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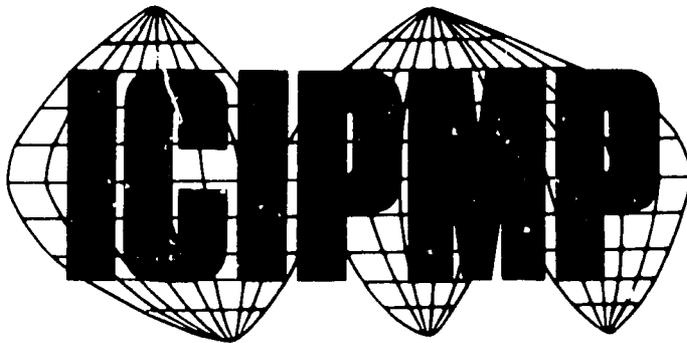
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# **IMPROVING PUBLIC SERVICES**

**REPORT ON**

## **The International Conference on Improving Public Management and Performance**



1979

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IMPROVING PUBLIC SERVICES

A Report on

THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON IMPROVING  
PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND PERFORMANCE

Compiled and Edited  
by

O. GLENN STAHL

Assisted by

GREGORY D. FOSTER

Washington, D.C.  
1979

TO RECIPIENTS OF THIS REPORT:

We are pleased to transmit the report of the International Conference on Improving Public Management and Performance recently held in Washington, D.C.

Cooperative efforts on the part of participants from 70 nations and 31 international and regional organizations made the Conference a productive one. We are most appreciative of the contributions made by those who served on the International Conference Planning Committee, the United States Host Committee, and other groups involved in organizing the Conference. All of the conferees are indebted to the strong commitment made by the various international organizations which co-sponsored the Conference in cooperation with the American Consortium for International Public Administration. Both the size and the enthusiasm of the Conference exceeded all expectations.

There has been much commendation on the informal format used in most of the sessions. The ban on speeches and the reading of papers outside plenary sessions was particularly applauded. The emphasis on small groups which permitted active involvement by all participants was met with enthusiasm.

We believe you will find this conference report prepared by Dr. O. Glenn Stahl, Conference Editor, to be helpful in moving forward with further work in the eleven principal topic areas as well as several additional subjects explored briefly in the special fora. We are especially appreciative to staff of the Agency for International Development, led by Harlan H. Hobgood, for assistance in Conference planning and for publication and distribution of this report.

Finally we want to express appreciation on behalf of all the Conference sponsors to all those who participated in this pioneering effort in international public administration.

ELMER B. STAATS  
Co-Chairman  
Host Organizing Committee

DWIGHT A. INK  
Co-Chairman  
Host Organizing Committee

DONALD C. STONE  
Chairman  
International Planning Committee

The views and interpretations in this publication are those of the authors and should not be attributed to the Agency for International Development or to any individual acting in its behalf.

## FOREWORD

Among the benefits and satisfactions coming from participation in an international professional conference are the stimulation of new contacts, the intellectual excitement of sharing views and experiences, and the realization that the problems and challenges facing mankind are far more similar around the world than they are different. No small part of such an experience is the almost inevitable discovery -- repeated in meeting after meeting -- that there is someone, some articulate person or persons, living thousands of miles away and brought up in a different culture and environment who has arrived at some observations or conclusions similar to one's own -- and who often can embellish and improve upon something one has been nurturing in one's head for a long time.

But such were not the only satisfying products of this Conference on improving public services around the globe, for which I have the privilege of serving as Editor of this Final Report. In this instance there has been additional stimulation from the extraordinary cooperation of numerous individuals from many nations and international organizations, the unusual size and broad representation of the Conference, its strong emphasis on free and informal interchange of experiences and ideas, its candid recognition of numerous common problems and downplaying of "show-off" posturing as to national achievements, and its insistence on identifying many items for future attention and action. That the sessions succeeded in all these respects is testimony to the careful planning and inspiration of scores of dedicated persons from many lands and enterprises.

This was indeed a landmark Conference, and this Report represents an effort to preserve its benefits in modest measure for both those who participated in it and those interested who could not. Many individuals, perhaps not all adequately identified and credited, contributed to this volume. I commend a reading of it to all practitioners, scholars, and students of the public administration scene on an international plane.

O. Glenn Stahl  
Editor

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

Mankind everywhere depends on governmental and other public services to sustain civilization. In the complex and interdependent relationships of all societies there is increasing awareness that these services must be performed with responsiveness to human needs and with efficiency and effectiveness in the use of resources. It was this common recognition among likeminded professionals across many lands that brought about the first *International Conference on Improving Public Management and Performance*, held in Washington, D.C., on September 30 through October 4, 1979.

The Conference, an internationally and professionally sponsored meeting hosted by professional groups in the United States of America, was generally acclaimed as highly successful. Although invitations had been designed for about 250 participants, the final list of registrants included 377 persons from 70 countries and 31 international organizations. Geographic distribution was outstanding:

Africa	34
Asia & the Pacific	37
Canada & Mexico	24
Central & South America	35
Europe	61
Middle East	15
U.S.A.	86
International organizations (diverse nationalities)	77
Unidentified	8
	<u>377</u>

#### Organization of the Conference

Development of the Conference was the product of several converging interests, particularly: (1) the desire, as early as 1977, of the public administration community in the United States, through the American Consortium for International Public Administration (ACIPA), to host an international conference in this country on public management issues; (2) the need of the International Association of Schools and

Institutes of Administration (IASIA) to have a U.S. host for its scheduled meetings in Washington; and (3) the evolving interest of ACIPA to stage a conference that would be innovating in character and design. Subsequently, the International Institute of Administrative Sciences (IIAS) gave its endorsement and became a co-sponsor. With accelerating interest in proposed subjects for discussion, the enterprise expanded into a unique collaboration of thirty-one international and regional organizations represented in an International Planning Committee and a U.S. Host Committee established by ACIPA. The composition of these two groups is set forth in the Appendix to this report.

The International Planning Committee, chaired by Donald C. Stone (Chairman of IASIA), arranged the plenary sessions and determined the special topics that formed the nucleus of the Conference program. Each of these eleven topics, detailed fully in Chapter III, was initiated by an international organization and planned by an international team with the on-site follow-through work of a host coordinator assigned by the Host Committee. Dr. Stone served as Chair for the Conference as a whole.

The Host Committee, co-chaired by Elmer B. Staats, U.S. Comptroller General and Dwight A. Ink\* of The American University, and its designated subordinate groups on Program, Finance, Invitations, Logistics, etc., worked out the many specific aspects of fiscal support, program, luncheon sessions, receptions, language interpretation, assistance in travel, and the multitude of other arrangements necessary to run a conference of this size and complexity. Financial support beyond that covered by registration fees was forthcoming from the interest and generosity of the Ford Foundation and a number of other organizations and individuals. These contributors are listed in the Appendix to this report. Also recorded there are the members of the Conference Steering Committee and other committees, all of whom worked assiduously to make the meeting effective.

Acknowledgement must be made of extraordinary time and effort devoted to the Conference on the part of a number of individuals: the overall Chair and Co-Chair persons mentioned above; representatives of international organizations, such as Peter Wright of the World Bank, Martin Lees of the United

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\*Mr. Ink acted in his then-capacity as President, American Society for Public Administration.

National Development Program (UNDP), Faqir Muhammad of the United Nations (UN), Ronald Scheman of the Organization of American States (OAS), and Reuben Sternfeld, Ferruccio Accame, and Pedro Andrieu of the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB); Edmund N. Fulker, Vice-Chair, Host Organizing Committee; Alan L. Dean, Chair, Invitations Committee and U.S. Follow-up Task Force; Harlan H. Hobgood, Chair, Program Committee; Melbourne L. Spector, Chair, Finance Committee; Charles E. Hughes, Conference Treasurer; Dona Wolf, Chair, Agency Briefings and Counterpart Meetings; Elaine Orr, Conference Secretary and Chair, Topic Session Support; Mary Stephano, Chair, U.S. Home Hospitality; Joann Crichton, Chair, Conference Secretariat; and George Bickerton and Gary Pastoria, Manager and Alternate for Conference Logistics. In addition, special mention should be made here of the Topic Planners or Project Directors, Host Coordinators, Moderators, and Rapporteurs for each of the eleven Conference Topics; their names appear in Chapter III covering Reports on Topic Discussions.

#### Goals and Format

Uniqueness of the Conference was evidenced in at least these ways:

- It was the first conference in which the leading international organizations of the world joined as equal partners in program development and participation.
- It was the first time leaders of the United States public administration community combined forces to carry out a major international undertaking.
- It was conducted with maximum interaction in reaching conclusions and recommendations without protocol, delivery of papers, or other formalities.
- It highlighted subjects of universal importance and timeliness through its focus on the urgency of strengthening administrative capabilities and improving performance at all levels of government on all continents.

Unlike many international meetings, this Conference was, as had been planned, completely devoid of any political overtones.

There were no partisan issues between or among nations mentioned or even cited by indirection. The sessions were thoroughly professional in content and in tone. It was this spirit of professionalism and the mutual interest and respect it engendered that made the Conference one of the most successful ever conducted.

The purpose and tone of the Conference was set on a high note at the opening plenary session by the welcoming remarks of Elmer B. Staats, U.S. Comptroller General; by the keynote address by Bradford Morse, United Nations Development Program Administrator; and by the responses of Guy Braibant, Director General of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences and Benoit Atangana Onana, Director of Services, Pan African Institute for Development. The major addresses at these and other plenary sessions or luncheons are summarized in Chapter II of this report.

As already indicated, the Conference was designed especially to minimize time spent on delivery of formal speeches and papers and to maximize small-group discussions, with adequate opportunity for mutual exchange of experiences and ideas concerning administrative and managerial subjects of common interest to all nations.

Participation was not dominated by the technologically developed countries. Of the participants coming from outside the United States, over half were from developing nations. They found much to learn from each other as well as to share with and learn from the experience of more technologically advanced societies. In fact, the issues and strategies of nations in comparable stages of development were often more pertinent to a particular developing society than those of countries with higher levels of income and industrialization.

The themes of the Conference were reflected in the keynote titled, "Strengthening Public Management Capabilities for a New Development Decade", and in the subject for the concluding luncheon session, "Building Stronger Public Management Ties for International Cooperation and Development." The focus was on both the general civil services of nations and the operations of varied public enterprises engaged in numerous economic services, and a central concern was the production of better qualified personnel for both kinds of activities. Within this context, the eleven topic sessions emphasized practical issues, problems, and challenges. The objective was to generate ideas,

solutions, strategies, and approaches that might provide an agenda for action both internationally and within individual nations.

Anyone sitting in on the several work sessions spread over three heavily scheduled days would have been impressed with the degree to which the objective of intensive individual participation and stress on concrete problems and actions was achieved. With rare exceptions, participants shared the floor graciously with their counterparts. There were few "how-we-do-it-back-home" episodes but many candid confessions of difficulties and frustrations with efforts to serve the public interest. Also, there was a determination to prescribe methods for identifying and disseminating solutions and strategies that might be useful in more than one place around the world.

There is real expectation that out of this unique and frank exchange all nations may find more answers for the future. Recognition that no society was satisfied with its achievements created a solid motivation to work together to find better ways to organize, motivate, train, and reward public servants in the delivery of public services. The magnitude and urgency of the jobs to be done everywhere made the emphasis on managerial aims and processes a goal common to all nations, large and small, developed and developing, old and new.

In addition to the Conference sessions themselves, social get-togethers were hosted by the U.S. Committee, the Inter-American Development Bank, and The American University. Non-U.S. participants in the Conference were entertained at a series of small dinners at American homes on one evening and had post-conference opportunities to visit U.S. Federal Government agencies and hold counterpart meetings with officials of a number of these agencies.

#### Essence of this Report

This report is not intended to recreate in detail all that happened at the Conference sessions. It is designed as a summary, a highlighting of those issues and strategies of most widespread interest and offering the greatest utility for the future. By their nature, plenary session addresses deal in general terms and major challenges. Although those delivered at this Conference were both informative and inspirational, they were not the principal ingredient of this international meeting and are therefore summarized rather briefly in Chapter II. The

major space in this report (Chapter III) is devoted to the edited statements of the Rapporteurs for the eleven "Topic Sessions" that constituted the backbone of the Conference.

One feature, however, deserves highlighting first: some common threads of thinking that emerged from the discussions, both in plenary and topic sessions. Then, following the reports on the main topics, there are brief summaries of what transpired at certain special "Open Fora" (Chapter IV), and finally, Chapter V presents a Conclusion that attempts to glean from the Conference as a whole what may be viewed as agenda for future action.

### Common Themes

In more than one session of the Conference certain common points seemed to stand out. A few of these are presented here, not because they are not debatable or that contrary views or findings were unavailable. Rather, the fact that they came up more than once or twice made them significant, and their appeal to a sense of realism distinguished them from many other facts and judgments brought out. Of course, it is impossible from an examination of Rapporteur summaries or from the Editor's own limited observations to be certain that all conclusions worthy of attention have been captured. All that can be reported are those we have been able to identify and articulate. The following fall in that category:

(1) The most intractable problems in meeting the increasing demands upon public services in times of inflationary costs and citizen frustration with heavy taxation are those associated with maintaining an effective, competent, highly motivated, ethically-disposed staff of public servants. Whatever value is placed on the proper role of the public servant in different national settings, there is increasing recognition of the critical importance of human resource development -- recruitment, selection, training, recognition, and retention -- to successful public administration.

(2) As a major contributor to the solution of personnel problems, institutions of education and training, including in-service training, must be given prime attention. Further development, refinement, and support are needed. A concomitant need is for adequate manpower planning and integration with educational programs.

(3) The concept of the career civil servant as a neutral implementer of policy is not as appropriate to governments in developing countries as it may be to those in developed nations. Of course, much revision of this concept has taken place in developed countries in recent decades, so that hardly anyone pretends anymore that there is a neat dividing line between "policy" and "administration." But the blurred lines are even more marked in the developing environment, for the career person is often the only knowledgeable source of technical information and ideas. Furthermore, the need for commitment and "drive" by implementers in such circumstances is all the more critical. Such dedication, however, is not ordinarily compatible with the notion of detachment from policy conception and energization.

(4) Administrative efficiency is different from the desirability of undertaking a program in the first place, although the two are often confused; thus, implementation often gets the blame for a wrongly conceived program.

(5) Insistence on multiple reviews and counterchecks in processing citizen requests is often the source of unjustifiable bureaucratic delays and inefficiency. An example cited in one of the luncheon addresses illustrated how failure to concentrate responsibility for what should have been a fairly simple process resulted in grotesque sluggishness in a bureaucracy.

(6) It is unlikely that a given solution to a problem is equally appropriate in all contexts. Policies, programs, and methods must be tailored to fit particular situations, conditions, and locales. Values in developing countries are often different than those in industrialized environments. For example, "participation" as a motivational factor is not equally applicable in all societies. Generalizations on such matters as motivation and incentive run afoul of different attitudes and cultures. Similarly, money does not uniformly have the same effect everywhere. "Bottom-up" management, a form of deep vertical participatory policy development, is not viable or feasible in some circumstances.

(7) When it comes to using local communities as experimental grounds for innovation, the acceptability of these locales to the central government leadership must be taken into account. Thus, one can hardly expect political leaders to look with favor on using a community that supported their opponents in a recent election.

(8) Government jobs in developing countries tend to be used as secure places of employment rather than opportunities for service to the public. It is especially difficult in such circumstances to enlist a service-minded attitude on the part of civil servants.

(9) There is a widespread tendency for policies and programs to be adopted without analyzing the availability and trainability of manpower. Sometimes this important consideration is as neglected in developed nations as it is in the developing world, but its baneful effects are more serious in a society that has painfully inadequate manpower.

(10) Understanding and appreciation of an ethical code for public servants may be difficult to attain, but such guides are indispensable as part of any comprehensive effort to upgrade performance of public services.

(11) Independent management audits or appraisals of program performance, or the use of other outside change agents, are important instruments for finding shortcomings in administration and designing improvements.

## CHAPTER II

### MAJOR CONFERENCE ADDRESSES

Since the thrust of the Conference was to maximize working sessions on the eleven major topics, verbatim transcripts of major addresses at the plenary sessions are not included in this Report. Insofar as they help bring out the principal issues and lines of future improvement in public management, very brief highlights of these addresses are being reported here.

