricto sensu*, one of the two types of post-baccalaureate degrees in Brazil. The other is the *lato sensu* (see Figure 1). Although both degrees require that a student have an undergraduate degree for admission, the *lato sensu* is not officially recognized as an "academic degree" by the Federal Ministry of Education. Candidates for the *lato sensu* must complete 360 hours, at minimum, in coursework. Graduates are awarded "certificates" and may use the title "specialist."

Figure 1.
Graduate Degrees in Brazil
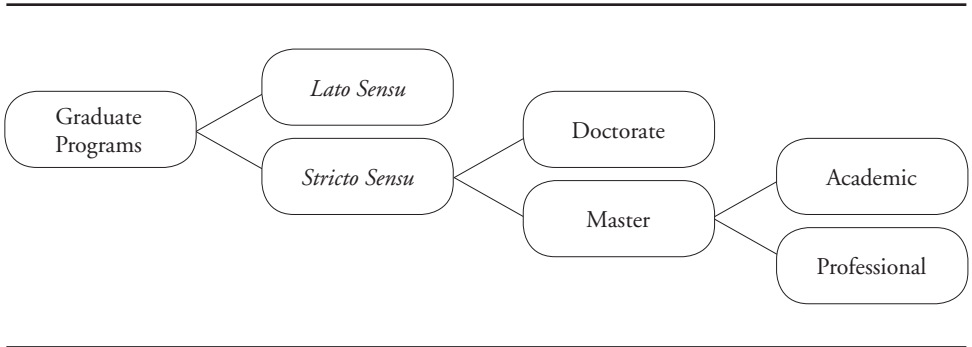
Two types of *stricto sensu* degrees are offered: academic and professional. The academic *stricto sensu* is designed for students who are primarily interested in teaching in higher education institutions and/or conducting research. They must complete 24 credits of coursework, at minimum, and defend a research-based dissertation in front of several professors. One professor must be from outside the student's home institution.

The professional *stricto sensu* focuses on enhancing the qualifications of mid-career professionals. Candidates for a professional *stricto sensu* must also complete 24 credits of coursework, at minimum, but have the choice of submitting and defending a dissertation or submitting another type of written work (e.g., a case study). Of the 12 master's programs educating for public administration, six confer the academic *stricto sensu and* six the professional degree (see Table 1).

Students receiving a *stricto sensu* are eligible to enter Brazil's doctoral [*doutorado*] programs. The *doutorado* requires three to four years of full-time study plus a dissertation for completion and qualifies the student to teach in an institution of higher education. Doctoral programs in public administration or in administration with an emphasis in public administration are offered at FGV in São Paulo, the

Federal University of Bahia, and the University of Brasilia. Some students attend institutions outside Brazil to obtain a PhD in public administration. In 2011, nine students did so; more than 70 other students sought a PhD in administration (CAPES, 2011).

Program Authorization and Recognition

All undergraduate and graduate programs in Brazil "are subject to control in terms of authorization, recognition, and renewal of recognition given for a fixed period of time, as established by the Chamber of Higher Education of the National Education Council" (Laus & Morosini, 2005, p. 118). In addition, graduate programs are subject to standards imposed by the Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (CAPES), an agency in the Federal Ministry of Education.

CAPES was created in 1951. Its original function was to provide scholarships to graduate students at universities and research centers in Brazil and abroad. Although CAPES still continues this practice, in 1976 its domain was broadened to include the National Postgraduate System (NPS). The NPS establishes directives and quality standards for the evaluation of all registered programs as well as the evaluation of proposals for new programs not yet included in the system. Although regulated by the government, both are peer-review processes similar to those in the United States.[7]

Programs registered in the NPS are assessed by CAPES every three years and are given ratings from 1 to 5 for master's programs and 1 to 7 for doctoral programs. Any program that scores below 3 is recommended for closure. In 2011, four of the 12 masters programs educating for public administration had a rating of 5, four had a rating of 4, and four had a rating of 3 (see Table 1). The highest ratings were awarded to the larger programs in institutions that also confer a doctoral degree in administration or public administration.

The evaluation of programs seeking CAPES accreditation and for those already in the NPS is based on five standards, four with weights that vary depending on the discipline. For Administration (including Public Administration), Accounting, and Tourism, the weights are teacher quality, 20%; student body, theses and dissertations, 35%; intellectual production, 35%; and social inclusion, 10% (see Box 1). The fifth standard for all disciplines is not weighted and relates to the minimum conditions for program evaluation including consistency between the program and the research interests of faculty.

CAPES also requires that for a master's program in administration (and public administration), full-time faculty must constitute at least 70% of all faculty. Due to CAPES standards, programs within disciplines such as public administration look similar with regard to faculty credentials and overall program requirements (e.g., methodology courses). Neither CAPES nor any other government agency evaluates the training programs offered by Brazil's government schools that are discussed in the following section.

Box 1.
CAPES Assessment Criteria*

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1. **Program Characteristics:** Coherence and consistency of areas of concentration with program goals; how program addresses topics relating to international challenges; teaching and research infrastructure.

2. **Teacher Quality:** Degrees, experience, and compatibility with the purpose of the program; dedication of full-time faculty (40 hours a week with doctorate degree) to research and the quality of research; obtaining government or private funding for research; distribution of research and teaching load in the program (each full-time faculty member must be responsible for a minimum annual load of 30 hours per class in the program); participation of faculty in undergraduate teaching and research.

3. **Students:** Number of theses and dissertations defended in the assessment period relative to number of full-time faculty (40 hours a week and with a doctorate degree) and number of students; thesis and dissertation quality; efficiency of the program in graduating master's and doctorate students.

4. **Intellectual Production:** Publications by full-time faculty including articles in accredited journals, books, and chapters of books appraised by an Assessment Committee and papers at accredited academic meetings; distribution of qualified publications in relation to the program's full-time faculty.

5. **Social Insertion:** The program's regional and national impact; cooperation with other programs and research centers in the program's field of knowledge; the program's visibility: keeping a home page to disseminate program's data, student selection criteria, teaching staff production, access to thesis and dissertations through the website.

* All components of the criteria are not included.

EDUCATING FOR PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: THE GOVERNMENT SCHOOL APPROACH

As discussed earlier, in the late 1930s Brazil's new Administrative Department of Public Service (DASP) was tasked with professionalizing the nation's civil service system through the introduction of a meritocracy system for employee selection and promotion to replace the prevailing patronage system. DASP offered short-term courses in several substantive areas such as personnel selection and administration, and taxation to better prepare government workers for their civil service positions. In the late 1930s, DASP also began to disseminate information relating to public administration through its *Public Service Journal* [*Revista do Serviço Público*], Brazil's first and only publication in the discipline for several decades (Gaetani, 1999).

By 1960, however, fewer than 10% of government workers entered the civil service by taking the exam, and patronage ruled (Majeed, 2010). A second round of efforts to professionalize the civil service was put in place in 1980 under the military government when the Foundation Training Center for Civil Servants

[*Fundação Centro do Servidor Público*—FUNCEP] was created. A third round was initiated in 1985 as the nation transitioned back to a civilian government beginning the era known as the New Republic [*República Nova*]. In 1986, the Brazilian National School of Public Administration [*Escola Nacional de Administração Pública*—ENAP] was established as a unit of FUNCEP. When FUNCEP was disbanded in the 1990s, ENAP took over its functions.

In 1995, with the election of a president strongly committed to reforming government, the Ministry of Administration and State Reform [*Ministério da Administração e Reforma do Estado*—MARE] was established to administer human resources policy and promote bureaucratic efficiency (Majeed, 2010). Focus broadened from the civil service system per se to improving performance as well (Grindle, 2010). MARE assumed a more important role in affecting government reform in efforts to improve efficiency. ENAP worked with the Inter-American Development Bank (IADB) and experts from Canada and several European countries to align "many courses with MARE's proposals for … reform" (Majeed, 2010).

As far back the 1950s, government schools and similar institutions at the state and municipal levels were also being established to provide training for public employees and related services. Although there had been informal contacts between these institutions and ENAP (and other federal schools), it was not until 2003 that ENAP established a network of government schools across all branches and levels of government (ENAP, 2013). Today, ENAP is at the hub of a voluntary network of 194 institutions,[8] of which 56 (29%) are at the federal level, 92 (47%) at the state level, and 46 (24%) at the municipal level (ENAP, 2013). The network holds annual meetings at which issues of common interest are discussed.

Federal Government Schools

All three branches of the federal government have schools, each with its own particular focus and course offerings. Forty schools are under the aegis of particular ministries or other entities in the executive branch. ENAP, the flagship government school in Brazil, is part of the Ministry of Planning, Budgeting and Public Management [*Ministério do Planejamento, Orçamento e Gestão Pública* before MPOG]. Its primary objective is to prepare students for careers as Specialists of Public Policies and Governmental Managers and Analysts of Planning and Budget in the MPOG (ENAP, 2013). These are two of the 26 "careers" in the federal government along with the general career category.[9] The general career accounts for "nine-tenths of all Public Servants in intermediate and auxiliary jobs and two-thirds of those in senior jobs" (Shepherd, 2003, p. 20).

Since its founding, ENAP has provided training to more than 200,000 civil servants from all parts of Brazil (ENAP, 2013). Other schools in the executive branch offer some general public administration courses, but most of their courses relate directly to the work performed by sponsoring ministries.

Four schools are connected with Brazil's bicameral legislature; two with the Senate and one with the Chamber of Deputies. The fourth, the Serzedello Correa

Institute under the Federal Court of Accounts of Brazil [*Instituto Serzedello Correa —Tribunal de Contas da União*, or TCU] is linked to the legislative branch under Brazil's constitution. The 11 schools associated with the judicial branch provide professional training to members of the judiciary. An example is the School of Federal Magistrates [*Escola da Magistratura Federal*—EMAG]. One federal school is under an independent authority.

State Government Schools

All 26 states in Brazil plus the federal district (Brasilia) have government schools (see the Appendix for state names). The majority of these schools are located in the most highly developed states in the southeastern quadrant of the nation (see Figure 2). This uneven distribution of schools across Brazil presents a challenge to educating for public administration, as discussed later in the paper.

Figure 2.
Schools of Government in Brazil, 2012
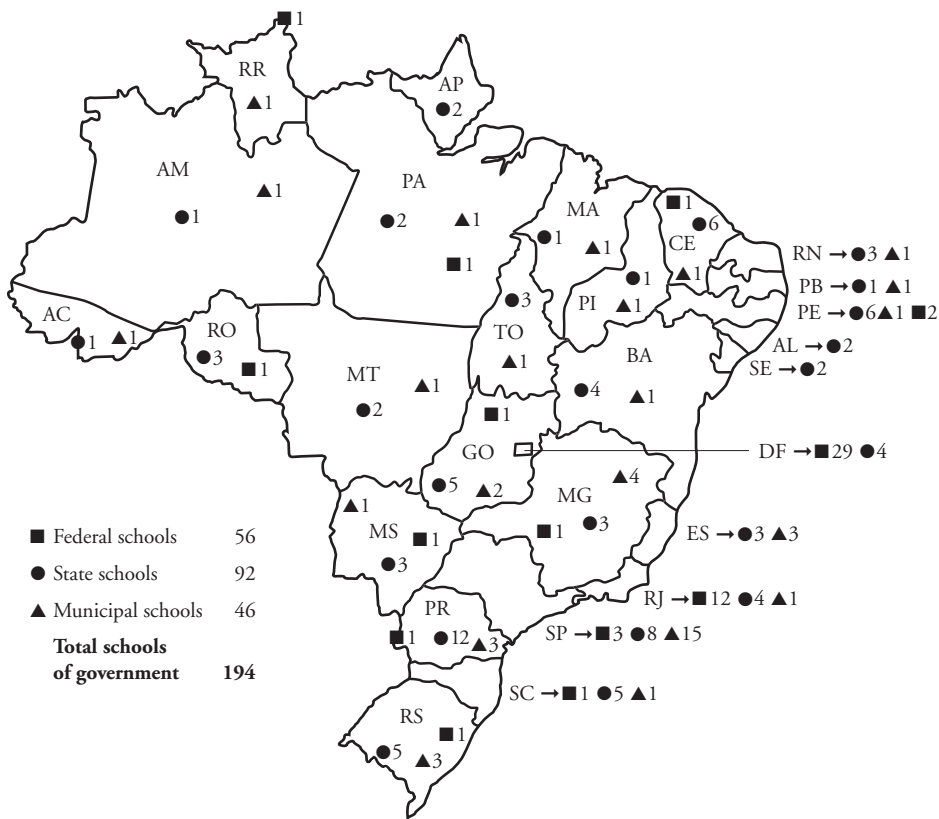
Source. http://www2.enap.gov.br/rede_escolas/
Year 2012

Brazil's state government schools vary in their missions and scope. Many schools with a scope extending beyond training courses are found in the more highly developed states. An example is São Paulo's Administrative Development Foundation [*Fundação de Desenvolvimento Administrativo*—FUNDAP-SP], which describes its program as follows:

> The Administrative Development Foundation (FUNDAP), an agency of the Ministry of Public Management in the State of São Paulo for more than thirty years, is dedicated to human resource training activities, research and creation of new administrative, organizational consulting technologies in public administration. (translation of description on website http://www.fundap.sp.gov.br)

Other state schools have a more narrowly defined scope, generally related to the mission of the sponsoring institution. For instance, the objective of the School of Legal Administration in Rio de Janeiro [*Escola de Administração Judiciária Rio de Janeiro*—ESAJ] is to promote professional development of public servants in the judiciary.

Local Government Schools

Government schools have been established in 46 of the more than 5,500 local governments [*municípios*] in Brazil under the aegis of executive and legislative bodies. Municipal governments have no judiciary of their own. As with the states, most local government schools are located in the southeastern area of Brazil in its largest cities (see Figure 2). Also similar to state schools, the scope and mission of municipal schools vary widely. Those having the broadest scope are generally located in the larger municipalities.

One such example is the Municipal Public Servant Training School [*Escola de Formação do Servidor Público Municipal -EFSPM–SP*] in the City of São Paulo, Brazil's largest city with more than 11 million residents. EFSPM provides training to the city's government workers in procurement, contract management, people management, and information technology. Another school with a broad scope is the School of Public Management of the Municipality of Recife (EGPPR), the ninth-largest city in Brazil with more than 1.5 million residents. Among its offerings are administrative management, strategic management, and political education for citizenship. EGPPR also provides training for politicians.

GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS: A COMPARISON OF APPROACHES

In her 2006 paper about the delivery of public administration education and training prepared for the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), Kolisnichenko (2006) states that there are "many … variations upon a few common-

ly used approaches" to educate and train for public administration (2006, p. 3). Her implicit definition of education is that which is provided by degree-granting institutions of higher education. This definition of education is referred to in our paper as the *academic approach*. We use the term *training approach* to mean education provided by institutions outside of academia that are focused on skills and knowledge generally related to a specific career or job.

The Academic Approach

As described earlier, 12 academic programs on the master's level and 80 on the undergraduate level educate for public administration in Brazil. At the master's level, five of the programs offer public administration as an "emphasis" in a generic administration program. In these programs, students take courses in their specialization (e.g., public administration), as well as a range of courses such as human resource management and strategic planning, to prepare them for careers across sectors. Although the five programs are CAPES accredited and in well-respected institutions, there is concern that issues central to public administration are not necessarily getting sufficient attention. The reason for this concern becomes apparent from a reading of the following translation of an excerpt from the Federal University of Bahia's website describing its MPA.

> The MPA objective is to develop skills for the administration of business, public and third-sector organizations, such as for example, context analysis, formulating strategies, follow-up, monitoring/control of results, leadership and coordination between the different decision-making levels in the organization, government and society. (translation of description on website http://www.adm.ufba.br/curso/mestrado-profissional-administracao)

Curricula in programs specifically educating for public administration (or public administration and government) stress critical thinking and decision making related to the public sector (see Box 2 for illustrative curriculum). In this regard, the curriculum resembles that of many MPAs in the United States, reflecting its influence since the early years of public administration education in Brazil. It should be noted, however, that in recent years MPA programs in the United States have become increasingly focused on the nonprofit sector as well as the public sector.

Another similarity to the United States is that both countries have several names for master's-level programs.[10] In Brazil, these names include Public Administration (three programs), Public Management (two programs), Public Administration and Government (one program), Management and Public Policy (one program), and Policy and Administration (one program). It is beyond the scope of this paper to determine what the different program names in Brazil signify.

Box 2.
Illustrative Curriculum: Master's Program in Public Administration and Government at FGV/EAESP

Mandatory and Elective Disciplines—27 credits*

Compulsory Courses: 15 credits

Methodological Education
        Scientific Methodology: 3 credits

Public Administration and Government Education
        Political Theory: 3 credits
        Economy: 3 credits
        Management and Public Organizations: 3 credits
        Public Policy: 3 credits

Optional courses: 12 credits
        Courses offered in the research area of the student: 9 credits

Dissertation: 3 credits

TOTAL 30 credits

Students must also attend 7 research seminars and 7 general seminars.

* Each credit corresponds to 15 class hours.

Source. FGV/EAESP (2013); retrieved from http://eaesp.fgvsp.br/

Anecdotal evidence, however, suggests that program focus is more related to the interests of faculty than to the name of the program, and that more diversified institutions have more diversified curricula. Interestingly, a 2009 study of differences between the Master of Public Administration and the Master of Public Policy in the United States found that the "the key factor for differences in program curricula might be the program faculty's disciplinary backgrounds and specializations" (Hur & Hackbart, 2009, p. 399).

Quality control for all graduate programs in Brazil results from CAPES accreditation standards with regard to faculty, course offerings, and infrastructure (see Box 1). As mentioned earlier, not one of the 12 programs has an unsatisfactory CAPES rating. There is no similar quality control for undergraduate programs or for the government schools that deliver public administration education.

The Government Schools Approach

With few exceptions, schools of government provide professional training that concentrates on skill and knowledge development for civil servants. This training is generally related to the focus of sponsoring agencies, although some schools have more expansive offerings. Training ranges from eight-hour lectures to 300-hour courses. Some schools of government also offer the *lato sensu* in partnership with academic institutions or by themselves.

Three government schools confer a *stricto sensu*; all were established before ENAP. They are Fundação João Pinheiro, a state school in Minas Gerais, and two federal

schools. The first is the National School of Statistics [*Escola Nacional de Ciências Estatísticas*—ENCE], connected to the institute that conducts the Brazilian census. The second is the National School of Public Health [*Sergio Arouca Escola Nacional de Saúde Pública Sergio Arouca*—ENSP]. ENSP was created in 1954 and offers degrees at the master's and doctoral level as well as several specialization and short duration courses usually taught by members of the medical profession.

Thus although there are substantial differences between the academic and professional training with regard, for example, to hours required for completion, the dividing line between the two approaches tends to be blurry at times. Some academic institutions provide training for government agencies, and some Brazilian government schools offer postgraduate *lato sensu* courses. A few actually confer academic degrees, and many instructors in the government schools come from academia (ENAP, 2013). In addition, Brazil has eight universities that are part of the National Network of Government Schools.

The sometimes blurry line between education offered by academic institutions and that offered by training institutions is not unique to Brazil. In the United States, for instance, the American Council on Education (ACE) "the nation's most visible and influential higher education association" (ACE, 2013, p. 1) has a mechanism through which college credits can be awarded for training courses taken outside of formal academic institutions.[11]

Challenges and Opportunities

Several challenges to the continued growth of public administration education in Brazil have been delineated in earlier sections of this paper. They include (a) the unequal geographic distribution of government schools and graduate programs educating for public administration; (b) the relatively few academic programs in Brazil educating for public administration; and (c) academic programs educating for public administration housed in generic administration programs. Addressing each of these challenges can present opportunities for the continued growth of public administration education in Brazil. Another opportunity is for academic programs to capitalize on the nation's growing nonprofit sector. These challenges and opportunities are discussed in the next section.

Unequal Geographic Distribution of Government Schools and Academic Programs

Currently, most government schools and master's degree programs educating for public administration are located in the eastern part of Brazil, especially in the southeastern quadrant. One opportunity to bring public administration education to underserved parts of the country is by enhancing distance learning offerings. On the government school side, ENAP offers distance learning courses in "areas such as Ethics, Budget, Human Management, Procurement and Technology Legislation, aimed at managers and civil servants of different areas of the administration" (ENAP, 2013, p. 4). ENAP also sponsors the Virtual Community of the National

Network of Government Schools, an initiative to reduce the isolation of under-served areas (ENAP, 2013).

On the academic side, Brazil has recently started the National Training Program in Public Administration (CAPES, 2013). Online courses in public administration are being offered by several universities that provide *lato sensu* credits to public servants holding an undergraduate degree. Many of these institutions, however, have no tradition in public administration education.

Informal interviews with several professors and public administration students in Brazil have indicated that the demand exists for online courses and even for an entire online *stricto sensu* program. This demand presents an opportunity that could be taken advantage of by academic programs already conferring a *stricto sensu* in public administration. The programs could consider an alliance with the National Training Program in Public Administration or enter into some type of collaboration with ENAP.

Few Programs Educating for Public Administration

At the graduate level, of the 89 administration programs in Brazil, 12 educate for public administration. On the undergraduate level, of the 1,800 undergraduate programs in administration in 2009, only 80 were in public administration (CAPES, 2011). REUNI, a 2007 initiative of Brazil's federal government,[12] is catalyzing the creation of new undergraduate public administration programs as a result of efforts to encourage development in fields of study with relatively few extant programs. Increasing enrollment in public administration at the under-graduate level is expected to generate demand for graduate education as more students are introduced to the discipline, and more professors develop an interest in public administration pedagogy.

Historically, relatively few professors in Brazil have been interested in teaching specifically in public administration (Bresser, 2008). Consequently, many professors who are teaching public administration courses come from other fields (e.g., economics and engineering) and have had little or no previous connection to the discipline. There is an opportunity here for higher education institutions to invest in postdoctoral programs and sabbatical experiences that can infuse professors from other fields with knowledge of public administration in Brazil and elsewhere.

Locating Public Administration Education in Generic Administration Programs

Providing stand-alone MPA degrees is a challenge for public administration education that reaches back at least 45 years to when the EBAPE/FGV Master's in Public Administration was established. The director of EBAPE at that time observed that the melding of public and business administration would mean a low probability of success for the public side (Wahrlich, 1967). This was similar to an observation made by Dwight Waldo almost 50 years ago about public administration in the United States. He wrote that "for Public Administration to be subsumed under, or joined organizationally with, Business Administration is a

mistake—slow death from lack of nutrition or atrophy from lack of attention and affection" (1965, p.29).

The opportunity for the academic community in Brazil to increase the number of programs focused primarily on the public side is through a partnership with government schools whose concern is obviously the public sector. A step in this direction would be for more academic institutions providing public administration education to become members of the National Network of Government Schools.

Job Market Opportunities

Brazil's growing "third sector" presents another opportunity for expanding the demand for public administration education. In the United States, more than 25% of MPA graduates are working in the nonprofit sector.[13] In Brazil, the sector has been gaining visibility since the early 1990s (Landim, 1993). From 1996 to 2002, Brazil's nonprofit sector job base grew by "two and a half times its previous size … with 275,000 organizations accounting for approximately 1.5 million jobs" (Lessa & Rossetti, 2005, p. 1). This was more than twice the 550,000 federal civil servants in Brazil in 2006 and more than 20% of the nation's 7 million state and municipal civil servants (ENAP, 2013).

A few public administration programs in Brazil have already begun to capitalize on this opportunity and are offering courses in what is called Social Management [*Gestão Social*]. Social management is generally focused on service delivery of nonprofit institutions. Professors from several institutions, many from public administration programs, have established the Network of Researchers in Social Management. There is a major opportunity for more programs to focus on social management and other fields of study related to the nonprofit sector.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Brazil has been educating for public administration since the 1930s in a variety of modalities including government schools, stand-alone public administration programs, and melded programs that join public administration primarily to business administration. Academic programs are offered at both the graduate and undergraduate levels, but graduate programs play a relatively minor role in educating for public administration. This holds true when Brazil is compared to the United States and many European countries as well as to other Latin American countries. For example, in Colombia, which has less than 25% of Brazil's population, there are 10 master's-level programs in public administration (and similar titles); in Peru, which has 15% of Brazil's population, there are eight such programs.[14]

There are signs that the fortunes of academic institutions educating for public administration on the graduate level in Brazil might be improving. For example, CAPES has promulgated new regulations for professional master's programs in public administration that are expected to promote increased focus on public administration education. Several recently approved programs are concrete signs that this is happening. These programs include the Professional Master's in Public

Administration and Public Policies at FGV and the Professional Master's in Social Development and Administration at the Federal University of Bahia.

Although it will take some time to provide public administration education in academic institutions at a comparable level to that in the United States and Europe, Brazil is moving in the right direction. It will continue to do so if it can address the challenges it faces and take advantage of the opportunities discussed earlier. We have three recommendations that we believe can move Brazil in this direction. The first is that academic institutions educating for public administration consider forming an organization so that they can work together to address common issues such as having academic training in public administration serve as a qualification for eligibility for government jobs. A second and related recommendation is that academic institutions educating for public administration consider partnering with the ENAP Network to develop a mechanism through which academic credits can be awarded for some training courses. This would be similar to what ACE does in the United States

The third recommendation is that faculty in academic institutions join with public service employees at all levels of government and in the nonprofit sector to establish a professional organization that would follow the lead of the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) in "advancing the art, science, teaching and practice of public and non-profit administration" (ASPA, 2013) in Brazil.

Notes

1   In 1967, the name of the country was officially changed to the Federative Republic of Brazil [*República Federativa do Brasil*].

2   The department established in 1938 with the name DASP evolved from the Federal Council of the Civil Service System that was created in 1936.

3   To be organized as a public foundation allows an organization to access public resources and to receive tax incentives.

4   See http://bibliotecadigital.fgv.br/dspace/handle/10438/3255

5   Information from the database of NASPAA, the membership organization of graduate education programs in public policy, public affairs, public administration, and public and nonprofit management. NASPAA is located in Washington, D.C.

6   See note 5.

7   The curriculum includes liberal arts courses such as sociology and philosophy as well as public administration courses such as human resources and public finance. Each course is worth 4 credits and requires 60 hours of classroom time. Other activities that account for hours are internships and preparation of monographs.

8   For example, COPRA, the accrediting arm of NASPAA, uses a peer-review process for member school accreditation.

9   There are other schools of government in Brazil; but they are not part of the ENAP Network, and their exact number is not reported.

10   A "career" in Brazil's government is generally understood to mean a well-defined path for promotion with no examinations needed after the initial one is passed (for entry into government service). Additional examinations are required to change from one career to another. The career system coexists with personal appointments to government jobs.

11   Names of programs in the United States include, but are not necessarily limited to Master of Public Administration, Master of Public Policy, Master of Science in Public Administration, Master of Science in Management, Master of Science in Public Service, Master of Public Affairs, Master of Public Policy and Administration, and Master of Public Policy Administration.

12   Evaluators from academic institutions formally review the training programs involved, and, if appropriate, recommend equivalent academic levels, disciplines, and course topics.

13   The objective of REUNI is to expand undergraduate enrollment at existing federal universities and to establish new universities and university campuses.

14   Information supplied to authors by NASPAA.

15   Information supplied to authors by Professor Nadia Rubaii at Binghamton University (SUNY).

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APPENDIX

The Brazilian States
1. Acre (AC)
2. Alagoas (AL)
3. Amapá (AP)
4. Amazonas (AM)
5. Bahia (BA)
6. Ceará (CE)
7. Distrito Federal (DF)*
8. Espírito Santo (ES)
9. Goiás (GO)
10. Maranhão (MA)
11. Mato Grosso (MT)
12. Mato Grosso do Sul (MS)
13. Minas Gerais (MG)
14. Pará (PA)
15. Paraíba (PB)
16. Paraná (PR)
17. Pernambuco (PE)
18. Piauí (PI)
19. Rio de Janeiro (RJ)
20. Rio Grande do Norte (RN)
21. Rio Grande do Sul (RS)
22. Rondônia (RO)
23. Roraima (RR)
24. Santa Catarina (SC)
25. São Paulo (SP)
26. Sergipe (SE)
27. Tocantins (TO)

*Distrito Federal is the Federal District in Brazil. It is not really a state but is considered to be one of 27 federative units of Brazil.

Advancing Underrepresented Populations in the Public Sector: Approaches and Practices in the Instructional Pipeline

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ABSTRACT

Although the numbers of women and minorities have steadily risen in the United States federal workforce, some studies have suggested that these groups are still underrepresented in high-level positions. Notwithstanding, surprisingly, only a few studies have examined the recruitment and achievement gap among disadvantaged groups in programs of public administration/policy/affairs with the aim of investigating their role as a pipeline to representation. This study is a step in that direction. It surveys academic heads of U.S. schools accredited by the *Network of Schools of Public Policy, Affairs and Administration* (NASPAA). The survey focuses on four key areas: academic support, financial support, recruitment strategies, and training and development. Among others, findings show for instance that schools with a lower percentage of students from underrepresented groups use scholarships, tuition waivers, and teaching assistantships to recruit students from these populations; in comparison, schools with higher percentages of students from underrepresented groups are able to attract faculty from minority groups at twice the rate of schools with lower percentages of students from underrepresented groups.

Keywords: public administration schools, recruitment, advancement of underrepresented groups, diversity in public sector

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    In the United States, the government is the single largest employer, with over 18.5 million civilian employees at the federal, state, and local levels. Being the largest employer has its challenges—the most prominent being hiring, retaining,

and advancing its employees as well as being sensitive to representation roles. With the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, followed by the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 and important legislation such as Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Opportunity, government agencies are increasingly under pressure to institute fair recruitment techniques. The expectations and concerns in this context are the extent to which the present workforce is representative of U.S. demographics. A recent report by the Pew Research Center (Passel & Cohn, 2008) predicted that by 2050, one in three Americans (29%) will be Hispanic—a more than 100% increase from the numbers of Hispanics recorded in 2005 (14%). Although the black population is expected to be constant (13%), the Asian population will rise to 9% by 2050, which is more than double the number in 2005 (4%).