#### WELCOME ADDRESS - ELMER B. STAATS

In his welcome address to Conference participants, Elmer B. Staats, Comptroller General of the United States, underscored the uniqueness of the Conference:

- The first major international conference on public administration held in the United States;
- The first conference held anywhere in which the leading international organizations of the world joined in its planning and conduct;
- The first time the leaders of the U.S. public administration community - practitioners and educators alike - combined forces to carry out a major undertaking;
- The first major project of the American Consortium for International Public Administration (ACIPA) in cooperation with the International Institute of Administrative Sciences (IIAS); and
- The first international conference on public administration placing great stress on participation in lieu of formal presentations.

Admitting the difficulty of attempting to define improvements in public management and performance within the time constraints of the Conference, Mr. Staats suggested that

we nonetheless can forge a beginning by (1) initiating a continuing dialogue, (2) obtaining insights that will enhance our abilities to cope with diverse cross-national situations, and (3) learning from each other in our common objective to improve public administrations capabilities.

Because government continues to play an increasing role in our daily lives, Mr. Staats maintained that public administrationists have a particular obligation to work with and learn from each other through professional organizations, national governments, and international institutions. Thus, this Conference offers reinforcing value to those who view government's prime role as responding to citizen needs with skill, compassion, and efficiency.

#### KEYNOTE ADDRESS - BRADFORD MORSE

As Administrator of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), Bradford Morse is perhaps uniquely situated to observe, as he did in his keynote address, that "the improvement of public management capacities is an indispensable condition for sustained economic and social development. Conversely, accelerated development and modernization as envisaged in the objectives of many developing countries constitute a challenge to, and place a heavy burden upon, both public administration machinery and other public and private sector organizations".

He stated that, while the capability of developing countries to plan, analyze, manage, coordinate, and evaluate their public and private activities is critical, this capability in many cases is notoriously weak. Furthermore, recent trends toward (1) greater self-reliance by developing countries and (2) an increasing need for overall development coordination have produced changes in the role of technical cooperation in the direction of policy formulation, planning, and the management and review of operations.

The UN development system therefore has sought to provide technical cooperation that strengthens institutions, improves planning capacities, strengthens training and educational systems, and improves public and private management capabilities. The major lessons learned from this experience include the following:

- Conditions, needs, and objectives in the developing countries vary markedly.

- The number of public management experts in developing countries qualified to interact effectively with international experts is limited.
- Sophisticated and complex techniques and procedures are not necessarily appropriate in all situations.
- Significant change in institutions and attitudes takes time.

Mr. Morse proposed several objectives for the next decade in the field of public management for developing countries, including thorough review of capacities and needs, enhanced training and education, and improvement of decision-making, coordination, execution, and review capabilities.

LUNCHEON ADDRESS - ALAN K. CAMPBELL

Dr. Alan K. Campbell, Director of the U.S. Office of Personnel Management (OPM), gave the first day's luncheon address. He noted that, although there is continuing public displeasure with perceived government inefficiency, there is strong public support for continuation of major government programs. Thus, budgetary reductions cannot ordinarily be met by eliminating such programs. Rather, the preferred approach is to focus on more efficient or improved delivery of services and on increased productivity.

Dr. Campbell suggested that making government managers more responsive and responsible is the most important goal to be met en route to improved public management and productivity. This goal has been the focal point of the civil service reform effort in the United States, three significant aspects of which have been (1) the positive personnel management emphasis of the newly created OPM, (2) the flexibility and individual accountability of the Senior Executive Service, and (3) merit incentives for middle management. Other initiatives designed to promote governmental efficiency and effectiveness have included the National Productivity Council and the President's Management Improvement Council, among others.

In closing, Dr. Campbell conceded that improved governmental productivity is situation-dependent. Thus, what works here may not work elsewhere. The constant in the equation is human resources, for human expectations and involvement are intrinsic to improved productivity. Furthermore, public management must operate from the premise that certain jobs, if they are to be done, must be done by government.

LUNCHEON ADDRESS - ALEJANDRO CARILLO CASTRO

The second day's luncheon address was given by Alejandro Carillo Castro, President of the Latin American Center of Administration for Development. He focused his remarks on the administrative reform process that has been underway in Mexico since 1965, the purpose of which has been to study the changes the government must make to meet the country's present and future objectives.

The overall aim of the program has been the quest not for abstract efficiency that is an end in itself, but for those administrative changes that contribute to the attainment of social and political goals. Five objectives have been operationalized: (1) to organize the government in order to organize the country; (2) to adopt programming as a basic government tool; (3) to establish a personnel administration system; (4) to contribute to the strengthening of the federal political organization; and (5) to improve the administration of justice.

In turn, there have been five stages to the program. Stage I was an assessment of governmental functions and responsibilities, resulting in the termination or consolidation of numerous agencies. Stage II involves the modernization of budgetary and accounting techniques. Stage III is a revision of coordination mechanisms among administrative agencies and sectors. Stage IV concerns meeting citizen needs in direct dealings with the public sector. The final stage (V) is directed toward civil service reforms, such as training.

The involvement of both citizens and public servants has been central to this administrative reform process, since each group tends to feel differently about the importance of particular problems and solutions. Reform recommendations made to date have been in the following areas:

- Orientation and information to the public.
- Dissemination of rights and duties.
- Improvement of the working environment.
- Training and responsiveness of public servants.
- Simplification of proceedings.

- Administrative deconcentration.
- Collection of complaints and suggestions.
- Adjustment of legal instruments.

CLOSING ADDRESS - ALEJANDRO ORFILA

In one of the closing addresses,\* by Secretary General of the Organization of American States Alejandro Orfila, the major development challenges ahead in the American region were outlined, and possible international technical assistance responses were suggested.

Mr. Orfila cited several reasons why the Western Hemisphere can enter into a "new Golden Age" of economic, political, social, and cultural achievement. First, the region possesses some of the world's largest, most accessible energy resources. Second, Latin America's potential for food production remains largely untapped. Third, internal regional markets are being strengthened. Fourth, trade linkages between the United States, Latin America, and the Caribbean are increasing. Finally, the Latin American industrialization process is well underway.

But, this immense promise will only be realized provided:

- Greater efforts are made to provide the benefits of the region's economic growth to more people;
- Latin America, the Caribbean, and the United States forge a "great new bargain";
- The international community recognizes that accelerated Latin American growth will be the foundation for enhanced world economic growth; and,

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\*Mr. Orfila's paper was made available to the Conference since he was unable to attend in person. Substituting at the lectern for him was L. Ronald Scheman, Assistant Secretary General for Management of OAS.

- Latin America and the United States discover how to promote mutual cultural interpretation of their respective cultural ideals and systems.

While institution building and the strengthening of social and economic infrastructures have been the primary challenges facing development planners and managers in the past two decades, the greatest responsibility ahead will be the improvement of human resource capabilities. The OAS has played a major role in this regard by granting fellowships and providing direct technical assistance .

If such regional projects, dependent as they are on improved data and preparation, are to continue, there must be increased external technical assistance, and multilateral responsibility and action increasingly must become a hallmark of global and regional communities.

#### CLOSING ADDRESS - BI JILONG

In the second address of the closing session, Bi Jilong, Under Secretary General, United Nations (Department of Technical Cooperation for Development), observed that the state has come to occupy a dominant role in influencing all aspects of life. As such, public administration must combine effectiveness and responsiveness. The task ahead for the 1980s, therefore, is to reorganize or strengthen existing public management systems.

Such management reform in the past has left much to be desired. For one thing, public management activities receive limited resources, and few countries can reform their total management system at once. Consequently, priorities must be established and the expenditure of resources evaluated for long-term impacts. Furthermore, public management alone cannot deliver reforms without relation to other national and international measures. This requires that management institutions concentrate on meeting their peculiar national needs, and that international organizations better coordinate their activities to enhance relevance and impact.

Mr. Bi singled out a few areas deserving urgent action:

- National planning and planning administration should become the overriding framework for national decisions. This must be fully integrated with public management systems.

- There should be increased capabilities for dealing with the international dimensions of national activities.
- Because of the increasing scope and complexity of public affairs, attention should be given to outmoded systems and structures.
- The role of public enterprises in national development gives rise to many new issues that should be investigated.
- Manpower development and the provision of trained manpower should receive major emphasis.

## CHAPTER III

### REPORTS ON TOPIC DISCUSSIONS

Subjects for special Topic discussion were developed to meet the desires of several international organizations and professional groups. Superficially, their titles may seem to lack a discreteness that would distinguish them from one another. But it must be remembered that any effort to list vital subjects for attention in the field of public management and performance would be unlikely to produce a much better demarcation among discussion areas. Inherent in public administration seems to be the reality that every issue is intertwined with every other, that one problem overlaps a related problem, that efforts at reform or improvement affect more than one condition, and that the very human nature of organizational arrangements and the procedures on relationships between citizen and civil servant are unavoidably overlapping, with many common denominators.

The first five Topics were the product of work-groups or preliminary planning under the auspices of IASIA. Some of these were especially set up to facilitate prior discussion and preparation in advance of the IIAS 1980 Congress to be held in Madrid. The other six Topics were planned by various international bodies, as indicated in the individual reports presented in this Chapter. Many of these, too, were designed as preparatory discussions to define agenda for future international meetings, including those of IIAS.

Some replication of subject matter may appear in these reports on the eleven Topic discussions (each having had three or four sessions, often with sub-topics). For the most part, such overlapping of concerns and ideas has been left intact in order to give cohesion and meaning to the particular statements of what transpired. Each Rapporteur was instructed to adhere faithfully to what actually went on in the free interchange of ideas that was encouraged and to highlight genuine issues and prospects for reaction and treatment.

For each Topic, the Rapporteur named was the individual responsible for the first draft of the report on that group's deliberations. Any modification that has been undertaken by the Editor has been dictated by a desire to insure completeness, to establish consistent format and style, and to highlight key findings or proposals. The Editor was assisted in this task in a few instances by the Host Coordinators.

TOPIC 1 --- ENERGIZING PUBLIC SERVICE  
EDUCATIONAL AND TRAINING  
INSTITUTIONS

Moderator: Muhammad Al-Tawail (Saudi Arabia)  
Chief Planner: Wendell Schaeffer (IASIA)  
Host Coordinator: James F. Wolf (USA)  
Rapporteur: Aime Francois (Belgium)

Initiated by the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration in cooperation with the Inter-American Development Bank, the Organization of American States, and the United Nations Institute for Training and Research, this discussion group focused on problems of overcoming prevalent inadequacies of and lack of support for institutions dedicated to education and training for the public service. The objective was to develop ideas for strengthening such institutions as effective instruments for developing the quality of management required for improved governmental performance at all levels.

During its sessions the group gave attention to:

- creating viable, relevant, and adequately supported education and training institutions;
- staffing and operating such institutions;
- relationships of regional centers to national centers; and
- achieving program innovation and balance.

Obviously the scope of these subjects was more than could be covered fully in this Conference. Because of the limited time, the group sought to avoid too much conceptualization and comparison of different national institutions. It tried for the most part to deal with real-life problems and to find common answers to them. This approach seemed to be rewarding in many ways and fully interested the participants.

Owing to the composition of the group its discussions were concentrated mainly on the problems of the less-developed countries, while not ignoring the experience of the industrialized nations. Also, the group focused on training institutions, as distinguished from general education entities. It was

agreed to lay aside issues specific to general education systems and institutions, because they would have required too long an analysis. However, the philosophy of educational systems and the national policies underlying them were recognized as strongly conditioning the public service training institutions.

Before dealing with the four themes described above, the group came to two preliminary conclusions:

1. Institutions must be analyzed in terms of their outputs, the training programs themselves. It was acknowledged that in developing countries few training programs fit major development needs, which are mainly economic, social, and administrative.
2. An approach to training is useful only if there is agreement on the problems of modern administration, particularly those in developing nations, and on the inferred concomitant that training programs, based on national educational policies, have to meet different requirements in different places. Major problems and administrative needs were summed up as follows: better planning and decision-making in government, embracing policy-making, orientation, information organization, coordination, and control; better carrying out of services to citizens, which necessitates having highly trained middle and lower executives; better use of financial resources, meaning budgets related to programs, fiscal accountability, audit systems, and effective realization of savings; better management of human resources, including not only education and training but efficient use of scarce personnel; better organizational patterns; and clarification of systems of regulation.

## I. Creation of Institutions for Public Service Training<sup>1/</sup>

On the first of the four sub-topics undertaken, the discussion started from the hypothesis that many training institutions in developing countries have a long record of instability, of periods of support and neglect by the government, and of shifting role perceptions as the effort to be efficient is repeatedly frustrated. Whatever their value as centers of intellectual activity and research, some institutions (even with substantial effort and investment) have been unable to have a penetrating effect on traditional and long-established systems of public service recruitment, training, and promotion. Such institutions become essentially irrelevant to the public service and consequently tend to retreat into an ivory tower. Recognizing that reality often bears out this hypothesis, the group's attention was also drawn to the fact that these situations were often created by factors external to the institutions themselves and that they often depended on political conditions as well as on the willingness of public administrative systems to recruit competent personnel.

Well aware that the situation differs from country to country, the group felt that several points could be analyzed in a sufficiently general and neutral way: location of training institutions; objectives and contents of training;<sup>2/</sup> and financing.

Location of Training Institutions. Although location practices vary from nation to nation, described experiments made it possible to draw up a few principles that should be taken into account to determine the position of training institutions. Location will be strongly affected by the authorizing statute of the institution (public or private), by the nature of the training (administrative, management, or development), and by the centralized or decentralized form of governmental

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<sup>1/</sup> Training here is considered as a specific formulation for particular areas where there is a weakness in the general educational system. It is also viewed as complementary to general schooling and to professional experience.

<sup>2/</sup> This point embraces strategy and adaptation to change.

operations. The nature of the training will determine the attachment level. The location is also variable depending on the training objectives. On this issue the group felt that it is advisable:

- to link up the training institution with a strong authority and powerful organization or to make it dependent on them. Located in weak organizations, training institutions will only be weakly supported.
- to give the institution maximum freedom of action and autonomy, together with laying upon it objectives corresponding to concrete needs and priorities;
- for management and development training, to avoid particular attachments;
- to establish necessary ties with institutions of higher education
- to be strongly supported by the authority responsible for the country's development and its general public administration (but a change of authority may not affect the existence or the functions of administration).

Objectives and Contents. Objectives of training institutions vary according to three factors: the type of administration (flexible or inflexible); political will; and national development objectives. These latter objectives will be strongly influenced by the public office structure of the country. Among the conclusions the group reached on this subject were these:

1. Objectives must be connected with the targets of the management of civil servants and with the general policies of the state. (The functional autonomy sought above is not incompatible with the desire and the demand for training of civil servants. since most people think they are under-trained.) For many experts the training strategy focuses on top managers and higher civil servants because they are in a position of leadership and have the necessary authority to undertake change processes. Kinds of knowledge, skill, and attitude to be covered by training is difficult to determine, but it seems

obvious that programs have to cope with change in the world-wide environment and with administrations and administrators facing changing situations. Training also has to fight against the rigidity of bureaucratic systems. The most important needs which were identified and thus the main programs to be organized should be related to such matters as manpower planning, management tools like organization analysis, political systems, and social change.

2. Training programs have to be built around four elements: jobs (what people have to do); persons (human relationships and behavior); environment (external demands); and governmental development programs. If training adaptation is formulated in terms of needs, the strategy has to be formulated in terms of action and means. The strategy will be determined by the kind of programs to be organized (in-service, pre-service), the duration of the programs, and the necessary supports (political, financial, material, information, etc.).

3. Assessment of the training activities must also be included in the strategy. It is one of the most difficult aspects of a training policy inasmuch as it requires highly qualified people and must deal not only with action and program performance but with the skill of the teachers and delicate organization, psychological, and other questions which can condition the quality and effectiveness of the programs. Many countries do not have the necessary competence at their disposal for their training operations, especially evaluation procedures.

4. Finally, we must recognize that training is not the only solution for problems encountered by countries faced with accelerated development. It is only one means among others for solving development problems. It is but one answer to organization improvement.

## II. Staffing and Operation of Institutions

Staffing of training institutions is certainly the most important single factor in training operations, since it is the most complex one and it conditions other aspects of operation and their starting. Under this heading the group was forced by time to concentrate on this fundamental problem to the exclusion of other operational issues.

Most of the delegates working on this Topic 1 agreed that staffing calls for three types of persons: managers, researchers, and professors. But it was more difficult to define the abilities and qualities, even the fundamental ones, that must be possessed by these persons. As a means to guide their thinking, members of the group tried to analyze the staffing process and reached a consensus on these elements: identificaion of needs; definition of training policies and programs; execution of the programs; and control and assessment.

The following thoughts emerged from the discussions as to the characteristics and roles of the three personnel components of the training staff:

1. A training manager should be a career manager. The manager need not necessarily be a researcher or a professor. Management requires mastery of administrative methods and having adequate time for managing. The manager must integrate and coordinate resources in order to find the best cost-effectiveness relationship with the objectives of the training.

2. Because of the importance of research to effective training, the roles and status of researcher should be upgraded. In many countries the functions of researcher and professor are concentrated in one person. One function is often neglected on behalf of the other. It depends on the one which is the best rewarded, the value of the reward being itself a function of the system of the actors. Too often the activity of research is discredited in comparison with that of the professor. The best solution would be for researchers to become temporary practitioners, involved in organizations where they are working as such. It was suggested that two types of careers should be developed, as in the case of one of the European countries: that of teaching professor and that of research professor. This approach allows different skills to be rewarded similarly.

With respect to related consideratins, the following points were singled out for further examination in future meetings and study:

- too many practitioners who teach consider their teaching to be a secondary job and spend too little time and effort in preparation;

- training should not be too practical (executive training particularly requires knowledge of recent theoretical developments);
- in many countries foreign experts are not used efficiently because they are not aware of local events and because local authorities do not know how to take full advantage of such a human resource;
- many training institutions cannot keep their personnel because salaries are too closely linked with the civil service pay systems;
- too many management training programs are offered by the business sector that do not reflect an understanding of the special needs of the public sector.

### III. Relationship Between Regional and National Centers

Even if the fact that training must be done country by country is generally accepted, this does not detract from the utility of organizing training collectively within geographical regions. External cooperation in this field has existed for more than thirty years, but it was based on a donor-recipient relationship. It is generally recognized that this condition had a lot to do with certain failures of external cooperation. While this relationship may still be present for a certain number of years, it is important to be aware of the fact that new types of external cooperation can be developed. Wherever regional centers are located, whether in developing or developed countries, their roles and tasks should entail:

- dissemination of information and focus on information transfer. (Dissemination of technological information is very much sought);
- creation of institutions complementary to national centers and able to train qualified teachers and civil servants or managers who can deal with administrative development;
- providing special training programs. (Such training is really part of technical assistance, but this assistance has to be selective in order to meet national needs);

- flexible institutions able to help and to fill in for the shortcomings of the national training centers.

The group thought that such regional centers should present short-term and long-term programs which can answer needs common to different countries and that they should press for re-employment of trained personnel when they return to their homelands. Not only do the centers have to work primarily for countries that have similar problems but especially for those that have homogeneous educational and cultural patterns. It was pointed out that misuse of trained people is a waste of time, effort, and money and that it also provokes demotivation and negative reactions on the part of trainees. Such centers also have to be in some regards consulting institutions, able to help national centers to define their politics and policies, to build their programs, and to make training an instrument of change and innovation (though this factor seems less important than the first one). Relating to location, it was pointed out that centers are still located too much on a political basis, that they do not always avoid imperialism, and that their autonomy has to be strengthened.

#### IV Innovation and Balance

This sub-topic was not discussed at length. It was concluded, however, that training institutions must try to adapt their educational and research programs to political, economic, and social evolution and they must try to meet the priorities which are most important in terms of development or of catching up with gaps in national programs. Training systems must be innovative, but to be efficient they also must respect tradition in the measures they propose and be modern in the techniques used to reach the objectives spelled out for them.

The discussion group finally expressed a number of conditions that it felt to be essential to create innovative training centers. Centers must:

- enjoy sufficient autonomy to be able to define their programs and control their own personnel policies;
- have at their disposal the appropriate resources quantitatively as well as qualitatively;

- be open to external influence;
- be open organizations and centers with a high mobility of professors and researchers;
- have great flexibility in relation to the organization served and the demands for its services;
- be directly connected with public reality and the practices of the organization that they serve;
- be democratic, that is, they must be accessible to everyone and deliver rewards that are of recognized value in the country or institution where they are operating.

TOPIC 2 --- DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC  
ADMINISTRATION AND  
MANAGEMENT CURRICULA

Moderator: Klaus Konig (FRG)  
Host Coordinator: Donald E. Stokes (IASIA)  
Vice-Coodinator: Robert E. Crew, Jr. (USA)  
Project Director  
and Rapporteur: Ernest A. Engelbert (IASIA)

What should be the relationships between education and training for improving the qualifications and competencies of public managers? In what ways can the interactions between educators and practitioners be fostered to strengthen public administration and management as a profession? How should education and training programs be organized and operated to provide the best instructional environment?

These were the major questions addressed in Conference sessions devoted to Topic 2. This discussion was planned by the Working Group on Curricular Development of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA).<sup>1/</sup> Since its establishment in 1974 this Working Group has been engaged in the formulation and adoption of "Guidelines and Standards for Education and Training" which would have international applicability. At this Conference, the Working Group proposed some new Guidelines and Standards to be added to those that have been adopted previously.<sup>2/</sup> What follows is a digest of these Guidelines and Standards which will be considered for adoption by IASIA at its 1980 Congress in Madrid.

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<sup>1/</sup> Representatives from thirty nations have been serving as members of the Working Group on Curricular Development, under the chairmanship of Klaus Konig, Federal Republic of Germany.

<sup>2/</sup> For Guidelines and Standards for Curricular Development which have been adopted previously, see IASIA Circular No. 38 (Brussels: International Institute of Administrative Sciences), March, 1978.

## I. Relationships Between Education and Training

Definitions. Much confusion prevails concerning the definitions and curricular content of education versus training for public administration and management and the relative responsibilities of universities and governmental units for instructional programs. Representatives from various nations requested clarification of the roles that different institutions should play in the education and training complex. In considering this issue the group started from the premise that education and training are complementary and mutually reinforcing systems of learning. It defined education as learning which provides basic knowledge and understanding of the subject matter of public administration and management and of the environment in which managerial tasks are performed. Education is most appropriately offered in institutions of higher learning where students may be exposed to a range of disciplines and intellectual approaches. Much of the education will be pre-service, i.e., learning which takes place before an individual has entered public employment.

In contrast to education, the group saw training as learning directed toward enhancing the capacity of individuals for specific functions and tasks. It is primarily concerned with improving organization and job performance and is often sponsored by a particular agency or unit of government. Most of the training is in-service, that is, learning which takes place after an individual has entered government employment.

The Instructional Context. The group agreed that education and training may be provided in three basic contexts:

(1) As a comprehensive educational program within an institution of higher learning (notably the university) designed to prepare students for professional careers in public management. This program would include study of the knowledge, skills, values, and behavior essential for developing the qualifications and competencies of public managers.

(2) As a corollary subject-matter field related to other professions so that lawyers, economists, engineers, physicians, etc., can attain knowledge and understanding of public administration and management.

(3) As discrete educational and training components which incorporate some aspect of public administration and management subject matter designed to improve the competencies of personnel involved in the tasks of management. The purposes of the training components may include: (a) to provide new knowledge; (b) to enhance skills; (c) to broaden perspectives; and (d) to improve familiarity with administrative agencies, their environments, and their operations.

Principles of Education and Training. The group recognized that the division of responsibilities for education and training in public administration and management will vary among countries depending upon the relationships of the educational systems to the governmental institutions. However, the group agreed that education and training institutions should work closely together to provide continuous career development programs for public managers. Some formal liaison arrangement, such as a national council, should exist for the cooperative planning and development of policies and programs.

Some other principles were also deemed to be important. Education and training programs should be designed to cover all of the subject matter essential for the professional competencies of public managers. Since not every educational institution or training program can be expected to provide all facets of learning, universities, training institutes, and other programs should offer mutually reinforcing learning experiences to build and strengthen a nation-wide administrative managerial corps. To build a qualified professional corps, assessments of manpower needs for different levels of government and functions should be regularly conducted. These projections should be used by education and training programs in planning the numbers of student enrollment, the composition of staff, the specialization of offerings, and other program aspects. The graduates of these programs with appropriate experience should possess the qualifications and competencies to hold and/or move to administrative and managerial positions in different governmental, organizational, and geographical settings.

Learning Formats. Considerable discussion was devoted to the types of learning formats that should be used in both formal institutional settings and informal on-the-job settings. Eight different modes of instruction were identified, ranging from the formal lecture system to apprenticeships and simulated exercises. The choice of the specific learning format will be determined by at least four factors, namely, (1) the

instructional objectives; (2) the nature of the subject matter to be dealt with; (3) the composition of the student body; and (4) the availability of physical and financial resources. Whatever formats are used, they should be designed to relate theory to practice in the context of a profession. Over the course of a public manager's career, his or her training will encompass virtually all forms of learning formats in order to develop and sustain managerial talents and competencies. Particularly important is that education and training formats are innovative and responsive to change. Advancements in knowledge must be quickly identified and assimilated into learning programs, changes in managerial skills must be readily reflected in the instructional process, and reorientations of public values must be continuously woven into the prevailing concepts of the profession.

Degrees and Awards. To advance public administration and management as a profession, appropriate awards should be granted for the satisfactory completion of education and training programs. The group identified three categories of awards:

(1) Professional degrees such as a Master of Public Administration Degree normally awarded by institutions of higher learning for the completion of comprehensive educational programs.

(2) Certificates or diplomas normally awarded by institutes or training programs for the completion of specialized areas of study. These awards will show the areas and levels of competency attained.

(3) Job-associated benefits normally granted by governmental jurisdictions to employees for the completion of specialized areas of study useful to the employing agency. These benefits may include salary increases, eligibility for promotion, more job latitude, and other working privileges.

Inter-institutional Cooperation. The group concluded that the development of close linkages between education and training institutions was essential for the advancement of the public administration and management profession. In formulating their programs, education and training institutions need to be responsive to the manpower needs of the public service and to the professional qualifications and competencies required for administering managerial positions. Conversely, the personnel systems of all levels of government should recognize the

profession of public administrator or public manager along with other professions in their position classifications and should provide appropriate points of entry into the public service together with opportunities for career advancement for members of this profession.

## II. Interactions Between Educators and Practitioners

Some General Guidelines. In previous meetings of the Working Group, representatives from different nations have expressed concern about the lack of cooperation between the faculty of educational institutions and administrative officials. The group agreed that the development of a strong and well-recognized profession of public administration and management depends upon close working relationships and mutual respect between educators and practitioners. Neither group can act independently or remain exclusive of the other without detriment to the quality of public service. The communications and interactions between educators and practitioners must be continuous and substantial at all organizational levels.

Strengthening the Relationships of Educational Institutions. Some specific courses of action were approved by the group for strengthening the relationships of institutions of higher learning with professional administrators. These include:

(1) Employing instructors who are committed to public administration and management as a professional field of learning, whose lectures and research are directed to the exposition and analysis of the formulation and implementation of public services, and who maintain direct contacts with public agencies by serving on advisory bodies or as consultants or in other capacities.

(2) Providing educators with the opportunity to take leaves of absence for employment and research in public agencies and giving recognition for this activity in reviews for salary increases and promotions.

(3) Offering qualified practitioners the opportunity to come to university campuses to serve as part-time faculty and to engage in study and research away from the job environment.

(4) Arranging for research projects which provide direct experience for instructors and students in governmental settings.

(5) Inviting practitioners to participate in colloquia and practicums and to serve as evaluators of student internships and research projects.

(6) Establishing advisory boards and committees composed of some practitioners who would advise the deans and directors on the quality and effectiveness of public administration and management curricula and programs.

Strengthening the Relationships of Governmental Institutions. Courses of action approved by the group for strengthening the relationships of governmental institutes and agencies with educators include:

(1) Adopting policies which enable qualified public administrators or managers to take leaves of absence for study and service in institutions of higher learning and to participate as instructors in institute and departmental training activities and to serve as advisors and consultants to agency programs.

(2) Inviting qualified educators to serve for short intervals of time in government positions, to participate as instructors in institute and departmental training activities, and to serve as advisors and consultants to agency programs.

(3) Providing educators with the opportunities to do research on governmental issues and problems, including the provision of relevant data and assurances of cooperation from governmental employees.

(4) Offering opportunities for students to undertake apprenticeships and internships, to engage in governmental and agency research projects, or to acquire other learning experiences under the supervision of qualified agency personnel.

### III. Organization and Operation of Education and Training Programs

Categories of Education and Training. Members of the group unanimously held the view that the effectiveness and success of education and training programs for public administration and management to a large extent depend on how these programs are organized and operated. Although the division of responsibilities between higher institutions of learning and government-managed training programs will vary among countries, distinct categories of education and training should be recognized as part of any national system:

(1) Professional Education and Training which provides advanced study in public administration and management leading to a professional degree. This category of instruction is normally offered by a professional school or department within an established university or other institution of higher learning or by an institute or college created and operated by a governmental unit. These institutions should provide a comprehensive curriculum which prepares persons without job experience for beginning administrative positions in government or prepares persons with government job experience for advanced administrative and managerial positions.

(2) In-Service Training which provides specific types of knowledge and skills designed to improve the qualifications and competencies of personnel engaged in the tasks of management. This category of training is normally offered by government training institutes or centers but may also be given by institutions of higher learning on an ad hoc basis, particularly where a university may have special subject matter competencies. The training should be given usually through short-term courses, conferences, workshops, and other abbreviated learning formats.

Principles of Organization and Operation. The group concluded that some guiding principles of organization and operation should cut across all categories of education and training. The following principles should apply whether the organizational units are schools, departments, institutes, or centers:

(1) The prime emphasis of these organizational units should be placed upon the education and training of public administrators and managers who will be qualified professionally to plan and administer public services. The organizational unit

should also be concerned with the improvement and advancement of the profession of public administration and management. Other activities such as research, advising, or consulting, in which an organizational unit may engage, should be supportive of the education and training effort.

(2) The organizational unit should be headed by a dean, director, or other administrator who is appointed in consultation with the public administration and management instructional staff. He or she should be a person of eminent professional qualifications in public administration and management, with the ability to develop good working relationships with both the educational and governmental communities.

(3) The organizational unit should be staffed with qualified instructors who will merit the respect of their academic peers, of government officials, and of students. It should have responsibility for the appointment, promotion, and evaluation of instructional staff subject to general policies and oversight by governing officials of the institution of which it is a part.

(4) The organizational unit should possess a budget over which it can exercise financial control. Some degree of financial authority and responsibility is essential for wise educational planning and programming.

(5) The organizaional unit should have autonomy over the development and content of the curriculum, the format of instruction, and the length of both comprehensive and specialized education programs. It should establish requirements for degrees, certificates, or other warrants for program completion. The unit should also have the authority to engage in cooperative education and training programs with other schools, departments, and agencies. These powers do not preclude the right of the government to establish qualifying examinations for public administration and management positions in the public service.

(6) The organizational unit should participate in the establishment of standards for student admissions and have the responsibility for determining the standards of learning performance. Counselling and evaluation of students should be in accordance with the qualifications and competencies previously determined by the Working Group and should be an integral part of the education and training process. A well-developed professional program should also assist students in

locating appropriate job opportunities commensurate with their education and training, particularly students who are beginning their public service careers.

(7) The organizational unit should be housed in physical facilities that are adequate for carrying out the instructional aspects of the program. Although the amount of office, classroom, research, and library space will depend upon size and diversity of the educational and training activities, the physical facilities should be comparable to those provided for other professional schools and programs.

(8) Permanently established organizational units which offer comprehensive education and training programs should possess library, audio-visual, computer, and other related educational resources which foster the teaching and research activities. Students should be given the opportunity to do extensive reading in the literature of public administration and management in order to learn skills in laboratory settings and to undertake investigations that will enhance their professional qualifications and competencies.

(9) The activities of each organizational unit should be reviewed regularly and evaluated by an external council or board of overseers composed of educators and public officials who are knowledgeable about the professional field of public administration and management. The board should examine the objectives, content, and effectiveness of the education and training program and should provide reports to the head of the institution of which the organizational unit is a part.