Programs of public administration and public affairs in the United States shoulder the responsibility to train future public employees and managers. Nevertheless, currently no data or studies provide information on the percentages of public administration graduates (by minority status) working or planning to work in the public/nonprofit sector, nor is any data available on how many public affairs students continue in public service. This study assumes that programs in public affairs serve as a training ground for students who aspire to work in the public or the nonprofit sector (although it does not discount the possibility that several will go on to work in the private sector). Regardless of the sector students choose to work in, questions of recruitment and training of underrepresented populations remain important both at the representative level ("we support the idea that underrepresented groups should be represented in the public service") and at the training level ("we as training pipeline should provide the tools for public service representation among these groups so that they can advance in the public service and represent their groups"). Thus this study addresses the following question: What do schools of public administration, public affairs, public policy, public service, and public management do to prepare their students from among underrepresented populations to acquire the skills to advance in public service?[1]

The purpose of this study is threefold: (a) to present and analyze the current state of affairs, including opportunity windows allowing for the entry and advancement of skilled underserved minorities in the higher ranks of public service; (b) to administer a survey among accredited NASPAA schools to identify practices that facilitate the recruitment, training, and advancement of the underrepresented populations in public service; and (c) to highlight the findings obtained and provide recommendations to enhance the potential placement of students from underrepresented populations in the public service.

This study assumes that given the decades of laws and policies instituted in the United States to espouse equality, and the NASPAA standards that call for attention to diversity among its core elements for accreditation, various programs of public affairs should be expected to advance recruiting, training, and advancing underrepresented populations. Surprisingly, no study focusing on what schools

do in this regard has been undertaken since Lee and Cayer (1987) published their research in Public Administration Review more than two decades ago. This research takes Lee and Cayer's study a step further (a) by examining training and competency development, which were not addressed in the 1987 study; and (b) by examining recruitment strategies for underrepresented minorities, which is the focus of Lee and Cayer's paper, and assessing two decades later whether any significant changes have occurred given the developments and expansion of the field. With the view that a reassessment of the field in this regard is warranted, this study is a step in that direction.

BACKGROUND LITERATURE

In this section, we present a comprehensive review of the literature that examines the state of affairs in the federal workforce for underrepresented minorities and the aging population in the U.S. federal workforce. We include this review to serve as a window into the problems of recruiting, training, and graduating students from underrepresented populations.

Current State of Affairs in the Federal Workforce

What is the rationale for seeking to include proportional or near proportional percentages of representation of a nation's population in the public service? The theory of representative bureaucracy distinguishes between active and passive forms of representation (Llorens, Wenger, & Kellough, 2008; Selden, 1997; Wilkins, 2007). According to Wilkins (2007), "Passive representation is concerned with the bureaucracy's having the same demographic origins (sex, race, income, class, religion) as the population it serves," while active representation "is concerned with how representation influences policymaking and implementation" (p. 79). Having a workforce that mirrors the general population is seen as a prerequisite for active representation in which the attitudes, values, and policies reflect the choices and interests of those from underrepresented groups (Kelly & Newman, 2001; Meier & Stewart, 1992; Selden & Selden, 2001; Sowa & Selden, 2003; Wilkins, 2007).

In fact, a statistical snapshot of the situation today shows that in the United States, 34% of the population is nonwhite, and minorities constitute 14.6% of those at senior pay levels.[2] Although the numbers of women and minorities have been rising in the U.S. federal workforce over the years, this state of affairs causes concern among scholars and policy makers over achieving a representative bureaucracy (Cornwell & Kellough, 1994; Guy, 1993; Guy & Newman, 2004; Hsieh & Winslow, 2006; Kellough, 1990; Kim, 1993; Kim & Lewis, 1994; Lee & Cayer, 1987; Naff, 2001; Riccucci, 2009; Selden & Selden, 2001). Several other studies have explored the reasons for lower representation of women and minorities in public agencies (Bowling, Kelleher, Jones, & Wright, 2006; Cayer & Sigelman, 1980; Miller, Kerr, & Reid, 1999; Reid, Kerr, & Miller, 2003; Newman, 1994;

Riccucci & Saidel, 1997; Selden & Selden, 2001). Still, very few of these studies examine the educational gap within the pipeline among the disadvantaged groups, a potential cause for the lack of representation witnessed at top-level positions in the federal workforce (Breihan, 2007). The problem of the gender and race gap is partly attributed to the educational gap experienced by these disadvantaged groups (Dobbins & Walker, 2000; Hsieh & Winslow, 2006). In the context of our study, this educational gap also concerns the ability to obtain and provide tools that would allow, through instruction and learning, people from underrepresented groups to become (senior) public servants representing their social or ethnic group.

Opportunity Window: The Aging Population in the U.S. Federal Workforce

At this time, there is a real and major opportunity window to address the problem identified earlier. Any changes in awareness and perspective in U.S. public affairs schools as regards underserved populations can help to advance this group in the American federal system. What is the opportunity window? A major opening of positions in public service: According to the Partnership for Public Service,[3] over the next several years the demand for knowledge-based employees will be on the rise in the U.S. federal government. This development is due to several factors. First, in the coming years approximately three fifths of the 1.6 million federal white-collar employees will be eligible for retirement, and an even larger proportion of employees at the executive level will retire in less than a decade. With a record number of employees eligible for retirement, the U.S. government faces an enormous challenge of attracting and hiring new talent into the federal workforce (Sistare, Shiplett, & Buss, 2008).

Second, with the economic downturn of the first decade of the new millennium, the possibility for baby boomers to stay in service longer comes as a welcome respite for the federal government, which otherwise would have had to replace a large number of employees who have a wealth of experience, knowledge, and technical know-how. Although the impact of the slowing U.S. economy on federal retirement rates is beyond the purview of this research, this study considers this opportunity window. The gap that will soon be left by an aging population in the U.S. government sector implies the need for a new cadre in the federal public service.

With these developments in mind, democratic representation can be addressed if adequate attention is given to the pipeline. In line with our view of the opportunity window where policies and the politics of representation can meet (Kingdon, 1973), Lewis and Frank (2002), for instance, suggest that the gap can be filled by a growing population of women and minorities in the workforce. They further assert that these populations have even been shown to view government jobs in a more positive fashion as compared with Caucasians and men.

Given the assumption that the schools of public affairs can and should serve as a pipeline for the training of potential public servants, this study focuses on the public affairs programs pipeline that is by definition preparing to meet the future personnel demands of the U.S. government. The role of public affairs schools is to supply the human capital, including balancing the talent pool to include individuals from diverse backgrounds in the government: From a human resources perspective, what these schools do, or can do, on issues of training, recruitment, and retention is paramount. Public affairs graduates often start at a GS level 9 or 11 in the federal government. Having a public affairs degree consequently is desirable for jobs in the public sector, and it can help jump-start one's career. This is a particularly important assumption when the issue focused on in this study is the advancement of underserved populations in the public service and when we tie this view to studies such as Hsieh and Winslow (2006) and Lewis and Frank (2002), described earlier.

Third, another window of opportunity is the high visibility and priority given to public service. In December 2010, President Obama signed an Executive Order that instituted the "Pathways Programs"[4] in association with the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) for "Recruiting and Hiring Students and Recent Graduates." The order establishes government-wide Internships and Recent Graduates programs, and it strengthens the Presidential Management Fellows (PMF) program. The executive order recognizes the need for federal recruiting of graduates from NASPAA-accredited public administration and related programs.

What should be of concern for schools of public affairs? Interestingly, statistics show that in 2003, graduates holding an MBA degree outnumber MPA degree holders by four to one (Lewis & Soo Oh, 2008) and that graduates from the latter often do not join the public service (Chetkovich, 2003; Tschirhart, Reed, Freeman, & Anker, 2008). Studies by Chetkovich (2003), for instance, provided evidence on career choices made by students showing diminishing interest in public service careers from the time they entered the master's programs to the time they were ready to graduate.[5] In this context the issue of education, retention, and graduation of minority students is a highly contended topic in American higher education (Holmes, Ebbers, Robinson, & Mugenda, 2000; Nettles & Perna, 1997). It appears that minority representation has not received as much focus in the development of human capital that will join the U.S. public service (i.e., the fields of public policy, public management, public affairs and administration), as for instance, in the fields of science and technology. Given the minority students' relatively positive attitudes toward public service as compared to those of white Caucasian males, making the point of tapping this population in the public affairs programs can be a feasible alternative to retention. Nevertheless, to date, though schools of public affairs have come a long way with respect to enrolling and graduating minority students from public affairs programs (Jordan, Rice, & Mathews, 1994;

Lee & Cayer, 1987), minority presence in schools totals only about 24.4%.[6] Considerable work remains to be done, and this study proposes to highlight the state of affairs today as a step toward facilitating the efforts of schools of public affairs to take advantage of the recent opportunity windows.

To summarize, the opportunity window provided by the renewed call for public service in the United States as well as the emerging socio-demographic changes give schools the chance to seize this momentum and address the challenge of (a) recruiting and preparing young minds to work in the public sector, and (b) bridging the gap between the growing underserved populations and their representation in the government workforce. On both matters, a major part of the onus lies on the schools offering public administration and related degree programs. This study seeks to find out what is being done and how gaps can be identified and bridged to address the challenges and unique opportunities of the forthcoming decade.

Recruiting, Training, and Graduating Students From Underrepresented Populations

By definition, public service education is meant to play an important pipeline role in developing the future of public service. This role is augmented by the fact that U.S. government agencies continue to face challenges in drawing individuals with the highest skills and abilities into public service (Jordan et al., 1994; Lewis & Frank, 2002; Soni, 2000). Studies by Breihan (2007) among others assert that low enrollment, retention, and graduation rates of students from underserved populations in schools of public administration may also be contributing to the growing gap witnessed at top-level positions in the U.S. federal workforce. In her article, Breihan summarizes the need for recruiting and retaining a diverse group:

> Graduate programs of public administration and of nonprofit manage-ment have a real responsibility to educate people who are representative of our entire nation and the people served by government and non-profits. We know that the educational experiences we have to offer can benefit not just our students' careers but all those they serve. (p. 87)

This is the very view that we hold in undertaking this study. Indeed, several attempts have been made in the past to address the call by the U.S. government for public service at various times: A few Ivy League schools like Yale, Harvard, and Columbia set aside grants for bright minority students and offered short-term courses to train them for entering public service (Cikins, 1966). These efforts have put public service on the map, and minority public servants are highly sought after. However, the limited number of minority graduates did not significantly increase the relative presence of minorities in the government.

Notwithstanding, although studies have examined the issues of recruitment and graduation in public administration programs from a normative standpoint, they have done so without empirical data (Briehan, 2007; Jordan et al., 1994; Rivera & Ward, 2008). The only study to date that empirically examined the recruitment and graduation rates of minorities from public administration programs in the United States was conducted by Lee and Cayer (1987). The authors examined existing data from NASPAA and Digest for Education Statistics. They also conducted a survey of 210 NASPAA member institutions and affiliates in 1986. To address the issue of recruitment and retention, they looked into the following aspects: (a) interpersonal activities such as personal letters, campus visits, advertisements in publications; (b) financial aid as key factors in attracting and recruiting students from minority groups; and (c) a school's ability to provide mentoring services and financial aid, which the study's authors reported as crucial in retaining minority students.

Lee and Cayer (1987) concluded that although the number of minorities recruited in public administration programs had increased at that time, the students were not representative of U.S. demographics overall. The authors called for greater recruitment efforts on the part of institutions to enroll and retain minority students. It has now been more than two decades since Lee and Cayer conducted their study; the current number for NASPAA member institutions has grown from 210 in 1986 to about 264 in 2007, and the field has matured considerably.[7] Although Lee and Cayer as well as the NASPAA standards deem diversity and minority recruitment important, no follow-up study has been conducted on how far the discipline has progressed as regards attention to minority groups.

At about the same time as Lee and Cayer published their study, Cleary (1990) looked into what constituted the "inner core" of NASPAA-accredited master's programs, an aspect not addressed by the former authors in their study on the recruitment and retention of minorities. Cleary identified the core curriculum in public affairs of the late 1980s and focused on these aspects: human resources; finance and budget; information technology; public policy; political, economic, and social institutions; and organizational behavior and management. Diversity was not addressed in his study.

We undertook the present study with the aspects addressed in the two studies just described in mind, as well as with the reassertion by NASPAA of the importance of diversity as an important component of graduate training and accreditation (NASPAA Standards, 2009;[8] Pitts & Wise, 2004; Rice, 2004; Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). Although such a study is long overdue after two decades, we trust that the findings of this paper will shed light on what the schools stand for as regards diversity, and suggest what they should do to advance and facilitate democratic representation in the public service.

Data and Methodology

This study builds on the needs, opportunity windows, and assumptions identified in the first part of this article. It intends to provide operational answers in order to be ready to meet the challenges and opportunity windows of this second decade of the 21st century and its projected needs. The study proposes to take a bottom-up approach in examining (a) curricula and practices used in graduate programs of public affairs to grant students from underrepresented groups the skills required in public service; and (b) what can be done to increase enrollment, graduation rates, and future placement of members belonging to underrepresented groups.

To meet our objectives, we designed and administered a survey among all NASPAA-accredited schools of public affairs in the United States. The survey respondents were deans/chairs/directors of various public policy, public administration, and public affairs, and public management programs. We focused on these people and programs because (a) we asserted that a major part of the decision making and responsibility of skills and means for the advancement of underrepresented students in the federal workforce lies with the schools offering public administration and related degrees; and (b) we assumed that the chairs would have this information readily available.

The Survey

We chose the survey as a core methodological approach because it allowed us to address and receive answers across a large range of schools that are widely dispersed throughout the United States: Basically, we aimed at including all heads of NASPAA programs of public affairs listed in the searchable database on the NASPAA website in the United States in 2008–2009. The survey was conducted in summer 2009 and was administered in four waves (July–September 2009). Out of 242 e-mail requests, 23 e-mails turned out to be unusable or had incorrect e-mail addresses; as a result, a total of 219 requests were sent out. Standard survey protocols were followed; nonresponders received three reminders, each a week apart. We adhered to strict ethical scrutiny: All schools and responding heads remained anonymous, even at the disadvantage of not being able to determine their geographical location.[9] The survey achieved a 35% response rate.

The survey used a Likert Scale questionnaire format, except for items requiring a straight yes/no response. In addition, we sought qualitative feedback through open-ended questions, thus allowing us to explain or clarify previously asked closed-ended questions. Because the survey was the only method employed in this study, we sought to ascertain validity and reliability of responses through an assessment of internal reliability: We used a split-half design for the survey questionnaire, paraphrasing operational questions pertaining to the same "issue" to mirror one another in the two halves of the questionnaire.

To correlate findings in the final analysis with factual information, the survey questionnaire sought demographic information about programs, respondents, faculty members, and student representation. The anonymity of the respondents

affected our ability to assess the parameter of geographical influence on the practices reported in the questionnaire. Both the closed- and open-ended questions pertained to one of the four academic and administrative aspects that we identified in the general literature as dealing with public affairs programs (Briehan, 2007; Pitts & Wise, 2004; Rice, 2004; Rivera & Ward, 2008; Rubaii-Barrett, 2006; Swail, Redd, & Perna, 2003; Wise & Tschirhart, 2000) and also as respectively and partially investigated by Lee and Cayer (1987).

These four key aspects are (a) academic support and mentoring, (b) financial support, (c) student recruitment strategy, and (d) student training and competency development (i.e., curricular components addressing the needs and skills toolbox expected of or by students from minority groups). Each one of these core characteristics formed a conceptual cluster of operational questions reflecting on practices explicating the status of each "aspect" as regards efforts to recruit, retain, and advance students from underserved groups.

We further classified and analyzed the data received, for each of the four aspects, respectively, into two main categories by type of school based on the schools' demographics: (a) programs with a "low" percentage of underrepresented minorities (LURM) at less than 34%; and, (b) programs with a "high" percentage of underrepresented minorities (HURM) at above 34%.

Criteria. The decision to classify programs into these two groups and to use 34% as the criterion was made based on U.S. demographics, which currently stand at 34% nonwhite. As well, we based this criterion on the theory of representative bureaucracy, which argues that creating a workforce that will mimic the demographics of the country is a prerequisite to creating an active form of representation (Kelly & Newman, 2001; Meier & Stewart, 1992; Selden & Selden, 2001; Sowa & Selden, 2003; Wilkins, 2007).

Data analysis. To compare and bring out the differences in support, recruitment, and training practices instituted by the schools included in either of these two groups, we performed t-tests (difference of means tests). In the following section, we discuss the results of the survey focusing on demographic data with special attention on the four key aspects of the programs: academic support, financial support, recruitment strategies, and student training.

FINDINGS

Most of the respondents were affiliated with a public university (85.5%) and, as expected, held an administrative position (88.2%). Most of the academic units offered public administration as a graduate program (86.8%), followed by public policy (19.7%), public affairs (18.4%), public management (17.7%), and public service (9.2%).[10] Underrepresented minority students in the sample were only 24.4%, which is below the national minority average (34% minorities). As well, this figure is below the graduation numbers reported by NASPAA in 2008 (47%).[11]

Table 1.
Key Aspects Facilitating Advancement of Underrepresented Populations in Public Service

Variables	Overall Response (N = 76)		Low Percentage of Minority Students (≤ 34%); N = 48		High Percentage of Minority Students (> 34%); N = 28	
	N	% Responding "Yes"	N	% Responding "Yes"	N	% Responding "Yes"
Academic Support						
Accepts promising students with some weak academic skills	47	61.8	29	60.4	18	64.3
Offers support courses to assist students with academic weaknesses	26	34.2	17	35.4	9	32.1
Offers preparatory courses to assist students with academic weaknesses	26	34.2	18	37.5	8	28.6
Financial Support						
My Academic Unit offers the following in order to recruit students from underrepresented populations:						
Scholarships*	44	57.9	32	66.7	12	42.9
Paid internships	26	34.2	19	39.6	7	25.0
Teaching assistantships [+]	26	34.2	20	41.7	6	21.4
Research assistantships	43	56.6	30	62.5	13	46.4
Tuition waivers*	37	48.7	28	58.3	9	32.1
Arrange for internship positions for our students	55	72.4	36	75.0	19	67.9
Arrangements with external organizations to get students involved in public service	44	57.9	30	62.5	14	50.0
Granting of paid internships is based primarily on need	5	6.6	4	8.3	1	3.6

Table 1.
Key Aspects Facilitating Advancement of Underrepresented Populations in Public Service (continued)

Variables	Overall Response (*N* = 76)		Low Percentage of Minority Students (≤ 34%); *N* = 48		High Percentage of Minority Students (> 34%); *N* = 28	
Recruitment Strategy						
My Academic Unit uses the following techniques to recruit students from underrepresented populations:						
Mail-outs[+]	23	30.3	18	37.5	5	17.9
Visits to colleges	32	42.1	23	47.9	9	32.1
Advertisements	35	46.1	23	47.9	12	42.9
Have faculty who have the expertise to adequately supervise students' dissertations on issues of underrepresented populations	54	71.1	34	70.8	20	71.4
Student Training						
Please indicate those topics that are substantially dealt with at graduate level in your Academic Unit:						
Diversity issues in general	64	84.2	39	81.3	25	89.3
Issues related to African Americans	37	48.7	22	45.8	15	53.6
Issues related to Hispanics	29	38.2	16	33.3	13	46.4
Issues related to Asians	15	19.7	8	16.7	7	25.0
Issues related to women	50	65.8	33	68.8	17	60.7
Issues related to immigrants	32	42.1	17	35.4	15	53.6
Issues related to poverty	51	67.1	33	68.8	18	64.3
Issues related to human rights	46	60.5	26	54.2	20	71.4
Issues related to leadership	72	94.7	44	91.7	28	100.0
Issues related to community service	72	94.7	45	93.8	27	96.4

Notes. Difference of means tests (t-tests) are presented for programs with low and high numbers of students from underrepresented groups.
* p < .05
+ p < .1

Out of the 76 responding institutions, (a) N = 48 (63%) schools reported having less than 34% of their student body from underrepresented populations, classified as LURM; and (b) only N = 28 (37%) reported having more than 34% of their student body from underrepresented populations, classified as HURM. Next we present the findings obtained from LURM and HURM institutions respectively for each of the four academic or administrative aspects identified: academic support, financial support, recruitment strategies, and student training. The overall results are included in Table 1.

Academic Support

Academic support in the form of preparatory courses (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2001; Swail et al., 2003), providing assistance with basic skills (Tinto, 1987), and mentoring (Lee & Cayer, 1987; Wallace, Abel, & Ropers-Huilman, 2000) are usually positively related to persistence rates of underrepresented minorities. Academic support is measured by mechanisms used by programs that aid in helping students with weak academic skills from underrepresented populations. The results of this study (see Table 1) suggest that programs with a high percentage of underrepresented minorities are more likely to accept students with weak academic skills; but, interestingly, these programs are less likely to offer support and preparatory courses. The results are reversed in programs that have a lower percentage of underrepresented minority students. However, we found that the relationship between academic support and percentage of underrepresented minority students was not statistically significant.

Practices. Regardless of the forms of academic support offered in various graduate programs, we also asked respondents to identify the practices that are seen as effective in helping underrepresented populations to graduate. We were able to generate eight themes from the 49 responses to the open-ended question regarding these practices; the following themes are prominent: Mentoring by Faculty (57%) was viewed as particularly effective and accounted for the largest frequency. For example, one respondent wrote: "Letting them [students] know you are available and are willing to be supportive, while at the same time upholding standards and requiring accountability." Addressing Basic Skills (27%) followed mentoring; another academic head responded, "Any shortcomings in basic skills must be addressed, but this is no longer an issue unique to underrepresented populations." Internships (22%) closely follow.

Resources. To further spotlight the issue of support, we also asked respondents to identify the resources that in their view should be deployed to enhance graduation rates of underrepresented students. Seven themes were generated from the 25 responses to the open-ended question in this regard. Offering Financial Assistance (28%) accounted for the largest frequency, followed by Mentoring (24%) and Basic Skills (20%). Responses to the question, "What resources should be

provided to enhance graduation rates of underrepresented students?" included "More funding to allow for full-time study," "Tuition waivers," and "Childcare." These findings may indicate a gap between financial assistance that is actually being offered by some schools of public affairs and what respondents believe should be provided to support them in attaining graduation.

Financial Support

The effect of financial aid on retention has received increasing attention with the development of theories that assign an important role to finances in determining students' college enrollment decisions (Bean & Metzner, 1985; Cabrera, Nora, & Castaneda, 1992). Interestingly, we note a reverse phenomenon (see Table 1): LURM programs are significantly more likely than HURM programs are to offer scholarships (66.7% vs. 42.9%) and tuition waivers (58.3% vs. 32.1%). These results are statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Recruitment Strategies

As shown in Table 1, the findings obtained in this survey indicate that LURM programs are more likely than HURM programs to spend resources and use various approaches to target and recruit students from underrepresented populations. Such approaches include mail-outs, advertisements, and visits to campuses. LURM programs appear to be twice as likely as HURM programs to use mail-outs to colleges (37.5% vs. 17.9%). Note that these findings have a 90% level of significance. Similarly, 48% of LURM programs reported making actual visits to colleges to recruit members of these groups, as opposed to only 32% of HURM programs. A similar pattern emerged for using advertisements as a recruitment tool (48% of LURM programs vs. 43% of HURM programs). It is interesting to note that similar recruitment techniques were reported by Lee and Cayer during the late 1980s. It is rather surprising that technology developments and other creative communication means do not seem to have affected recruitment methods since.

Fifteen themes emerged from the responses to the open-ended questions about what the respondents felt were the most effective practices in recruiting underrepresented students. Accounting for the highest frequencies are Word of Mouth (26%) and Targeting Undergraduate Students/Programs (23%). Both of these factors have been cited as important for recruiting and retaining students from underrepresented populations (Olson, 1988; Rogers & Molina, 2006). Composition of the Program (13%) accounted for the third-highest frequency. A respondent stated: "Turn the program from a classroom-only program into a mixed online/classroom program."

LURM schools, according to our findings, are more likely to agree that they recruit faculty from minority groups specializing in issues of underrepresented populations (Table 2). LURM programs are significantly less likely to hire faculty from underrepresented groups. Hiring faculty members from minority populations

has been shown in several other studies to be an important factor in recruiting students from disadvantaged groups (Holmes et al., 2000; Pruitt & Isaac, 1985; Rask & Bailey, 2002; Swail et al., 2003). HURM programs appear to be twice as likely to hire minority faculty as compared with programs having lower percentages of minority students (13% vs. 30%). These results are significant at the p < .01 level of significance and in line with previous literature (Rask & Bailey, 2002; Swail et al., 2003). Both findings, in conjunction, have the potential to draw forth the recommendation that schools with a high representation of faculty members from underrepresented groups are more likely to attract students from similar backgrounds. Hiring minority faculty may be a means of attracting students from minority groups.

Table 2.

Mean Differences in Recruitment Strategies Employed by Various Public Affairs Programs, by Percentage of Minority Students

Variables[a,b]	Overall Mean Response (N = 76)	Low Percentage of Minority Students (≤ 34%)	High Percentage of Minority Students (> 34%)
	N = 76	Mean N = 48	Mean N = 28
My Academic Unit makes an effort to recruit students from underrepresented populations.	2.07	1.94	2.29
My Academic Unit makes an effort to recruit faculty specializing in issues of underrepresented populations (last 2 years).	2.54	2.58	2.46
My Academic Unit has been recruiting faculty from underrepresented populations (last 2 years).	2.11	2.19	1.96
In my Academic Unit, current practices have been effective in recruiting students from underrepresented populations (last 2 years).	2.26	2.52**	1.82
Average percentage of minority faculty hired in the last two years	19.88	13.61**	30.63

a. Possible responses: 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree
b. t-test for difference across programs with low and high percentage of minority students is significant at ** $p < .01$.

Student Training and Competency Development

When compared with LURM programs, HURM programs offer substantially more courses related to diversity, African Americans, Hispanics, Asians, immigrants,

human rights, community service, and leadership as part of their graduate curriculum. Nevertheless, women and poverty issues are addressed similarly by the two categories of schools (Table 3). The results, though not statistically significant, indicate unanimous agreement by both groups (LURM and HURM) that Introduction to Welfare Studies and Introduction to Legal Studies are important courses that programs must offer to prepare future graduates; notwithstanding, both groups rated the Managing Diversity course very low: mean scores of .89 and .81 on a scale of 1 through 5, where 1 = Strongly disagree and 5 = Strongly agree. These results are interesting given that several studies have stressed the importance of including diversity courses as an integral part of the curriculum (Pitts & Wise, 2004; Rice, 2004; Rubaii-Barrett, 2006; Wise & Tschirhart, 2000). However, as noted by Rubaii-Barrett (2006), the challenge might be that programs do not have faculty members who are sufficiently trained to teach these courses. The results further suggest that though LURM programs agree on the importance of offering courses related to diversity, they are less likely to offer these courses as a substantial part of their curriculum as compared with HURM programs.

Table 3.

Topics Useful in Preparing Future Practitioners for Public Service

Variables[a,b]	Overall Response (N = 76)	Low Percentage of Minority Students (≤ 34%)	High Percentage of Minority Students (> 34%)
		Mean N = 48	Mean N = 28
Social psychology of engaging minorities	2.51	2.44	2.46
Managing diversity	1.64	0.89	0.81
Organizational behavior	1.37	1.42	1.29
Cultural studies	2.33	2.42	2.18
Issues of work/life balance	2.11	2.13	2.07
Introduction to public policy	1.54	1.56	1.5
Introduction to public administration	1.42	1.52	1.25
Introduction to legal studies	2.43	2.42	2.46
Introduction to welfare studies	2.71	2.71	2.71
Micro- and macro-economics	1.92	1.92	1.93
NGOs and community work	1.75	1.77	1.71
Public management	1.36	1.40	1.29

a. Possible responses: 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree

b. t-test for difference across programs with low and high percentage of minority students

Based on the responses to the related open-ended questions asking respondents to identify other topics useful to prepare future practitioners for public service, we identified 12 key themes. The most prevalent responses, resulting in the highest percentages, were Ethics (21%), Financial Management (21%), and Research Methods (21%). Other topics, quite interdisciplinary in nature but low in how frequently they are offered, reflect the need for a broad education in preparing future public service workers (Geva-May, 2005, 2007; Geva-May & Maslove, 2007; Geva-May, Nasi, Turrini, & Scott, 2008). Analytic Methods, Community Development, Demography, Economic Development, Globalization, Public Communications, Social/Environmental Justice, Technology, and Workforce Diversity each accounted for only 7% of the responses.

Overall, the data in Tables 1 through 3 suggest that more than half of the programs accept promising students with some weak academic skills, provide scholarships and research assistantships to facilitate the recruitment of students from underrepresented populations, have faculty with adequate expertise to supervise students' dissertations on issues of underrepresented populations, and make arrangements for internships and work with external organizations to get students involved in public service. Close to 85% of programs dealt with issues of diversity in their curriculum while less than one fifth addressed Asian diversity. Almost all the programs (95%) agreed that they dealt with topics related to leadership and community service in their graduate curriculum. Less than half the programs indicated that they addressed issues related to African Americans, immigrants, and Hispanics in their curriculum. On average, 20% of the programs indicated that they had hired minority faculty members in the last two years (2007 to 2009). Although the aggregate data are encouraging for recruitment and training of students, the recruitment rates of minority faculty members remain low.

CONCLUSIONS

The current study investigated the role of recruitment, enrollment and retention, and training and development of students from underrepresented populations in public affairs and related programs in the United States. Although these are important issues in the American higher education system, minority representation has not received as much focus in the fields of public affairs as, for instance, in the fields of science and technology in the development of human capital. Our findings indicate that a majority (63%) of public affairs and related programs have less than 34% of their student body from underrepresented populations, which we classified as LURM (low percentage of underrepresented minorities).

Additional findings suggest that programs with fewer students from underrepresented groups also employ fewer faculty members from these groups. On average, only one fifth of the programs indicated that they had hired minority faculty members in the last two years (2007 to 2009). Based on these findings, and supported by the literature in this field (Holmes et al., 2000; Pruitt & Isaac, 1989; Swail et al., 2003), we conclude that attracting and retaining students and

faculty from underrepresented groups are interrelated; thus, both objectives should be an institutional priority. Public affairs and related programs should allocate budgets that would enable departments to recruit candidates from underrepresented groups. Increasing individuals from these groups requires commitment from the top down. Additionally, mentoring faculty of color along with providing institutional support (Stanley, 2006) that promotes autonomy (Tack & Patitu, 1992) and intellectual challenge (Turner, 2002) should remain a top priority for public affairs programs with fewer numbers of faculty members from underrepresented groups.

NASPAA mandates that programs prepare their students "to communicate and interact productively with a diverse and changing workforce and citizenry" (NASPAA Standards, 2009, Standard 5.1).[12] It is thus important for public affairs/ administration programs in the United States to meet appropriate standards. Quite surprisingly, and despite the sample coming from NASPAA-accredited programs, less than half indicated that they addressed issues related to African Americans, immigrants, and Hispanics in their curriculum. It is thus important for schools of public affairs and the like to incorporate NASPAA standards of diversity in their curricula.

Our findings further suggest that programs of public affairs throughout the United States struggle to attract and recruit students from underrepresented groups. Personalized letters and visits to colleges continue to remain the predominant method of recruitment; quite astoundingly, not much has changed in recruitment methods since Lee and Cayer's (1987) study. Schools of public affairs and the like must use e-media (social networking sites, e-mails, etc.) as a form of recruitment. Public affairs schools should also actively recruit students by targeting minority institutions and high schools with higher percentages of students from underrepresented groups. These students can form the pipeline for the master's programs. However, the lower numbers of underrepresented minorities could be a measure of fewer students available in the recruitment pool. Future studies should investigate demographic breakdowns by region and address the gap between the recruitment and existent pool of student population in the region. This study did not seek information on the graduation rates and placement of minority students, nor did it investigate the impact of NASPAA standards on recruitment of minority students and faculty members. Although these are ripe topics for future research, our study helped identify practices that facilitate the recruitment, training, and advancement of underrepresented populations in public affairs.

Another point that needs to be acknowledged is that only 35% of the NASPAA-accredited schools responded to the survey—despite following standard survey procedures and sending three rounds of reminders past the initial request. Although this may be regarded as one of the study's limitations, it is reported that the average response rate at the organizational level is 37% (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). Studies also point to the low response rates as the biggest challenge of Internet-based surveys (Sheehan & Grubbs-Hoy, 1999; Yun & Trumbo, 2000).

Finally, NASPAA, the accreditation body for graduate public affairs and related programs in the United States, indirectly acts as a pipeline for underserved minorities by mandating both student and faculty diversity as an accreditation requirement for programs nationwide. The primary focus of accreditation is to prepare students to be leaders, managers, and analysts in the professions of public affairs, public administration, and public policy. With the changing demographics of the nation, it is important for schools of public affairs in the United States to identify the academic, financial, curriculum, and training needs to attract, retain, and graduate students from especially underserved populations. To further ensure that minority students graduate, several strategies can be employed: (a) ensuring faculty mentoring of minority students, (b) addressing shortcomings in basic skills, (c) providing internships, and (d) offering financial assistance. Study results revealed that schools of public affairs should consider adopting a major change of perspective and developing more creative approaches in line with their role in advancing underrepresented populations and the responsibilities that come with it.

Notes

1   Schools of public administration, public affairs, public policy, public service, and public management are hereafter referred to as public affairs programs. Underrepresented groups include students/faculty from African Americans, Hispanics, Asians, American Indians, immigrants, and women, among others. Public service includes the federal government, nonprofits, and state and local government organizations.

2   A report issued by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission: http://www.eeoc.gov/federal/reports/fsp2006/agencies/governmentwidethegovernment.html

3   For more information on this report, see http://www.ourpublicservice.org/OPS/publications/searchresults.php?keywords=&sort=&recordstart=10&pagesize=10

4   For more details on the Pathways Programs, see http://www.naspaa.org/PolicyCenter/index.asp

5   The author conducted the study at the John F. Kennedy School of Government and the Goldman School of Public Policy at the University of California, Berkeley.

6   The percentage of students belonging to underrepresented minorities reported in this study for the years 2007–2009 is 24.4%, which is below the national averages (34% minorities) and the graduation numbers reported by NASPAA in 2008 (47%).

7   The number of NASPAA member institutions was taken from the NASPAA website, which provides the enrollment and degrees awarded data for master's degrees in the year 2007. See http://www.naspaa.org/principals/almanac/Survey2007/mastersdegrees.asp

8   For further details on the 2009 NASPAA standards report, visit http://www.naspaa.org/accreditation/standard2009/docs/NS2009FinalVote10.16.2009.pdf

9   The study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB), and the approval number is 09-0017C.

10   The numbers do not add up to 100%, because academic units might offer more than one degree program.

11   Of the 268 NASPAA institutional members as of spring 2008, 159 responded to the survey, resulting in 53% belonging to white, non-Hispanic in the master's program. Among doctoral recipients, 47% were white, non-Hispanics. These are degree granted numbers, which are typically lower than enrollment figures.

12   For more details on the guidelines for NASPAA accreditation, see http://www.naspaa.org/accreditation/NS/Interpretations.asp

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Canonic Texts in Public Policy Studies:
A Quantitative Analysis

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ABSTRACT

As an interdisciplinary study, public policy is situated at the intersection of traditional academic disciplines combined with the needs of policy research in the governmental sphere. Through the application of pragmatic analysis to collective decision making, public policy implementation and evaluation rely upon theoretical concepts and frameworks developed from other disciplines. A major challenge for this discipline whose current state of literature is relatively fragmented is identifying a canon of texts fundamental to the development of its intellectual framework. No such agreed upon canon currently exists. This article offers a quantitative analysis specifying such a canon, termed *the great books and articles of public policy*. The establishment of a canon seeks to provide a common vocabulary for the intellectual development of the field and a common ground to integrate major concepts and theories into a coherent framework. In short, what is the core curriculum of canonic public policy texts?

Keywords: great books, citation analysis, survey research, core curriculum

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Public policy is an evolving field characterized by academic and pragmatic initiatives to enrich and promote the expansion of policy-oriented research, including the development of new methodologies that meet the ongoing needs of policy makers. Although the field has a large repertoire of published texts, the current state of the public policy literature is not well defined. Yet every academic field has canonic texts that serve as "intellectual landmarks" (Shafritz, Layne, & Borick, 2005, p. vii). The advancement of public policy depends on examining the ideas and works found in the texts that have shaped the field's understanding and development. The goal of this study is to contribute to the greater public policy community by developing a canon of classic texts through a quantitative analysis (here we use the term *public policy* to encompass related fields and subfields including, but not limited to, public affairs, public administration, public management, policy analysis, and policy science, while still being cognizant that each of these fields has its distinct focuses).

The Development of Public Policy Studies

The question of how to address public issues and implement policies can be traced back to ancient civilization. Therefore, although public policy as a practice is hardly a new concept, the "self-conscious study of it" (Shafritz et al., 2005, p. vii) has evolved to become an academic field that has carved out its own domain during the latter half of the 20th century. As an academic discipline, public policy is relatively young compared to many of its affiliated disciplines. Figure 1 is a graph of the prevalence of the term *public policy* in books compared to the terms *political science, sociology, economics*, and *psychology* using Google Ngram Viewer.[1] The term *public policy* first emerged in the Google corpus of books around the 1920s. Compared to sociology, economics, and psychology, its frequency of usage has been substantially lower for most of the past century and has not experienced the burst of usage as seen by other fields since the 1960s.

Figure 1.
Frequency of *Public Policy* and Related Discipline Names
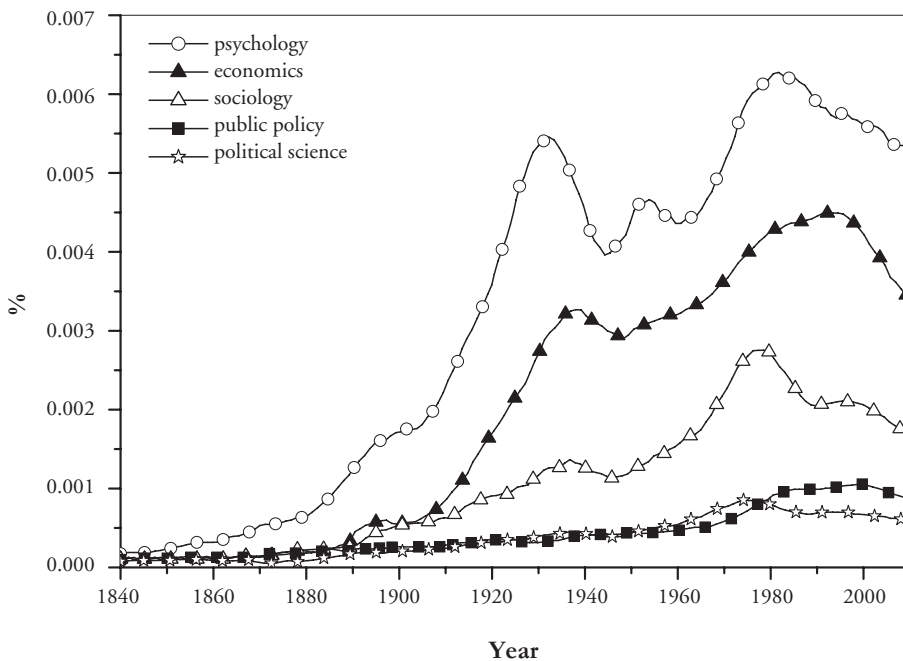
Establishing a Public Policy Canon

A major challenge of public policy is the often chaotic state in which this discipline is studied. Although different textbooks provide different approaches to teaching and learning public policy, there is no one accepted pedagogical

framework in which to study this discipline. Some disciplines or fields have a small number of foundational texts widely regarded as anchors in the field (e.g., Isaac Newton's *Principia* in physics or William James's *Principles of Psychology*), but it would be difficult to locate such a text for the study of public policy—in part because there is no consensus that defines the scope and substance this field encompasses. Different disciplines use different doctrinal windows to approach the study of public policy, and there is no neutral way to determine what approaches are more suited to or more accurately reflect how the study of this field should be carried out. At its core, the study of public policy can exist only through the intellectual constructs of other disciplines (Shafritz et al., 2005, p. viii).

Resources do exist that nominate canons of the public policy literature, but they are rare. One such contribution is *Classics of Public Policy*, but the book's method in identifying a canon is vague. The preface states that the editors "looked for readings with enduring value," "a broad consensus that a selection was important," and "readability" (Shafritz et al., 2005, pp. x–xi). Additionally, Shafritz et al. assert that approaches to public policy studies vary greatly and are susceptible to disciplinary bias because "each academic discipline has its own biased bag of tricks with which to view the public policy world" (p. viii). Although using a qualitative assessment to establish a canon can be useful, the goal of this article is to use a quantitative assessment to increase the reliability and replicability of the study. The next section describes the methodological approaches that were used.

METHODOLOGY

The methods used in this study include a review of the literature to learn about the great books selection process and to identify prior attempts to establish a public policy canon. The quantitative analysis incorporated the use of citation analysis and a survey of public policy scholars and practitioners. Each of these methods is detailed in the following sections.

Literature Review

A review of the literature located only one source that directly attempted to address the topic of inquiry of this research study. The existence of public policy textbooks and reference works serves as another possible source to locate prior attempts to develop a canon of public policy literature (see Appendix A). These works all contain dense bibliographies of texts that contribute toward the study of public policy, but there was no attempt to parse these texts into a coherent canon.

Citation Analysis

Citation analysis provides a bibliometric measure of how frequently a work is cited[2] and was selected for this study because previous studies have shown that the number of times a work is cited is an indicator of its influence in its field.[3] Authors cite works that have made a valuable contribution in a field, as a vehicle

for criticism, or to strengthen their "cognitive authority" (Case & Higgins, 2000, p. 637). In other words, the number of citations can also be interpreted as the degree to which a publication has entered the ongoing conversation in a field.

Using citation analysis has several advantages: The method is replicable and transparent, and little ambiguity is involved in interpreting the raw data. Yet many critics argue against the use of citation analysis to quantify a work's influence, because many articles and books contain a high number of *negative* citations. However, such a role in the literature can still serve to indicate a source's seminal importance.

A more pressing challenge that affects the use of citation analysis is the recent phenomenon known as "coercive self-citation" (Wilhite & Fong, 2012). Some journals now require authors to cite other works published in their journal in order to increase visibility or prestige. However, the recent practice of this phenomenon makes it too soon to conclude just how acute or widespread this problem is for the academic community at large (Davis, 2012). According to the study conducted by Wilhite and Fong, coercive citation tends to be most common in business disciplines and less so in economics, psychology, or sociology.

In an attempt to overcome the limitations of citation analysis and to triangulate on a canon with higher validity, this study approached citation analysis from three directions.

Public policy keyword inquiry. The first approach was a simple identification of the most frequently cited texts that contained the keyword *public policy*. This term was searched through Publish or Perish,[4] a software product designed for citation analysis, which pulled the top-cited texts that contain the term *public policy* (in this specific order) either in the body, title, or both.

Big idea approach: Google Ngram Viewer. The second approach first identified the major concepts that have become cornerstones in shaping the lexicon of public policy and subsequently found the top-cited texts responsible for introducing or exploring those ideas. A "big idea" in public policy in this article is defined to be a concept, theory, term, or a specialized use of nomenclature that meets any of the following criteria: (a) It has been seminal in shaping the field; (b) it has a special or nuanced meaning unique to the field; or (c) it possesses a relationship to another big idea(s) in public policy that is necessary for the sufficient understanding of that (or those) other big idea(s).

The initial list of big ideas was generated by using content analysis to determine the most frequently recurring ideas and concepts found in the indexes of public policy reference texts. The public policy reference works used in this study were found through the University of Chicago library catalog. These texts were selected based on their level of comprehensiveness, their coverage of the different facets of the field, and their availability. Some reference texts serve as a general tome of knowledge in a field; other references are intended to provide information from a

particular angle. Because public policy is multifaceted, the reference works used in this study were intended to provide a multidimensional view of the field.

The logic behind using reference texts for this approach rests on the assumption that such texts (a) were written with the goal of being neutral in how they present concepts and theories, and (b) were each intended to serve as a single, comprehensive source of information regarding the study of public policy. Thirteen big ideas were identified for this study. The frequency of usage over time was measured for each of these 13 terms by using Google Ngram Viewer,[5,6] which draws its data from a corpus of over 15 million digitized texts, amounting to about 12% of the total number of books ever published[7,8] (Michel et al., 2011, p. 178).

Reputational and syllabi approach. A course syllabus serves a pedagogical purpose by providing students a portal into a discipline through a selection of texts that are of intellectual quality and interest. In a sense, each syllabus nominates a canon. Under the third approach, syllabi from graduate programs in public policy, public administration, and public affairs were collected, and citation analysis was conducted on the texts found in these syllabi. The advantage of this approach is that it allows for the inclusion of an almost unlimited number of texts in the analysis while not limiting the data to just texts including the term *public policy.*

The syllabi were drawn from the top-ranked graduate schools in public affairs and public policy[9] as determined by *U.S. News & World Report.*[10] Syllabi from graduate courses were found online by searching for course catalogs on the universities' websites as well as contacting professors to secure those not available online. Syllabi were obtained from 11 of the top 14 schools listed by *U.S. News & World Report.* Most of the syllabi selected were from introductory public policy courses covering the basic foundations of the policy process, policy analysis, or policy implementation. These courses would be expected to introduce the canonical texts of the field. Over 160 syllabi were obtained, and nearly 1,800 texts were extracted from these syllabi for citation analysis. For texts published in multiple editions, the citations of each edition were summed to obtain the total number of citations.[11]

To determine which syllabi to abstract, the course descriptions were analyzed for content to identify those that would be of interest to this study. The following stipulations describe how syllabi were chosen.

- Any course syllabus that was classified as being part of the public policy program (or any one of its related fields) was considered for inclusion.
- Syllabi from courses that contained the terms *public policy, public administration, public affairs*, or a related field in the title (e.g., "Politics, Political Institutions, and Public Policy" or "Policy Formation and Policy Analysis") were considered if the course was designed to give an overview or survey of the field.

- If a professor had taught the same course in multiple years or semesters and used syllabi that contained different readings, all unique readings were included in the study.
- In the case where the same course was taught by multiple professors, all unique syllabi were included.

Although primary source texts (e.g., the United States Constitution, Federalist Papers, presidential speeches, transcripts of interviews, congressional hearings, court cases, case studies,[12] or documentaries) hold important value in understanding the discipline and provide useful examples of public policy implementation, they were not included as part of this study, because they pertain to a different class of materials. By virtue of their content and source of creation, they would have to be evaluated under different standards and assumptions.

Survey of the Experts Approach

A limitation of using citation analysis is that it may not reflect the use of all public policy texts in the repertoire of popular literature, because it overrepresents the academic sphere. To address this methodological gap, a survey was created to take into account the opinions of individuals who practice in the field of public policy and to extend the breadth of reach to incorporate additional texts.

To generate the sample of potential survey participants, the top public policy, public administration, and public affairs programs in the nation as ranked by *U.S. News & World Report* and the National Research Council (NRC) were identified.[13] The initial sample consisted of over 2,000 faculty members affiliated with these schools (including professors, practitioners, and postdoctoral students). From that sample, 400 individuals were randomly selected to be invited to take the Web-based survey. Each person was initially contacted via e-mail during the first round, and invitations were later followed up via phone as needed.

The 61 top-cited texts found through the course syllabi were included in the survey. To reduce the length of the survey for each respondent, two versions were created. Half of the texts were randomly assigned to one version, and the other half were assigned to the other version. To reduce bias, the order in which the texts appeared on each survey was randomized for each respondent, and each respondent was randomly assigned to take only one version. On each survey, respondents were asked to select any title they considered to be a great text in public policy as well as list additional texts not included in their survey. Responses were all weighted equally. The first-round aggregate response rate was 15%. After individuals who did not respond during the first round were contacted again, the cumulative response rate increased to 21%.

RESULTS

The following section presents the results from each of the methodologies described earlier.

Citation Analysis of Texts Containing the Term *Public Policy*

The first approach provides a useful shorthand technique for identifying key texts under the assumption that any great text in public policy contains the term *public policy* in either its title, body, or both. By using Publish or Perish, the top-cited texts published within the social sciences domain that contained the name of this discipline were identified.[14] Table B1 in Appendix B shows the top 10 cited texts. As we shall see, many of these texts were also among the top-cited texts identified through the syllabus discourse analysis.

All of the texts identified in Table B1 were published within the last quarter century or so, with the exception of *The Logic of Collective Action* and *Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy*. *The Logic of Collective Action* was published around the nascence of public policy. It is unclear when the term *public policy* first appeared in literature, but *Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy* was published well before public policy became introduced into academia, so the author most likely was not using this phrase in the context of referring to an academic discipline but rather as a practice.

If this approach alone were sufficient in identifying the foundational literature for developing a core curriculum for public policy, then it mirrors the appearances of many of the syllabi currently in use at graduate-level public policy courses because none of the top-cited texts appears to be a clear public policy primer. The closest to such a text would be John W. Kingdon's *Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies*. Instead, most of the texts are fairly discipline oriented and approach public policy with an emphasis on different elements derived from other disciplines in the social sciences.

Citation Analysis of Texts Containing Big Ideas

The second method assessed the contemporary literature on public policy by first determining the major ideas and concepts in the field. Thirteen big ideas were investigated in this approach, culled from a discourse analysis of indexes of public policy reference books: adaptive management, agenda setting, bounded rationality, collective action, cost-benefit analysis, garbage can model, incremental-ism, normative theory, policy cycle, policy stream, policy window, principal-agent problem, and rational actor. Figures B1a and B1b in Appendix B show the frequency of usage of these terms.[15] For this analysis, the top five n-grams with the highest maximum usage frequency were selected: adaptive management, agenda setting, bounded rationality, collective action, and incrementalism.[16] The most frequently cited texts containing each of these n-grams were identified,[17] as shown in Table B2.

The top-cited texts for four of the five selected n-grams were also found to be among the top-cited texts identified through the syllabi discourse analysis (discussed in the next section). The implication of this finding is that these texts have been recognized as being influential in public policy for their role in shaping

the lexicon either through their coinage of specific terms or their ability to expli-cate important concepts in the field. When compared with the top 10 cited texts containing the term *public policy*, two texts are found through both methods: *The Logic of Collective Action* and *Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies*. The former was the top-cited text for *collective action*, and the latter was the top-cited text for *agenda setting*.

Some of the big idea n-grams used are traditionally associated with a particular discipline (e.g., normative theory is a frequently discussed concept in economics). When combining the results of this approach with the *public policy* keyword citation analysis inquiry discussed previously, we see that many highly cited texts in public policy do not necessarily contain this phrase. Identifying texts through the lens of big ideas in public policy allows us to incorporate more texts published before the 1980s, because the formulation of many important concepts in public policy, like bounded rationality and incrementalism, predate the discipline.

Citation Analysis of Texts Culled From Course Syllabi

The third method consisted of conducting a citation analysis of texts culled from graduate-level course syllabi. Table B3 in Appendix B presents the top 35 texts found to have the highest total citations. From the table, we can see that Putnam's *Bowling Alone*, with over 60,000 total citations, is by far the most highly cited text found in the syllabi. Putnam's text is also the second most recent text in the table, which means it did not have the advantage of being able to accum-ulate its substantial number of citations over a longer period of time. The high number of citations can be explained partly by the fact that the book was a *New York Times* best seller in 2000. So, unlike many of the more scholarly books or articles listed in this table, *Bowling Alone* has garnered a substantial amount of media attention, thereby gaining popularity among individuals affiliated with academia as well as the greater public.

A look at the publication years of the top 35 cited texts shows that the earliest text, John Dewey's *The Public and Its Problems* (1927), was published well before the emergence of public policy as a discipline. The most recent text, *Globalization and Its Discontents*, was published in 2002 by 2001 Nobel Prize laureate Joseph Stiglitz. Among the top 10 most-cited texts out of the 35, seven were published before 1975. Therefore, we can see a clear contrast with regards to publication years when looking at the top 35 cited texts and the top 10 cited texts that contain the term *public policy*. Most of the texts from the latter group were published after the 1980s, whereas most of the texts in the former group were published earlier. Yet there are many overlaps in these two groups, namely the following seven: *Bowling Alone*; *The Logic of Collective Action*; *Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy*; *Development as Freedom*; *Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies*; *Globalization and Its Discontents*; and *Activists Beyond Borders*.

When we compare the list of the top 35 cited texts and the selection of texts identified through the big idea methodology previously discussed, we see that

Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies; *Judgment Under Uncertainty*; *The Logic of Collective Action*; and "The Science of 'Muddling Through'" were the four texts that attained the highest number of citations for the terms *agenda setting*, *bounded rationality*, *collective action*, and *incrementalism*, respectively.

Survey of the Experts

The survey was implemented to identify potential gaps in the repertoire of texts extracted from the course syllabi. Figure B2 in Appendix B shows the aggregate results of the survey. A general consensus emerges when comparing the findings through the citation analysis approaches and the survey. Nearly all of the texts selected by at least one fifth of the respondents were also top-cited texts found in the syllabi. Among those texts receiving the most votes, *The Logic of Collective Action*, *The Policy-Making Process*, and "The Problem of Social Cost" were selected by at least half of the respondents. Yet there are a few exceptions. Notably, both *The Policy-Making Process* and *Speaking Truth to Power* were selected by a substantial number of participants; while both received a fair amount of citations, neither text was among the top-cited.

Because two versions of the survey were created, respondents were asked to list any titles of great texts that were not found on the list of titles they received. Analyzing the responses received for this question yielded one prominent trend. The text *Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies* was noted by over 15% of the respondents who took the version of the survey that did not include this text. No other text was freely noted by as many respondents, indicating that Kingdon's work stands out as a prominent text in public policy literature.

Summary of Results

This article has identified over 100 texts to be considered in a public policy canon. The results from the methodologies used in this study converged to show a robust consensus that certain texts are most certainly staples in this discipline. For example, *Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies*; *Bowling Alone*; *Judgment Under Uncertainty*; *The Logic of Collective Action*; and "The Science of 'Muddling Through'" were all identified through the triangulation of methods employed in this article. According to one proponent of the great books tradition, "[This] canon is sometimes described as being fuzzy around the edges but firm in the middle. That is, it is commonly recognized that works by Plato and Shakespeare belong, but there is considerably less agreement about Epictetus and Balzac" (Casement, 1996, p. x). The same observation can be made for the selection of texts identified throughout this article. Great books are subject to opinion, but this study has found that certain texts do have a stronghold on their inclusion in this canon. "These texts inspire, they argue, they may even annoy—but they don't go away. They reappear on our reading lists year after year, and figure prominently in our bibliographies—not out of inertia, but because they truly belong" (Katz, Peters, Liebes, & Orloff, 2003, p. 5). That is why they deserve to be included in the canon.

The canon of the great books and articles of public policy found in this article consists of 33 texts, as listed in Table 1. The criteria for determining the final canon are as follows:

- Any text selected by at least 20% of respondents was included.
- Any text selected by less than 20% of respondents but identified as a notable text, either through the *public policy* keyword search or the big idea methodology, was included to account for the possibility that not all influential texts in public policy may be recognized as a great text via a survey.
- Any text noted by a survey participant that was not initially included on either version of the survey but was (a) found to have a total number of citations that would put it among the top 35 cited texts from the syllabi and (b) was identified either through the *public policy* keyword search or the big idea methodology was included.

This study has revealed an eclectic collection of public policy and related texts that combine disciplinary classics with contemporary favorites. Texts like "The Market for Lemons" and "The Problem of Social Cost" are classics in economic literature, and Wilson's "The Study of Administration" was one of the early precursors in the body of literature focusing on public administration. On the other hand, this canon has also brought together recent publications, such as *Globalization and Its Discontents* and *Development as Freedom.* Despite their youth, they have already become well embedded in the public policy literature. This article recognizes that canons are dynamic. Books that were published in the new millennium appear on this list, indicative of the enormous potential for

Table 1.

A Canon of the Great Books and Articles of Public Policy (in alphabetical order)

Title	Author(s)	Year First Published	Book/ Article
Activists Beyond Borders	Margaret E. Keck & Kathryn Sikkink	1998	Book
The Affluent Society	John Kenneth Galbraith	1958	Book
Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies	John W. Kingdon	1984	Book
American Business, Public Policy, Case-Studies, and Political Theory	Theodore J. Lowi	1964	Article
Bowling Alone	Robert D. Putnam	2000	Book
Bureaucracy	James Wilson	1989	Book
Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy	Joseph Schumpeter	1942	Book

Table 1.

A Canon of the Great Books and Articles of Public Policy (in alphabetical order) (cont'd)

Title	Author(s)	Year First Published	Book/Article
Choices, Values, and Frames	Daniel Kahneman & Amos Tversky	1984	Book
Democracy and Its Critics	Robert A. Dahl	1989	Book
Development as Freedom	Amartya Sen	1999	Book
Economics, Organization, and Management	Paul Milgrom	1992	Book
The End of Liberalism	Theodore J. Lowi	1969	Book
Essence of Decision	Graham T. Allison	1971	Book
A Garbage Can Model of Organizational Choice	Michael D. Cohen, James G. March, & Johan P. Olsen	1972	Article
Globalization and Its Discontents	Joseph E. Stiglitz	2002	Book
Governing the Commons	Elinor Ostrom	1990	Book
Judgment Under Uncertainty	Daniel Kahneman, Paul Slovic, & Amos Tversky	1974	Book
The Logic of Collective Action	Mancur Olson, Jr.	1965	Book
The Logic of Congressional Action	R. Douglas Arnold	1992	Book
Maps of Bounded Rationality	Daniel Kahneman	2003	Article
The Market for Lemons	George Akerlof	1970	Article
The Policy-Making Process	Charles E. Lindblom	1968	Book
Policy Paradox	Deborah Stone	1988	Book
The Power Elite	C. Wright Mills	1956	Book
The Problem of Social Cost	Ronald Coase	1960	Article
A Pure Theory of Local Expenditures	Charles M. Tiebout	1956	Article
The Science of "Muddling Through"	Charles E. Lindblom	1959	Article
Speaking Truth to Power	Aaron Wildavsky	1979	Book
The Strategy of Conflict	Thomas Schelling	1960	Book
The Study of Administration	Woodrow Wilson	1887	Article
The Theory of Economic Regulation	George J. Stigler	1971	Article
The Tragedy of the Commons	Garrett Hardin	1968	Article
Who Governs?	Robert A. Dahl	1961	Book

progress in the development of this field. The texts presented in this study are not meant to serve as the culmination of public policy literature, but to encourage the dialogue between other texts as well as the discovery of emerging canonic texts.

Although this study was aimed at identifying the great books of public policy, it has also identified some of the authors who have been at the forefront of introducing ideas central to this discipline. The final 33 books and articles include several recurring authors. Additionally, many more of the authors who wrote a text that was selected to be part of the final canon also authored books and articles that were presented earlier in this study. Name reputation is an important factor when identifying texts that wield influence, because any academic community is highly cognizant of its leaders.

As mentioned earlier in this article, very few texts identified throughout this study would classify as an instructional textbook. This finding supports the conjecture that public policy lacks such a text that serves as a foundational anchor. This observation also offers insight into the nature of great books in the public policy literature. Many great texts in public policy were not intended to provide a textbook guideline for learning this field. For example, Deborah Stone's *Policy Paradox* and Aaron Wildavsky's *Speaking Truth to Power* introduce a new way of thinking about how policies are implemented and go beyond the study of public policy as a pure academic exercise. That is not to undermine the value textbooks do bring to learning public policy, but public policy is a varied field that understandably contains many nontraditional texts that hold value to its understanding.

Despite its interdisciplinary nature, the study of public policy has a pedagogical logic that can be explicated by looking at the selection of texts identified in this article. A classification of the texts provides one framework for how we can develop a core curriculum of readings for this field. The challenge in developing a successful canon is recognizing the unique role that public policy plays in connecting the principles of academia with the applications of these principles outside academia. There clearly are many opportunities to expand upon the body of knowledge that we currently have, and this canon serves to provide a starting foundation that recognizes the diversity of this growing field.

Limitations

The current study has some limitations that may limit the scope of the final canon. Like the traditional canon of great books, the final canon developed in this study is biased toward Western texts, for several reasons. This study was limited to examining works that were originally written in English or have been translated into English, so bibliometric measures using citation analysis were not obtainable for foreign texts that have no English translation. This limitation was also a result of using curriculum course lists from graduate schools ranked by *U.S. News & World Report* to determine the initial sample of texts considered for the canon. Sampling solely from U.S. institutions limits the potential diversity of the texts presented in this study, because most will be rooted in Western schools of thought.