Organizational Models. To conclude its discussion on Guidelines and Standards, the group denoted some organizational models for public administration and management to which the foregoing principles should apply. The following models were deemed to offer sufficient organizational autonomy to foster effective professional education and training:

(1) Professional Education and Training

- (a) An autonomous department as one of several departments located in a college or school of social science or liberal arts.
- (b) A professional school comparable to other professional schools of law, medicine, etc., within a university.

(c) A school, college, institute, or center established and operating as an autonomous governmental entity with a special mandate to educate or train a managerial corps.

(2) In-Service Training

(a) A training division of a government personnel department.

(b) A training institute or center established and operating as an autonomous governmental entity under special mandate.

(c) An adjunct activity of a professional school or department within a university.

IV. Future Activities of the Working Group

The IASIA Working Group on Curricular Development agreed to continue its efforts to establish Guidelines and Standards for Education and Training Programs in Public Administration and Management for adoption by IASIA. Members of the group reported that Circular No. 38 has been translated into several languages and furnished examples of how the Guidelines and Standards were being employed in different countries to improve the public management system. Particularly helpful has been the delineation of the subject matter content of that educational-professional field.<sup>3/</sup>

The Working Group will utilize whatever findings and conclusions that emanate from this International Conference. The group is particularly interested in the recommendations to energize the performance of educational and training institutions. It will cooperate with the Working Group on Ethics and Values to develop Guidelines and Standards for this subject-matter area. It will also maintain liaison with the European Group for Curriculum Development in its efforts to advance public administration and management education and training.

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<sup>3/</sup> See Section IV, Schools and Institutes, Circular No. 38, op. cit.

In addition to these activities, the Working Group will respond to the request from several members to plan and institute a program of technical assistance in education and training for technologically-less-advanced nations. The German Foundation for International Development has agreed to cooperate with the Working Group in this venture.

TOPIC 3 --- PUBLIC SECTOR MANPOWER  
AND EDUCATION PLANNING

Co-Moderators: Luis Garcia Cardenas (Mexico)  
                  Anita Slazak (Canada)  
Host Coordinator: James M. H. Gregg (USA)  
Vice Coordinator: Francoise Gianoutsos (USA)  
Rapporteur: Robert G. Dyck (USA)

The purpose of this workshop was to develop guidelines for better planning of managerial, professional, and technical personnel requirements of governments, and for re-designing and strengthening education, training, and other means of staff development to meet these requirements. In the several sessions held on this subject concentration of attention was almost entirely on the situation in developing countries, although the group contained a balanced mix of representatives from developing and developed nations, including both their governmental and educational communities, as well as a few representatives from international organizations. This report is presented in terms of the following major areas that emerged from the discussions: a set of consensus premises; some conclusions on planning for manpower needs and on implementation of education and training programs; and some brief observations on implementation problems and constraints.

Several background documents were available to the discussants. These included papers prepared for the meeting by G. E. Mills, Roger J. Simmons, and Raymond F. Lyons.<sup>1/</sup>

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<sup>1/</sup> Mills, G. E. "Report of Working Group on Public Sector Manpower and Education Planning." International Institute of Administrative Sciences/International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IIAS/IASIA), typescript, October 1979.

Simmons, Roger J. "Public Sector Manpower and Educational Planning: Selected Lessons from Practice." International Conference on Improving Public Management and Performance, typescript, October 1979.

Lyons, Raymond F. "Public Sector Manpower Needs of Local Administration of Education." Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, typescript, July 1979.

The Mills paper represented a cumulative synthesis of issues discussed and positions taken by a thirty-member IASIA Working Group on Public Sector Manpower and Education Planning during the period 1973-1979, following initial IASIA discussions at its 1971 meeting in Rome. The background documentation also included models for manpower planning in the form of papers by Gerald Timsit and Clifford Bamfield, respectively, which had been prepared for the Working Group at its meeting in Abidjan in 1977.<sup>2/</sup> None of these papers was formally presented to the 1979 discussants, in accordance with the procedures of the conference, and no systematic attention was given any of them. However, Simmons and Lyons were able to participate personally in the workshop discussions, and a number of their ideas are included in this report.

The discussants also had access to a list of agenda issues prepared in advance for each of three discussion sessions by Host Coordinator Gregg and Vice Coordinator Gianoutsos.<sup>3/</sup> While the discussants adhered generally to the topical areas suggested in advance, the group chose -- for the most part -- its own specific agenda items.

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<sup>2/</sup> Timsit, Gerald. "Working Document for Study Group on Public Sector Manpower and Education Planning," XVIIth International Congress of Administrative Sciences, Abidjan, September 1977. Brussels: International Institute of Administrative Sciences, typescript.

Bamfield, Clifford. "Personnel Record Information System for Management (PRISM)," XVIIth International Congress of Administrative Sciences, Abidjan, September 1977. Brussels: International Institute of Administrative Sciences, typescript.

<sup>3/</sup> Gregg, James M. H. and Gianoutsos, Françoise. "Topic 3. Public Sector Manpower and Education Planning." International Conference on Improving Public Management and Performance, October 1979.

## I. Basic Premises

A. The group agreed at the outset that manpower and education planning should be conducted comprehensively in developing countries with reference to total national needs for both public and private sectors. There were a number of reasons for this basic point of departure, including the mutually supportive interaction of public and private sectors necessary for national development, competition between the sectors for highly trained manpower (always scarce in developing countries), the need for managers and technicians who are sensitive to the special roles and operational modalities of each sector, and the difficulty of anticipating future needs within sectors defined too narrowly.

Underlying this premise was an even more fundamental, if unspoken, premise: that national manpower and education planning is perhaps the single most strategically important activity that can be undertaken to provide support for national development.

The above points of view were somewhat at variance with the view of the IASIA Working Group, as reflected in the Mills paper referred to earlier, that planning on a limited basis for public sector needs is more practical in many developing countries than planning on a "global" scale.<sup>4/</sup>

B. A separate but related line of discussion dealt with establishment of premises regarding the broad purposes of manpower education and training, with special reference to education/training for management responsibilities. It was asserted that management of change is a key skill in developing countries, both in public and private sectors, and that administration of development programs is qualitatively different from management of the status quo (as in developed countries). It was further observed that the attitudes and commitment necessary for effective management of change make it impossible for bureaucrats to be neutral to the change process. Thus, the following dilemma was posed: how is it possible to train managers who (a) have the capability of working effectively within a given system but (b) also have the capability of challenging the system in the future?

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<sup>4/</sup> Mills, op. cit., p. 4

The premises which emerged in discussion of this dilemma were as follows:

1. The public manager must be trained to work pragmatically and objectively, on a problem-solving basis, to help communities and individuals achieve government objectives.
2. The public manager should be an agent of change, committed professionally to support of societal changes which are creative and beneficial. Since all technical positions are infused with value, education and training programs themselves cannot be neutral; they must develop broad professional competencies relevant to future as well as current needs.

## II. Planning for Manpower Needs

While the group felt strongly that public sector manpower planning and education should be conducted in the context of comprehensive national manpower (and development) planning, it also recognized the importance of adopting a problem-oriented approach in order to accommodate the unique conditions and problems of individual countries. As one discussant put it, "a cookbook is of little use unless you know what is in the refrigerator." The group recognized that, even when carried out, national manpower planning often does not include appropriate attention to best utilization of existing manpower, incentives for service in the public sector, provision of technical training to sufficient numbers of trainees, or the matter of public-private sector competition.

With regard to the utilization of existing trained personnel, it was pointed out that personnel shortages and deficiencies may often be due to functionally unnecessary programs and departments, or to overstaffing at the lower levels. Programs and departments therefore should be reviewed periodically to assure overall efficiency in use of the existing personnel.

The group also pointed out that there is often a conflict between generations in regard to top-level management positions in the public sector. The conflict may arise as a result of such positions being held by older persons who held

mid-level positions in a previous colonial administration, but who are not now as well qualified by education (and sometimes by experience) as younger persons now available for employment. Since the younger people with university degrees and high technical capabilities may be overqualified for the more junior positions in the public sector, there is a tendency for them to move into semi-public or private sector positions. As a consequence, manpower planning must give due attention to structures and procedures which permit and encourage able and well-trained young people to participate in public service -- such as early retirement for the less productive, and opportunities for rapid advancement of the most productive personnel.

In more general terms, the problem of achieving the most effective balance of experience and training in all sectors was recognized as crucial, as was the typical problem of gross undersupplies of technically trained personnel (including engineers, physicians, and agriculturalists) compared with oversupplies of university graduates with degrees in the liberal arts and the law.

Several strategies were suggested for dealing with the question of competition between sectors for management skills. (1) One line of policy is to establish a national program of mandatory civil service, for a period of two years or so, for all university graduates whose educational expenses have been covered by the government. (2) Another is to publicize more widely the benefits of public service, as related to non-economic as well as economic benefits of such service. (3) Another is to regulate private sector wages and salaries, rather than to try to match them in the competitive market. (4) Still another is to offer top management personnel the opportunity to hold positions in more than one ministry, or to hold a university or other position in addition to the executive position in government. (5) In general, it was agreed, manpower planning and education systems should be more responsive to the continuing personal and professional development needs of the trainees, as well as to the needs of the respective sectors.

It was also agreed that manpower and education planning should be sensitive to public sector needs for effective distribution of trained personnel by level or location (i.e., central, provincial, local) as well as by functional grouping. It was recognized, further, that attention must be paid to the long-range needs for manpower, as well as to the short and

medium-term, because of the long start-up times often required for conducting the appropriate training programs for the numbers of trainees required.

Some attention was also given to systems to be used for manpower and education planning. (1) One person suggested a simple bottom-up format involving projection of the needs of local (e.g., village) units, then district units, then larger regional units, etc., as currently done in his country. (2) Another described a system based on the output characteristics of national schools -- a supply oriented approach. (3) Still another approach was oriented to budgetary limitations both on positions and training for them. No consensus was reached concerning any generally preferable system, since each appeared to have its strengths and weaknesses, and since it was also recognized that appropriate choices should be made on the basis of unique national purposes and resources.

### III. Implementation of Education and Training Programs

There was consensus that national manpower and education planning should involve systematic exchange of information between the government and the schools, since all the planning systems involve qualitative as well as quantitative dimensions of mutual interest and concern. It was noted in particular that tracer studies and analysis of the output of training institutions is needed -- with greater attention to techniques and attitudes, and less to concepts. Similarly, it was felt that the character of actual performance of public administrators needs to be better analyzed, using criteria developed by interaction between the government and consumers of government services, for the improvement of education and training programs.

Substantial emphasis was placed on the importance of achieving appropriate balance between pre- and in-service training. Since technical education is expensive, governments have a built-in incentive to limit technical education, and as a consequence technical manpower deficits typically cannot be met by national pre-service educational systems alone. For this reason, all skilled and well-educated employees (including retirees) should also be used as trainers -- particularly in the middle-level skills (e.g., nursing) and in the districts and rural areas where shortages of skilled manpower are usually most acute. The organization of the training should cut across

the compartmentalization of technical and administrative skill which often occurs in the respective ministries of government. For example, medical people should be involved in teaching health protection and illness prevention as well as treating the sick.

Whereas formal education and training provide theoretical and operational constructs for technical employment, mis-education may occur if the constructs are not relevant situationally. Thus, in-service training must carry the burden of correcting mis-education both in the field and in the classroom. In-service training is also critically important in fostering appropriate work attitudes. It is so important that, in at least one developing country, steps are taken through in-service training -- prior to enrollment of students in formal educational curricula -- to limit elitist attitudes which might otherwise emerge on the basis of education and resulting employment opportunities.

The question of how candidates should be selected for education and training also came in for discussion. At one level, it was viewed as a relatively simple matter of selecting the best qualified applicants by a process of examination -- for "fast track" entrance into education and public careers -- provided that government needs and school capabilities are known. At another level, selection for participation in specialized in-service training was seen as a reward only for the most productive workers and a prime condition for further advancement. At still another level, in-service training was seen as necessary for everyone who is working. These differing views were at least in part a function of differing national approaches to education and training, but there was a general consensus that training should be related more clearly to assessment of competence and opportunities for advancement.

No attempt was made to prepare a generalized recommendation concerning the institutional character of education and training programs. At one pole, centralized national schools of administration were favored. At the other, functionally oriented training projects, conducted at small scale for the support of youthful trainees, were advocated as a good means for rapid spreading of savoir faire (know-how). The only real point of consensus was that unnecessary duplication of training facilities in different parts of the public service should -- as far as possible -- be eliminated.

#### IV. Implementation Requirements and Constraints

The question of why so little, in general, has been done to implement the manpower and education planning recommendations of earlier IASIA panels was raised at the outset of the workshop. However, the succeeding discussion did not reveal the answers with any great clarity. When confronted with the hypothesis that it was a matter of limited financial or technical resources to do the planning, most -- but not all -- of the discussants felt that the problem was more a matter of absence of necessary political will to carry out the planning. Several persons indicated that if governments really are committed to do the planning, they will find a way to get it done. Another discussant, however, felt that his country was seriously hampered by shortage of manpower to conduct manpower planning. Others agreed that the constraint is usually not a financial one, but one of human resources and workload, as well as desire. One person mentioned that people trained did not necessarily want to work with the institute or agency they had trained for, following completion of training -- as one of the reasons why manpower and education planning is viewed with some skepticism.

It was agreed that manpower and education planning must be linked to the use of personnel by the ministries. It was also suggested that if financial and technical resources are required, they should be provided from extra-national resources only on condition that a national "multiplier" effort is made to ensure continuing national capacity.

In one discussion following the workshop, it was suggested that public administrators themselves need to press more strongly for political commitment to national manpower and education planning.

In the final plenary session of the conference, one person suggested that the international donor community might exercise more leadership in assisting the developing countries with manpower and education planning. Others suggested that the problem of absence of political will might most fundamentally be a reflection of national unwillingness or inability to conduct manpower and education planning from the bottom-up rather than from the top-down.

Clearly it is not easy to generalize a set of answers to the question of why manpower and education planning is not widely conducted, given the differing circumstances in different

countries. Nonetheless, considering the crucial importance of manpower and education planning for development, it would seem that we should continue to probe for the answers -- perhaps at a succeeding conference. Perhaps a better informed and more useful set of implementation strategies could be developed if successes and failures in manpower planning could be surveyed on a comparative basis in a representative group of countries.

TOPIC 4 --- EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN  
ETHICS AND VALUES OF PUBLIC  
RESPONSIBILITY

Moderator: Raul P. de Guzman (Philippines)  
Host Coordinator: James M. Mitchell (USA)  
Project Director: O. P. Dwivedi (Canada)  
Rapporteur: S. S. Richardson (Australia)

The workshop on Ethics was the product of IASIA's task group which is concerned with developing guidelines and materials for use in education, training, and other staff development programs. The discussion embraced: common issues in ethical behavior and public service responsibility; illustrative ethical predicaments facing public servants; feasibility of ethical education and training; building on traditional values in the design of curricula; and optional approaches and methods for ethical education and training. At one point, this group was in joint session with the Topic 2 group, concerned with curricula, to explore the place of ethics in public administration curricula.

I. Scope of Background Work on Ethics

As a first step, the group reviewed progress made by the Project Director in the implementation of recommendations made by the IASIA Task Group on Ethics in Public Service when it met at Cavtat, Yugoslavia in 1976 and at Abidjan, Ivory Coast in 1977. These recommendations had been included in the background paper developed for this group by the Project Director and circulated prior to the convening of the Conference in Washington.

It was clear that the activity generated by IASIA's initiative in the field of ethics in public service has been significant. A number of research papers on official conduct were distributed to members of the group to assist discussion. Field research into official corruption is under way in the ASEAN region and in Southern Asia. ASPA has discussed the topic and has formulated recommendations. A model code of professional behavior has been developed by IASIA and it was discussed at the Abidjan Congress in 1977. A bibliography on the subject has been assembled and distributed, but is in need of updating. A monograph on the subject of Public Service

Ethics has been distributed by IASIA; and a practical manual of guidelines covering the official conduct of public servants will be circulated by the Australian Government.