Other schools of thought, particularly the ancient traditions found in Oriental philosophies (e.g., Confucianism or Legalism), have held a strong presence in shaping the role of governance and public policy in society. A further inquiry that would expand the scope of the canon would include examining non-Western texts and course curricula to investigate how the study of public policy may differ across geographic regions.

Conclusion

There is no consensus on how to study public policy, and the canon proposed in this article does not aim to establish such a consensus. Public policy is inherently multidisciplinary, and its intellectual framework traverses the theories, methods, and definitions of many disciplines. In one way or another, public policy can find a designated function in almost every academic field. This article has developed a canon of essential texts that have shaped this discipline through many of the intellectual frameworks that it shares with other fields. The texts presented in this article are meant to integrate the policy elements from other disciplines into a unified entity. Public policy cuts across all disciplines to address social problems through collective decision making, and a highly interdisciplinary study can arguably best discover its legacy through an examination of its classic texts.

Acknowledgments

Notes

1   The Google Ngram Viewer graphs the frequency of usage of a specific term or phrase in the Google corpus of digitized books. A more detailed discussion of the Ngram Viewer can be found in the section titled "Big idea approach: Google Ngram Viewer."

2   Some texts (e.g., the Bible) are not normally cited; such texts therefore could not be included as part of this citation analysis study.

3   See E. Garfield's "Is Citation Analysis a Legitimate Evaluation Tool?" and Harriet Zuckerman's "Citation Analysis and the Complex Problem of Intellectual Influence" for the use of citation analysis as a tool to evaluate influence.

4   Publish or Perish is a software product developed by Anne-Wil Harzing that draws data from the Google Scholar database, which includes coverage of citations from a variety of publications (academic journals, conference proceedings, white papers, and government reports), foreign languages included. Publish or Perish allows users to run searches on title, keyword, author name, and subject heading.

5   Usage frequency is calculated by dividing the number of times a particular n-gram occurs in a given year by the total number of words in the corpus in that year. The graphs are normalized by the number of books published in each year.

6   For the purpose of this study, it is assumed that the use of an n-gram in a text indicates a reference to that idea and that consequently the frequency of an n-gram is a reasonable indicator of the prevalence of the idea it encapsulates.

7   The Google corpus currently contains about 500 billion words, from a sample of books that were drawn mostly from 40 university libraries around the world (Michel et al., 2011, p. 180). Because most of the books in the Google corpus are from university libraries, this sample will be more representative of academic literature as opposed to the general public domain of literature.

8   The Google Ngram database used optical character recognition (OCR) to digitize text. Books that were written in the early 1800s had very poor OCR, and many of them were not included in the corpus. Although using OCR to digitize text is flawed, misreading text will tend to reduce the overall frequency of the n-gram by reducing the amplitude of its trajectory but not change its overall shape according to Google (see http://www.culturomics.org/Resources/faq).

9   Public affairs includes public policy and public administration graduate schools.

10   "Public Affairs," February 25, 2012. *U.S. News & World Report LP* (see http://grad-schools. usnews.rankingsandreviews.com/best-graduate-schools/top-public-affairs-schools/public-affairs-rankings).

11   This study used total citations instead of average yearly citations because the former measure favors older books, and a defining characteristic of a great text is its longevity. A text that was published many decades ago but possesses a sizable number of citations indicates that this text has continued to be referenced long after its initial publication, demonstrating that even though the text is not new, its content still possesses contemporary significance and relevance.

12   Some of the texts included in this study can technically be classified as case studies, but they also contain policy analyses that extend beyond the case itself (e.g., *Essence of Decision* by Graham T. Allison or *Who Governs?* by Robert A. Dahl) and thus were included in this study.

13   "Public Affairs, Public Policy, and Public Administration," February 25, 2012. National Research Council (NRC) (see http://chronicle.com/article/NRC-Rankings-Overview-Public/124706/).

14   The content of these texts was also analyzed to ensure that the term *public policy* was included in either the title or body as opposed to a bibliographic source.

15   *Collective action* appears at a much higher frequency relative to the other terms; it was therefore excluded from Figures B1a and B1b in Appendix B.

16   *Incremental* is a variant of *incrementalism* and was also searched as a keyword because some texts may refer to incrementalism as *incremental policy*, which was assumed to refer to the same concept.

17 A highly cited text may reference a particular n-gram, but its reference to the idea may not be of central importance to its main point. Therefore, all the top-cited texts whose title did not include the n-gram in question were screened through a content analysis to ensure their reference to the n-gram in question was both nontrivial to the text's central purpose and in a context relevant to public policy.

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APPENDIX A

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APPENDIX B

Public Policy Texts and Terms

Table B1.
Top 10 Texts Containing Public Policy

Title	Author(s)	Total Citations	Year First Published
Bowling Alone	Robert D. Putnam	62,717	2000
The Logic of Collective Action	Mancur Olson, Jr.	25,489	1965
Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy	Joseph Schumpeter	21,818	1942
Development as Freedom	Amartya Sen	12,891	1999
The Truly Disadvantaged	William J. Wilson	10,736	1987
Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies	John W. Kingdon	8,134	1984
Globalization and Its Discontents	Joseph E. Stiglitz	7,983	2002
Profiting from Technological Innovation	David J. Teece	6,001	1986
Activists Beyond Borders	Margaret E. Keck & Kathryn Sikkink	5,851	1998
Discretion versus Policy Rules in Practice	John B. Taylor	5,238	1993

Table B2.
The Most Highly Cited Text for Top Five Big Ideas

Big Idea	Title	Author(s)	Total Citations	Year First Published
Collective Action	The Logic of Collective Action	Mancur Olson, Jr.	25,489	1965
Bounded Rationality	Judgment Under Uncertainty	Daniel Kahneman, Paul Slovic, & Amos Tversky	23,506	1974
Agenda Setting	Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies	John W. Kingdon	8,134	1984
Incrementalism	The Science of "Muddling Through"	Charles E. Lind-blom	6,793	1959
Adaptive Management	New Patterns of Management	Rensis Likert	4,673	1961

Figure B1a.
Usage Frequency of Public Policy Big Ideas
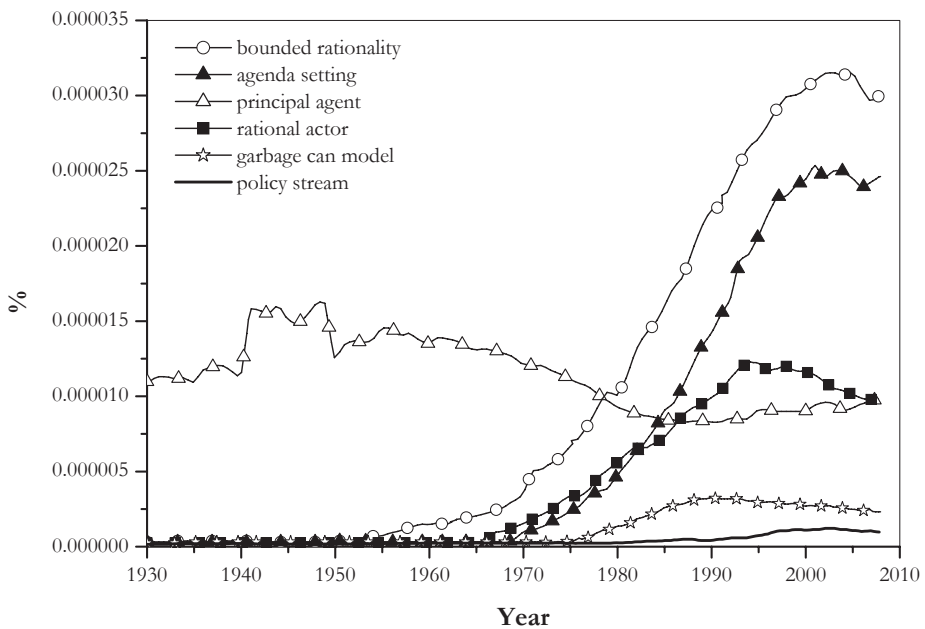
Figure B1b.
Usage Frequency of Public Policy Big Ideas
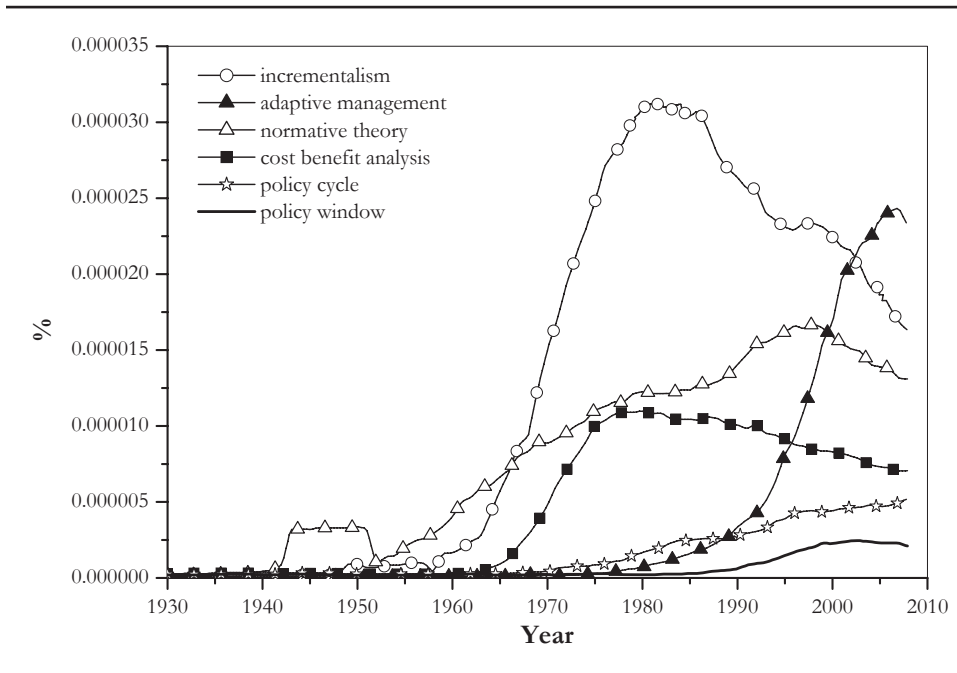
Table B3.
Top 35 Texts by Total Citations From Syllabi

Title	Author(s)/Editor(s)	Total Citations	Year First Published	Book/ Article
Bowling Alone	Robert D. Putnam	62,717	2000	Book
The Fifth Discipline	Peter M. Senge	30,626	1990	Book
The Logic of Collective Action	Mancur Olson, Jr.	25,489	1965	Book
Judgment Under Uncertainty	Daniel Kahneman, Paul Slovic, & Amos Tversky	23,506	1974	Book
Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy	Joseph Schumpeter	21,818	1942	Book
The Problem of Social Cost	Ronald Coase	18,435	1960	Article
The Tragedy of the Commons	Garrett Hardin	17,466	1968	Article
The Market for Lemons	George Akerlof	14,198	1970	Article
Development as Freedom	Amartya Sen	12,891	1999	Book
The Social Psychology of Organizations	Daniel Katz & Robert Louis Kahn	10,750	1966	Book
The Strategy of Conflict	Thomas Schelling	9,863	1960	Book

Table B3.

Top 35 Texts by Total Citations From Syllabi (continued)

Title	Author(s)/Editor(s)	Total Citations	Year First Published	Book/ Article
Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies	John W. Kingdon	8,134	1984	Book
Globalization and Its Discontents	Joseph E. Stiglitz	7,983	2002	Book
The Structuring of Organizations	Henry Mintzberg	7,507	1979	Book
Essence of Decision	Graham T. Allison	6,941	1971	Book
The Theory of Economic Regulation	George J. Stigler	6,891	1971	Article
The Science of "Muddling Through"	Charles E. Lindblom	6,793	1959	Article
Getting to Yes	Roger Fisher & William Ury	6,281	1981	Book
Activists Beyond Borders	Margaret E. Keck & Kathryn Sikkink	5,851	1998	Book
A Ladder of Citizen Participation	Sherry R. Arnstein	5,630	1969	Article
Choices, Values, and Frames	Daniel Kahneman & Amos Tversky	5,563	1984	Book
Economics, Organization, and Management	Paul Milgrom & John Roberts	5,348	1992	Book
A Garbage Can Model of Organizational Choice	Michael D. Cohen, James G. March, & Johan P. Olsen	5,317	1972	Article
Seeing Like a State	James C. Scott	5,250	1998	Book
The Nature and Origins of Mass Opinion	John Zaller	4,739	1992	Book
The Need to Belong	Roy F. Baumeister & Mark R. Leary	4,682	1995	Article
Management of Organizational Behavior	Paul Hersey & Kenneth H. Blanchard	4,450	1982	Book
Exploring Internal Stickiness	Gabriel Szulanski	4,370	1996	Article
Democracy and Its Critics	Robert A. Dahl	4,367	1989	Book
The Power Elite	C. Wright Mills	4,262	1956	Book
The Affluent Society	John Kenneth Galbraith	4,131	1958	Book
Reframing Organizations	Lee G. Bolman & Ter-rence E. Deal	4,111	1984	Book
Leading Change	John P. Kotter	4,043	1996	Book
The Public and Its Problems	John Dewey	3,907	1927	Book
A Theory of Competition Among Pressure Groups for Political Influence	Gary S. Becker	3,558	1983	Article

Figure B2.
Survey Results

The Logic of Collective Action (1965); Olson — 55
The Policy-Making Process (1968); Lindblom — 52
The Problem of Social Cost (1960); Coase — 50
The Strategy of Conflict (1960); Schelling — 46
Speaking Truth to Power (1979); Wildavsky — 46
Bureaucracy (1989); Wilson — 46
The Science of "Muddling Through" (1959); Lindblom — 44
Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies (1984); Kingdon — 44
Bowling Alone (2000); Putnam — 42
Essence of Decision (1971); Allison — 40
The Tragedy of the Commons (1968); Hardin — 37
A Garbage Can Model of Organizational Choice (1972); Cohen, March, Olsen — 35
Who Governs? (1961); Dahl — 32
Policy Paradox (1988); Stone — 32
The Theory of Economic Regulation (1971); Stigler — 31
Judgment Under Uncertainty (1974); Kahneman, Slovic, Tversky — 31
Maps of Bounded Rationality (2003); Kahneman — 28
Development of Freedom (1999); Sen — 28
The End of Liberalism (1969); Lowi — 27
The Power Elite (1956); Mills — 27
Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy (1942); Schumpeter — 24
The Study of Administration (1887); Wilson — 23
Democracy and Its Critics (1989); Dahl — 23
Choices, Values and Frames (1984); Kahneman, Tversky — 23
American Business, Public Policy, Case-Studies, and Political Theory (1964); Lowi — 23
The Market for Lemons (1970); Akerlof — 22
Economics, Organization, and Management (1992); Milgrom, Roberts — 21

Percentage of Respondents

APPENDIX C

Survey: Versions A and B

Survey: Version A

This survey is intended to establish a canon of the great texts and writings in public policy. Please consider a great text to be one that has been highly influential in defining or shaping the field of public policy. They may include source documents, theoretical treatments, or substantive analyses in public policy. The nominees below have been culled from citation and content analysis of graduate course syllabi.

Among the titles listed below, please check ANY you consider to be a great text in public policy.

☐ Agendas and Instability in American Politics (1993); Frank R. Baumgartner and Bryan D. Jones

☐ Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership (1984); Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal

☐ A Theory of Competition Among Pressure Groups for Political Influence (1983); Gary Becker

☐ The New Institutionalism: Organizational Factors in Political Life (1984); James G. March and Johan P. Olsen

☐ Administrative Procedures as Instruments of Political Control (1987); Mathew D. McCubbins, Roger G. Noll, and Barry R. Weingast

☐ The Logic of Collective Action: Public Goods and the Theory of Groups (1965); Mancur Olson, Jr.

☐ The Nature and Origins of Mass Opinion (1992); John Zaller

☐ The Theory of Economic Regulation (1971); George J. Stigler

☐ Who Governs? Democracy and Power in an American City (1961); Robert Dahl

☐ Framing: Toward Clarification of a Fractured Paradigm (1993); Robert M. Entman

☐ Getting to YES: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In (1981); Roger Fisher and William L. Ury

☐ Seeing Like a State: How Certain Schemes to Improve the Human Condition Have Failed (1998); James C. Scott

☐ Maps of Bounded Rationality: Psychology for Behavioral Economics (2003); Daniel Kahneman

- ☐ Leading Change (1996); John P. Kotter

- ☐ Development as Freedom (1999); Amartya Sen

- ☐ Nudge: Improving Decisions about Health, Wealth, and Happiness (2008); Richard Thaler and Cass Sunstein

- ☐ The Social Psychology of Organizations (1966); Daniel Katz and Robert Kahn

- ☐ Bureaucracy: What Government Agencies Do and Why They Do It (1989); James Wilson

- ☐ The Market for Lemons: Quality Uncertainty and the Market Mechanism (1970); George Akerlof

- ☐ Regulatory Issue Networks in a Federal System (1986); William T. Gormley, Jr.

- ☐ The Science of "Muddling Through" (1959); Charles E. Lindblom

- ☐ Essence of Decision: Explaining the Cuban Missile Crisis (1971); Graham T. Allison

- ☐ Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies (1984); John W. Kingdon

- ☐ The Public and Its Problems (1927); John Dewey

- ☐ Rules for Radicals: A Pragmatic Primer for Realistic Radicals (1971); Saul D. Alinsky

- ☐ The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization (1990); Peter Senge

- ☐ Exploring Internal Stickiness: Impediments to the Transfer of Best Practice within the Firm (1996); Gabriel Szulanski

- ☐ The End of Liberalism: The Second Republic of the United States (1969); Theodore J. Lowi

- ☐ Globalization and its Discontents (2002); Joseph E. Stiglitz

- ☐ Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy (1942); Joseph Schumpeter

- ☐ Other (please list any texts you feel should be included on this list)

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Survey: Version B

This survey is intended to establish a canon of the great texts and writings in public policy. Please consider a great text to be one that has been highly influential in defining or shaping the field of public policy. They may include source documents, theoretical treatments, or substantive analyses in public policy. The nominees below have been culled from citation and content analysis of graduate course syllabi.

Among the titles listed below, please check ANY you consider to be a great text in public policy.

- ☐ Activists Beyond Borders: Advocacy Networks in International Politics (1998); Margaret E. Keck and Kathryn Sikkink

- ☐ Economics, Organization, and Management (1992); Paul Milgrom and John Roberts

- ☐ Speaking Truth to Power: The Art and Craft of Policy Analysis (1979); Aaron Wildavsky

- ☐ The Advocacy Coalition Framework: Revisions and Relevance for Europe (1998); Paul A. Sabatier

- ☐ The Policy-Making Process (1968); Charles E. Lindblom

- ☐ Managing With Power: Politics and Influence in Organizations (1992); Jeffrey Pfeffer

- ☐ Cooperation and Punishment in Public Goods Experiments (2000); Ernst Fehr and Simon Gächter

- ☐ A Garbage Can Model of Organizational Choice (1972); Michael D. Cohen, James G. March, and Johan P. Olsen

- ☐ Judgment Under Uncertainty: Heuristics and Biases (1974); Daniel Kahneman, Paul Slovic, and Amos Tversky

- ☐ Reforms as Experiments (1969); Donald T. Campbell

- ☐ Psychology and Economics (1998); Matthew Rabin

- ☐ Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community (2000); Robert D. Putnam

- ☐ Threshold Models of Collective Behavior (1978); Mark Granovetter

- ☐ The Strategy of Conflict (1960); Thomas Schelling

- ☐ The Power Elite (1956); C. Wright Mills

- ☐ The Logic of Congressional Action (1992); R. Douglas Arnold

L. L. Fan

☐ The Hollow Hope: Can Courts Bring About Social Change? (1991);
Gerald N. Rosenberg

☐ Judgment in Managerial Decision Making (1986); Max H. Bazerman
and Don A. Moore

☐ The Structuring of Organizations (1979); Henry Mintzberg

☐ The Problem of Social Cost (1960); Ronald Coase

☐ American Business, Public Policy, Case-Studies, and Political Theory
(1964); Theodore J. Lowi

☐ The Tragedy of the Commons (1968); Garrett Hardin

☐ Policy Paradox: The Art of Political Decision Making (1988);
Deborah Stone

☐ Democracy and Its Critics (1989); Robert Dahl

☐ A Ladder of Citizen Participation (1969); Sherry Arnstein

☐ Choices, Values, and Frames (1984); Daniel Kahneman and Amos
Tversky

☐ Issue Networks and the Executive Establishment (1978); Hugo Heclo

☐ Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources
(1982); Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

☐ The Study of Administration (1887); Woodrow Wilson

☐ The Affluent Society (1958); John Kenneth Galbraith

☐ Congressional Oversight Overlooked: Police Patrols versus Fire
Alarms (1984); Mathew D. McCubbins and Thomas Schwartz

☐ Other (please list any texts you feel should be included on this list)

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Integrating Theory and Practice in MPA Education in China: The FITS Model at Northeastern University

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ABSTRACT

Professional MPA education in China has emerged and developed in response to both internal and external factors since the 1990s. After 13 years of development, great achievements have been made, and various problems have also appeared. The primary problem is the wide gap between theory and practice in Chinese MPA education, which goes against its objective of producing high-level, multi-talented, applied professionals, and the urgent demands for professional managers by Chinese government and nongovernmental organizations. Chinese MPA programs have pursued a variety of efforts to address the problem. This paper describes and assesses a novel MPA education and training pattern, called the Faculty, Infrastructure, Teaching, and Student (FITS) model, initiated by Northeastern University. The model is evaluated based on data gathered from faculty, MPA students, and administrators. The results indicate that the model has potential for promoting the integration of theory with practice in Chinese MPA education and ultimately improving MPA students' various competencies. Its central elements, with modifications for local circumstances, can be replicated by other institutions.

Keywords: MPA education, theory, practice

In the late 1990s, as a response to internal necessities, including China's administrative reform, the development of a civil service system, the urgent need for professional managers by the emergence of nongovernmental organizations, and external factors related to internationalization (K. Yang, 2005), public administration education gained momentum in China.[1] In August 1999, the

17th plenary session of the Academic Degree Committee of the State Council (ADCSC) discussed and approved the official title Master of Public Administration (MPA)[2] and its development plan. In August 2000, twenty-four institutions including Peking University, Renmin University of China, Tsinghua University, Tianjin University, Northeastern University, and Jilin University were approved as the first group of pilot units of MPA education. After 13 years of development, great achievements have been made in Chinese MPA education. First, the number of institutions participating in MPA programs increased rapidly, growing from the original 24 programs in 2000 to the current 146.

Second, the number of both applicants and matriculates for MPA programs has also grown rapidly, with minor fluctuation. The number of national applicants and matriculates was 11,847 and 3,506 respectively in 2001, and the two increased to 22,875 and 10,253 in 2007 with a slight decrease in 2008. The national enrollment rate (the percentage of applicants admitted to programs) increased from 29.6% in 2001 to 44.9% in 2008; the highest rate was 56.9% in 2003.[3] Third, a national MPA training pattern has gradually formed, including the objective, organization, admission, curriculum, teaching, and thesis writing. The State Council specifies the objective of MPA education as producing high-level, multi-talented, applied professionals for Chinese government agencies and nongovernment public organizations in public affairs, public management, and public policy analysis. The examination and enrollment for MPA programs is centrally organized by the ADCSC and the Office of Graduate Education of the Ministry of Education. The National MPA Education Counseling Committee, jointly established by the ADCSC, Ministry of Education, and Ministry of Personnel in February 2001, is responsible for making policy recommendations and doing various other work relating to MPA education, such as faculty development, outcome evaluation, and international exchange and cooperation. As specified by the ADCSC, a bachelor's degree and at least three years' work experience are required for admission to an MPA program. In addition, applicants for MPA programs should work in government agencies or nongovernmental public institutions.

Chinese MPA education requires a minimum of 42 credits, divided into three categories: core courses, compulsory specialty courses, and elective specialty courses. The core courses include Theory and Practice of Socialism, Foreign Language, Public Management, Public Policy Analysis, Political Science, Public Economics, Administrative Law, Quantitative Analytical Methods, and Information Technology and Its Application. Theory and Practice of Socialism and Foreign Language courses are compulsory, but the others are elective. Universities can set up compulsory specialty courses and elective specialty courses according to their respective circumstances. The National MPA Education Counseling Committee suggests that teaching methods include lecture, simulation, case study, discussion, and social investigation, which are more practice oriented. Students enrolled in MPA programs defend a thesis, which can be a dissertation, a high-level investigation report, or a case analysis report. The thesis should demonstrate the ability to

apply theories and methodology in public administration and related disciplines to solving practical problems in public administration.

Fourth, in China, only students who finish traditional full-time programs can receive both a graduation certificate and a degree diploma.[4] Programs for professional training can grant only a degree diploma. In China, graduates with a degree diploma but no graduation certificate are in a disadvantaged position in recruitment and promotion, because the Ministry of Personnel of the government and the Staffing Department of the Party value the graduation certificate more than the degree diploma (K. Yang, 2005). In 2009, the Ministry of Education authorized institutes qualified to accept MPA candidates to set up another MPA program that can offer graduates both a graduation certificate and a degree diploma. This approach makes the programs more attractive and graduates more competitive. At present, the two programs are actually the same in terms of training content and methodology, but the new program has higher tuition fees and admission than the old one. However, the new program can help its graduates compete with their counterparts from traditional full-time public administration programs on even ground.

Although Chinese MPA programs have achieved a great deal, various problems have also emerged: an entrance exam oriented toward test scores, high tuition fee, spoon-feeding pedagogy, deviation of teaching content from the objective of MPA education, shortage of qualified faculty members, and low contributions to MPA graduates' professional development (Guo & Yuan, 2007; Jiang & Chen, 2005; Yue, Wu, & Xu, 2010). The primary problem is the wide gap between theory and practice in Chinese MPA education (G. Chen, 2005; Shen & Cheng, 2009). The "Teaching Evaluation Report of the First Twenty-Four Institutions Offering MPA Degree," made by the Panel of National MPA Teaching Evaluation, reveals that the integration of theory and practice is insufficient in the teaching of MPA courses. Faculty members are not familiar with Chinese public administration practices; they address more Western public administration theories but less local practices; they tend to use a cramming method of teaching and seldom use case-based teaching. An oft-heard critique by Chinese MPA students is that faculty seek only to reproduce themselves by producing an endless supply of budding scientists in public administration while not seeking to produce better public service professionals; they address problems only in their discipline rather than real problems in actual public administration in China. A national survey also reveals that 43.2% of all MPA students think the teaching is inflexible and lacking case- and practice-based methods (Yuan, 2004). Thus Chinese students enrolled in the graduate MPA programs have long urged academics teaching in the programs toward greater relevance and practicality.

The valley between theory and practice in Chinese MPA education goes against its objective of producing high-level, multitalented, applied professionals. It prevents the MPA programs from meeting the urgent needs of Chinese government and nongovernmental organizations for professional managers. As Minister of Human

Resources and Social Security of the People's Republic of China (MHRSS) Yin (2002) argues, the Chinese government is badly in need of well-qualified and professional public managers with high competence. The Standard Framework for General Skills of Chinese Civil Servants (for trial implementation), issued by the MHRSS in 2003, lists nine competencies civil servants should have: political identification, administration by law, providing public service, social investigation, learning, communication and coordination, innovation, response to emergencies, and psychological adaptation. It requires government agencies at various levels to refer to this framework in the training, appointment, evaluation, and promotion of civil servants. The MHRSS vice minister Shiqiu Yang (2009) proposed that competence building should be enhanced in the overall process of MPA education. Because the building of these competencies relies heavily on MPA students' ability to integrate theory with practice, faculty and staff affiliated with MPA programs should attach great importance to helping students develop such abilities for the entire period of their study. The wide gap between theory and practice in MPA education has led to a striking contrast between demand and supply of competent public managers in the Chinese MPA education market. Institutions with MPA programs have made a variety of efforts to address the problem.

This paper explores one particular comprehensive approach, called the Faculty, Infrastructure, Teaching, and Student (FITS) model, that Northeastern University initiated to narrow the gulf between theory and practice in Chinese MPA education. The study is based on analyses of official documents issued by Northeastern University, MPA students' graduation theses, interviews of the director in charge of MPA programs and some MPA students, personal observations of MPA faculty members, and panel discussions with other faculty members.

THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL EFFORTS TO INTEGRATE THEORY AND PRACTICE IN MPA EDUCATION

The wide gap between theory and practice is not unique to Chinese MPA education. It has characterized the field of public administration since its very beginning in Western public administration education (Denhardt, Lewis, Raffel, & Rich, 1997). Students have regularly attacked public administration education as irrelevant, overly theoretical, often outdated, and far removed from public administration practice. The situation is much worse in less developed countries, because educators in these countries have been constantly good importers of Western public administration theories but bad initiators of indigenous theories, thus creating a wider gap between theory and practice. As Denhardt (2001) points out, "If the tension between politics and administration is central to the field of public administration, then the tension between theory and practice is central to public administration education." Theory and practice are like two different sides of a coin: The former is devoted to reflection, and the latter is devoted to action. On one hand, the practice of public administration is activist in orientation and by its very nature involves working to get things done. It is

about doing things, changing things, and making things better. On the other hand, the study of public administration—and to a large extent the teaching of it—tends to be much more reflective in style and approach. It is a world of ideas, constructs, models, hypotheses, and theories (Broadnax, 1997).