## II. Needs Identified

At the meeting in Washington, the group concentrated on the needs of schools and institutes for training models which would be of help in the task of developing a commitment to ethical behavior appropriate in the context of the particular social environment in which a public officer is employed.

(1) Curricula: There is a need to develop curricula which can be used by schools and institutes of administration in training and education in ethics of officers employed by national, state and provincial, and local governments, multi-national and international agencies, and in transnational and private sector employment.

(2) Multiple Formats: There is a need to consider formats of education and training in ethical behavior and in the reform of public service organizations aimed at minimizing the necessity for the exercise of ethical judgments by public servants. Training must reflect the different requirements of young pre-service candidates for instruction in the subject and for staff development of middle-level and senior-level employees with supervisory responsibilities and leadership roles. At the junior level, there is a considerable "across the counter" interaction with the general public which gives rise, in some communities, to the temptation to be involved in corrupt practices. The middle-level public servant is increasingly responsible for supervisory functions. The most senior officers are likely to be involved in working closely with the political leadership, international organizations, and the senior echelons in the private sector, including the multinational business corporations, in situations which call for the maintenance of the highest ethical standards by public officials, whether they are political appointees or career employees.

(3) Enforcement: Formal codes of ethics are "cosmetics", but the group accepted that there was some value in the adoption of such codes as statements of the standard of conduct normally required by government servants. Newly recruited officers should be informed not only of the "ten commandments" of whatever code has been accepted but also of

the sanctions which will be applied to the officer found to be in breach of the code. In those countries which enjoy two-party government, free political debate, media coverage, and a free press, the sanctions which can be brought to bear by an intelligent and lively community interested in the work of the public service are often more powerful than legal proceedings in the courts or public exposure in legislatures. All governments provide legal penalties for corrupt practices. In some one-party states and under military administration, extremes of executive action are often used to combat corrupt practices and to provide for public punishment of offenders. Many countries provide honors and other types of recognition for honorable service, as well as providing sanctions and penalties for wrong-doing. The group thought that such an approach was a positive way for a government to demonstrate its interest in the maintenance of high ethical standards of behavior in public service.

(4) Senior Levels: Education and training for more senior officers needs to be more sophisticated and to be based upon the assumptions that these officers may be assumed to have established their honesty and high motivation, that they have working experience of the temptations to act dishonestly implicit in public service, that they have supervisory and leadership roles, and that, in the course of their work, they are in contact with the political leadership. Courses established for such people should be organized around their active participation in role playing and in case studies. They should be encouraged to study and to research organizational structures and procedures with a view to their reform as necessary to minimize opportunities for corruption, i.e., to simplify procedures, both public and bureaucratic, to remove temptation to operate inefficiently or dishonestly.

### III. Determinations for Action

(1) The group resolved that, at their Madrid Conference, it would proceed to examine specific training modules and packages appropriate for use in schools and institutes in their task of teaching professional ethics.

(2) The group will organize a survey of institutions, including those not members of IASIA and government training establishments, to ascertain what is being done regarding the teaching of ethics and public responsibility. This

survey will embrace institutions in all parts of the world and will draw attention to the work of IASIA and invite wider participation in the Madrid Conference.

(3) The group will circularize institutions to encourage broader interaction between educational institutions and public service training and development agencies, since training programs must be highly relevant and essentially practical and down-to-earth rather than academic.

(4) The group will endeavor to issue a newsletter: in the first instance, setting out the results of the Washington Conference; and later on a regular basis, possibly through the medium of a regular insertion in the IIAS Review.

(5) The group identified members of the task force who are accepting responsibility to prepare a set of learning modules and supporting teaching materials appropriate for use in their various jurisdictions in teaching professional ethics. These reports and modules will be sent to the Project Director by the end of March 1980 and will be put together in a volume and distributed as a basis for the discussions in Madrid.

(6) Finally, the task force hopes that the IIAS will agree to establish within the library of the Institute a clearing-house for the collection, deposit, and dissemination of information on the subject of the ethics of the profession. Such a facility would be of great value to the working groups established by IASIA in this and other tasks.

The group also anticipates that at the Madrid Conference it will be able to merge its activities with those of Group 2, which is concerned with the development of curricula in public administration more generally.

TOPIC 5 --- IMPROVING MANAGEMENT OF  
PUBLIC ENTERPRISES

Co-Moderators:	Colm O'Nuallain	(Ireland)
	Andre Delion	(France)
Host Coordinator:	Charles F. Bingman	(USA)
Chief Planner:	Pedro Andrieu	(IDB)
Co-Rapporteurs:	Enrique J. Saravia	(Brazil)
	Horacio Boneo	(Argentina)

Public enterprises, on which many governments rely for a wide range of purposes, are among the least recognized and understood types of public institutions. And they display an extraordinary variety of structures, ownerships, and forms of accountability to central governmental authority. For these reasons it was the aim of this Topic group to analyze their development, management, and public accountability, especially in developing countries.

The discussion group was large (close to 50 persons), representing numerous countries from the five continents. Among them were practitioners from public enterprises, central governments, and international and regional organizations, as well as persons from universities, schools of administration, and research institutions. This breadth of national and institutional origins and of professional backgrounds resulted in cross-fertilizing exchanges which constituted one of the main assets of the sessions.

Participation was active and enthusiastic. The free and unstructured nature of the discussions clearly fostered participation, as contrasted with previous procedures relying on the reading of lengthy papers. Discussion was action-oriented; and there was a welcome absence of controversy about definitions and abstractions.

I. Scope of Discussion

Discussion was not limited to the specific issues regarding public enterprises. Practically every dimension of government was mentioned, showing the need for a multi-disciplinary and contextual approach to the subject. Nevertheless, public enterprises were the focal point of the discussion, and there was a consensus that they constitute a valid field for both teaching and research.

Participants expressed considerable concern with the recommendations of the IASIA Working Group on Public Enterprises that worked under the co-chairmanship of N. S. Carey Jones (U.K.) and Enrique J. Saravia (Brazil), especially the two reports submitted by Harold Seidman (U.S.A.) and Andre Delion (France). There was also great interest in the objectives and tasks of the Center of Information and Documentation on Public Enterprises (that has been set up by the International Institute of Administrative Sciences), as they had been presented at the IIAS Abidjan Congress and accepted by the group participants and IASIA. Representatives of the Center described the results achieved and indicated the steps that will be taken in the near future.

Much of the discussion was centered around the specificity of training for public enterprises. The tendency of many courses to rely excessively on either "public administration" or "business administration" approaches was criticized. A number of subjects and areas where public enterprise training should be differentiated was mentioned, among them: personnel management; pricing policies and finance; investment criteria; audit and control; and marketing.

It was also noted that excessive emphasis is placed on a non-existing unity of the public enterprise sector. There are differences -- which should appear in training design -- between enterprises operating under monopolistic conditions and those operating in competitive markets; between enterprises in different sectors; and between enterprises producing for foreign as contrasted with internal markets. Similarly, training must recognize differences in clientele, and courses directed to future appointees should differ from those directed to existing managers.

## II. Major Issues Reviewed

It would be pretentious to try to reproduce in a few sentences the scope and richness of the group's discussions. But an idea of the gist of subjects touched on may be seen from this short examination:

- The fact that public enterprises show a balanced mixture of financial and social objectives.

- The difference between financial and social benefits and its impact on the policies and strategies of public enterprises.
- The relevance of the structure and organization of public enterprises and their link with central government and audit agencies.
- The use of public holding companies.
- The problems of recruitment, salaries, motivation, and retention of technicians and managers of public enterprises.
- The representation of sectorial interests (such as consumers, for instance) within boards of directors.
- Price policy.
- Performance evaluation.
- The mistake of creating public enterprises to improve services that had been poorly operated by the central government without having analyzed previously the causes of the bad performance.
- Analysis of the specific issues regarding public enterprises in developing countries.
- The possibility of reorganization of public and private sectors in developing nations as a consequence of a redefinition of their roles, taking into account the experience that successful public enterprises are a result of pragmatic considerations and not the application of philosophical or abstract theories.
- The importance of the relationships between central government, public enterprises, and all the groups involved in the different activities of public enterprises, and consequently the level and aspects of control.

- The failure of management-training programs, especially those based on psychological approaches (such as organization development, "O.D.", for instance) and techniques and teaching materials imported from highly industrialized countries that are ill-adapted to the realities of developing societies.

Several national, regional, and local experiences were presented and discussed to illustrate all these points.

### III. Recommendations

During the discussion a number of specific recommendations were made and received the general support of the participants:

1. The importance of a continuous and increasing involvement of IASIA in the specific field of public enterprises was emphasized.
2. The importance and usefulness of the IIPA Documentation Center on Public Enterprises was stressed. The participants and their institutions were asked to undertake active collaboration with the aims of the Center, especially sending information about documents (books, articles, reports, etc.) and courses on public enterprises (contents, methods, clientele, etc.) so as to provide mutual exchange through the Center. The necessity of knowing the way to utilize this data-center was stressed, and especially the convenience of having some kind of advisory board for the Center in order to help it obtain the data and to know the main concerns and points of view of the different countries and regions of the world. It was said, however, that an international board or committee of the Center should be only for advisory purposes, avoiding any kind of procedure that could delay action.
3. The participants recognized the increasing need for the development of experimental curricula for courses on public enterprises, including

new teaching methods and materials. The systematic education of instructors was also encouraged.

4. It was emphasized that the manager should be trained under conditions where account is taken of the global political, social, and economic framework in which public enterprises operate.
5. Similarly, a basic lack of knowledge was recognized, and a consequent need for additional research on the subject was noted. The following areas were proposed for future research:
  - Theoretical analysis relating public enterprises to the evolution of political systems and to changes in environment. Such studies should not focus on isolated institutions but preferably on the whole system of public enterprises.
  - Relations between public enterprises and central governments.
  - Analysis of the management problems of individual enterprises as sources for future case studies.
  - Transnational, binational, and multinational public enterprises.

TOPIC 6 --- PUBLIC WORKS INFRASTRUCTURE  
PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

Moderator: Maria Garcia Diaz (Mexico)  
Host Coordinator: E. Lee Fairley (USA)  
Chief Planner: Robert D. Bugher (USA)  
Rapporteur: Jose Fiallo (USA)

This topic was planned by the IIAS Working Group on Public Works Management. The discussion group set out to share experiences and, as a result, it was able to develop some guidance for the future.

I. Importance of the Subject

Public works infrastructure provides the basic support facilities and services essential to urban and rural society and to economic and social development. It provides functions vital to a country's development and strongly affects the quality of the environment. Infrastructure development and maintenance comprise a major portion of a country's budget and investment programs, a fact which makes it urgent that such facilities and services be well planned and managed.

The public works sector is very large and interrelated with agricultural development, industrialization, health, and other areas of national concern. The scope of public works includes: water resources; sanitation and solid waste disposal; street and road systems; traffic engineering; mass transportation; generation and distribution of energy; flood control, drainage, and irrigation; water ways and marine ports; communication systems; construction of schools, hospitals, libraries, and other public structures; urban renewal, housing, new towns; parks, playgrounds, and stadiums; air, water, and noise pollution control; land-use planning and other conservation and environmental protection activities.

II. Public Works Approaches to Achieve National Goals.

Administrative structures housing public works programs in the countries represented in the group range from very centralized structures to decentralized structures. There are

varying degrees of influence allocated to national, provincial, and local authorities in planning public works activities. Developed countries tend to allocate greater voice to municipalities while developing countries tend to favor decision making at the national level regarding public works projects. However, some developing countries are making efforts to involve local participation in public works planning through establishment of regional and district offices.

The increase of rural-urban migration into primary cities and the ensuing demands on extant infrastructure is a major concern to densely-populated developing country governments. The participants believed that problems in the public works sector stem from overlapping functions of government agencies in planning; the limited sphere of the countries' economic policies, focusing on primary cities; the lack of central leadership; and favoritism by decision makers to their constituency areas, thereby leading to skewed allocation of investments. The implementation of public works projects in developing countries also has major constraints because of a lack of record keeping to denote the location of utilities; a lack of specifications on how and where utilities are to be installed; and a lack of specifications on equipment and materials to be used in projects.

The proposed recommendations to achieve national goals through public works included:

- establishing a greater focus on providing public works in depressed regions.
- increasing agricultural productivity.
- relocating industry outside of primary cities through tax incentives.
- moving central agencies to cities other than the capital.
- providing public services outside primary cities.
- developing the countryside through infrastructure projects, such as farm-to-market roads.
- promoting self sufficiency in food production.

- improving human settlements.
- improving communication from national to area and local levels, in order to inform people of proposed public works projects.
- promoting involvement of people in infrastructure planning in their community.
- standardization of record keeping, specifications, and equipment and materials.
- development of a master plan to coordinate the activities of the various sectors involved in the country's social and economic development.

In countries confronting major unemployment and underemployment, public works should be considered as a means of employment generation, according to many participants. One of the represented countries has a presidential decree which states that labor-intensive construction methods can be used in public works projects, provided that the cost should not exceed ten percent of the cost of the alternative capital-intensive methods and that the labor requirement from the farm would not adversely affect agricultural production.

### III. Role of Public Works Agencies in Improving the Environment

Concern over the relationship of the environment to public works was a prevalent issue among the developed country representatives. In these countries environmental groups have a strong voice in deciding whether public works projects are approved. Often these groups succeed in postponing projects, thereby withholding the provision of facilities and services to the community at large and increasing project costs at its later starting date.

One developed country representative traced the increase in rural to urban migration which has taken place in his country since World War II and its ensuing effects of congestion, housing shortages, and other problems in the urban centers. He said that the recent environmental concerns have surfaced because of greater affluence in the society. The increase of education, mass housing, and recreation time has led people to focus on such issues as land-use planning and

creating environments of human betterment. Current housing trends point to single family detached units rather than multi-family apartment complexes.

The developed country representatives believed that the environmental concerns in their countries stem from the more established middle class and other privileged groups such as property owners in metropolitan areas. These groups, having secured property and employment, do not want others to encroach upon their environment. Although there are increased demands for housing, employment, and public services for the increasing urban population, those who already benefit from the urban amenities do not want additional housing construction, employment, and continued urban sprawl to infringe on their esthetic environment. The representatives believed that environmental concerns are often raised by special interest groups while the position of the poor and less affluent members of the society, whose more immediate economic concerns supersede their other concerns, is rarely articulated, thereby raising doubts about the equitability of participation.

The proposed recommendations to improve the environment through public works included:

- developing a more comprehensive approach to planning public works projects which integrates environmental concerns at the planning phases, builds on past mistakes, and allows for flexibility. A couple of the represented countries currently require environmental impact studies in their public works projects.
- finding a balance in the feasibility of public participation in planning which equates equity and efficiency considerations.

#### IV. Development of National Programs of Education and Training in Public Works Planning and Management

The participants regarded public works training as the most powerful tool for future management. They felt very little emphasis has been placed, nationally or internationally, on providing public works personnel with the wide range of administrative competencies to cope with policy, financial, economic, social, political, and managerial aspects of this field. The

participants noted that public works activities are often viewed as a vehicle for promoting the projects of other ministries rather than as its own entity. They believed the important interrelation of public works with other sectors justifies its becoming a more important force in national planning.

The proposed recommendations to develop national programs in education and training in public works planning and management included:

- evaluating the impact of previous training efforts and its effects on manpower development.  
(Are graduates working in their fields in their countries?)
- establishing training programs which are responsive to local needs.
- training mid-level technicians and non-managers in maintenance and operation and using job oriented training manuals developed at the local level.
- getting the necessary commitment from government officials for funding training efforts.
- training on proper use of equipment.
- focusing on planning of human resources and job placement for those trained.
- providing a broad training program for managers to better equip them to provide policy guidance to political leaders.

#### V. Implementation Guidelines

The following recommendations were made to promote the initial recommendations voiced at the conference:

- establish a continuing group to serve as a central service unit for member countries.
- expand membership to other countries.

- obtain information from member countries through issuing a simple questionnaire. Establish who will be the country contacts, and ascertain the country's interest in the public works function, in order to begin a program and to develop a staff.
  
- obtain financial support.