Educators and practitioners in the field of public administration are fully aware of the dichotomy and have long addressed the question of theory versus practice (see, for example, Bowman, 1978; Broadnax, 1997; Denhardt et al., 1997; Englehart, 2001; Hummel, 1997; Lenk, 2007; Marshall, 1997; Miller, 1997; Sellers, 1998; Ventriss, 1991; Weschler, 1997). For example, Jrelsat (1978) raises a variety of approaches to curricula reform to achieve higher relevance between theory and practice. Bogason and Brans (2008) put forward the need for university teachers to reach out beyond their ivory towers and associate themselves better with public administration practice. Kim and Bell (1991, p. 19) also suggest that Korean public administration scholars be direct participants in their own Korean administrative system as a way of rooting theories more solidly in the realities and complexities of the bureaucracy. Ventriss (1991) emphasizes the need for mutual learning that jointly links scholars and practitioners in furthering their knowledge and maturity on public issues. Sellers (1998) describes a seminar in public administration as a rewarding experience for students to connect theory with practice. During the four-credit course, students learn research by doing it and begin to understand praxis during project development and implementation. Welch and Wong (1998) call for more attention to global pressures—information technology, global institutions, and efficiency and productivity—to help bridge the gaps of theory and practice between Western and non-Western nations.

Scholars have made theoretical efforts to narrow the gap between theory and practice in Chinese MPA education. Zhang (1993) proposed that Chinese public administration scholars develop indigenous theories to explain and predict administrative phenomena in China. Shuzhang Xia (2005), considered the father of both China's public administration discipline and MPA education, proposed that the key to Chinese MPA education quality lies in the integration of theory and practice, which could be achieved by carrying out MPA programs in light of local context. He also suggested a variety of means to deliver courses, including case study, social investigation, simulation, seminar, and on-site demonstration. S. H. Yang (2004) and Yue et al. (2010) suggested that faculty members affiliated with MPA programs be transferred to governmental agencies to get familiar with public administration practice. Y. P. Chen (2009) and Zhu (2008) proposed that institutes with MPA programs invite senior public management experts from the government to participate in the training of MPA students. Guo and Yuan (2007) proposed that some courses related to MPA students' public service careers be added to the curriculum and that the close connection between theory and practice be enhanced in the content of those courses.

MPA programs in America have made various efforts to fill the valley between theory and practice in public administration education. A good case in point is

the Harvard Kennedy School MPA program, the mission of which is "to train enlightened public leaders and generate the ideas that provide solutions to our most challenging public problems." To fulfill the mission, the Kennedy School is committed to advancing the public interest by training leaders, applying scholarship, and engaging with practitioners. All the faculty members are required to be actively engaged in shaping public policy, advising governments, and helping to run major institutions. The teaching in the classrooms is required to reflect that reality. The curricula are also designed to enhance both the knowledge and skills of MPA students. Two other examples are the Metropolitan College of New York and the MPA program at the University of Delaware. To make theory relevant to practice in MPA program, as Nufrio and Tietje (2008) describe, the curriculum at Metropolitan College of New York is founded on the principle of constructive action, which includes a yearlong process of field research, program design, implementation, evaluation, and integration of public administration theory in the classroom and practice at the worksite. The MPA program at the University of Delaware has developed a model of public administration education that seeks to build upon the student's total experience in such a way that theory and practice are fully integrated. Its effort is based not only in the curriculum, which seeks to integrate theory and practice in many of the same ways that other progressive public administration programs do, but also in the design and operation of the college itself (Denhardt et al., 1997). In addition, many American MPA programs engage their students in service-learning projects or projects working with agency clients, both of which help integrate theory and practice.

Faculties involved in the MPA programs in Chinese universities—including Peking University, Tsinghua University, Renmin University of China, University of Science and Technology of China, Northeastern University, Jilin University, Fudan University, and Sun Yat-Sen University—also have devised a variety of standard approaches to bridging the gap between theory and practice in Chinese MPA education, either in the classroom through case studies and simulations or in the curricula of their programs through internships and social investigations.

THE FITS MODEL

Northeastern University, a public university in the city of Shenyang, Liaoning Province, is one of China's high-level universities designated for the state key construction of the 211 Project and 985 Project. The Department of Public Administration, affiliated with the College of Humanities and Law at Northeastern University and renowned for its public administration and policy education and research, is one of the top 15 departments in China. It offers two undergraduate programs, including Administrative Science and Public Affairs Management; one master's degree program of Administrative Science; two doctoral degree programs, including Administrative Science and Land Resources Management; and an MPA program. The department also hosts a national-level postdoctoral research station. The MPA program's multidisciplinary faculty is drawn from the Department of

Public Administration, Department of Political Science, Institute of Social Security, Department of Economics, and Department of Journalism.

By responding to students' critiques about isolation of MPA programs from public administration practices and by aiming to train more competitive, knowledgeable, skilled, and ethical public administrators, the Northeastern University Department of Public Administration has devoted itself to filling the valley between theory and practice in MPA education. Northeastern faculty and administrative staff regard MPA education as a series of experiences for MPA students to participate in rather than a set of loosely linked courses. In their view, to build most effectively on the knowledge base of the discipline, to develop and refine students' skills needed for administrative action, and to inculcate appropriate public values required in public service, Chinese MPA programs must concentrate on MPA students' cumulative experience during their two to five years of study. The department's efforts are based not only on the curriculum design, which seeks to integrate theory and practice in many of the same ways that other MPA programs do, but also on building the faculty's capacity, improving infrastructure, promoting students' capability, and making extensive teaching reforms. Therefore, a special Faculty, Infrastructure, Teaching, and Student (FITS) model has been initiated, as illustrated in Figure 1. The model, which emphasizes diverse approaches to integrate theory and practice, fits the problem well. Its components could be emulated or modified by other programs to fit their distinctive missions and environments as they seek to prepare professional public administrators.

Figure 1.
The FITS Model
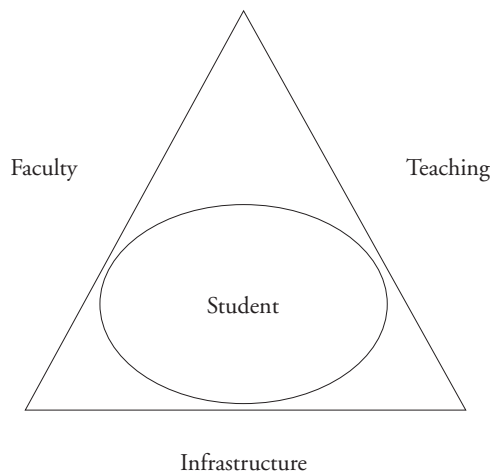
Various Capacity-Building Activities of the MPA Faculty

The 54 faculty members associated with the MPA program at Northeastern University include 22 core faculty affiliated with the College of Humanities and Law, 12 joint faculty from top-ranked universities, and 20 adjunct faculty affiliated with either government agencies or nongovernmental public institutions. All core and joint faculty members are professors, associate professors, or assistant professors with PhD degrees. Their diverse disciplinary backgrounds include public administration, political science, philosophy, sociology, psychology, economics, law, history, and land resources management. Adjunct faculty members have a broad range of work experiences in public administration and are in leading middle- or senior-level administrative positions. In implementing the MPA programs, the core faculty members take care of offering various courses and act as thesis advisors for MPA students. The joint faculty members usually offer special lectures on different themes that interest students and also act as part-time advisors of students working on theses. The adjunct faculty members are mainly responsible for guiding students in social surveys and sometimes deliver special lectures on actual public administration issues.

To bridge the gap between theory and practice, the department has endeavored to improve its faculty's abilities to integrate theory and practice. The core faculty members are transferred to governmental agencies or nongovernmental public organizations at various levels to receive on-the-job training during winter and summer vacations. During the training, they sometimes act as on-the-spot observers of administrative activities and sometimes participate in various kinds of activities. The training process brings core faculty out of the ivory tower into the actual world, enabling them to acquire some practical skills to analyze and deal with actual problems in public administration as well as improve their abilities to link theory and practice. Adjunct faculty members are often encouraged and funded to attend domestic and international academic seminars and conferences in the fields of public administration and public policy. They are expected to broaden their academic views and learn more public administration theories.

The department also initiated a creative assessment system for evaluating the MPA faculty's teaching and research. The traditional evaluation method for core MPA faculty members in Chinese universities is to measure their overall time of teaching and the quantity and quality of their academic publications and basic scientific research. The innovative method places more emphasis on faculties' actual teaching effects and the quantity and quality of their applied research. The main measures involved in the new method include (a) making the evaluation of case writing and case study in teaching an important consideration in the assessment of teaching—a modest honorarium of 500 Chinese yuan is also provided for each case written; and (b) making the evaluation of applied scientific research projects that aim to solve actual problems an important indicator to assess faculty's research abilities—a matching fund is provided for faculty's research projects that are about public administration practices and in collaboration with MPA students.

Extensive Reforms of MPA Teaching

The Department of Public Administration has done much to reform MPA teaching, mainly including publishing textbooks, adopting the open teaching system,[5] and making innovations in curriculum design and thesis advising. Because case studies are very helpful for connecting theory and practice in MPA education, and textbooks on case studies are good guides for faculty members' in-class teaching and students' after-class independent study, MPA faculty members have written and published three textbooks of case studies: *Cases on Administrative Law*, *Cases on Public Affairs Management*, and *Cases on Socialist Theory and Practice*. Moreover, a great deal of case materials about public policy and human resource management in public sectors have been compiled in books. These case materials are handed out to students and used for in-class discussion. Furthermore, relevant case materials follow every chapter of many textbooks in public administration authored by Northeastern University MPA faculty members. These textbooks include *Culture Administration*, *Community Administration*, and *Organizational Behavior in Public Sectors*. With the intention to add visual and aural effects of case studies in teaching, faculty members involved in the teaching of political science for MPA students have further made the case materials into various pictures, audios, and videos. These initiatives have greatly promoted case studies in MPA teaching, which have further improved students' abilities to combine theory with practice.

The open teaching system has been introduced to MPA education in Northeastern University as well. On the one hand, both China-renowned scholars and many world-renowned scholars in the field of public administration have been invited to the department to make lectures. These scholars are from world-famous universities including Moscow State University, Kyoto University, California State University, London School of Economics and Political Science, University of Houston, University of Louisville, University of Melbourne, National Taiwan University, and many others. Lectures by these scholars have kept MPA students informed of worldwide public administration theories and practices. On the other hand, some practical experts in public administration, who are mainly public administrators at middle levels in the government, have been invited to make special lectures about public administration practices. To institutionalize this effort, a Mayor Forum has been established. The mayors at various levels have been invited regularly to give lectures. Because MPA students in China are in-service staff possessed of some practical experiences, the scholars' lectures can bring students out of their local and personal practices to international theoretical world and practices, while practical experts' lectures can bring them back to domestic theories and a variety of practices.

The integration of theory with practice has also been incorporated into the design of the curriculum in MPA programs. Since 2006, China has executed a system of classified management of civil servants. The Civil Servant Law of the People's Republic of China (2006) divides public servants into the three categories of general management, professional and technical management, and administrative

enforcement of law.[6] Because Chinese public administration students are generally employed in one of these roles, the curriculum can be tailored to their distinct requirements and needs. Students from the category of general management need general knowledge and skills about public administration, especially strategic decision making and public policy formulation. Students associated with the category of professional and technical management require more knowledge and skills about the development of modern science and technology, science and technology policy, and technological innovation policy. Students in the positions of administrative enforcement of law require more knowledge and skills about law-based administration. Besides different professional knowledge and skills required by MPA students, general knowledge of Chinese culture and philosophy, skills in team working, and knowledge of values in public administration are also in demand.

Northeastern University was authorized by the Ministry of Education as a pilot university to implement comprehensive reforms of graduate professional education. Since 2010, it has initiated and executed a curriculum design that designates courses as theoretical, practical, and comprehensive. The design of the classified curriculum is mainly applied to elective specialty courses, because the core courses are controlled by the National MPA Education Counseling Committee and the compulsory specialty courses are offered to every MPA student. Tables 1, 2, and 3 illustrate the curriculum.

The contents of theoretical courses are mainly concepts, theoretical frameworks, and analytical tools in the fields of public affairs, administration, and policy. These courses are designed mainly to improve MPA students' theoretical knowledge, though diversified teaching methods aimed to enhance integration of theory and practice, including case study and simulation, are also adopted in the teaching of theoretical courses. The core faculty members take primary charge of offering theoretical courses.

Practical courses are mainly about research methodology, public management skills, and public administration practices in Liaoning Province. The practical courses are devised mainly to enhance students' skills and their knowledge about Liaoning regional economy and public administration, because most Northeastern MPA students hold positions in Liaoning Province. Nevertheless, relevant theoretical knowledge is also included in the teaching of practical courses. The core faculty and adjunct faculty cooperate with each other to offer practical courses mainly through lecturing, case study, simulation, and on-site observation and demonstration. Sometimes, students make in-class presentations as well as submit written reports of their local economy and public administration. The teaching content of comprehensive courses mainly includes various outreach activities and knowledge about the Communist Party of China, culture, managing personal stress, and life wisdom. The comprehensive courses are designed to improve students' overall capabilities, including teamwork, image design, psychological adaptation, strategic and innovative thinking, life values, and cultivation of moral values. Faculty members jointly offer the comprehensive courses through lecturing, team-building activities, and in-class performance.

Table 1.
Theoretical Courses (at least 30 credits)

Types of Courses	Names of Courses		Credit Hours	Credits	Requirements
Core courses	Foreign Language (English/Japanese/Russian)		64	4	Compulsory (6 credits)
	Theory and Practice of Socialism		32	2	
	Public Policy Analysis		48	3	At least 3 courses (9 credits)
	Public Management		48	3	
	Public Economics		48	3	
	Administrative Law		48	3	
	Political Science		48	3	
Compulsory specialty courses	Human Resource Management in Public Sectors		48	3	Compulsory (9 credits)
	Leadership Science		48	3	
	Organizational Behavior in Public Sectors		48	3	
Elective specialty courses	For category of general management	Management Literatures	48	3	At least 2 courses (6 credits)
		Administrative Science	48	3	
		Public Ethics	48	3	
		Case Studies in Public Policy	48	3	
	For category of professional and technical management	Science and Technology Management	48	3	At least 2 courses (6 credits)
		Science and Technology Policy	48	3	
		Independent Innovation and Construction of National Innovation System	48	3	
		Science, Technology, and Society	48	3	
	For category of administrative enforcement of law	Financial and Tax Management	48	3	At least 2 courses (6 credits)
		Environmental Protection and Enforcement of Environmental Law	48	3	
		Public Transportation Management	48	3	
		Food and Drug Administration	48	3	

Table 2.
Practical Courses (at least 11 credits)

Types of Courses	Names of Courses		Credit Hours	Credits	Require-ments
Core courses	Social Research Methods		48	3	Compulsory (8 credits)
	E-Government		32	2	
	Administrative Documents Writing		48	3	
Elective specialty courses	For category of general management	Policy Interpretation of Transform and Vitalization in Northeast China	24	1.5	At least 2 courses (3 credits)
		A Strategic Analysis of National New Industrialization and Comprehensive Reforms in Shenyang as an Experimental Zone	24	1.5	
		Strategies for Development and Opening Up in Liaoning Coastal Economic Zone	24	1.5	
		Economic Development in Counties of Liaoning Province	24	1.5	
		Implementation of Strategies for Breakthrough in the Development of Northwest Liaoning Province	24	1.5	
	For category of professional and technical management	High and New Technology Development in Liaoning Province	24	1.5	At least 2 courses (3 credits)
		Science and Technology Talents in Liaoning	24	1.5	
		Agricultural Science and Technology Talents in Liaoning	24	1.5	
		Development of Equipment Manufacturing Industry in Liaoning	24	1.5	
		Development of Advanced Materials Industry in Liaoning	24	1.5	
	For category of administrative enforcement of law	Cultural Entertainment Market Administration	24	1.5	At least 2 courses (3 credits)
		Intellectual Property Management in Liaoning	24	1.5	
		Work Safety Supervision in Liaoning	24	1.5	
		Law Enforcement in Land Use Management in Liaoning	24	1.5	
		Law Enforcement in Marine Fishery Resources Management in Liaoning	24	1.5	

Table 3.
Comprehensive Courses (at least 2 credits)

Names of Courses	Credit Hours	Credits	Requirements
Outreach Activities	16	1	Compulsory (1 credit)
History of Chinese Communist Party and Individual Party Spirit Cultivation	4	0.25	At least 4 courses (1 credit)
Comparative Chinese and Western Architectural Cultures and Cultural Architecture Protection in Urban Areas	4	0.25	
Tea Culture	4	0.25	
Hanfeizi's View of Human Nature and Its Implications in Modern Society	4	0.25	
Image Design for Leaders	4	0.25	
Psychological Pressure Reduction and Adaptation for Civil Servants	4	0.25	
Strategic and Innovative Thinking of Leaders	4	0.25	
Presidential Elections in USA and Taiwan: Some Thoughts about Democracy	4	0.25	
Life Wisdom in Taoism and Its Implications	4	0.25	

Compared to the old curriculum design, which is more theory oriented, the new design better satisfies students' various demands based on their different professional backgrounds. It also benefits the development of knowledge, skills, and public service values. Because MPA students need to acquire knowledge about the field of public administration, develop skills to affect change in the public sector, and acquire a certain psychological grounding or maturity to do so in the most effective and responsible way (Denhardt, 2001), public administration education should consist of learning a body of knowledge, acquiring a set of skills, and developing a sense of maturity and self-esteem that enables the individual to do the right thing at the right time, as Denhardt et al. (1997) address. Jennings (1989) also emphasizes that the assessment of knowledge, skills, and values acquired by MPA graduates is a reliable way to determine the effectiveness of public affairs and administration programs.

The new curriculum design of the MPA programs at Northeastern University has demonstrated a good integration of knowledge, skills, and values that will greatly improve the effectiveness of bridging gaps between theory and practice in MPA education as faculty members and MPA students at Northeastern University address public administration challenges. Faculty members involved in the MPA program argue that the innovative curriculum design is adapted to the reform of civil servant management in China. They list a few advantages of the innovative measure from the perspective of teaching:

- It is a good integration of foreign theories and local public administration practices.
- It makes it easier for faculty members to lecture in accordance with students' needs because the involved students have similar interests.
- It makes in-class discussion easier to lead because students have the same work background and a lot of shared working experience.
- It improves faculty members' ability to integrate theory and practice because students with similar work backgrounds provide many similar practical cases for lecturers, which makes them constantly informed of public administration practices.
- It makes the teaching of theoretical courses easier to carry out because the classified theoretical courses are close to students' practical work.
- It makes the teaching of practical courses more targeted and purposeful because the classified practical courses are close to students' work backgrounds.

The currently enrolled MPA students at Northeastern University identify the following advantages of the new curriculum design from the perspective of learning:

- The curriculum design is built on indigenous public management knowledge and skills.
- It is directly aimed at improving students' public management knowledge and skills.
- It makes it easier for students to discuss and learn each other's similar work experience, which contributes a lot to their own work.
- The design of theoretical courses makes students learn the theoretical knowledge that is directly related to their work.
- The design of practical courses informs students of the regional social and economic circumstances in which they are working.
- The design of practical courses enhances students' abilities to find out, analyze, and finally solve actual problems in their local public administration practices.
- The design of comprehensive courses broadens students' horizons and minds as well as their knowledge of history, culture, and politics.[7]

These advantages of the curriculum design demonstrate its effectiveness at narrowing gaps between theory and practice in MPA education.

In addition to reforms in teaching methods and innovations in curriculum design, Northeastern has adopted a double-advisors system in the advising of MPA graduation theses. A core faculty member and an adjunct faculty member cooperate to advise one MPA student during his or her thesis research. The former is mainly responsible for offering the student advice in selecting a thesis topic, constructing a theoretical framework, and selecting research methods as well as

writing the proposal and midterm report. The latter is mainly in charge of offering guidance in the implementation of social investigations related to the student's thesis. A reward system motivates both core and adjunct faculty members in the advising of students. Every year, 3% of all the theses are granted a Best Thesis Reward. The criteria for best thesis are (a) the thesis focuses on actual problems in current Chinese public administration; (b) public administration theory and method are applied in the thesis; and (c) the thesis has both academic and practical value. The authors and advisors of best theses are granted a Certificate of Distinction and 1,000 Chinese yuan.

The double-advisors system and the Best Thesis Reward system have considerably promoted the integration of public administration theory with practice in MPA students' theses, as demonstrated by a study of all the MPA students' theses at Northeastern University from 2009 to 2012.[8] The shift in approach occurred in 2011. The study shows that 16% (32 out of 202) of the theses in 2009 and 2010 lack theoretical frameworks, as compared to 3% (5 out of 161) in 2011 and 2012. Among theses with theoretical frameworks, 18% (30 out of 170) in 2009 and 2010, and 2% (3 out of 156) in 2011 and 2012, are just direct copies of Western public administration theories, including new public management theory, Kingdon's streams metaphor, and so on. The authors of the other theses with theoretical frameworks built their own theoretical frameworks based on their thesis topics, literature reviews, and personal observations. Their constructed theoretical frameworks are more suitable to analyze Chinese public administration problems, because they are embedded with Chinese indigenous elements. It is clear that since the two systems were implemented, the number of MPA graduation theses carrying theoretical frameworks has increased substantially and the number of theses blindly copying Western theories has decreased significantly. Further, 29% more of the theses in 2011 and 2012 have theoretical frameworks with Chinese public administration variables than did the theses in 2009 and 2010. With regard to research process, 24% of the thesis authors in 2009 and 2010 did social investigations related to their thesis topics, and the percentage increased to 58% after the two systems were put into effect. The authors employing social surveys usually gain their data through questionnaires, interviews, or fieldwork. Data gained through the authors' social surveys are in better touch with public administration practice than the official statistics in China, because some of the latter are distorted. The finding that more theoretical models with Chinese public administration elements are built and more research data are acquired by the authors' personal social investigations in 2011 and 2012 shows a better connection between theory and the practice of Chinese public administration in MPA students' graduation theses.

Promoting Diversified Capabilities for MPA Students

Along with various capacity-building activities of the MPA faculty and extensive reforms of MPA teaching, the Department of Public Administration has gone further to make diverse efforts to improve students' various capabilities.

First, MPA students are encouraged and funded to attend domestic and international academic conferences. Since the establishment of MPA programs, more than 20 MPA students have been funded to make academic exchanges and learn successful public administration experiences abroad. In 2003, Northeastern initiated an MPA Students' Forum for students enrolled in MPA programs in Beijing, Shanghai, and Shenyang. The forum was later moved to a national level and is held in October every year. The MPA Students' Forum is a platform for Chinese MPA students to exchange research and work experiences. Students present and discuss a variety of papers reflecting either a theoretical or practical perspective. They gain theoretical and practical knowledge from the forum. They also improve their ability to communicate effectively, which is critical for public administrators (Manns & Waugh 1989). As Schacter (1983) states, "No ability is as important to the public manager as the ability to speak and write effectively…Without the ability to impart and receive ideas, they cannot function effectively."

Second, Northeastern initiated diverse activities relevant to MPA cultural construction, designed to enhance students' self-esteem, self-respect, collective consciousness, responsibility consciousness, and interpersonal skills. The Department of Public Administration has long attached great importance to the construction of MPA culture, and it is leading the national MPA cultural construction. The slogan of MPA culture construction at Northeastern University is "Together is a flaming fire, separated is a sparkling star," and its logo is a combination of fire and stars (Figure 2). In the second National MPA Students' Forum, held in Fudan University in 2004, the National MPA Education Counseling Committee decided to make the slogan and logo of MPA culture construction at Northeastern University applicable to every MPA program nationwide. In October 2004, the first national basketball game for MPA students was organized and held by Northeastern University. Thirteen universities with MPA programs participated in the game. The first national debate competition for MPA students was also held at

Figure 2.
Chinese MPA Culture Construction Logo

Northeastern University. Besides activities at the national level, Northeastern University has also carried out a variety of university-level activities. The first alumni association for MPA students was initiated and set up at the university, and its member representative conference was held. A lot of other recreational activities as diverse as football games, badminton games, volleyball games, and a Spring Festival Gala have been held. A special fund is established by the Department of Public Administration to support those activities.

Great Improvements in Infrastructure

Although members enrolled in Chinese MPA programs are in-service students with practical public administration experience, they cannot separate from the daily trivia and translate their experiences into a theoretical framework without effective guidance from faculty. With the objective to effectively integrate theory with practice in MPA education, some off-campus experiential bases at various levels have been established. These bases are important platforms for bringing core faculty members out of their ivory tower and informing students about various public administration practices. The bases also provide venues for on-the-spot guidance for MPA students by both core faculty members and adjunct faculty members. Most MPA students, along with their advisors, will spend two to three months in these practice training bases during their 2.5 to 4 years of study at Northeastern University.

Bases at the provincial level include Organization Department of Liaoning Provincial Committee of Communist Party of China, Department of Human Resources and Social Security of Liaoning Province, Department of Education of Liaoning Province, and Department of Civil Affairs of Liaoning Province. The prefecture-level bases consist of Policy Research Centre for Shenyang Municipal Committee of Communist Party of China, Shenyang Federation of Trade Unions, Department of Personnel in Dalian city, Department for Talents Service in Anshan city, Organization Department of Benxi Municipal Committee of Communist Party of China, Organization Department of Jinzhou Municipal Committee of Communist Party of China, and Department of Personnel in Fuxin city. The county-level bases are comprised of Organization Department of Kuandian County Committee of Communist Party of China and Development and Reform Commission of Faku County. Other practice training bases include Shengjing Hospital of China Medical University and some subdistrict administrative offices in Shenyang.

Besides the construction of practice training bases, millions of Chinese yuan have been spent to improve the teaching environment for MPA students and faculties. From 2001 up to the present, an average of 2 million Chinese yuan have been invested every year, for a total of more than 20 million (about US$3.2 million at today's exchange rate). The teaching environment has improved considerably compared with that of 10 years ago. The MPA program has eight exclusive classrooms for case making, case study, and case teaching. All the facilities in those classrooms are up to date. There is also a laboratory, equipped with professional

hardware and software facilities, such as dozens of computers, comprehensive management software for administrative examination and approval, a system for e-business and information technology, and a commercial Internet network media training system. The laboratory can provide an artificial environment for MPA teaching and learning. Some courses have been offered in the laboratory, such as Social Research Methods, Political Science, and E-Government. MPA students can simultaneously learn theoretical knowledge as well as skills to apply that knowledge during class.

Conclusions

Professional MPA education in China has emerged and developed in response to both internal and external factors since the 1990s. After 13 years of development, great achievements have been made; various problems have also appeared. The primary problem is the wide gap between theory and practice in Chinese MPA education, which deviates from its objective of producing urgently needed high-level, multitalented, applied professional public managers with high competencies. A variety of efforts have been made to address the problem by institutions with MPA programs in China. The Department of Public Administration at Northeastern University has gradually formed a Faculty, Infrastructure, Teaching, and Student (FITS) model in its endeavor to connect theory with practice in MPA education. The model incorporates accumulative efforts in capacity building of MPA faculty, extensive reforms of MPA teaching, integration of practitioners in the education of MPA students, collaboration between practitioners and core faculty members, capabilities promotion for MPA students, and improvements in teaching and practice training infrastructures.

Most of these efforts are consistent with the accreditation standards established by the Network of Schools of Public Policy, Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) in 2009. The Preconditions for Accreditation Review state that the curriculum of eligible programs shall demonstrably emphasize public service values. The comprehensive courses in Northeastern University are designed to deliver such values. NASPAA emphasizes in Standard 3, Faculty Performance, that program faculty should engage not only in the scholarship of public affairs, administration, and policy but also in related community and professional service that provides opportunities for them to connect theory and practice. Requiring core faculty to take temporary positions in public agencies, and funding adjunct faculty to attend academic conferences in MPA programs of Northeastern University, are in line with NASPAA standards. Standard 5, Student Learning, states that the curriculum design should be based on a set of universal required competencies, mission-specific required competencies, mission-specific elective competencies, and professional competencies. It also points out that programs should strive to assure that their students can apply to real-world problems the concepts, tools, and knowledge they have learned. The new MPA curriculum design at North-

eastern University is competency based, designed to improve students' competencies in various realms of administrative activity and in the application of theory to administrative problems confronted in practical settings.

As can be seen, all the efforts made by Northeastern University are competency oriented and aimed to enhance MPA students' knowledge, skills, and values, which are consistent with the NASPAA standards. Because the full integration of theory and practice in public administration education requires a full integration of knowledge, skills, and values (Denhardt et al., 1997), the efforts made by the department can help fill the gap between theory and practice in Chinese MPA education and further contribute to producing well-qualified and competent professionals. The result will be that MPA graduates from Northeastern University are well prepared to go back to their positions to continue their careers and make substantial contributions to public service.

The comprehensive FITS model is a typical approach tried by Chinese institutions to integrate theory with practice in MPA education. It fits the need to integrate theory and practice in public administration education well. Effective implementation of the model depends on faculty's efforts, effective governance system of MPA programs, and communication and cooperation between universities and the government. The faculty are the dominant factor affecting implementation of the model, because they are central to most components. However, the currently affiliated core faculty members are well equipped with Western public administration and policy theories but less well equipped with indigenous theories and practices. It is a common problem for many social sciences in developing countries such as China and underdeveloped countries. The shortcomings of Chinese public administration practices can be improved by transferring training experiences in a relatively short time. But the insufficiency of public administration theories with Chinese characteristics cannot be easily improved in a short time. Improvement demands sustained efforts by Chinese academics in public administration. Future research to integrate theory with practice in MPA education should focus on development of public administration theories based on local contexts and training of well-qualified faculty members.

Notes

1   This paper was presented at the International Seminar on Reforms of Public Sectors and MPA Education in China and the Nordic Countries, Beijing, China, in April 2012.

2   MPA (Master of Public Administration) has a different meaning in China than in the USA. In China, it refers in particular to the program initiated to provide two to four years of training for in-service students who have received a bachelor's degree and have three or more years of working experience. Members enrolled in the MPA programs are part-time students, typically taking intensive courses on weekends. Although defined differently, the traditional Master in Administrative Science is now also called Master of Public Administration in English, causing a bit of confusion in translation and usage.

3   The national data of the applicants and matriculates for MPA programs from 2001 to 2008 are from the *MPA Education Development Report in China (1999–2009).*

4   A diploma is a certificate issued by an educational institution that testifies that the recipient has successfully completed the study by earning the required credits and completing the graduation thesis defense. The recipient does not need to complete the whole period of schooling. A graduation certificate is a credential awarded by an educational institution to an individual who has completed the required period of schooling and earned the required credits. The recipient does not need to complete the thesis defense. The main difference between the two is that the former implies an individual's educational level while the latter indicates his or her record of formal schooling. In Mainland China, a holder of bachelor's degree usually has both a diploma and a graduation certificate. However, a holder of master's degree or doctor's degree has a diploma but does not necessarily have the graduation certificate. Generally, full-time graduates are awarded the two certificates while part-time graduates are awarded only the diploma.

5   In this paper, the term *open teaching system* refers to various lectures made by Chinese and foreign renowned scholars in the field of public administration, and practical experts who are mainly public administrators at middle and higher levels.

6   Civil servants in the category of general management are engaged in the jobs of planning, consulting, decision making, organizing, directing, coordinating, and supervising in public affairs management. They comprise the majority of all civil servants in China. Civil servants in the category of professional and technical management are responsible for providing technical support to public administration. Their jobs consist mainly of forensic identification, physical and chemical inspections, voice print test, and special translation. The positions are usually set in government departments of public security, state security, and foreign affairs at various levels. Civil servants in the category of administrative enforcement of law take care of such jobs as executing regulation, imposing administrative sanctions, and enforcing administrative inspection. These public servants are usually at the junior levels. Their positions are mainly set in government departments of tax administration, customs administration, quality inspection, environmental protection, food and drug administration, and so on. The system of classified management of civil servants is of great significance in selecting, employing, assessing, and training civil servants.

7   The study of the advantages of the curriculum design is based on a panel discussion with MPA faculty members of Northeastern University and interviews of some currently enrolled MPA students. The panel discussion was organized by two authors (Xiaojie Zhang and Ping Sun) of this paper on March 14, 2012. Ping Sun led the discussion of 8 randomly selected core faculty members, 2 joint faculty members, and 2 adjunct faculty members. The topic and objectives of the discussion were sent to them one week earlier. The panel discussion had four parts: (a) the leader Ping Sun introduced the topic and objectives; (b) each panelist presented his or her views and opinions regarding the new curriculum design for 5 minutes; (c) the panelists discussed the

issue with each other by asking questions and reacting to the opinions of other panelists for 50 minutes; (d) the leader closed the discussion and provided a brief summary of the discussion. Xiaojie Zhang recorded the whole discussion and made a detailed summary of it. She sent the summary to each panelist to see if they had additional opinions. The MPA students were interviewed on March 17, 24, and 25 and on April 7 and 8. The procedures were as follows: The interviewer Xiaojie Zhang (a) randomly selected 15 students from the total of 249 students enrolled in 2010–2011; (b) sent e-mails to the interviewees listing the objectives of the interviews one week before holding the interviews; (c) interviewed the selected MPA students after their class and recorded the interviews; and (d) wrote a summary of all the advantages of the new curriculum design addressed by the students.

8   We chose the time period from 2009 to 2012 because the double-advisors system and the Best Thesis Reward system were carried out in the latter half of 2010, so their effectiveness can be discerned only after 2010. In all, 363 graduation theses were studied: 103 in 2009, 99 in 2010, 73 in 2011, and 88 in 2012.

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From Traditional to Client-Based Nonprofit Management Course Design: Reflections on a Recent Course Conversion

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ABSTRACT

This article contributes to the literature on the role of client-based community service-learning courses in Masters of Public Administration programs. It focuses on how to design client-based service-learning courses that benefit students and community partners without placing undue burdens on faculty. After providing a synopsis of common challenges and associated solutions identified in recent literature, we describe key elements of a recent course conversion and share our reflections on its implementation. We focus on course design because learning outcomes are affected by both the design and management of community service-learning courses. By discussing course design in more detail, we aim to help faculty assess whether they have the resources to successfully implement client-based service-learning courses. The article concludes with reflections on the effectiveness of the innovations we implemented, a checklist of considerations for designing similar courses, and considerations for adapting our model to other settings.

Keywords: client-based courses, community service learning, course design, nonprofit management

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In recent years, public administration programs have been working to increase the experiential and service-learning aspects of their curricula to enhance student learning outcomes while strengthening relationships between universities and the communities in which they are located. Part of a broader resurgence of attention on community-engaged scholarship, these service-learning opportunities are seen as one way for public administration programs to ensure that the work of public

administration scholarship, teaching, and learning stays relevant to the practice of public and nonprofit administration. Nonprofit management courses are seen to be a good fit for service-learning courses because local nonprofits are natural partners and the course content lends itself to applied projects (D'Agostino, 2008; Waldner & Hunter, 2008). Service learning has been defined as "a credit-bearing educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility" (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996, p. 222). It is one approach to problem-based learning that confronts students with real-world problems and is deemed an effective approach for helping to bridge the gaps between theory and practice while exposing students to public service experiences (e.g., Bryer, 2011; Bushouse et al., 2011; Imperial, Perry, & Katula, 2008; Koliba, 2007).

Although the literature touts the potential of service-learning courses and documents success stories for student learning and community partner outcomes, it also describes several challenges confronted by faculty who have implemented service-learning courses. Challenges include the constraints imposed by semester-based timelines, busy student and faculty schedules, community organizations with limited capacities, constraints imposed by universities without the infrastructures or rewards systems to promote faculty involvement in community-engaged work, and difficulties with meeting the dual goals of enhancing learning outcomes while adding value to community organizations in a short timeframe. Although the challenges and some associated solutions have been well documented in the literature, few design and implementation guides are available for faculty interested in replicating success stories and minimizing challenges. Thus, faculty members who teach service-learning courses struggle to create an experience that achieves desired outcomes in a way that is meaningful for all participants—the students, the university, and the community groups involved.

Given that learning outcomes are affected by both the design and management of community service-learning courses, focusing on design as well as outcomes merits attention. Written in the tradition of the "scholarship of engagement" (McNall, Reed, Brown, & Allen, 2009), this article takes on that task, describing and reflecting on a process of course design and implementation that took place over a two-year period. It contributes to conversations about how to design service-learning courses and projects that simultaneously benefit students and community partners without overburdening faculty by providing a detailed summary of and reflections on our experiences. By discussing course design in more detail, we aim to help curious but cautious faculty assess whether they have the resources and wherewithal to successfully implement client-based service-learning courses.

The article begins with a synopsis of common challenges faced in the design and implementation of community service-learning (CSL) courses, particularly those geared toward nontraditional Master of Public Administration (MPA) students who attend part-time, primarily in the evening, and are currently employed in a related field. The challenges surfaced from a literature review related to the design and implementation of CSL courses. The article goes on to report on the development and design of the San Francisco Community-Based Organization (CBO) Support Project, an innovative client-based CSL experience explicitly created to address the challenges identified in the literature. After documenting the process of designing and implementing the CBO Support Project, the article goes on to reflect on the effectiveness of the innovations and provides a checklist others may use in designing similar courses. The article concludes with a discussion of considerations for adapting the model to other settings.

COMMON CHALLENGES AND ASSOCIATED SOLUTIONS

The planning and design of the CBO Support Project was rooted in a review of the literature that focused on designing and implementing CSL courses, especially those geared toward nontraditional students. Motivated by that literature review, we strove to maintain a balance in trying to achieve the goals of enhancing student-learning outcomes and adding value to community organizations while minimizing the burden for the instructor. Our reading of the literature suggested that designing a CSL course to achieve those goals would require rethinking traditional CSL course models for two reasons.

First, traditional service-learning courses that place students in direct service roles at organizations do not always serve the needs of nontraditional MPA students, who often have several years of direct service experience and, in many cases, are employed full-time in direct service roles during the day while attending classes in the evenings. Even students not currently employed in direct service roles are generally employed full-time and cannot spend a substantial number of hours on-site with a community partner during traditional working hours (Bushouse, 2005; Waldner & Hunter, 2008). Second, traditional service-learning courses have been criticized for treating community partners as service sites or the community as a laboratory, serving primarily the educational needs of students and goals of faculty while stretching already scarce organizational management resources too thin. That can cause some community groups to be skeptical about CSL courses (Gazley, Littlepage, & Bennett, 2012).

As a first step toward rethinking traditional CSL models, we looked more closely at the literature on client-based service-learning courses. Distinct from traditional service-learning courses, client-based courses position a student as an external resource—much like a consultant—whose role it is to produce (or co-produce) a final report on a predefined, clearly bound project for the "client" or community partner (Waldner & Hunter, 2008). Client-based courses allow

skilled graduate students to demonstrate their acquisition of management skills and related knowledge by applying it to real-world situations while helping community organizations achieve goals they otherwise would not be able to achieve, at least not in such a compressed timeframe (Bushouse, 2005). In addition, rather than seeing community partners primarily as service sites where students learn, client-based approaches explicitly recognize the important role community partners play in offering learning experiences for students. Community organizations can benefit from student work in more ways than just gleaning the labor and expertise, by gaining important and valuable outside perspectives that can facilitate organizational learning (Gazley et al., 2012; Worrall, 2007).

In short, the design of client-based courses helps address concerns nontraditional MPA students and community partners often have with traditional CSL courses. Still, effective implementation of client-based courses raises three overlapping challenges: one related to managing expectations of community partners, a second related to identifying client projects and matching them with student project teams, and a third related to student learning and performance outcomes.

In an effort to gain insights about strategies used to address these challenges, we focused on recent literature that addresses CSL course design issues. The literature revealed that effective CSL course management, whether traditional or client based, takes a precious commodity—faculty time (Bushouse et al., 2011; Imperial et al., 2008). Specific examples of the additional time it takes to successfully implement service-learning courses include time needed to monitor projects and provide frequent, timely, and authentic feedback to student work in progress; time in and out of the classroom to allow for interactive reflective time with students; and time needed to identify suitable service-learning projects and partners (Tai-Seale, 2001). The literature emphasizes that setting realistic expectations regarding the time commitments for students, instructors, and community partners and ensuring that students and clients have adequate time to meet (which can be particular challenging for working students) can help set the stage for a smooth semester. Thus, we were mindful that any design or implementation innovations we identified also would have to minimize the time burden for all parties.

Strategies for managing expectations of community partners focus on the importance of creating clear lines of communications to facilitate their understanding of the time and resource demands associated with the course. For example, Bushouse (2005) found that by requiring community partners to respond to a request for proposals in order to participate in the CSL course was useful in helping CBOs identify scope of project and estimate staff time needed to support it. She also noted that providing CBOs with a clear voice in the service-learning project may help CBO staff feel like true partners and ensure that the project timelines are reasonable and the projected deliverables relevant to their work.

Two concerns related to student-learning and performance outcomes are ensuring that (a) the type and level of work are appropriate for MPA students and (b) deliverables produced by students are valuable for clients and are of high

quality without requiring faculty or community partners to spend excessive time on supervision and feedback. These two concerns are closely related to identifying projects and matching them to student teams. All of these concerns have to be addressed in the context of student-learning outcomes for the course. Most service-learning projects do not provide an opportunity for students to incorporate all of the course materials and instead require students to delve more deeply into one area of knowledge than others. At the same time, some skills needed for successful client-based projects, like managing group dynamics, may not even be included as standard course content (Lambright & Lu, 2009). Solutions identified in the literature include establishing a clear theoretical framework to guide the course and projects, integrating course readings and lectures with project topics, and encouraging reflective practices for students (Bryer, 2011; Koliba, 2004; Lambright & Lu, 2009; Waldner & Hunter, 2008). For example, instructors have built in a range of activities intended to have students reflect on the connections between the reading and their service-learning projects, including journaling, organizing class discussion around a particular theory or concept and its relevance to student projects, and incorporating reflective assignments and activities frequently throughout the semester (Koliba, 2004; Lambright & Lu, 2009; Waldner & Hunter, 2008). Creating opportunities for students to share their final projects with one another and their community partners is seen as worthwhile (Bryer, 2011; Waldner & Hunter, 2008).

Matching community partners with student groups and helping groups manage their own dynamics can be challenging, especially where student capacities and work quality are uneven (Lambright & Lu, 2009; Waldner & Hunter, 2008). Some students may not perform at their highest level, either because they are not fully motivated, which could be because the course is required or there is a mismatch between student interest and agency work, especially when faculty match students to projects without much input from the students (Gazley et al., 2012). Although this is not unique to service learning, in client-based courses, the clients bear the brunt of the impact, in the form of final products that are not of high quality and consequently of little use in their work (Waldner & Hunter, 2008).

One way to address the challenge of ensuring the quality of deliverables to the community partners and minimize risk to partners is for students to receive feedback on their work from faculty before finalizing it for the community partner. Although this may be of great benefit to the client, if not carefully managed, faculty may end up dedicating an unrealistic amount of time to providing students with detailed guidance and even helping them finalize the project (Tai-Seale, 2001). Some studies suggest that courses that allow students a certain degree of autonomy in their relationships with their community partners and in determining the scope of the final project may enhance learning outcomes (Lambright & Lu, 2009), but that autonomy may need to be balanced with a clearly defined scope of work and ongoing communications with the community partners so that the end product is, in effect, co-produced (Bushouse, 2005).

The CBO Support Project

The CBO Support Project was designed to address the challenges and build on successful practices identified in the literature related to managing expectations of community partners, identifying projects and matching them to project teams, and student learning and performance outcomes. The student learning outcomes included:

1. Demonstrate an understanding of a range of nonprofit management concepts and their application;

2. Demonstrate an understanding of nonprofit management challenges and strategies for addressing and mitigating the impacts of those challenges;

3. Show familiarity with scholarly and practice-centered nonprofit management resources;

4. Exhibit ability to synthesize resources and use them in cases and real-life scenarios; and

5. Exhibit ability to work effectively as a member of a team and in partnership with a CBO.

The overarching goal for the course redesign was to create a formalized mechanism connecting MPA students and CBOs through structured semester-length community service-learning projects that simultaneously served the mission and community engagement objectives of the MPA program and the learning outcomes of the nonprofit management course. That formalized mechanism would take the form of a user-friendly Web-based outreach and data management system.

We used a $4,500 grant from the university's Institute for Civic and Community Engagement (ICCE) to minimize the faculty time needed to convert the traditional nonprofit management class into a service-learning course. This process was time-intensive and occurred over the period of one year, with three months spent on research, six months dedicated to course design and content development, and another three months for outreach and selection of community partners. The grant allowed a portion of the funds to be earmarked for the services of a curriculum consultant (a former student) and another portion to be paid to an experienced consultant to develop the website using Drupal, a free and open-source content management system, with our guidance and content. After the grant funds were spent and the curriculum design complete, the MPA program agreed to supplement the stipend funding so the curriculum consultant could provide ongoing support the first semester the newly designed course was offered.

In keeping with Bryer's (2011) recommendation to provide a clear framework for the course and based on our shared understanding about what was important to include in nonprofit management coursework that could also benefit CBO managers, we decided that a client-based model rooted in an evaluation and organizational learning framework would be best suited to our program. We

thought it important to contrast top-down perspectives of evaluation, frequently seen as a means to secure funding and demonstrate success based on program output data, with bottom-up perspectives that use evaluation outcomes as a mechanism to facilitate organizational learning (Carman, 2007; Hoole & Patterson, 2008; Poole, Nelson, Carnahan, Chepenik, & Tubiak, 2002). Evaluation and organizational learning go hand in hand, reinforcing the needs for planning, identifying outcomes and success indicators, and reflecting on process and outcomes to learn and make program modifications when needed.

Table 1.
Logic Model Components for Course Redesign

Problem Statement	The MPA program lacks a formalized mechanism to connect MPA faculty, students, and community-based organizations through client-based CSL projects in a way that minimizes challenges for CBO partners, students, and faculty. The lack of a formal mechanism limits opportunities for all parties to benefit from those projects.
Goal	To create a formal mechanism to connect MPA students and CBOs in structured semester-length community-service learning projects that serve the mission and community engagement objectives of the MPA program and the learning outcomes of its nonprofit administration course.
Rationale	Client-based CSL projects have the potential to contribute to variety of positive outcomes (e.g., increasing knowledge and resources for community partners, increasing professional experience of students, building partnerships between the MPA program and the community).
Resources	$4,500 grant; faculty member and curriculum consultant; scholarly and best practices research
Activities	Conduct scholarly and best practices research; identify student learning outcomes; design course activities and assignments, timeline, and expectations about project deliverables; develop mechanism for recruitment, screening, and selection of community partners.
Outputs	Timeline and activities for students, faculty, and CBO partners, website and database, resource guide, and evaluation plan.
Outcomes	Minimize challenges of CSL project for all parties; support achievement of student learning outcomes; enhance capacity of individuals and organizations in nonprofit sector; increase capacity for organizational learning; strengthen and expand partnerships.

The framework also provided a useful organizing scheme for the class because it could be applied to a diverse array of CBOs—diverse in their size, their capacity, and their missions—as well as to several important topics in nonprofit manage-

ment such as leadership, resource development, or strategic planning. During class discussions we were able to explore the implications of some of that diversity for the type of work the organizations did, their level of sophistication in carrying out that work, and the likelihood that they would be able to implement the recommendations the student teams made in their final reports. The course confronted students with real dilemmas faced by organizations currently operating in San Francisco, with each CBO presenting a unique set of management challenges.

We developed a logic model to inform the redesign of the nonprofit management course to illustrate the problem the CBO Support Project was meant to address, the outcomes it intended to achieve, and the resources and activities it would employ to achieve those outcomes (see Table 1).

We shared that logic model with students at the beginning of the semester, which was the first time many students had been exposed to a logic model, as a way to introduce the tool before having them develop a logic model of their own for a program with which they were familiar. That framework guided the course and projects, not only for students, but also for community partners.

Managing Expectations of Community Partners

To mitigate some of the challenges identified in the literature related to managing expectations of community partners, including the amount of time they would need to commit to the project, we developed a website (http:// sfcbosupportproject.org/) that helped manage the process of client recruitment and selection for the course. The website served as a central repository for all information related to the community partners' involvement in the course— from the application to the agreement to participate to a detailed timeline for the semester. Having that information centralized in one virtual space eased time management burdens and facilitated communications throughout the semester. The website was also used as a tool to address issues identified in the literature about service-learning courses that so often focus exclusively on the student experience with little concern for the community partners. We highlighted benefits for the CBO partners and staff, including professional development from exposure to new resources and ideas, learning how to develop and use logic models in program planning and evaluation, improving their abilities to strengthen their programs, and building partnerships with our students and faculty.

The detailed timeline of activities for the semester was a tool we used to help clearly articulate the time commitments required by community partners as well as to communicate our dedication to ensuring that the projects would be completed by the end of the semester. To qualify as a partner, a CBO nominated one of its mission-serving programs, defined as a program (or grouping of activities) with a substantive focus rather than a general administrative or development function of the organization, via the online form available on the website. To help ensure that community partners took seriously the need to dedicate some of their time to these projects, the online application process was fairly involved.

The first step for the CBO was to fill out an online organizational profile, which asked for basic information about the size of the organization and scope of its work. A staff person who would serve as the primary liaison for the class could then nominate up to three projects for the course. The CBO staff liaison had to directly oversee or manage the nominated program, receive approval from his or her supervisor to participate, and participate in and attend the required class sessions identified on the timeline. Having those dates identified well in advanced helped the CBO partners reserve that time.

Once selected, each CBO partner had to sign an agreement consenting to participate in the required activities and to adhere to firm deadlines, in and out of the classroom. Outside of the classroom, activities were centered on identifying and helping refine the project's scope of work and communicating with student teams as needed. We made it clear to the CBO partners that the deadlines were firm due to the constraints of the semester timeline. The CBO partners were required to attend two classes—one that was run as a logic model workshop and another that was a planning session with the student teams assigned to them. The logic model workshop was run as a participatory training session, where the instructor used information the CBO partners had provided in advance as examples in the workshop and where the CBO partners were invited to discuss their programs. Students participated in the workshop alongside the CBO partners, giving them a chance to preview one another before student teams were assigned to CBOs.

The second class session CBO partners were required to attend was held just after student teams were assigned to work with specific CBOs. The class time served as their first formal introduction and was used to negotiate and refine the scope of work for the project the students would carry out, based on information the CBOs provided in advance. These required class sessions also helped us reinforce the logic model framework for the class with the CBO partners. The CBO partners were also invited (though not required) to attend the class where students presented their final reports. Mindful of their time constraints, we provided each CBO partner with a 30-minute window in which their team would present the final report so they could choose to attend only part of that final session.

Identifying Projects and Matching Project Teams

We developed the project selection and matching process as a way to balance competing concerns documented in the literature: the need to streamline the project identification process as well as the value of giving both community partners and student teams a voice and autonomy in identifying projects. Our eight CBO partners were each asked to nominate up to three projects; then students reviewed those projects and provided us with a rank order of their preferences (they were required to give at least three options but could rank them all if they wished). Each student was asked to write a short paragraph explaining his or her rationale for choosing his or her first choice. Students were also granted the right to refuse to work on any one project or with any one CBO without providing a reason.

This option was designed to respect the diversity and privacy of students while accommodating difference among students and CBOs (e.g., a student not feeling comfortable working with a faith-based organization or with an organization whose mission he or she did not support). We also recognized that other issues or conflicts of interest may arise—if a student worked for an organization that funded a CBO partner, for example. To make the matches, we considered the feasibility of completing the project during one semester given student abilities, interests, preferences, and team sizes. With one exception, student teams were all pairs, which limited the amount of work they could reasonably accomplish during one semester.

The student teams in consultation with their CBO partners directly handled the process of negotiating the final scope of work and project deliverables (see Appendix). The negotiations started during the class where student teams were formally introduced to community partners and the teams presented the logic models for the proposed projects to the community partners. We provided advice and feedback when necessary, mostly related to clearly articulating specific project goals and narrowing the scope of work to ensure it was manageable in the context of the class. Some of that feedback included assuaging student fears of not identifying a project big or complex enough to satisfy the course requirements. Student teams developed a problem statement based on the client-identified issues; sometimes this process was straightforward but in other instances the students had to do more probing and consult with us. For example, upon further discussion, two of the student teams were able to identify underlying problems contributing to the client-identified issues; those underlying issues needed to be addressed before taking on the exact issues identified by the CBO partners. Specific project goals and deliverables were determined jointly and only after the project problem statement was mutually agreed upon. The project deliverables were designed so that the CBO partners could use the tools and implement the recommendations with relative ease, so that final reports would be less likely to sit idly in a file somewhere.

Student Learning and Performance Outcomes

To integrate the logic model and organizational learning framework through-out the class, students were assigned weekly readings that addressed the role of evaluation in organizational learning, including creating a culture of evaluation. Each week's lecture and classroom discussion aimed to bring together that reading with the topic of the day (e.g., strategic planning, personnel management). In addition, students were given three logic model assignments over the course of the semester. The first one each student prepared on his or her own, about a program with which he or she was familiar. The purpose of that exercise was to ensure that students were familiar with building logic models and to convince them that the detailed work was worth the effort. The second logic model assignment was the first graded team project, due about halfway through the

semester, at the class where student teams were formally introduced to their community partners. The purpose of this assignment was to help students narrow the focus of the scope of work for the project they would ultimately do for the CBO partner. The CBO partner provided the information for that logic model in advance, including the premise behind its problem statement. During class, student teams presented the logic model to their community partners and negotiated the scope of work and project deliverables with the CBO partner at that time. We purposefully included CBO partners in these activities so that they could participate in refining the scope of work and learn about the approach the students would be taking to complete their projects. In addition, having CBO partners attend the class session facilitated the initial contact, minimizing the time they and student teams needed to coordinate schedules. Students were also required to include the project logic model in their final reports. In addition, we assigned three reflection papers: one due early in the semester, one in the middle, and a longer one toward the end. These assignments asked students to reflect on the connections between the reading assignments, classroom activities, and their projects.

Mindful of the literature that pointed out that some of the skills and knowledge students need to effectively manage client-based projects are not typical components of a traditional course, we did three things to include some of them. First, we created a resource guide that provided students with an array of best practices and scholarly resources they could use for their projects; the resource guide matched resources to each of the project types in order to help direct students as they narrowed the project's scope of work. We dedicated a portion of one class session to training them in how to use that resource guide and how to go about accessing materials and strategies for identifying more project-specific resources. Several of those resources were available for students to borrow from the instructor's informal nonprofit management library. Second, to ensure that they were using the guide and resources in it, we required each team to write an assessment of eight of the resources (which included books, journal articles, websites, and classroom activities) identified in that guide. Third, we dedicated a portion of the class where they were introduced to their CBO partners to discussing strategies for project management and communications.

Another set of challenges related to student performance is rooted in uneven student capacities, which make it difficult to identify free ridership, assess whether everyone is grasping the full range of material, and accurately assign grades. We did two things to mitigate this concern and to assess whether students were grasping a full range of the material covered in class. One measure of individual performance was the grade each student received on the final exam that covered the essential topics from the semester. In an effort to ensure there was not too much free ridership going on we structured the grading so that there was an even balance between team assignments and individual assignments, with each counting for 50% of a student's final grade.

Reflections on Innovations and Their Applicability Elsewhere

This section shares our reflections on the effectiveness of the innovations related to managing expectations of community partners, identifying projects and matching project teams, and student learning and performance outcomes. Our reflections include ideas for modifications when the innovations did not work as well as we had intended. Rooted in these reflections, we provide a checklist of issues and corresponding questions that others may consider when designing a similar course. That checklist also includes examples of our answers to those questions. We conclude with considerations for adapting this model to other settings.

Effectiveness of the Innovations

Organizing the class around the logic model framework proved extremely useful for two reasons: it served as the central principle around which to organize the course and helped ensure it remained coherent and reinforced the value of using logic models as tools for communications, planning, and evaluation. Getting both students and CBO partners to think together about the logic of how the activities and deliverables aligned with the problem statement and the intended goals of the project helped ensure learning was shared by students and community partners. This approach also allowed students to gain valuable skills in joint problem identification and gave them an opportunity to practice communications and negotiations skills about issues of great importance to CBO leaders.

Building in the process of negotiating the final scope of work based on the client's stated goals and student assessments was important and valuable. Three of the CBOs we worked with had fairly substantial internal issues that had to be addressed before students could do their work—and in two instances resulted in different project goals than the CBOs had originally identified. For example, one CBO wanted its student team to focus on program evaluation and funding issues, but after students met with staff and board members, it became clear that the program was not being implemented. Moreover, there were multiple visions about what the program ought to be and how it would be implemented. The students diagnosed founder's syndrome as an underlying issue and realized the first step they needed to take was to help the organization articulate a coherent shared vision of the program. This example points to an important value that this client-based service-learning model brings to the CBOs: Students bring valuable external perspectives and can facilitate difficult conversations, much as a paid consultant might do.

Sometimes the matching process worked very well. For example, the organization whose program focused on leadership and diversity training and had high levels of organizational capacity was matched with a student team whose members were genuinely enthused about working on the project because of the subject matter. The youth development organization had relatively low levels of organizational capacity but was assigned a team that included one high-capacity

in-service student (she worked at a nonprofit capacity-building organization) and one in-service student with much less experience. The less experienced student told us that she was particularly grateful to have been paired with the more experienced one. Importantly, according to informal feedback provided by several of the CBO partners, the information provided in the final reports was immediately relevant to their work.

However, the process of negotiation was not always smooth, either because of team dynamics or capacity constraints on the part of the CBO. In fact, one project faced these challenges simultaneously. One student faced personal issues that resulted in a breakdown of communications between her and her teammate. At the same time, the CBO partner was not always able to provide information to the student team in a timely manner. By the time we discovered the seriousness of these issues, the semester was coming to a close. They managed to salvage the project and deliver a good and professional final report in the end, but that took a good deal of extra work for one of the teammates. In future semesters we will build in more formal mechanisms for explicitly assessing these dynamics at early and midpoints of the semester so we can better advise students on how to address them. We are currently piloting the use of a peer assessment rubric for teamwork that might prove useful. We also plan to ask CBO Partners to evaluate student work, a process we currently use for internships and applied field experience credits.

Even though we worked to integrate the logic model and organizational learning framework throughout the course, we missed some opportunities to engage in class discussion and reflection around a few of the topics that seemed more distant to some of the students. One reason is that we made some assumptions about students' abilities to make those connections—or voice their apparent absence—through reading and class discussion. While that worked well for some students, others viewed their projects very narrowly. Some were already nonprofit professionals, often at early stages of their careers, but with a clear point of reference and set of experiences to relate to various topics. Others had very little or only indirect experience in the nonprofit sector and could not immediately see the relationships among various concepts and their projects. Part of the challenge with this course in particular was that it had traditionally been taught as a fundamental class that surveyed a range of essential concepts and theories to ensure students were exposed to an array of nonprofit management topics. We are making two modifications to improve the integration of the academic with the applied work in future semesters. First, we are taking advantage of a curriculum redesign so that this course will focus on organizational learning and nonprofit management while another course will focus on fundamental perspectives in nonprofit management. Second, we will build in additional in-class reflection assignments and require teams to lead discussion about a particular concept or theory and how it relates to their project.

Checklist for Designing and Implementing Client-Based Courses

In an effort to share the lessons we learned so that other faculty may benefit and apply or adapt the steps we undertook to their own courses, we created the checklist of issues and corresponding questions that others may consider when designing a similar course. That checklist also includes examples of our answers to those questions (see Table 2). The list of issues and corresponding issues presented is not exhaustive but provides useful illustrations of those we deemed most

Table 2.
Checklist for Success

Issues Affecting Success	Essential Questions to Consider	Our Responses
Pre-Design Research and Considerations		
Institutional environment. An institutional environment that favors community engagement will likely facilitate successful implementation.	Is the course part of curriculum in a university, college, and/or department whose mission is compatible with goals of service learning and community engagement?	Is community engagement an explicit focus of the school in which PA program is situated (School of Public Affairs and Civic Engagement)?
Constraints on faculty time and other resources needed to design CSL courses can impede their successful implementation.	How much faculty time and other resources are needed for course design?	Research conducted over 3 months; design and content development completed in 6 months; partner outreach and selection took 3 months. Needed funding to support this work.
	Is funding or other sources of institutional support available to faculty who undertake course redesign?	Received $4,500 grant from ICCE; additional funding from PA program available. Funding used to pay stipends to curriculum consultant and Web developer, as well as to purchase non-profit management resource books for student use.
Need to ensure course design is manageable and content is relevant for students and community partners.	What are the current training needs for nonprofit managers and how can CSL courses best be designed to fulfill those needs for students and CBO partners?	Reviewed existing literature to identify training needs of nonprofit managers; benefits and challenges of CSL courses and projects; best practices for design and implementation of CSL courses.
	Under which conditions will students in this program be interested, willing, and able to participate in a CSL course?	Held an informal feedback session with students to discuss program-specific, student-identified obstacles/concerns about CSL courses.
	At what level of analysis should the applied work focus (e.g., whole organization or program)?	Took a program level focus because it (a) seemed more manageable for small groups in a 15-week course; (b) seemed more likely to result in valuable results for CBO; and (c) lent itself to reinforcing the evaluation framework.
	What will be the organizing framework for the course and applied projects?	Identified an evaluation and organizational learning framework.