TOPIC 7 --- INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE AND  
UTILIZATION OF TECHNOLOGY  
AND INNOVATIVE PRACTICES

Co-Moderators: Mark Keane (ICMA)  
K. C. Sivaramakrishnan (World Bank)  
Host Coordinator: Robert C. Crawford (USA)  
Vice Coordinator: Jean Mestres (CIUL)  
Rapporteur: Ononeze Martin Anochie (Nigeria)

This topic was initiated by the International City Management Association (ICMA), the International Union of Local Authorities (IULA), the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and the Council for International Urban Liaison (CIUL). The discussion focused on international and national mechanisms and processes for the exchange and utilization of technology and innovative practices in public management settings.

Although international meetings on subjects such as this one often bog down in trying to agree on definitions and on what kind of technology is being talked about, this group recognized from the start that an effective implementation strategy is the central challenge to be given attention. The group noted that utilization of technology means change, and any change is likely to have not only positive but also some negative impacts, at least on some segments of the population where it is taking place. It generates controversy and often outright opposition. Such realities necessitate creativity in the processes and strategies for transferring or implementing technology and innovation.

At the outset the discussion brought out three conditions felt to be essential for effective implementation of change through utilization of technology and innovation:

1. The technology must be tailored to the need.  
In the final analysis it is need that gives importance to the effort and assures its viability. Careful prior analysis and identification of needs and objectives must therefore exist in any implementation strategy.

2. A structure for mobilizing and motivating the people to change, to innovate, must be built into the implementation strategy. This is particularly important in the context of the public sector where there is usually considerable inertia or lack of motivation to change or innovate.
3. Careful assessment and understanding of the supports for, and more particularly, the constraints on adoption of the technology or innovation, are critical to determine implementation feasibility.

I. Analysis and Identification of Needs, Objectives, and Solution Specifications

Simple logic suggests that the technology being transferred must be responsive to the problems, needs, and objectives of the particular recipient community or country. Nevertheless, the emphasis on needs analysis and identification of objectives was recognized as raising a number of issues and practical problems:

- Very often we are dealing in an environment of conflicting objectives. The objectives of donor agencies may be in conflict with those of the recipient; central and local governments may have differing objectives; and even within the same community, the objectives of one group can conflict with those of another. Reasons for such conflicts are many and varied: lack of information, lack of sensitivity, varying degrees of commitment to change or to specific technological solutions, etc. Thus, identification of objectives may be a very complex and contentious issue. This points to the importance of broad involvement and participation in decisions relating to the exchange and utilization of technology.
- Similarly, the problems and needs to be served may be too complex to define or identify. In some instances, in fact, this may be the

problem, the major hurdle. If agreement can be reached on what the problem or need is, then finding and adopting an appropriate technological solution would be easy.

- An emphasis on need analysis may also lead to misallocation of scarce resources. This is the case, for example, where too large a proportion of available resources is invested at the front end in an attempt to analyze and identify the needs and develop solution specifications. The resources left for actual implementation may be woefully inadequate. This problem is exacerbated by the fact that donor agencies tend to favor this type of up-front planning as against actual implementation.
- Finally, there is a tendency, particularly in the developing countries, to view planning and analysis as a substitute for action; a tendency to hide an unwillingness or inability to act behind excessive analysis. The result is that often time and money are wasted in analysis and the conceptualization or construction of complex and comprehensive systems that will address all of the identified problems; whereas quite often all that can be effectively done is to make a start -- responding, perhaps, to a relatively small or limited problem or need.

Clearly some compromises are called for. Public managers should be encouraged to act, to make a start, even as more detailed analysis and comprehensive plans are commissioned. Donor agencies should provide adequate support to all elements of the project, not just the planning and analysis, but also, and especially, the implementation. Involvement and participation by the people in planning and implementations at all levels (central, area, and community) must be sought and encouraged.

## II. Mobilizing and Motivating People to Innovate

An effective strategy for the exchange and utilization of technology must seek to mobilize and motivate people to innovate. This applies to people within public institutions as well as the citizenry. Innovation or change involves risks; and the fear of failure inhibits innovation.

Often, institutional and bureaucratic hindrances or disincentives discourage public employees from innovating. For example, in some countries, there is a requirement (formal or traditional) that most decisions be made at the top. Just about everything is referred up to the boss for decision or approval. This shields lower levels from the risks of failure, but, at the same time, it also stifles innovation. A major objective of public management should be to find ways to open up the decision-making processes of public bureaucracies. Involvement and participation by employees in decision-making, the establishment of monetary and other incentives to innovate (and the removal of existing disincentives) should be encouraged.

Similarly, at another level -- the level of the citizenry or of local communities -- there should be the same opening up of governmental decision-making processes to citizen and local participation. And most especially, public management should seek to broaden the range of choices or options available and allow people or communities the right to choose. Nowhere is this more important than in the matter of technology. In fact, one of the more alarming manifestations of the folly of bureaucratic rigidity is where, in many developing countries, so much emphasis is placed on imported technology that dynamic indigenous technologies are stifled and lost.

## III. Support for, and Constraints on, Adoption of Technology and Innovations

The third critical element of an effective strategy for exchange and utilization of technology is careful attention to and awareness of the supports for, and most especially the constraints on, adoption of technology. Obvious but major constraints include: lack of information; very limited financial and skilled manpower resources; and lack of time. There are other types of constraints, which if they are ignored may make adoption of the technology impossible. These include cultural, religious, political, and other considerations.

An example was cited of the failure of an outside-expert proposal simply because the experts had not understood some elementary precepts of the nation's dominant religion.

A. Lack of Information

To transfer technology of innovation from one community (or country) to another, information about the technology must be passed from the donor to the recipient community or organization. In many instances potential beneficiaries of technology transfer do not have access to the information that would enable them to take advantage of the opportunity.

This raises two important challenges for public management: first, it should develop mechanisms for closing the information gap separating developers of appropriate technology and potential users; second, it should search for ways to increase the receptivity of the intended audience (or potential beneficiaries) for the information. In other words, ways should be found to increase the capability of local institutions to receive and utilize information on technology and innovative practices, given their prejudices and fears. This suggests the need for and the importance of evolving strategies for working with citizens and local institutions to convince them of the utility of the technology.

And yet, the group felt that an emphasis on information sharing and exchange raises a number of issues or problems:

- Effective sharing of information presupposes the existence of a common base of knowledge, some general perspectives which the sharers have in common. Otherwise the sharing of information may not have the desired effect. Very different social, political, economic, and cultural traditions and backgrounds (as may be encountered at the international level) may mean that information cannot be shared effectively unless or until it has been interpreted or translated to the context of the particular tradition or environment.
- Within the international context again, there is often the additional problem that the information is shared among or with the wrong

people. The people who participate in international exchanges and conferences (where information sharing is supposed to occur) are often the top people, the bosses, and not the "doers," the individuals whose function it would be to implement the new technology or innovation.

- Thirdly, information sharing will be possible only if the institutional or bureaucratic environment permits it to occur. In some of the developing countries, there may be no demand for information; no incentive to seek or receive the information. There may be, in other words, no audience for the information, or the audience may be totally passive or non-responsive.
  
- Finally, even assuming that information can be shared, this may or may not lead to the exchange or utilization of technology. The difference between exchange of appropriate technology information on the one hand, and transfer (i.e., implementation and utilization) on the other, should be recognized by public managers. Just sharing information about a technology or innovation with a potential beneficiary may not be enough to allow the receiver of the information to adopt the technology. Simply learning about and wanting to take advantage of an innovation or technology often is not enough to lead to actual adoption, especially in a developing country.

This is a point often lost on international assistance organizations. At the least, some consideration should also be given to the exchange of personnel. Perhaps a more certain way to bring about technology transfer is to avail the receiving community of the services of individuals from the donor community who have had extensive experience in the development and implementation of the innovation or technology. Such exchange of people may be critical to ensure implementation. Alternatively, personnel from the receiving community

can be sent to the donor community to receive thorough training and hands-on experience in the implementation and operation of the technology so that they will be able, on their return, to implement the changes in their own environment.

B. Lack of Money, Skilled or Experienced Manpower, and Time

Lack of resources obviously limits the ability of many organizations, communities, and countries to transfer and utilize new technologies and innovations. The impacts of limited financial resources and lack of skilled and experienced manpower have received much attention in the development literature. What receives much less recognition is the fact that many organizations and communities are also faced with severe time constraints. In the developing countries, for example, the nature of the needs, popular expectations, and political realities are such that public managers have to produce in an environment where time is clearly a scarce commodity. In fact, money, skilled manpower, and time can be viewed as the three critical resources which enable a community to transfer and utilize new technologies and innovations.

Where a community has a relative abundance of one resource, it can trade this off for the scarce resource. For example, many of the developed countries took hundreds of years to reach their present stage of technological development. Time can be said to have been an "abundant" resource for them. In the petroleum-producing developing countries on the other hand, money is "abundant" but time for implementing change is perceived as very short. A trade-off of money for the scarce resources of manpower and time is clearly an element of development strategy in those countries. The real obstacle, however, is in those communities or countries which are faced with severe scarcities on all three fronts. They have neither money, skilled manpower, nor time. The public manager in this type of environment has a special responsibility to alter his/her perception of the function or role of technology to emphasize making the citizenry more productive. Public management institutions should seek to stimulate the indigenous creativity of the citizenry by providing a broad range of options and by encouraging flexibility and technological choice.

#### IV. Summary of Principal Recommendations

The recommendations which follow derived from the group's conviction that existing public management institutions tend to adopt extremist positions on the matter of what or which technologies are to be adopted. They either favor large-scale, centralized, or traditional technologies, or they favor small, decentralized, or community-based technologies. The following recommendations, above all else, argue for flexibility and the introduction of technological choice over a broad range of options. A corollary of this is that the emphasis should be not on the technology, but on making the citizenry more productive. The focus of technology must be on people -- their needs, aspirations, and creativity.

A. The first recommendations of the group concerned institutional arrangements:

1. Office of Technology Information - Public managers should encourage their governments to establish Offices of Technology Information whose functions will be to receive and route technology information, ideas, or proposals to appropriate agencies, organizations, or individuals. The objective of these offices will be to help make available to the citizenry information on a broad range of technology alternatives.
2. Demonstrations of Technology Choice - National governments and/or international assistance agencies should create and support demonstrations of, or laboratories for, the application of technology choices.
3. International and Regional Institutions - Increased support and resources should be provided to existing international and regional institutions engaged in the dissemination of information on the application and choice of technology.
4. Professional and Governmental Associations - National governments and international assistance agencies should encourage the formation

and development of professional and governmental associations that can interact nationally and internationally.

5. Strengthening Local Governments - Public managers should strongly support the strengthening of local governments, their decision-making, and their local service-delivery capacities.
6. Public Administration Curriculum - Universities and training institutions should be encouraged to include issues regarding technological choice in public administration curricula.
7. Research and Development - Research institutions should be encouraged to allocate more resources to the development and dissemination of improved systems of technological choice.

B. The second category of recommendations focused on processes which public management institutions should foster to encourage technological choice:

8. Financial and Other Incentives - Financial and other incentives should be provided within public institutions to encourage personnel to seek out and utilize alternative or appropriate technologies.
9. Participative Decision-Making - Public managers should deliberately promote more open and participative planning and decision-making processes -- open to both employees and constituency groups.
10. Capacity Building - Governments and educational and research institutions should give attention to and allocate resources for building knowledge, skills, and implementation capacity of local constituency groups.
11. Low-Cost Methodologies - National governments and international assistance agencies should provide support and resources for the development of low-cost and cost-effective needs analysis, priority setting, and technology assessment methodologies.

12. Total Project Approach - International assistance agencies should provide assistance, not just for the dissemination of technological information or for needs analysis, but also for skill development, exchange of people and actual implementation of new technologies.

TOPIC 8 --- STRENGTHENING ADMINISTRATIVE  
CAPABILITIES OF GOVERNMENTS

Moderator and

Chief Planner: Faqir Muhammad (UN)  
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Rapporteur and  
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This topic, developed by the United Nations in co-operation with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the Organization of American States, the Inter-American Development Bank, and the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, was directed toward the likely demands on public administration capabilities in the 1980s and the potential strategies for meeting these demands, including socio-political, administrative, and budgetary reform strategies.

I. Background

Public administration capabilities always tend to lag behind national needs. The reasons are obvious. These include rapidly increasing demands on administrative systems, pre-occupation with crises and their management, rapidly changing socio-political and technical environments, and, too often, the absence of prior planning and investment for diagnosing and defining anticipated requirements. The demands on public administration also grow in proportion to government efforts to plan, direct, and manage their national economies.

Demands on administrative systems in the 1980s are bound to grow further. At the same time, some of the variables affecting the style and substance of public administration are also likely to undergo significant change. For example, there is a manifest dissatisfaction with public institutions and services in many countries. People generally show an ambivalence in their attitude towards public institutions. On the one hand, they criticize them for inefficiency, lack of productivity, inability to solve problems, and other vices, and therefore advocate a lesser role for them. On the other hand, they expect public institutions to meet new social needs and situations. In some countries, there has been criticism of

the "high cost" of government. The old optimistic view of availability of unlimited resources for meeting the social needs is also being replaced by growing concern about resource limitations and by designing systems to function in the face of scarcities.

In the case of the developing countries, some new preoccupations have also emerged to influence the requirements of public administration capabilities. These include, for example, the concept of basic needs as the centerpiece of development, with all its administrative implications; and the establishment of a new international economic order to promote their opportunities for economic and social development. Exploitation of science and technology for development is still another concern of all countries.

There is a growing realization in most countries that the interface between public institutions and the public ought to be changed to allow greater citizen involvement in public decision-making and in implementing programs of direct interest to them.

These are only illustrative of the kind of issues bearing upon public administration capabilities. There is no denying the fact that a sort of malaise pervades many administrative systems and that urgent measures are needed to restore public administration to the mainstream of development and to win citizen confidence in it.

Approximately 40 persons participated in the discussions on this topic. Primarily practitioners (although the academic community was adequately represented), they represented the views of both developed and developing countries. They attempted to take a future-oriented look at public administration capabilities required for the 1980s in the light of current concerns and anticipated developments. To facilitate the discussions, and to take into account the topics assigned to other groups, the participants dealt with the following four major themes:

- a. Public administration capability requirements in the 1980s;
- b. Strategies for strengthening public administration capabilities;

- c. Managing and motivating public servants; and
- d. Designing and implementing public service delivery systems.

## II. Public Administration Capability Requirements in the 1980s

Identification of those specific external forces which will probably impinge upon public administration capabilities in the 1980s was deemed essential in order to plan to meet forthcoming demands.

The ravages of inflation take a toll at almost every level of government. The lack of adequate resources, both physical and human, and the demand for their equitable distribution at a time of significantly increased expectations related to the quality of life, present problems of immense proportion. These pressures are intensified and exacerbated by the efforts of advocacy groups -- coalitions of persons in or outside the government (political or non-political) making demands of the system and, within public administration, unions asserting their right to form a new partnership with management.

The very size of existing and continuing organizations and the fact that they will probably grow larger to meet ever-increasing demands on them, while generally seeking more efficiency, tends to make the delivery of services a faceless, impersonal process which has probably been a significant contributor to the poor image of the public administrator as well as his subordinate employees. This last problem is especially pernicious, since it is self-fulfilling; and a vicious circle is started leading the public to believe that institutions are incapable of accomplishing their missions. This, in turn, leads highly competent civil service candidates to seek employment elsewhere, thus further lessening administrative capabilities.

Last, but not least, is the need for clarification of the role of the public administrator vis-a-vis his political superiors. In many countries, particularly those having a one-party political system, it is believed that politicization of the entire civil service is not only desirable but absolutely

necessary. In others, a merit system is highly esteemed.\* Each country must determine the proper approach for its own situation after careful evaluation of the public administrators' roles in support of implementing political decisions and in the development of political strategies.

Each of these forces taken singly presents a significant problem; collectively they form a puzzle of staggering proportions. To cope, public administration will need to develop new capabilities as well as adapt existing techniques in such a way as to maximize the potential for the delivery of services in a dynamic, flexible, humanistic manner.

### III. Strategies for Strengthening Public Administration Capabilities.

Aside from those coming from the public service itself, public administrators are drawn from diverse backgrounds: the private sector, the academic community, or the military, to name the most important. In many countries, strong reliance is made on the graduates of schools of public administration who then are given specific training for the accomplishment of assigned duties. While this has worked well for some, it has not been effective for others. In those instances where it has worked well, this approach should be reinforced but with one major caveat. Academic institutions like governments tend to become large, bureaucratic, self-protecting, and atrophied with time. They must be energized to insure that their graduates are able to meet the demands of the 1980s.