Table 2.
Checklist for Success (continued)

Issues Affecting Success	Essential Questions to Consider	Our Responses
Course Design and Student Learning		
Need to match course content with CSL projects and keep workload manageable within semester constraints.	How will the instructor ensure that students are absorbing academic content not directly related to their CSL projects?	Incorporated several written reflections into the course, but realized students would benefit from more time reflecting in class.
	What additional resources will students need in order to successfully complete their CSL projects?	Identified several open-source online resources for ease of access. Also used $500 of grant funds to establish a small library for nonprofit management with books available only to students enrolled in class.
Need to identify effective process for identifying projects and matching them to student teams.	What mechanisms can we institute in order to facilitate the CBO partner and project selection processes?	Created a Web-based application process for CBOs that provided step-by-step instructions, including minimum capacity requirements for the CBO.
	What mechanisms can we institute to give both CBOs and student teams some voice and autonomy in finalizing project goals?	Allowed CBOs to nominate up to three projects for consideration. Students reviewed and ranked their preferred projects.
Need for expectations management and establishing credibility with partners and students.	How can we minimize scheduling burdens for student teams and CBO partners?	CBO partners required to attend two class sessions. Student teams frequently given time to meet in class.
Need to document whether and why CSL courses are effective at achieving which outcomes	How can we assess the experiences students and CBO partners had in the course?	Created opportunities for students and CBOs to evaluate their experiences in the course/projects, in addition to university-required course evaluations. These included a post-class survey for CBO partners and students; student assessments of activities/resources; and final student reflections on projects.
Outreach and Communications with Community Partners		
Need for expectations management and establishing credibility with partners and students.	How can we identify and recruit potential community partners?	Developed electronic and print outreach materials and distributed them through various networks with which we were affiliated.
	How can we clearly communicate the time commitment CBO partners need to make?	Developed timeline that clearly articulated time commitment required on part of CBO partners and made it available on the website before CBOs applied. Required CBO to sign Partner Participation Agreement.
	How can we ensure that CBO partners have the capacity to participate in the projects?	Required CBO to demonstrate commitment of upper management and/or board of directors through nominations process. Required CBO to sign Partner Participation Agreement.

relevant. We hope that the checklist, along with the synopsis of the literature and description of the processes we undertook in designing and implementing our course, will serve as useful time-saving resources for faculty who are beginning to think about designing client-based courses for nontraditional students.

Client-based coursework seems to have an important and valuable place in MPA curricula, which suggests that it is a worthwhile use of faculty members' time and effort to convert existing courses or design new ones to include alongside more traditional class formats. That said, we caution faculty who take on this work to be mindful of how much institutional support they will need to design and implement the course so that it adequately meets the dual goals of achieving student learning outcomes and adding value to the community partners (the clients). Because a portion of the grant funds could be used to pay a stipend to a curriculum design consultant, the faculty member was effectively able to "buy time" to think about course design, which provided the impetus to redesign it. The relationship with the curriculum consultant worked well and made sense in part because she was an alumna and had an existing relationship with the faculty member. That element added value because it provided a valuable learning experience for the alumna and contributed to furthering program goals to enhance the capacities of individuals working in the nonprofit sector. Now that the course has been designed and offered, we expect that it will take less time to refine and sustain, so that in the future the course will be taught by one faculty member, using the framework and web platform we created.

Considerations for Adapting the Model to Other Settings

Although we implemented this class in a nonprofit-rich urban environment, we see no reason why it could not be adapted to other settings. Although some of the specific decisions related to course design and content may be unique to classes where small nonprofits are the clients, the model could be adapted for courses that involve public sector clients, especially local government entities. We found that focusing on the program level was a central organizing principle that meshed well with the evaluation and organizational learning framework; that program level focus is likely more important than whether the clients are private or public, small or large. The size of the community partners and their programs ought to be considered in light of the expected number of students and clients for the course. Conceivably, a high-capacity community partner could have two or more student teams working on different program-level projects at the same time. The instructor must work to ensure that the match between projects and project teams is made thoughtfully to ensure projects are manageable in the context of the semester and that teams are the appropriate size to carry out the project.

Similarly, the model could be adapted to more sparsely populated areas by taking advantage of technology to facilitate interactions among community

partners and students (using Skype or synchronous online learning environments, for example). The existing Web-based platform could still be used as an outreach, screening, and application tool. It would be difficult, however, to see how community partners without access to a reliable Internet connection and comfort with a range of rather fundamental computer applications could be adequately incorporated into such a course.

One added value of the client-based format that would likely translate to different settings is the experience students gained in three sets of professional skills that may not be given much attention in a traditional course format: the art of providing thoughtful constructive criticism (through the resource and activities assessment as well as in discussion throughout the semester), the practice of engaging in critical self-reflection, and the opportunity to learn firsthand the benefits and challenges of serving as an external consultant. Students also gained experience working in teams and engaging in joint problem-solving, crucial skills in the current environment. In many cases team members learned a great deal from one another—sometimes that learning was about a particular subject but other times that it was related to factors like time management or communications. These are skills of professional practice that would benefit students in a wide range of MPA programs, regardless of the characteristics of the clients they serve.

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APPENDIX

Project Examples

General Project Examples Provided During Application Process	CBO Program's Issue Focus	Client-Identified Issues	Example from Class	
			Project Goals	**Project Deliverables**
Inquire about your program's current performance measurement methods and learn how to maximize and/or build upon the information your program already collects about activities and participants.	Transitional housing	Organization does not understand why follow-up program participants are falling short of benchmarks.	Improve understanding of the gaps/weaknesses that are impeding the follow-up program success. Create recommendations to rectify those gaps/weaknesses.	Outline of best practices literature; Case manager survey; Qualitative and quantitative survey findings; Action plan for next steps
Inquire about perceptions of program goals, proven successes, and areas for further inquiry through surveys/interviews with one or more of the following stakeholder groups: program staff, volunteers, organizational leadership (e.g. board members, executive director), and community partners.	Youth development	Organization would like to assess stakeholder perceptions regarding partnerships and develop a process to foster sustainable collaborations. CBO does not have the capacity to reflect upon and address collaboration needs.	Gather information about stakeholder perceptions in order to further clarify and strengthen collaborations and partnerships.	Three stakeholder-specific survey instruments; Results of piloted surveys with specific recommendations; Tools to develop a partnership framework; Draft memorandum of understanding for use with partner organizations; Annotated bibliography of collaboration literature
Learn more about how your program fits into the network of resources currently available to community members in San Francisco through a review of community assets, opportunities, and programs and/or input from community stakeholders.	Community improvement and capacity building	CBO capacity to revise existing needs assessment survey instruments is limited. CBO needs updated instrument to identify capacity issues and service gaps for partner organizations and to set priorities for program offerings.	Update needs assessment/landscape analysis survey to include questions about resources and resource sharing. Gather information about best practices in the field of CBO capacity building	Updated needs assessment/landscape survey ready to implement with partner organizations; Inventory of best practices in the field of CBO capacity building organizations

Building Bridges? An Assessment of Academic and Practitioner Perceptions with Observations for the Public Administration Classroom

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ABSTRACT

Beginning in the 1940s, academics recognized a gap between themselves and practitioners and contemplated methods of reducing this divide. Evidence for this gap includes recognition that academics and practitioners have different audiences, viewpoints, interests, intellectual approaches, research methods, and styles of discourse. Although much has been written about this topic and many solutions for closing this gap have been offered, there is growing concern among some scholars that this gap is increasing. Using a recent survey of current and lapsed members conducted for the American Society for Public Administration, we assess the current state of the gap between academics and practitioners on a range of ASPA services and priorities. Our findings suggest that demographic variables are more robust predictors of attitudinal differences among ASPA members as opposed to academic-practitioner views. Recognizing these differences may prove critical for ASPA as a professional forum of relevance as well as for promoting greater connectedness in public administration programs.

Keywords: academic-practitioner opinions, professional associations, professionalism, technology in the classroom

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The concept of a knowledge gap between academics and practitioners that has precluded collaboration is long standing. As early as the 1940s, academics recognized the need to develop methods for reducing the collaborative divide

between themselves and practitioners. Among the causes for the intellectual divide are recognition that academics and practitioners have different audiences, viewpoints, interests, intellectual approaches, research methods, and styles of discourse. There is growing concern among some scholars that the divide is increasing, warranting further consideration from academics and practitioners alike (Posner, 2009; Raadschelders & Lee, 2011).

In the research presented here, we assess the intellectual divide in public administration among academics and practitioners. To assess the extent of the knowledge gap in public administration, we use a 2010 survey of American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) members. ASPA serves as a vital forum for connecting academics and practitioners across a variety of subfields and levels of public sector employment (Newland, 2000). Facilitating this link is ASPA's sponsorship of a variety of publications providing timely research that links practice and theory through empirical analyses, informed practical analyses and commentaries, and constructive literature reviews and correspondence. Likewise, the survey provides an opportunity for assessing the extent that Web-based technologies and ASPA-related literature enhance access to information and expanded avenues for illustrating practical experiences in the classroom.

We take up the task by first reviewing the literature on academic-practitioner differences, reflecting on potential sources for the divide and proposed remedies. Our research then addresses employing the ASPA survey for identifying division among academics and practitioners on a selection of services (e.g., publications, continuing education, recognition, professional standards, and networking) and future priorities. Finally, we discuss the findings in light of the vital role ASPA plays as the primary conduit for academic-practitioner collaboration.

CONSIDERING THE ACADEMIC-PRACTITIONER DIVIDE

The intellectual divide among academics and practitioners has received considerable attention over the last decade. Public administration scholarship, in particular, has considered the reasons for and solutions to the intellectual gap as an important topic for the field (Raadschelders & Lee, 2011; Newland, 2000; Ospina & Dodge, 2005a, 2005b; Stivers, 2000). Indeed, research suggests that the gap in academic-practitioner relations is more of a "chasm" in critical need of knowledge and research congruities (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003). According to Goodin, Rein, & Moran (2006), professional schools have become increasingly focused on enhancing students' academic portfolios and skills in lieu of pragmatic solutions that might contribute to practice. Additionally, Posner (2009) cites the declining numbers of practitioners attending conferences as further evidence of the increasing gap—a problematic finding given the role professional conferences have played in encouraging academics and practitioners toward collaboration.

The unique intellectual approaches respective of each of the two groups may hinder collaboration between academics and practitioners (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Roper, 2002). Different intellectual traditions motivate each group's search for

knowledge. Academics are interested in theoretical pursuits that advance their goals of original research and tenure (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003). Practitioners, on the other hand, are in need of readily available knowledge for practical solutions to achieving organizational effectiveness (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003). Though both are concerned with causal inference, the academic researcher seeks to identify generalizable rules that lead to probabilistic predictions (Roper, 2002). This aim requires experimentation, employing complicated quantitative analyses that most practitioners are unfamiliar with. Although academic research is often open ended and ongoing, practitioners, in contrast, are often attempting to solve a particular problem, in a particular setting, within a limited time frame (Roper, 2002). Academics and practitioners have different research interests, and academics often use research techniques that fail to provide answers to questions of concern to practitioners (Campbell, Daft, & Hulin, 1982; Deadrick & Gibson, 2009; Hyatt et al., 1997; Sussman & Evered, 1978). Instead of addressing pragmatic concerns and offering solutions to current problems, academic research often does not align with practitioner needs. Yet, even if academics address the topics of concern for practitioners, there is no guarantee that this new knowledge will be disseminated to those who need it most.

Thus, how knowledge gained through research and practice is disseminated is a further potential roadblock to progress (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Hollenbeck, DeRue, & Guzzo, 2004; Rynes, Brown, & Colbert, 2002). The transference of knowledge through various mediums is increasingly viewed as an obstacle to ensuring that academic research is accessible to practitioners. Rather than scholarship being irrelevant to practice, the problem is that practitioners are unaware of the findings of academic research (Hollenbeck et al., 2004). In fact, knowledge transference is complicated in public administration by the motivation among scholars to publish in academic-oriented journals versus practitioner-oriented periodicals (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Raadschelders & Lee, 2011). Unfortunately, topics of interest to practitioners are seldom addressed in academic journals (Szajna, 1994). Moreover, many practitioners may fail to read academic publications, primarily because they are riddled with jargon and statistical methods difficult to comprehend (Rynes et al., 2002). Academics in pursuit of tenure and promotion goals often fail to write for a practitioner audience, neglecting practice-oriented publications and reporting findings in esoteric terms (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Rynes et al., 2002). In addition, Roper (2002) suggests academics have a style of discourse that is consensual and participatory while practitioners are deferential to authority relationships where discourse is hierarchical. When academics converse with practitioners in the same way that they interact with their peers, such an approach is likely to incite "culture clashes" that may hinder collaboration efforts (Roper, 2002, p. 340). Yet, even among academics, especially from different intellectual approaches, the dialogue is not always one of accommodation (see, e.g., Simon, 1952; Waldo, 1952a, 1952b; Luton, 2007, 2008; Meier & O'Toole, 2007). Moreover, the perceived rigidity of relationships in the public

sector is not always so, especially in the case of middle- and higher-ranking career civil servants who interact with political superiors (Page & Jenkins, 2005). Thus, communicating knowledge gained from research and practice can create unforeseen consequences.

Finally, the method of study employed by academics and practitioners may vary, causing further friction. Although academics seek data to support their quest for scientific rigor in the course of knowledge creation, practitioners are driven by logic that may be gained from practical case studies (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003). It is often assumed that the use of complicated jargon and rigorous methodologies by academics may fail to impress practitioners who are skeptical or threatened by the expertise of researchers (Roper, 2002). There is a fear among researchers that rigorous academic models can potentially distance practitioners even further as knowledge transference becomes problematic for practitioners not as well versed in quantitative statistical methodologies (Roper, 2002). Conceivably, the disconnect over jargon and statistical analysis may be more a factor of the usefulness of academic investigations for the day-to-day activities of practitioners.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CLOSING THE GAP

Given the many obstacles to bridging the gap between academics and practitioners, attempts to reconcile the two worlds may be problematic given their different goals and values (Powell & Owen-Smith, 1998; Rynes, Giluk, & Brown, 2007). These goals and values may be so ingrained and institutionalized that only a systematic overhaul could pave the way for closing the gap. Furthermore, university standards may compound the divide between academics and practitioners. For example, to maintain academic status, business schools focus on analytics and problem finding rather than on problem solving and implementation (Hughes, O'Regan, & Wornham, 2008). Likewise, Posner (2009) notes that academics focus on conducting research for publication in academic journals as a means for furthering their careers in the university system. The hiring and promotion process in universities entrenches this divide by deemphasizing experiences in public or private organizations and publications in practitioner-oriented journals (Posner, 2009).

Yet, suggestions abound for bridging the gap between academics and practitioners. Scholars have suggested a number of ways for narrowing the intellectual divide, including pedagogical solutions (McSwite, 2001; Milam, 2003; Posner, 2009), topic usefulness for practice (Lidman & Sommers, 2005; Ospina & Dodge, 2005a, 2005b; Posner, 2009; Rynes et al., 2002), professional interactions through conferences (Posner, 2009), and collaboration models (Amabile et al., 2001; Roper, 2002).

In an effort to reach a broader audience, academics should consider practitioner journals, magazines, and other media for disseminating their work (Rynes et al., 2002). To facilitate collaboration, academic research and journals should

address the most pressing concerns of society; and academic conferences should highlight areas of interest to practitioners (Posner, 2009). Academics should also be cognizant of the language barrier between themselves and practitioners and so avoid using complicated jargon to report results. In addition, academics should clearly explicate the practical implications of their research findings. Posner (2009) suggests that universities should consider adjusting promotion and tenure decisions to give greater weight to contributions made in research, writing, and consulting done in public policy and business.

Professional conferences are often viewed as a primary conduit for anticipating the usefulness of topics explored and transferring knowledge from results (Newland, 2000; Posner, 2009). Gatherings of academics and practitioners during annual professional meetings afford time for face-to-face interaction and communication —avenues that offer the best prospects for knowledge transfer between academics and practitioners. Academics and practitioners can potentially collaborate through forums such as professional associations, informal work groups, policy issue networks, and conferences such as the ASPA National Conference. In addition, Web 2.0 technologies (e.g., weblogs, wikis, social networking sites, and social bookmarking applications) provide online forums for facilitating academic-practitioner discussions regarding current events. Online forums for communication, such as webinars, present an alternative to more traditional avenues for sharing the results of academic studies in the classroom (Milam, 2003; Posner, 2009).

The potential for "pracademics" to serve as facilitators in bridging the knowledge divide has not gone unnoticed. According to Posner (2009), pracademics are exposed to both theory and practice, and are therefore in a position to contribute to both enterprises. For Posner, universities should be the driving force behind academic-practitioner collaborations in the form of pracademics. Moreover, he posits that students should use their theoretical background and research skills to conduct evidence-based research that improves our understanding of public service. Students should spend time working in public and private organizations, and universities should invite practitioners to give lectures and work with students. Although Posner (2009) notes that few articles have been written about this group of individuals, there is a growing recognition of their importance.

Finally, Amabile et al. (2001) propose a set of collaboration models aimed to help academics and practitioners work together to solve problems. Their model of cross-profession collaboration argues that successful collaboration depends on collaborative team characteristics, collaboration environment characteristics, and collaboration processes. Roper (2002) argues that collaboration efforts will prove successful if the goals of such efforts are clear, recognizable, and engagement oriented.

ASSESSING ACADEMIC-PRACTITIONER PERCEPTIONS

The literature develops a clear case for continued assessment of academic-practitioner differences and suggestions for bridging the gap. For public administra-

tion, academics have been tasked with articulating and recognizing the emergent needs of practitioners in their research efforts (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Posner, 2009; Stivers, 2000). Indeed, linking academic and practitioner interests has been a critical issue of public administration journals (e.g., *PAR*) and associations such as the American Society for Public Administration (Newland, 2000). Our research is a step in the direction of identifying the differences and priorities of academics and practitioners as a means of moving toward bridging the gap in public administration. To this end, we use a survey of ASPA members regarding services and priorities of the organization. Specifically, we analyze academic and practitioner perceptions of ASPA services and priorities that capture elements identified by the literature as potential obstacles to sources for collaboration.

The usefulness of services and publications for bridging the potential knowledge gap between academics and practitioners is well documented (Hollenbeck et al., 2004; Rynes et al., 2002; Roper, 2002). Indeed, this link is an essential element of ASPA as a forum for academic-practitioner collaboration (Newland, 2000; Stivers, 2000). This is especially true of ASPA's annual conference, which serves as a nexus for building awareness of useful research and professional services (Posner, 2009). Continuing education, networking, and other professional service opportunities are noted conduits for supporting mutual interests among academics and practitioners (Newland, 2000; Posner, 2009). Given the increase in quantitative statistical methodology and dearth of practitioner contributions noted in ASPA's publication *Public Administration Review*, there is a real concern for research and service usefulness (see Raadschelders & Lee, 2011). Thus, our analysis includes ASPA services such as continuing education, professional recognition, and networking opportunities as well as publications (*Public Administration Review* and *The Public Manager*) in our assessment of academic-practitioner differences.

Another fundamental construct is the usefulness of subject matter addressed by academics and practitioners (Ang & Straub, 2011; Campbell et al., 1982; Deadrick & Gibson, 2009; Hyatt et al., 1997; Roper, 2002; Sussman & Evered, 1978). Academics and practitioners often have different interests and viewpoints that influence their respective priorities. Specifically, the field of public administration is tasked with prioritizing research that addresses fundamental questions of government and society (Raadschelders & Lee, 2011). The extent to which ASPA has established priorities that tackle such fundamental issues is critical to the future of the organization's ability to connect academics and practitioners (Newland, 2000; Posner, 2009). Social equity, professional development, globalism, nonprofit management, and policy making frequently have been cited as essential priorities for ASPA (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Newland, 2000; Raadschelders & Lee, 2011; Stivers, 2000). Accordingly, our analyses account for the usefulness of priorities established by ASPA, including social equity, professional credentialing and development activities, globalism, and influencing policy making.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The analyses here use a 2010 survey of American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) members, conducted electronically between March 16 and April 5. The survey was developed in cooperation with ASPA and loaded on the online survey system of the Florida Survey Research Center (FSRC) at the University of Florida. The FSRC system permits complex branching and question patterns. A list of current and lapsed members with e-mail addresses was obtained from ASPA. Each potential respondent was sent an e-mail that explained the project and provided a unique user id and password. Once the respondent submitted a response, that access information could not be used by another participant. The submitted information was automatically saved. The following analyses comprise 1,023 respondents, including 651 current members of ASPA and 372 lapsed members.[1] The results presented concern current member perceptions. The model offered and tested here provides practitioners and researchers a better understanding of perceptions regarding ASPA services and benefits. Services and benefits offered by ASPA give members an opportunity to interact and communicate best practices through a professional association—an opportunity that is fundamentally important to academic-practitioner knowledge transfer (Posner, 2009).

The data provide us with an opportunity to assess academic-practitioner perceptions regarding the value of services crucial to knowledge transfer, such as publications, networking, outreach, professional development, and continuing education.[2] Furthermore, the data assess academic-practitioner perceptions of ASPA priorities, including social equity, globalism, professional credentialing, continuing education, nonprofit management, and policy making. Such issues speak to the viability and importance of ASPA as a professional association.

Tables 1 and 2 present ASPA member perceptions of services and priorities using the academic-practitioner literature as an organizing point.[3] Using nine ASPA service items and seven ASPA priorities culled from the survey, we perform difference of means tests for academic-practitioner differences on the items. As the tables illustrate, the results are mixed; differences among the two groups of members depend on the specific service or priority. Although academics and practitioners differ significantly on a number of items, the results indicate that only a few items are starkly different.

Table 1 presents the results for member responses to nine specific ASPA service items corroborated by the earlier literature review—publications, continuing education/professional development, support and recognition for the profession, create and uphold professional standards, networking opportunities, *Public Administration Review*, *The Public Manager*, the ASPA National Conference, and Web-based training. Overall, nearly 60% emphasized the importance of ASPA's publication offerings, and there was a significant difference between academics and practitioners regarding the service. This finding indicates that most of the respondents find ASPA's publications of importance, but it is also

evident that over 40% indicated lower levels of importance regarding this service area. Significant differences in the responses of academics and practitioners are found for three other service areas—continuing education, networking, and Web-based training. With respect to continuing education, though a slight majority of all respondents specified the importance of the service area, academic and practitioner responses differ significantly. Most practitioners (approximately 52%) expressed the importance of continuing education and professional development; however, only 38% of academics indicated the same level of importance. Just as with publications, we see that 49% of respondents indicated lower levels of importance for continuing education and professional development services offered by ASPA. In response to networking with other ASPA members, nearly 59% of all respondents expressed the importance of this opportunity. More than 67% of academics expressed similar sentiment with regard to networking opportunities, as compared to 57% of practitioners. For the service areas of "support and recognition for the profession" and "create and uphold professional standards," the differences between academics and practitioners were not found to be significant by the difference of means test. However, it is interesting to note that nearly 55% of respondents fail to see the importance of the role ASPA plays in supporting and promoting public service—a remarkable finding given that a tenet of ASPA's mission is to promote "the value of joining and elevating the public service profession" (ASPA, 2011). Our assessment of academic-practitioner perceptions for Web 2.0 technologies—in this instance, the use of webinars—is significant: Only 20% of academics were convinced of the merits of its usefulness. This finding suggests academics have yet to be convinced of the pedagogical advantages of technology as advocated elsewhere (see Milam, 2003; Posner, 2009).

The last items in Table 1 assess the importance of specific ASPA publications. Although none of the responses were found to be significant based on the difference of means tests, the results are nonetheless interesting. With respect to *Public Administration Review*, nearly 70% of all members indicate the journal is of importance to ASPA membership, and academic and practitioner members expressed similar levels of support. However, attitudes toward *The Public Manager* are less than favorable—nearly 46% of members indicated the publication is an important benefit of membership in ASPA. Even more telling is the difference between academics and practitioners regarding *The Public Manager*—only 36% of academics indicated that the publication is important, compared with 48% of practitioners. Members were also asked to indicate the level of importance the ASPA National Conference has to membership. The difference between academic-practitioner perceptions is not statistically significant, but it is noteworthy that less than 50% of respondents felt the national conference was an important benefit of membership in ASPA. This finding is troubling, especially when the conference is seen as a leading avenue for strengthening academic-practitioner discussions (Posner, 2009).

Table 1.

Academic and Practitioner Perceptions of ASPA Services (percentage agreeing)

Question	Academic	Practitioner	All Respondents
Publications (*N* = 630; mean = 3.51; *SD* = 1.50)	67.3	57.0*	58.7
Continuing Education/Professional Development (*N* = 603; mean = 3.30; *SD* = 1.35)	38.4	52.4**	50.1
Support and Recognition for the Profession (*N* = 616; mean = 3.25; *SD* = 1.27)	47.0	44.9	45.3
Create and Uphold Professional Standards (*N* = 624; mean = 3.33; *SD* = 1.36)	43.7	51.8	50.5
Networking Opportunities (*N* = 630; mean = 3.51; *SD* = 1.50)	67.3	57.0*	58.7
Public Administration Review (*N* = 615; mean = 3.85; *SD* = 1.39)	74.0	68.9	69.8
Web-based Training (webinars) (*N* = 283; mean = 3.07; *SD* = 1.44)	20.4	44.9**	40.6
The Public Manager (*N* = 328; mean = 3.25; *SD* = 1.31)	35.6	48.0	45.7
The ASPA National Conference (*N* = 432; mean = 3.27; *SD* = 1.41)	47.6	48.0	47.9

Note. Significance level refers to a two-tailed test of the difference of means between academic and practitioner respondents. Responses to survey items were coded from most important (5) to least important (1), assigning each survey item a value from 1 to 5. The means and standard deviations (*SD*) reported reflect variation among individual respondents on these response categories. The table reports the percentage indicating level of importance with each survey item, which is the sum of the percentage who responded with 4 and 5.

$*p < .05; **p < .01$

Turning to Table 2, member responses to statements regarding ASPA priorities are tested for academic-practitioner differences. As noted earlier, social equity, professional development, globalism, nonprofit management, and policy making frequently have been cited as essential priorities for ASPA (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003; Newland, 2000; Raadschelders & Lee, 2011; Stivers, 2000). Of the seven priorities tested, only ASPA's priority of globalism tested statistically significant for a difference between academics and practitioners moving forward. Although 57% of academics felt that international issues should be a focus of ASPA, only 44% of practitioners were in agreement. Overall, only 46% of members expressed agreement with including a focus on better appreciation for issues affecting governments worldwide. Again, a noteworthy finding given that a core tenet of ASPA's mission

is to build "bridges among all who pursue public purposes at home and internationally" (ASPA, 2011). Not including international issues and nonprofit management, responses to the rest of the priorities illustrate overall agreement with having ASPA dedicate greater energy toward these respective issues.

Table 2.

Academic and Practitioner Perceptions of ASPA Future Priorities (percentage agreeing)

Question	Academic	Practitioner	All Respondents
A top priority for ASPA should be promoting social equity in all aspects of government programs and policies. (*N* = 618; mean = 3.45; *SD* = 1.36)	51.0	53.1	52.8
ASPA should develop its own professional credential for PA professionals. (*N* = 602; mean = 3.47; *SD* = 1.40)	59.0	54.0	54.8
ASPA should expand its focus to include international issues that affect the quality of governments worldwide. (*N* = 617; mean = 3.29; *SD* = 1.33)	57.3	44.0**	46.2
ASPA should partner with Certified Public Manager (CPM) programs to develop continuing education programs for CPMs. (*N* = 562; mean = 3.64; *SD* = 1.32)	61.2	60.4	60.5
ASPA should create a center for nonprofit management. (*N* = 586; mean = 3.39; *SD* = 1.34)	49.5	48.9	49.0
ASPA should focus more resources on influencing policy making to improve the quality of government and government services. (*N* = 611; mean = 3.58; *SD* = 1.33)	54.0	58.5	57.8
ASPA should focus more resources on a program to help new professionals further their careers. (*N* = 620; mean = 3.77; *SD* = 1.31)	68.0	62.7	63.6

Note. Significance level refers to a two-tailed test of the difference of means between classified and unclassified employees. Responses to survey items were coded from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1), assigning each survey item a value from 1 to 5. The means and standard deviations (*SD*) reported reflect variation among individual respondents on these response categories. The table reports the "percentage agreeing" with each survey item, which is the sum of the percentage indicating 4 and 5 on the Likert Scale in their responses.

*p < .05; **p < .01

The results from Tables 1 and 2 suggest a few significant differences between academics and practitioners regarding ASPA services and priorities. However, further investigation is warranted to verify the importance of the academic-practitioner classification as a significant predictor of respondent perceptions. Given the prominence of ASPA as the primary association for academic-practitioner outreach, the current survey presents an unprecedented opportunity to assess member perceptions in light of other potential predictors. To further the discussion, multiple regression models were developed for the survey items in Tables 1 and 2, including the academic-practitioner orientation of members. Additionally, the models control for the effects of demographic variables, including tenure in ASPA, gender, age, education, and whether or not ASPA was the respondents' primary association. The assumption is that services and priorities offered by ASPA should be knowledge relevant to generational (Newland, 2000) and gender-related (Ospina & Dodge, 2005b; Stivers, 2000) concerns.

FINDINGS

Because the dependent variables used in this analysis are categorical (ordinal) variables and thus lack the continuous normal distribution assumed for ordinary least squares regression (OLS), logistic regression is used to account for the dichotomous nature of the dependent variables. From our review of Tables 1 and 2, it is apparent that the distributions are skewed. Those who responded to the Likert Scale items regarding ASPA priorities and services were more likely to express positive attitudes. Indeed, for most of the items used, 50% or more responses were positive, opting for response items 4 or 5 on the Likert Scale. Our literature review suggests that perceptions of academic-practitioner knowledge transfer, and more specifically ASPA services and priorities, are not regularly submitted to empirical testing or public opinion. This being the case, we must account for the fact that member attitudes are perhaps less "hard" and less likely to be preformed opinions (Alvarez & Brehm, 2002; Kumlin, 2001). Thus it would be misleading to treat respondent perceptions toward ASPA services and priorities as nuanced as the Likert Scale suggests. Empirically speaking, it would be beneficial for our logistic regression to continue to treat the dependent variables as dichotomous.

The logistic regression models in Tables 3 and 4 assess perceptions of ASPA priorities and services detailed earlier in Tables 1 and 2. The models included independent variables for employment (academic), years in ASPA, gender, age, education level, and whether ASPA was the respondent's primary professional association.[4]

The results of the logistic models examining the ASPA priorities and services are reported in Tables 3 and 4. The likelihood ratios (chi square, or Chi²) indicate that the Table 3 models as a whole are statistically significant (excluding "Support and Recognition for Profession"), indicating it is extremely unlikely that these results are due to chance. We have included the factor change in odds statistics— exp(b)—for a more substantive assessment of the effects of the logistic model. Inclusion of the exp(b) scores allows us to interpret the odds of observing a positive

Table 3.

Impact of Selected Variables on Member Perceptions of ASPA Services (odds ratios with confidence levels in parentheses)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables						Chi²	N
	Academic Member	Years in ASPA	Primary Association	Gender	Age	Education		
Publications	0.261 (1.298)	0.001 (1.001)	0.084 (1.088)	−0.140 (0.869)	0.012* (1.012)	0.332** (1.393)	12.15**	550
Continuing Education and Professional Development	−0.166 (0.847)	0.008 (1.008)	−0.251 (0.778)	0.097 (1.102)	0.030*** (1.030)	−0.260* (0.771)	25.98***	524
Support and Recognition for the Profession	0.099 (1.104)	−0.008 (0.992)	0.205 (1.227)	0.336* (1.399)	−0.009 (0.991)	0.120 (1.127)	9.24	538
Create and Uphold Professional Standards	−0.532** (0.588)	−0.007 (0.993)	0.137 (1.147)	0.501** (1.650)	0.007 (1.007)	0.316** (1.372)	18.95**	544
Networking Opportunities	0.261 (1.298)	0.001 (1.001)	0.084 (1.088)	−0.140 (0.869)	0.012* (1.012)	0.332** (1.393)	12.15**	550
Public Administration Review	0.121 (1.128)	−0.009* (0.991)	0.078 (1.081)	−0.330* (0.719)	0.017** (1.017)	0.285* (1.329)	14.27**	533
The Public Manager	−0.062 (0.940)	−0.012 (0.988)	0.255 (1.458)	−0.090 (0.914)	0.036*** (1.037)	−0.056 (0.946)	8.27	278
The ASPA National Conference	−0.059 (0.943)	0.002 (1.002)	0.323 (1.381)	0.419* (1.521)	0.021** (1.021)	0.295* (1.344)	14.03**	380
Web-based Training (webinars)	−0.0713* (0.490)	−0.009 (0.991)	0.268 (1.307)	0.184 (1.202)	0.012 (1.012)	−0.201 (0.818)	15.58**	249

***$p \leq .001$; **$p \leq .05$; *$p \leq .10$

Note. Exp(b) in parentheses. Exp(b) = factor change in odds for unit increase in *X*.

outcome, holding all other variables constant (Long & Freese, 2006). Turning to the results of the logistic regressions for Table 3, education is a strong predictor across the models. The results suggest that the more educated respondents are 1.39 times more likely to feel that publications were important to ASPA membership. Indeed, the same can be said regarding the importance of upholding professional standards and networking: More educated respondents are 1.37 and 1.39 times

more likely to view each respective ASPA service positively. Somewhat surprisingly, the more educated respondents appear to be less enthusiastic toward continuing education (33% less likely) as a service priority of ASPA. Interestingly, academic respondents are roughly 42% less likely to support creating and upholding professional standards as a priority for ASPA. Perhaps as the literature suggests (see Rynes et al., 2002; Rynes et al., 2007), the intellectual approaches of academics are more of a priority as opposed to the ethical concerns of practitioners that appeal to their deference for authority and hierarchy (Roper, 2002). Regarding gender, we find that female respondents are more likely to affirm the importance of support and recognition for the profession (1.4 times more likely than men) and of creating and upholding professional standards (1.65 times more likely than men) as ASPA priorities. Lastly, older respondents are 1.03 times more likely to support continuing education and 1.01 times more likely to support networking as ASPA priorities.

The last four items in Table 3 offer logistic regressions for perceptions of specific publications and webinars offered through ASPA membership. Once again, the likelihood ratios (Chi²) for the regressions in Table 3 indicate that the models as a whole are statistically significant, excluding *The Public Manager*. In looking at the results for *Public Administration Review* (*PAR*), we find that female respondents and those with longer tenure in ASPA are less likely to perceive the journal as an important part of membership. However, older and more educated respondents were more favorable to the utility of the journal as a part of ASPA membership. Female respondents, older respondents, and more educated respondents each viewed the importance of ASPA's national conference favorably. Interestingly, regarding Web-based training, academic members were 51% less likely to view this benefit as an important aspect of ASPA services.

Turning to Table 4, the likelihood ratios (Chi²) for the regressions indicate that the models as a whole are statistically significant excluding the creation of a nonprofit management center and improving the quality of government. Not surprisingly, respondents whose primary professional association is ASPA are more likely to support most of the items as future orientations for the organization. The results were statistically significant for all of the service priorities except for the Certified Public Manager (CPM) program. Interestingly, we see a number of significant differences between academics and practitioners regarding the future of ASPA. When asked about establishing professional credentialing and resources for career advancement as priorities for ASPA, academics were 1.52 and 1.73 times more likely than practitioners to support these goals than practitioners were when controlling for all other variables. Additionally, academics were 1.67 times more likely than practitioners to support more global initiatives as a priority for ASPA. Age is also a consistent predictor across the models; older respondents' perceptions of ASPA priorities were more favorable than those of their younger counterparts.[5] Turning to gender, female respondents are 1.9 times more likely than their male counterparts to support social equity initiatives as an ASPA priority. Curiously, respondents with longer tenure in ASPA were less than favorable toward social equity and professional credentialing as ASPA priorities moving forward.

Table 4.

Impact of Selected Variables on Member Perceptions toward ASPA Priorities (odds ratios with confidence levels in parentheses)

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables						Chi2	N
	Academic Member	Years in ASPA	Primary Association	Gender	Age	Educa-tion		
A top priority for ASPA should be promoting social equity in all aspects of government programs and policies.	−0.012 (0.988)	−0.010* (0.990)	0.420** (1.523)	0.647*** (1.909)	−0.002 (0.998)	0.069 (1.071)	26.30***	538
ASPA should develop its own professional credential for PA professionals.	0.420* (1.522)	−0.009* (0.992)	0.597*** (1.816)	−0.179 (0.915)	0.016** (1.016)	0.191 (1.210)	23.87***	524
ASPA should expand its focus to include international issues that affect the quality of governments worldwide.	0.514** (1.671)	0.009* (1.009)	0.303* (1.354)	0.075 (1.078)	0.015** (1.015)	0.159 (1.173)	16.05**	538
ASPA should partner with Certified Public Manager (CPM) programs to develop continuing education programs for CPMs.	0.184 (1.202)	−0.004 (0.996)	0.233 (1.262)	−0.339* (0.713)	0.025** (1.025)	−0.092 (0.912)	16.87**	487
ASPA should create a center for non-profit management.	0.142 (1.153)	−0.001 (0.999)	0.387** (1.473)	0.095 (1.100)	0.005 (1.005)	−0.120 (0.887)	8.13	510
ASPA should focus more resources on influencing policy making to improve the quality of government and government services.	−0.344 (0.709)	0.001 (1.001)	0.332* (1.393)	−0.002 (0.998)	0.013* (1.013)	0.372** (1.451)	12.08	531
ASPA should focus more resources on a program to help new professionals further their careers.	0.548** (1.730)	−0.003 (0.997)	0.377** (1.458)	−0.090 (0.914)	0.036*** (1.037)	−0.056 (0.946)	32.19***	539

***$p \leq .001$; **$p \leq .05$; *$p \leq .10$
Note. Exp(b) in parentheses. Exp(b) = factor change in odds for unit increase in X.</TBFN

DISCUSSION

Although the results from the logistic regression do not demonstrate a breach in the academic-practitioner gap, a number of significant findings do merit further investigation. Moreover, the findings portend important pedagogical considerations for the future of public administration education. Indeed, our research warrants at the least that greater attention be placed on improved access to information and expanded avenues for illustrating practical experiences in the classroom.

For the most part, academics do not differ from nonacademics in their perception of ASPA's utility, except that academics perceive less value from Web-based training seminars run by ASPA and efforts to create professional standards. Academics were less inclined than professionals to deem the creation and upholding of professional standards an important avenue for communication through ASPA. Perhaps academics are more interested in research versus professional norms as a means for conveying knowledge. Additionally, academics are less likely to consider Web-based training as an important avenue for communication. This finding suggests the need for further research given that nontraditional online forums have been touted as a means for bridging the academic-practitioner gap (Posner, 2009). Connectedness is a recurring theme in the literature reviewed here for bridging the divide between academics and practitioners. Public administration classrooms are an important vehicle for connectedness, communicating reliable mechanisms through which instructors may observe and relay timely ideas and practical concepts in action—especially practices developed through scholarship and research (Bolton & Stolcis, 2003). Web-based technology represents a critical means for imparting current knowledge to public administration students, who may in turn shape future practices and research.

The results for age and education are consistent across the models for ASPA service and suggest that older members get more from ASPA benefits than do younger members. We find that older respondents are more likely to emphasize the importance of publications, continuing education, networking, and the national conference as ways of transferring knowledge. This trend holds true for more highly educated members as well. With the exception of continuing education, more educated respondents indicated greater levels of importance toward publications, professional standards, networking, and the national conference. Interestingly, female respondents, while signifying support for professional standards and the national conference, were less likely to indicate the same support for *Public Administration Review* in our regression analysis. Women may feel that *PAR* has not adequately communicated gender-related issues of importance to the field. These are troubling findings given the advances achieved in public administration research over the last few decades (Raadschelders & Lee, 2011). Employing practice- and academic-oriented journals in the classroom as a means for conveying knowledge has been an ongoing concern in our discipline (see Newland, 2000). Perhaps the issue is not so much that applicable practices are not being addressed in public administration journals, but is more a matter of adequately conveying that knowledge in forums such as ASPA and public administration schools.

In examining Table 4, it seems that when controlling for other variables there are significant differences between academics and practitioners regarding the usefulness of several topics as priorities for ASPA. As suggested earlier (Campbell et al., 1982; Deadrick & Gibson, 2009; Hyatt et al., 1997; Sussman & Evered, 1978), there appears to be a divergence in interests between academics and practitioners regarding questions of concern for the two. Academics are more likely than practitioners are to support professional credentialing, career advancement, and global issues. With respect to credentialing and career advancement, although academics perceive these topics as germane, perhaps they are not as pressing a concern for practitioners. Lending further credence to the different viewpoints of academics and practitioners is the finding for global issues. For practitioners, recent economic and fiscal crises at home may be more salient than international issues of public service. Perhaps, as Bolton and Stolcis (2003) suggest, teaching in public administration has become more theoretical and less applied. Based on this premise, public administration schools will need to become better equipped for "successfully integrating problem-identification and problem-solving strategies associated with real administrative challenges into their classrooms" (p. 628).

Partnering with key stakeholders in the academic and practitioner communities in conveying such problem-identification and problem-solving knowledge is crucial to ameliorating this problem. In fact, Web-based technologies represent a means for conveying timely access to important research and administrative skills. Public administration schools such as the Bush School at Texas A&M University and the School of Public and International Affairs at the University of Georgia have been successfully incorporating such information-technology-based methods for some time. The two schools have offered simulcast instruction for students in their respective programs on timely research and practice in public management and performance. Their initial experience produced a conference for ongoing public management research and practice as well as a flurry of publications from the classroom experience.[6] Advances in Web 2.0 technologies (e.g., wikis) represent a critical means for supporting electronic communication and collaboration among academics and practitioners in the classroom. Examples of collaboration technologies include virtual teams and online meetings (e.g., Skype), e-learning, and public administration school wikis.

Turning to the other predictors, we find that age and, not surprisingly, tenure in ASPA, are consistent across the models. Older members also are significantly more likely to support expanding ASPA's focus on international issues, influencing the policy process, and providing assistance for new professionals, among other issues. Education levels make no statistically significant difference in preference for future ASPA priorities, with the exception of affecting positive support for ASPA's focus on influencing policy makers. Academic standing is significant in promoting support for three emergent ASPA priorities—support for new professionals, international focus, and professional credentials for public administration professionals. Perhaps there is more to the generational divide to account for

here. Younger respondents may have different priorities and topics of interest to their generation. This may be a statement of life and career stages influencing topics of interest (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Interestingly, those with longer membership in ASPA tend to look less favorably upon social equity and professional credentialing. Those who have spent more time in ASPA may feel less sanguine about the possibility of actually making a difference in these respective topics. This is a somewhat cynical finding; but the results for tenure in ASPA, although not significant, are all in the negative direction except for international issues.

CONCLUSION

The interest in addressing the intellectual gap in recent decades and concern for its expansion has stimulated discussion on the differences in academic and practitioner priorities (Newland, 2000; Raadschelders & Lee, 2011; Stivers, 2000). Interestingly, the results from our analyses indicate that the academic-practitioner dimension is not the most important statistically significant variable affecting perceptions about ASPA. To some extent, this finding suggests that the divisions between the two callings may not be as great as previously thought. It does not mean that there is not an important gap between academics and practitioners. Perhaps our survey has only scratched the surface of potential obstacles between the two groups that deserve further investigation. Indeed, further research is warranted to flesh out these differences, especially online forums for communicating and collaborating. Given the findings regarding Web-based forums, efforts should be made to explore the effectiveness of such mediums for knowledge transference in public administration classrooms. Such efforts are crucial in the face of globalization and increasing competitiveness, where firms and public agencies must be innovative, and academics need to provide a valuable source of ideas to future public administrators (Hughes et al., 2008). Van de Ven and Johnson (2006) maintain that by "leveraging their distinct competencies, groups composed of researchers and practitioners have the potential to ground and understand complex problems in ways that are more penetrating and insightful than they would be were either scholars or practitioners to study them alone" (p. 803).

Given these arguments, it is instructive to identify methods of promoting greater collaboration and connectedness and how public administration schools can add to this endeavor. Certainly, the academic-practitioner literature is rife with such suggestions. Our review of the literature suggests that opportunities for collaboration exist across many sectors and industries, including for-profit, nongovernmental organizations, and the public sector. Future research should focus on identifying models of collaboration across the sectors for common ground. It might be instructive to assess the interaction between academics and practitioners in other associations (e.g., International City/County Management Association) or across sectors (e.g., IBM's Center for the Business of Government). An additional concern is that much of the literature focuses on how academics can

alter their behaviors to become more accessible to practitioners. More current research appears to be moving away from this argument toward the realization that the gap cannot be closed. Thus, it is more instructive for future research to address how pracademics can bridge the gap between theory and practice. Given the increasing popularity of executive education programs that encourage academic-practitioner interactions, researchers should look at how these interactions can improve policy making and business in a domestic and international context. To be sure, academic-practitioner interaction is a part of many Master of Public Administration programs. Although the research presented here does not explicitly address this issue, such collaboration between academics and practitioners in the classroom merits further investigation (Posner, 2009). Indeed, public administration programs that offer consulting services through public service outreach for political and government officials might be useful to consider in future research efforts (see Battaglio, 2008).

Finally, the consistency of results for age, education, and to some extent gender suggests that demographics might be a stronger indication of differences. Importantly, female members were less likely than their male counterparts to perceive *PAR* as an important medium offered by ASPA. Perhaps the knowledge gained from *PAR* may not "ring true" to the interests of women in the academy or field (Ospina & Dodge, 2005b). Although the influence of the academic variable controls for the others, perhaps age and education might overlay and exacerbate the academic practitioner divide, at least for ASPA. The differences demonstrated in the results begin to tell a richer story that suggests the divide between younger and older members may be important for the future of ASPA. Bolton and Stolcis (2003) suggest that with age and increasing sophistication, we learn to safeguard our rewards by creating rationales for privileging our perspectives. The findings with regard to age suggest that younger members indicate they find less utility in the services and/or priorities espoused by ASPA. ASPA services and priorities may be strained to accommodate "connectedness" among members intergenerationally (Newland, 2000). Ultimately, the survey and our findings have more direct bearing on the future of ASPA as a vehicle for communicating best practices than on the academic-practitioner divide. However, ASPA is arguably the primary means for providing the necessary brokering and neutral ground to convene academics and practitioners in common forums for public administration. So as ASPA goes, so goes our profession's achievement of professional synergies between theory and practice—a hallmark of public administration as a professional discipline. In addition, the consistent results with respect to age across the models suggest that stages in a person's career or life may be important considerations for the imparting of relevant topics and mediums for doing so. These results point to an attitudinal divide that must be bridged if concerns over academic-practitioner differences are finally to be overcome.

Notes

1   Given the nature of the list provided by ASPA, it is difficult to calculate a response rate. For example, the ASPA list included a number of students who may have graduated and, if they stayed in ASPA, would be included in another response category (i.e., employed by a local government). Every effort was made to obtain as many responses as possible by sending multiple e-mails asking potential respondents to participate and making the survey available online for several weeks.

2   Because the ASPA member list may not accurately reflect respondents' current employment situation, all respondents were asked to identify their current work situation with the following question: "Which of these best describes your primary work setting?" Respondents were given these options: Federal government; State government; Local/Municipal/County government; College/University/Other academic institution; Nonprofit organization; For-profit organization (other than self-employed); Self-employed; Other (describe); Don't know; Refuse. Based on the response to this question, we were able to assign respondents, we believe accurately, to a category of academic or practitioner by creating a dummy variable with "college/university/other institution" coded as 1 and all other categories coded 0. For more information on the questions employed in our analyses, see the appendix.

3   In Tables 1 and 2, the survey response categories for items 4 and 5 (5 is the highest level of importance for Table 1 and Strongly agree for Table 2 responses, respectively) are combined into a single response category reflecting agreement with the statements presented.

4   To ensure that our models do not violate basic assumptions of logistic regression, several diagnostic procedures were implemented, including a check for multicollinearity using Spearman correlations. Spearman correlations are more appropriate for categorical variables, because the technique does not assume a linear relationship between variables. Spearman correlations aided in hypotheses testing and the development of the models employed. The variables for reprisal and discrimination were the only policy areas consistent throughout the three data sets. Results for the Spearman correlations were excluded due to space limitations but can be provided upon request.

5   We also accounted for the possibility that age might factor into the divide between practitioners and academics. The average age of practitioners and academics surveyed was 59.4 and 54.2 respectively. Our analyses included an interaction term for age and academic members for ASPA, but no statistically significant relationship was found. Thus, age alone was a more reliable predictor than the age breakdown of the respective groups.

6   Kenneth J. Meier (Texas A&M University) and Laurence J. O'Toole (University of Georgia) sponsored the initial Public Management Conference at the University of Georgia in fall 2002. The conference brought together a set of research presentations by existing scholars along with panel discussions of issues in public management research and a mini-conference where students in the current seminar presented their own research papers. The class produced a host of scholars in public management research who have continued to make important contributions to both practice and theory (see http://perg.tamu.edu/pubmanconf.htm).

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Appendix

Questions and Variable Coding

Academic/Practitioner. Which of these best describes your primary work setting? [Federal government; State government; Local/Municipal/County government; College/University/Other academic institution; Nonprofit organization; For-profit organization (other than self-employed); Self-employed; Other (describe); Don't know; Refuse]. Dummy variable created with "college/ university/other institution" coded as 1 and all other categories coded 0.

Perceptions of ASPA Services. Listed below are five general ASPA service areas. Please rank these five service areas in order, from most important (5) to least important (1) by assigning each a value from 1 to 5, based on how much emphasis you feel ASPA should place on the service. Service areas include publications, continuing education/professional development, support and recognition for the profession, creating and upholding professional standards, and networking opportunities. Responses to survey items were coded from most important (5) to least important (1), assigning each survey item a value from 1 to 5.

Perceptions of ASPA Publications. Listed below are a variety of specific member benefits and services provided by ASPA. First, please indicate how important the service is to you, using a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is "not important at all" and 5 is "very important." Then, please rate how satisfied you are currently with the benefit or service, using a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is "not at all satisfied" and 5 is "very satisfied." Publications and services include *Public Administration Review*, *The Public Manager*, the ASPA National Conference, and Web-based Training (webinars).

Perceptions of ASPA Priorities. Next, we have a few questions about ASPA strategic decisions. Below are several statements about choices ASPA could make moving forward. Please rate your level of agreement with each using a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is "strongly disagree" and 5 is "strongly agree."

- A top priority for ASPA should be promoting social equity in all aspects of government programs and policies.
- ASPA should develop its own professional credential for PA professionals.
- ASPA should expand its focus to include international issues that affect the quality of governments worldwide.
- ASPA should partner with the Certified Public Manager (CPM) programs to develop continuing education programs for CPMs.
- ASPA should create a center for nonprofit management.
- ASPA should focus more resources on influencing policy making to improve the quality of government and government service.
- ASPA should focus more resources on a program to help new professionals further their careers.

Demographic Variables

Years in ASPA. Next, we have a few questions about your ASPA membership. How many years have you been a member of ASPA? [If you've been a member for less than one year, please enter 0.]

Primary Association. Next, we have a few questions about your ASPA membership. Do you consider ASPA to be your primary professional association (e.g., the one organization that best meets your professional needs)? [Yes, No, Don't Know, Refuse]. Coded 1 = Yes, 0 = No, all other variables treated as missing.

Gender. Finally, we just have a few demographic questions to ensure that the survey is representative. Are you: [Male, Female, Refuse]. 0 = male, 1 = female.

Age. Finally, we just have a few demographic questions to ensure that the survey is representative. In what year were you born? [year]. Recoded as age in years.

Education. Finally, we just have a few demographic questions to ensure that the survey is representative. What is the highest level of education you have completed? [High school graduate/GED; Associate's Degree (2-year degree; community college); Bachelor's Degree (4-year degree); Master's Degree and/or Professional Degree (e.g., MBA); Doctorate (PhD, EdD, JD); Refuse]. Coded 1 = Bachelor's Degree (4-year degree); 2 = Master's Degree and/or Professional Degree (e.g., MBA); 3 = Doctorate (PhD, EdD, JD).

Review of *The Handbook of Public Administration*

By B. Guy Peters and Jon Pierre (Eds.)

Review by Muhittin Acar
Hacettepe University

The Handbook of Public Administration was originally published in 2003. Its first paperback edition was published in 2007 and then reprinted in 2009 and 2011. This is a voluminous joint product; even this concise paperback edition of the *Handbook* is almost 400 pages long. Its length is quite understandable, given the *Handbook*'s scope and content: It covers a broad set of issues related to public administration, ranging from human resources management to administrative history, from administrative reform to intergovernmental relations, from implementation to accountability. All in all, the *Handbook* is organized around 14 thematic sections and a total of 30 chapters, each covering an important issue concerning the theory and/or practice of contemporary public administration. In fact, at the beginning of their introductory chapter, entitled "The Role of Public Administration in Governing," editors Peters and Pierre emphasize their aim "to address the major issues in, and perspectives on, public administration" (p. 1).

They also state in the introduction that "The Handbook is an international treatment of this subject, with scholars drawn from a wide range of countries and intellectual traditions." In looking at the existence of such an impressive list of contributors, coming from different countries with diverse academic and administrative traditions, one would agree with the editors on this point. Yet, the *Handbook*'s international or global characteristics could have been improved further by the inclusion of contributions on *and* by different countries and regions from around the globe. One may ask, for instance, why public administration traditions, structures and problems of some countries, regions, even entire continents (e.g., Turkey, Middle East, Asia, Africa, etc.) do not get enough attention in these kinds of books. Similarly, is it really too difficult to find scholars from Latin America or Central and Eastern Europe to write chapters about those regions? In short, the *Handbook* could have enjoyed a more diverse and truly international outlook than it currently does.

As any experienced editor would tell us, the task of neatly organizing edited books (in fact, any book for that matter) is almost always challenging, often involving professional or personal, sometimes not so easy choices. Therefore, readers are expected to respect and live with the discretionary decisions made by the editors concerning the design and layout of their books. Nonetheless, as the reviewer of the *Handbook* for *JPAE*, I might say a few words about its organization. First of all, a couple of sections with closely related topics might have been merged (e.g., chapters in sections 11–13, covering issues of comparative and international public administration, could have been organized in a single section with an all-inclusive title). Secondly, some chapters could have been assigned to different sections than they currently are (e.g., Chapter 2, "Measuring Public Sector Performance," should have been located in Section 9, "Budgeting and Finance"). Finally, sections and chapters addressing general, core theoretical and practical issues of public administration might have come first, followed by sections and chapters dealing with issues related to management of public organizations (e.g., Section 8, especially Chapters 18–19 therein, should have reversed location with Section 2).

As the editors themselves have noted: "No single volume could hope to cover in any comprehensive manner the full range of concerns about public administration." It is unfortunate to note that many issues becoming increasingly important for understanding and functioning of public administration, such as networks and partnerships, were not included in the *Handbook*. Maybe more important (and ironic), although the editors frequently point out in their introductory remarks the need for public servants to develop new mind-sets as well as a new sets of skills to deal successfully with changing, complex relations in their surroundings, the *Handbook* does not have a specific chapter focusing on public administration education and training, one that would inform the students and practitioners of contemporary public administration on how to survive and serve best in the age of decentralized, globalized, networked, multisector, and multilevel governance environments.

Nevertheless, this concise paperback edition of *The Handbook of Public Administration* covers an array of important issues concerning contemporary public administration. Peters and Pierre, themselves being achieved and acclaimed academicians, bring together in the *Handbook* pieces written by respected and reputable scholars with diverse academic perspectives and approaches. Almost all chapters in the *Handbook* provide clear and accessible discussions of their subject matters, along with extensive lists of references available for further reading and research. I highly recommend the *Handbook* for use in undergraduate and graduate teaching courses as well as in faculty professional development and executive training programs.

NOTE

1. Publishing information:
   394 pp. (pbk)
   Sage (2011)
   London
   ISBN: 978-1-4129-4539-4 (pbk)

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Information for Contributors

The *Journal of Public Affairs Education* (JPAE) is the journal of the Network of Schools of Public Policy, Affairs, and Administration (NASPAA). JPAE is dedicated to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs broadly defined, which includes the fields of policy analysis, public administration, public management, public policy, nonprofit administration, and their subfields. Advancing teaching and learning includes not only the improvement of specific courses and teaching methods but also the improvement of public affairs program design and management. The goal of *JPAE* is to publish articles that are useful to those participating in the public affairs education enterprise throughout the world. In service to this goal, articles should be clear, accessible to those in the public affairs fields and subfields, and generalizable. The editors are particularly interested in articles that (1) use rigorous methods to analyze the relative effectiveness of different teaching methods, and (2) have international and/or comparative components or consider the effect of country setting. Articles submitted for publication in *JPAE* must not already be published or in submission elsewhere. Articles that have been presented at conferences are welcome.

Generally, manuscripts should conform to the JPAE style sheet available at www.naspaa.org/JPAE/ stylesheet.pdf. Specifically, they should:

- Be typed in a standard 12-point serif font (such as Times New Roman), double spaced, with margins of no less than one inch on all sides.
- Use APA-style in-text citations and references. More information on APA style can be found at www.apastyle.org/.
- Not include author(s) names either on title page or in body of the manuscript in order to allow for anonymous peer review.
- Not exceed 30 pages in length, including notes, references, and tables.
- Include endnotes that are not embedded through the word processor.
- Not use automated bibliography tools (Endnote, Refworks, or the tool in Word).

Submissions should be made online at www.edmgr.com/jpae. At the site, you will be instructed to create an account if you have not already done so or to log in under your existing account.

Submitting authors will be asked for contact information, names of any additional authors, up to three subject classifications to which the manuscript relates, and an abstract of approximately 150 words. Additional instructions for registration in this system and submission of manuscripts can be found at www.edmgr.com/jpae or the *JPAE* website at www.naspaa.org/jpae. Authors should expect to receive acknowledgment of receipt of the manuscript and can follow its progress through the review process at www.edmgr.com/jpae.

All articles are given an initial review by the editorial team. Articles must meet basic criteria including writing quality, reasonable conformity with these guidelines, and interest to JPAE readers before they are submitted for external, double-blind peer review. If accepted for publication, manuscripts cannot be published until they conform to APA style and all of the authors have provided copyright transfer authority, full contact information, and short biographies (of about 5 lines).

Any questions about the manuscript submission, review, and publication process can be addressed to the editorial team at jpae@hamline.edu.

The *Journal of Public Affairs Education (JPAE)* is the journal of NASPAA, the membership association of graduate education programs in public policy, public affairs, public administration, and public & nonprofit management. NASPAA's 280 member schools are located across the U.S. and around the globe.

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NASPAA has been a national and international resource since 1970, by ensuring excellence in education and training for public service, and by promoting the ideal of public service. It accomplishes its mission through direct services to its member institutions and by

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- Encouraging curriculum development and innovation and providing a forum for publication and discussion of education scholarship, practices, and issues;

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- Engaging globally with national and regional organizations involved with public affairs education.

JPAE is dedicated to advancing teaching and learning in public affairs, defined to include the fields of public policy analysis, public administration, and public management. Published quarterly by NASPAA, the journal features peer-reviewed scholarly articles on pedagogical, curricular, and accreditation issues pertaining to public affairs education commentaries, as well as symposia and book reviews.

Founded in 1995, JPAE was originally published as the Journal of Public Administration Education. H. George Frederickson was the journal's founding editor. The journal is hosted and edited by the Hamline University School of Business, a NASPAA member school, selected through a competitive process. In addition to serving as NASPAA's journal of record, JPAE is affiliated with the Section on Public Administration Education of the American Society for Public Administration.