One frequently cited deterrent to successful public administration is the lack of accurate information on which appropriate plans can be formulated. Not infrequently, the grand statements found in writing are not an accurate description of a government's objectives. Furthermore, the role it

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\*Editor's Note: The assumption that policy acceptance or leadership (as a form of politicization) and a merit approach to employment are utterly incompatible is, of course, open to challenge.

intends to play in meeting these objectives is either unclear or unstated. In these instances, the public administrator must make himself indispensable to his political superiors if he is to be effective. It was also noted that there is a tendency on the part of the public administration community to give the appearance of effecting change through the use of technical jargon, while substantive changes occur primarily through political processes. Exemplifying political reforms have been: (a) the creation of new departments and (b) civil service reform. The degree of the public administrator's involvement in the political process may vary from country to country depending upon heritage and other factors, but involvement appears to be indispensable. It might be as simple as merely explaining alternatives or as pervasive as full-scale political participation. In any event, the time-honored division of labor with the politician as legislator and the public administrator as implementer has been strongly challenged.

Increased use of approaches that are innovative for some nations must be encouraged. One developing country, for example, has effectively used academic institutions as catalysts for change, acting as instruments to bring program and project management techniques to bear on several cross-cutting issues. The method has had substantial success in that milieu and is recommended for adoption by others in similar circumstances.

Over the past few decades, an increased use of atypical government institutions such as government corporations has been made when bureaucratic procedures appeared to threaten the success of specific programs or projects. In the not too distant past, many accepted this approach as the wave of the future. Today, however, it is being challenged on the grounds of efficiency, economy, and effectiveness. These institutions need to be examined in a historical public administration perspective to determine whether their special status actually brought about results significantly different from what would have been achieved through normal channels. If they have been successful, their continued and increased usage would be appropriate; otherwise, different approaches will be necessary to provide a built-in antidote to perceived bureaucratic rigidity.

One point that was strongly made was that the life of a reformer can be a dangerous one and that his tenure may well be of short duration. Thus, international support for

reform initiatives is not only useful but imperative if needed changes are to take place. Not all public administrators are willing to be unemployed heroes.

Thus, a broad range of strategies for strengthening public administration capabilities was explored, from the theoretical and academic to the very practical and specific. The conclusions reached are offered either as a point of departure for further study or as models to emulate under like circumstances.

#### IV. Managing and Motivating Public Servants

The challenge of the 1980s will be for public administrators not simply to manage but to be recognized leaders. To assume this role they must, at a minimum, be sensitive to and probably involved in political processes to one degree or another. They will also be required to develop clear organizational goals. The greatest challenge, however, will be to recruit and retain a competent staff, able to work as a team and dedicated to excelling in the accomplishment of the organization's mission.

A system of rewards and punishment, in the traditional sense, does not seem to be the primary motivating force it once appeared to be. Rather, while these forces must be considered, there seem to be other factors separating the bad or mediocre employee from the excellent one.

The question of appropriate salary rates is one that has never been satisfactorily resolved. On the one hand, the public's perception of the public administrator is frequently one of the lazy, elitist, pampered, overpaid, and sometimes corrupt bureaucrat; on the other, there is the view of the dedicated, self-sacrificing, hard-working, and underpaid contributor to the public welfare. The truth undoubtedly lies some place between these extremes. One of the few issues which can be measured objectively is that of salary. Studies should be conducted at the national and international levels as a minimum to determine whether government salaries are less than, or on a par with, or exceed those in the private sector. With that question resolved, the larger issue of what the relationship between them should be can be approached.

Similarly, the issue of relative security of the manager in the public service versus the private sector should be resolved. While in some countries the tenure of government employees seems to be all but absolute, in others the private sector seems to be at least equally if not more secure. Research should be conducted to obtain more specific information related to the current status; then the question of what it should be can be addressed.

One issue of great concern to the participants was that of the general image of the public administrator -- a bad one. With the continued expansion of government functions, a more talented breed of employee will be required. Yet the current image is such that it is not only difficult for governments to recruit the best but they are losing highly talented employees in whom they have made substantial investments. This trend must be reversed if the challenges of the 1980s are to be met. Whether the answer is better public relations or new research into motivation or both, considerable attention must be paid to this issue.

#### V. Designing and Implementing Public Service Delivery Systems

The primary issues and problems of the 1980s requiring planning and prioritization for public service delivery systems include, but are not limited to, the population explosion, food shortages, the energy crisis, environmental pollution, and the widening gap between the rich and the poor.

Organizations, by definition, have a preoccupation with control. Unfortunately, some organizations have become more concerned with control than with their primary mission, the delivery of services to the ultimate consumer. They have not learned how to maintain processes necessary to the central government while decentralization to the local government level is accomplished. In other countries, governments have approached problems at the central level, recognizing that they could not reach the individual. They have then organized regionally and sectorially to insure that the central government's mandates were carried out and that the ultimate consumer benefited as intended.

There is, in some countries, a tendency to provide services to the more affluent while ignoring those who truly are in dire need of assistance. In one country, for example,

20 percent of the farmers occupy 80 percent of the land and grow 80 percent of the agricultural products. The government concentrated on this 20 percent of the population to the detriment of the majority of the farming community, the segment working and living at subsistence level, which most needed assistance.

In many nations, heavy reliance has been placed on institutes of public administration located either in universities or the governments themselves. Generally speaking, they did an excellent job of developing replacements for colonial powers but tended not to assess the impacts of changing values, new challenges, etc. Thus the training, while useful, was not complete. Many believe that this resulted from the fact that the instructors are middle and upper class oriented, remote from the villages and masses, removed from basic problems, and advocates of the status quo.

Perhaps the greatest challenges in implementing public service delivery systems will be the development of atmospheres in which creativity can be exercised and the development of positive attitudes on the part of those within the system. Creativity is a threat to many because it is a challenge to the comfortable status quo. Yet if progress is to be made, positive changes must occur. A change in attitude on the part of many public servants, if they are to be able to approach and deal with the public effectively, must also occur. It is imperative that they view themselves as part of a system to deliver a product to the ultimate client. This position does not make the public servant superior to those for whom the product is intended.

There was also a consensus that decentralization to the lowest possible levels must occur while maintaining equity at those levels.

## VI. Recommendations

As indicated, participants in this topic attempted, building but not dwelling on the past and with a full understanding of the current state-of-the-art, to take a future-oriented view of public administration capabilities required for the 1980s in the light of current concerns and anticipated

developments. In this frame of reference, a number of recommendations evolved which the participants, albeit not always unanimously, believed important enough to warrant further action. In synopsis, the recommendations are:

- The role of public administration in political affairs must be reexamined.
- The effectiveness of academic institutions must be evaluated and appropriate action, if any, initiated.
- The effectiveness of internal training programs must be evaluated and appropriate action, if any, initiated.
- The utility of "out-of-the-normal-pattern" organizations should be examined to determine whether they should be used more or less frequently.
- There should be an in-depth exploration of new approaches to flexible public administration structures.
- There needs to be further research regarding the process of decentralization while adequate but not overbearing control is maintained.
- Methods for improving the image of public administration must be developed.
- The desirability of tenure in civil service positions has been challenged and should be examined.
- The proper relationship with advocacy groups (including unions) should be established.
- There is a significant need for further research regarding motivation.
- The increased use of personnel interchange programs should be explored.

- Definitive studies must be conducted to determine the disparity of salaries between the private and public sectors at the international, national, and local levels.
- Similarly, studies should be conducted to validate or dispel the thesis that public employment is more secure than private.

While these recommendations do not provide a basis for initiating immediate changes, they represent an attempt to focus direction toward actions that will permit the public administrator to cope effectively with the major issues of the 1980s.

TOPIC 9 --- ACHIEVING BETTER PROGRAM  
MANAGEMENT, PERFORMANCE,  
AND PARTICIPATION

Co-Moderators:	Beatriz M. de Souza Wahrlich	(Brazil)
	Benoit Atangana Onana	(Cameroun)
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Host Coordinator:	Kenneth L. Kornher	(USA)
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Rapporteur:	Rogério F. Pinto	(OAS)

This subdivision of the Conference sought to find means for improving both long-established public programs and those with newer emphases, especially programs aimed at extending social benefits, such as in rural and urban action.

I. Public Programs: Their Nature and Links with Public Policy

After struggling with the definition of a public program, the group agreed that, while definitions varied, the core concept behind a public program was shared by all present. A public program was therefore regarded as a basic aggregation of an organization's task in response to public policy. Accordingly, a program generally integrates several projects and has a medium-term duration relative to the life of its parent institution. There was moderate agreement around the proposition that programmatically continuity provides support for institutional vitality. It was felt by some that, rather than being linked to the parent institution, public programs have a wider base of supporting links, mostly political in nature. Likewise, the group was split around the issue of relationships between a public program and the organizational structure that supports it. Some felt that programs reflected departmental structures; others felt that programs were shaped mostly by public policy and therefore had their existence subordinated to policy. Consequently, public programs were seen to fluctuate politically rather than being anchored in organizational structures.

The group went on to focus on the relationships between program planning and implementation. Again, there was no agreement on whether the weaknesses of program management rested with the planning phase or with implementation.

While it was felt that these stages were inextricably linked, the group agreed that those who plan public programs are not usually those who have the responsibility to carry them out. The difference between the two stages of program management, therefore, gained some relevance in group discussions. In referring to the practical problems of public program management, the group agreed that program design and planning were not nearly as critical as the vicissitudes of implementation. The group reached agreement on the proposition that good program management requires a fine combination of planning and administrative abilities. Being practically effective in managing a program requires staying in touch with reality by constantly monitoring the environment, which involves the internal as well as the external context within which a program operates.

The group accepted the notion that to manage a program is to make things happen through others and, therefore, involves the management of human as well as technical systems. The human system extends well beyond the human resources available to the program manager, to include the recipients of program benefits. The issue of internal and external participation became central to the group's discussions. Participation was seen to help managers validate premises on which programs rested and thus contribute to program effectiveness.

With the emergence of the issue of participation, the group moved away from an input orientation to program management and towards an output emphasis, where the recipient of program benefits occupies a focal role. At this point, it was suggested that managerial sciences traditionally focused on the input side of program management, the improvement of which is invariably associated with upgrading input components. The focus on the outputs and the relationships with the recipients of program services, according to the group, posed a new question for which the established notions of management sciences were inappropriate. The discussion the first subtopic came to closure with the realization that participatory requirements of public program management called for a body of theory and informed practice yet to be fully developed. It was stated that, while the concepts of participation had been around for quite some time now, little was known about real participatory public program management. The group agreed that increasing efforts should be undertaken to explore, research, and document cases of real participatory public program management and attempt to relate program outcomes to such managerial practices.

## II. Managing Programs for Social Benefits

This session started with a slide presentation featuring an action research project focusing on rural development in Nepal. The action research methodology and its application in rural development was illustrated with a real project. The main innovative dimension of this methodology was the approach to data gathering and the utilization of information in the development of solutions to rural problems. Unlike in the traditional project approach, data is gathered by the recipient clientele rather than by researchers. The assumption is that a social system becomes better prepared to act on the basis of knowledge that it develops by itself. This constitutes an improvement over the traditional approach where knowledge is developed by an outside consultant who then attempts to persuade the system to move in the direction of the solutions derived from an exogenous knowledge base. The illustration went on to describe the advantages of the action research approach in terms of a high level of commitment and quality participation of the client system.

The slide illustration led the group to the realization that social programs pose social-educational as well as managerial challenges. These programs are generally designed to enable people to adopt new values and change their lifestyles. These are challenges which require more than just managerial capacity.

The challenge is further compounded because social programs are invariably geared to the socially disadvantaged and consequently those who are least prepared to benefit from program opportunities. Since the socially disadvantaged are ill prepared to articulate their needs, the quality of their participation decreases. When confronted with a client system that does not articulate demands, social program managers usually make the mistake of deciding on what is best for the disadvantaged. At this point, the participatory cycle is short-circuited, and social programs fail. There was a consensus that social program managers have a responsibility for creating the means by which the disadvantaged can provide inputs into the decision making of programs designed to benefit them. Participatory evaluation was suggested as an effective means of providing this access; it reverses the usual top-down approach to social action programs.

There was wide agreement that the major obstacle that social action programs have to overcome is their tendency to be based on the assumption that the public sector has to do something to the socially disadvantaged rather than for them and with them. In exploring the root causes of such a penchant, the group focused on the tendency of public administration to act on its own premises and energy rather than that of the recipient client system. Examples were provided of social programs which are designed and managed from the perspective of the donor organization rather than from a view of the needs of the recipient clientele. This problem was well summed up by the statement: "In social programs the delivery system takes precedence over the acquisition system".

Some participants felt that social programs were afflicted mostly by social policy problems rather than managerial problems. The program weaknesses, according to these participants, are a mere reflection of policy shortcomings. The premise behind this point was that social policy does not necessarily lead to social programs with large managerial components. It is improper, according to this point of view, to think of "managing" social change. It was further stated that the traditional management science approach was most inadequate to confront social programs.

A point was made to the effect that programs for social benefit are not really different from other programs, except for the structure of benefits. It was further suggested that programs be categorized in terms of who ultimately benefits from its results. Again, this becomes a matter of social and economic policy rather than a managerial problem. The group went on to discuss the issue of social benefit/cost analysis.

This subtopic concluded with a brief discussion of the severe limitations which international organizations confront in the social programs area. This limitation was seen to be rooted in the great problems of participation of client systems because of the requirement that international organizations work through governments. Internationally sponsored programs have to be processed and approved by national and local governments before they reach the ultimate beneficiaries. The chances for program distortions increase with the number of jurisdictions involved.

As was the case in the previous subtopic, this one came to a close with the realization that means to deal with the policy and management imperatives of social programs require continuing synthesis. There is much hopeful, albeit scattered, experience but much work still to be done.

### III. The Role of the Program Manager

This subtopic started off with the proposition that to manage is to achieve a balance between matters of technical content and matters of human processes. Some participants felt that managerial competence was not sufficient for public program management, which also requires "technical leadership". Some discussion time was dedicated to other definitions of the managerial role such as : "to manage is to facilitate change" or "to arbitrate between alternative uses of resources". It was pointed out that often a manager's performance is measured in terms of his capacity to spend. In an environment scarce of resources, this proves to be most dysfunctional.

Traditionally, the managerial role has been seen as one of planning, organizing, gathering information, and deciding. This very rational approach to the managerial role has been shown to be quite unrealistic, as a closer look at the manager's day-to-day practices demonstrates. In the political environment of public program management the manager is further removed from a purely rational posture. It was also agreed that if one becomes a manager mainly because of his technical leadership capacity, he is likely to become mostly a manager of technical processes and overlook the critical human and social systems which unavoidably surround the managerial function.

The group went on to consider the constraints of public program management. It was proposed, in this context, that a manager is as good as the resources he has to work with. Stated differently, leadership is no better or no worse than followership. Out of the discussion that ensued came the opposite point of view which states that followership is no better or no worse than leadership. Finally, the group agreed that the burden was on the manager to work with what he has got and to make the best of it.

Also bearing on the managerial role is the circumstance that the manager functions within an institution which may or may not be supportive of his particular role, especially

in the governmental context. Delegation was suggested as a way to overcome certain constraints, so that the manager can then free himself to focus on the more critical problems. Delegation, however, borders on participation which entails certain responsibilities. The management of participation requires human systems skills that few managers possess. On this note the group started focusing on managerial skills.

To be a public program manager requires the ability to reconcile often conflicting values, while keeping the public interest in mind. This requirement calls for suitable temperament as well as skills. Not everyone has the inclination for public service, especially in light of the constant challenges to the public interest. Resolving the value conflicts associated with the preservation of the public interest requires more than rational competence. In a cost-conscious environment, the manager's job is uniquely difficult, and he has to develop skills which are not necessarily consistent with the traditional managerial role.

The ability to elicit and process information was discussed as a critical skill for the modern manager. It was also suggested that not all managers are amenable to managing on the basis of information but are rather more susceptible to following their "instincts" or intuition. The discussion concluded with the realization that managerial roles and styles vary considerably with national cultures. A film was presented which illustrated that point as pertains to the Japanese management style.

#### IV. General Comments

Group discussions highlighted the diverse purposes, definitions, and contexts of public program management. A rich variety of experience was brought to the sessions by the participants. Respect for the diversity of experience and circumstances surrounding the management of different types of programs in different countries gave the discussions a quality of realism and credibility. Underlying themes emerging were: (1) the need to address public program management in an interdisciplinary, contextual fashion, and (2) the central roles of creative analysis, leadership, commitment, team building, and social mobilization in improving program performance.

There are no easy answers to be found either in the rationalistic approaches represented by planning, management sciences, and engineering, nor in the behavioral approaches of group process and participation. There are immense challenges and substantial rewards for program managers and teams that can make programs work with limited resources in complex environments, and similarly for action researchers and educators who analyze, synthesize, and convey to others the lessons of experience.

The clear recognition of the contextual, multifaceted nature of program management is a sign of hopeful realism. The group was fully ready to accept the responsibilities that this recognition implies. We can only recommend continuing learning based on comparative experience, high professional standards, and lots of hard work.

TOPIC 10 --- DEVELOPING ADMINISTRATIVE  
POLICIES AND STRATEGIES  
FOR MANAGING CHANGE

Moderator and  
Chief Planner: Derry N. S. Ormond (OECD)  
Host Coordinator: Warren B. Buhler (USA)  
Rapporteur: Ravi Kapil (OECD)

Simultaneous pressures have emerged to reduce public expenditures, fight inflation, conserve resources, protect the environment, simplify bureaucratic processes, decentralize decision-making and services, increase productivity, and at the same time expand employment and social and economic welfare. Formulated with intensive participation by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), this sequence of four work sessions examined the questions being posed and some of the approaches being developed, primarily in industrialized countries, to adapt their public administration systems to the heightened complexities of the industrial society.

Three of these sessions were devoted to an examination of the substantive issues of Decentralization, Privatization, and Citizen Participation, with the final session devoted to a general review and wrap-up on strategies for managing change. The purpose was to promote an exchange of views on the international experience acquired with the three above-mentioned approaches, which are now being widely considered as strategies for adapting public management systems to the changing circumstances confronting contemporary societies. The discussion was not designed to come up with either final conclusions or recommendations to individual countries. The issues were examined on the basis of six case studies drawn from the United Kingdom, France, Switzerland, Yugoslavia, Italy, and Canada.

I. General Approach

There was a general consensus among the approximately 35 participants that their respective national public management systems were indeed faced with an inescapable need to change, in order to cope better with the altered socio-economic environment produced by the events of the 1970s. Since most

of the participants in these Topic sessions were drawn from industrialized societies, with relatively stable administrative structures and traditions, this need was not seen primarily in terms of improved efficiency and effectiveness of existing administrative organization. Rather, the problem of coping with change was treated by the participants as a policy problem which required a reexamination of some of the conventional wisdom which has hitherto guided approaches to public management improvement.

The basic premise was that there is wide-ranging dissatisfaction on the part of the citizenry, as well as the leadership, in industrialized societies with the way public management systems are currently functioning. While the reasons for this may vary from country to country, there is a growing perception of the bureaucracy as a self-perpetuating institution which, while consuming an ever-larger proportion of national resources, is failing to perform as effectively as it could or should. This perception of a gap, between social needs and legislative intent on the one hand and administrative response on the other, is matched by a sense that rigidities in structures and procedures prevent an effective and timely adaptation of the administrative system to the exigencies of a rapidly changing environment. In short, modern societies risk becoming saddled with increasingly obsolescent machinery for managing their public affairs.

In order to develop fresh approaches to the problem of coping and adapting to change, the time may perhaps have come to reexamine, from the perspective of the 1980s, some classical issues in political science and public administration. Among the most salient of these appear to be the issues of administrative decentralization, the public use of private initiatives for attaining public purposes, and the problem of citizen involvement in the achievement of administrative goals. This reexamination, however, needs to be undertaken in full recognition that the traditional approach to administrative adaptation, i.e., through expanded resource utilization, is no longer feasible. An effective control on public expenditure growth has to be a sine qua non of any strategy for public management improvement for the foreseeable future.

## II. Decentralization

The decentralization of public administration has long occupied a central position in the agenda of national debates on public management. In the view of the participants, however, no consensus yet exists on the results of the international experience with initiatives in the matter. In the past two decades there has been an uncritical, almost faddish, tendency to treat decentralization as a panacea for numerous administrative deficiencies. The issue is much more complex.

Decentralization must be treated above all as a political device with both power as well as technical administrative ramifications. This requires that the political implications of proposals for administrative decentralization need to be clearly understood, if not agreed upon, in order to assess their relevance, feasibility, and utility. Pressures towards decentralization are often generated by a desire to expand democratic patterns of public management. Experience to date is mixed on this point; there is no necessary connection between the two. A more centralized system has often been necessary in order to promote a greater degree of distributive justice. Often, too, demands for greater centralization have come from the lesser-developed areas of the national system.

The same holds true for the argument that decentralization necessarily brings a more responsive and flexible delivery of public goods and services at lower costs to the taxpayer. Where national political and administrative traditions provide for few guidelines for local self-government and decision-making, decentralization has often resulted in the growth of parallel bureaucracies at added costs to the public treasury but few marked improvements in the quality of public management.

Bearing this in mind, the participants nonetheless agreed that decentralization of central government functions should be treated seriously as a possible approach to overcoming public management inadequacies. A number of critical questions were identified as follows:

- (1) Which fields of public policy or kinds of government services can be decentralized most easily and which cannot? There are no clear

answers here. It was suggested that decentralization in the discharge of administrative tasks should always be considered and tried whenever new functions are being introduced - provided there are no great regional disparities in the system.

- (2) What is the minimum degree to which central controls must be maintained at all costs? International experience would seem to indicate that uncertainty on this score is a major factor inhibiting a more systematic assessment of the administrative utility of decentralized modes of operation. This problem reduces itself to a concern on two points:
- (a) how to maintain a necessary degree of political control from the center while decentralizing administration; and
  - (b) to what extent revenue responsibility can be divorced from administrative responsibility while yet ensuring effective and responsive administration on a decentralized basis.

The discussion on these issues brought out a general consensus that administrations contemplating decentralization need to distinguish between decision-making authority and control over resource generation and personnel, with each area subject to different degrees of central control. A variety of different mixes are possible and should be tried. While no across-the-board generalizations or recommendations can be made, an international exchange of experience would be particularly useful at this stage.

- (3) Finally, the participants emphasized that a program of administrative decentralization requires for its successful implementation, the presence of supporting institutions or mechanisms. Particular mention was made of the important role of political parties in

mediating and mitigating hierarchical conflicts which are inevitable. Furthermore, there is also some evidence to show that decentralization has been most successful when it has been backed up by local politicians who are local enthusiasts and see their careers in local terms.

### III. Privatization

The second session was devoted to examining the current state of thinking on greater use of private actions to reduce pressures on public administration. Early in the discussion it became obvious that the term "privatization" is used internationally in a variety of different senses. At least three alternative uses of the term were identified, namely:

- (1) Institutional aspect of endowing public institutions with attributes of private enterprise, e.g., hiring and firing authority or ability to raise funds in the capital market. Semi-public entities like the United States Post Office, TVA, COMSAT, and the Societe de'Economie Mixte in France are representative examples.
- (2) Contracting out public services delivery to private organizations, in the belief that they would thereby be performed more efficiently. Local government services appear to be the only area where programs of this type have been initiated thus far.
- (3) Deregulation. The goal here is to get the government out of the people's hair by reducing governmental command and control and letting services demanded by the public be subject to market forces.

While ideological and political value preferences clearly influenced the discussion, the participants nonetheless made an effort to identify the main elements which justify consideration of privatization - howsoever defined - as a strategy for change:

- (1) There is a growing belief that there are technological, financial, and organizational limits to what government can reasonably be expected to do. Though no clear guidelines exist, enough comparative experience has been acquired to show that large organizations entail inherent inefficiencies. The search for more efficient public management therefore requires that privatization in any or all its forms be given serious consideration. It is, however, not correct to assume that privatization necessarily implies the hiving off of public functions to the private sector. Where political preferences do not allow for a changed relationship between the public and private sectors, or the private sector is considered immature, it is still possible for government decisions to be based on the market. A more imaginative use of tax incentives for getting non-governmental entities, including social institutions such as the traditional family, to take care of health, education, and welfare functions could and should be examined seriously.
- (2) A second issue which provoked a fair amount of discussion centered on the hidden costs of privatization. A number of participants raised the problem of equity in access to public goods and services. Since much of the expansion in government activities and regulation of the economy has been due to the voters' dissatisfaction on this score, a careful assessment of the distributive impact is needed wherever privatization measures are being proposed. Some reservations were also expressed about the ability of public administration to control and coordinate an extended privatized system consistent with its accountability to the legislature and the citizenry.
- (3) Since privatization is a relatively new movement, there was very little concrete experience, particularly at the national level, which could be examined. The group tried to identify categories of government activities which lent

themselves most easily to administrative handling through alternative mechanisms. This however proved to be a difficult task, since the group did not have enough hard evidence showing that the three objectives of better public management, i.e., efficiency, effectiveness, and equity, were easily satisfied under privatized arrangements. Given the growing public discussion of the subject, the participants agreed that privatization would be an important issue of public policy in the 1980s.

#### IV. Participation

As with the first two topics, the discussion on public participation as a tool for improved public management quickly brought out that both value concerns as well as technical issues are inherent in the subject. A wide range of meanings are attached to the term and a variety of different goals are sought to be pursued. The subject was therefore examined in terms of two clusters of questions. Part of the discussion was focused on the nature and function of participation as seen in different countries. Subsequently, attention was given to assessing the advantages and disadvantages of participation, insofar as public management is concerned.

The group was unanimous in its belief that participation is clearly an integral feature of the larger body of institutions, procedures, and behaviors associated with a democratic political order. As confirmed adherents of the democratic creed, the participants could not but endorse the principle of participation as an essential device to broaden power sharing in society. They were, however, not at all sure that, in practical terms, it promoted the objective of improved management of the public's business. A high degree of institutionalized public participation - whether at the planning or the decision phase - has to be defended on grounds other than those of technical rationality and efficiency.

The participants focused their remarks overall on the dysfunctional aspects of participatory procedures. There was a general consensus that efficiency objectives, at least, are seriously compromised. Among the other deficiencies brought out were:

- (1) The uneven distribution of the ability to articulate among different groups in society. Participatory mechanisms, it was argued, tend to bias public decision-making and administrative behaviors towards meeting primarily the needs of the best organized and active groups in society. The bureaucracy is more likely to watch out for the interests of weaker sections of society.
- (2) Longer-term interests of a general nature tend to get subordinated to the short-term partial interests of activist minorities adept at manipulating political structures and procedures.
- (3) Wherever participatory procedures have been actively promoted by the government, the citizen response has been less than overwhelming. This indicates that it may perhaps be unrealistic and unreasonable to expect the average citizen to take a sustained interest in public management issues which are not of direct interest to him or her. For many people participation tends to be a leisure-time activity and thus not a particularly reliable instrument for public managers.
- (4) Direct public participation, as in referenda and initiatives, often provides "Yes/No" responses. This leads to polarization in decision choices which is particularly inappropriate during this period of complex policy challenges.

Despite this generally negative assessment of the utility of expanded public participation as an approach towards improved public management, the group nonetheless went along with the argument that a compromise has to be made between the authority of expertise and the desire of the public, in the aggregate, to influence the public management system. This is particularly relevant to efforts aimed at enhancing the effectiveness of public programs. To the extent that administrative goal attainment depends on the public's volition, there is no alternative to communication. This occurs most meaningfully

under conditions of participatory public management. Furthermore, experience with expertise has not been an especially happy one. The expert community has often tended to be resistant to change. If bad government and poor management have resulted from an excess of public participation, even worse has happened in the name of professionalism.

## V. Conclusions

During the wrap-up session the group was asked whether it could come up with any generalizations of cross-cultural validity and whether it had any proposals as to how the discussion could be taken further. The following salient points were made:

- (1) Improving public management is a challenge which goes beyond the competence of the public administration discipline. Important political values are being maximized by these efforts; in the case of democratic societies, this necessarily involves issues of power-sharing and social equity. In order for public management to cope with change, mutual understanding and close working relationships have to exist between politicians and elected officials on the one hand and public administration on the other.
- (2) The public management system is presently subjected to serious countervailing pressures. Demands for increased efficiency, reduced expenditures, and personnel cutbacks have had to be dealt with in the context of heightened public sector unionism, increased political militancy by single-issue interests, and an apparent loss of the authority of expertise. As a consequence it has become even more difficult to establish appropriate trade-off points between democracy and efficiency.
- (3) The political pressure for greater decentralization of administration will, by all indications, grow during the 1980s. So will the activism of special interest groups for influence in policy making and implementation.

If these represent the trend towards more democracy, the growing debate on privatization reflects the concern over governmental efficiency and cost reduction. Despite the reservations of professional public administration groups, all three developments will play a large role in public management debates of the coming decade.

- (4) While there are reasons for assuming that these three issues are interrelated, it is not yet clear from comparative experience that there is a correlation between them. It may be hypothesized however that while a large degree of participation and decentralization are compatible with each other, they are incompatible with moves towards privatization.
- (5) The Washington discussions should be considered as a preliminary exploration of international experience and reflection on the subjects covered by the track. Since the participants were unfamiliar with each other, a fair amount of time was spent on definitions and establishing a minimum level of mutual comprehension. The group agreed that a basis for a more precise and focused international exchange of ideas and experience had been established. It therefore proposed that systematic case studies on comparable international experience with all three strategies should be developed. It specifically recommended that:
  - (a) A framework paper should be prepared to set the stage for case studies or papers clarifying the meaning attached to the concepts of Decentralization, Privatization, and Participation in a broad range of countries.
  - (b) Cases should be structured in terms of three controlling variables which shape, if not determine, alternative national responses to the problem of improving public management: (1) State of Development; (2) Nature of the Economic System;

and (3) Nature of the Local Bureaucracy. It is only on the basis of such structured pooling of comparative experience that useful international cooperation can occur.

TOPIC 11 --- MANAGING SUB-NATIONAL  
REGIONALISM,  
DECENTRALIZATION,  
AND DEVOLUTION

Moderator and  
Chief Planner: Donald W. Whitehead (IIAS)  
Host Coordinator: L. Wade Lathram (USA)  
Rapporteur: Carlos Cordero d'Aubuisson (ICAP -  
Costa Rica)

This group, dealing with a topic developed by the Working Group on Regionalism of the IIAS, in cooperation with the World Bank and the OAS, exchanged views on policies, problems, organizational processes, and management considerations in utilizing regionalism, government decentralization and deconcentration, devolution of powers and authorities, and public participation in implementing social and economic development programs. In all its four sessions the group had good representation from almost all continents and enjoyed high levels of participation. In fact, the major benefit of this Topic group's deliberations was the opportunity to exchange experiences, ideas, and delineations of problems. Although time limitations imposed constraints on the degree of detail and depth to which the discussions could go, practically all the sub-topics aimed at were dealt with, a variety of experiences and views were drawn upon, and tangible follow-up steps were outlined.

I. Major Findings

Even in the absence of solid agreement or absolute consensus on various points, the group was quite sympathetic toward the ideas, principles, and concepts involved in the processes of regionalization, decentralization, and devolution. There were, of course, differences of opinion regarding the success of regionalism in several countries. For some participants regionalism was already a promising reality in a few areas of the world. For others, the decentralization measures even in areas supposed to represent models for the process were still far from satisfactory. A number felt that, in spite of serious attempts to decentralize, everything continued to be controlled from the center.

Nevertheless, a number of significant findings emerged from the discussions, although many warrant further study and debate:

1. The group discussed at some length the terms: regionalism, federalism, devolution, decentralization, and deconcentration. Although there was some difficulty in securing agreement on precise definitions, group consensus made it possible for these terms to be employed with adequate mutual understanding.
2. Several papers describing regionalization efforts and trends in different countries were made available to the group, for example, descriptions relating to Papua New Guinea, Portugal, Spain, the United States, Italy, Sweden, Mexico, Belgium, and Finland. The group was also given a couple of theoretical papers on the issues at hand. After extensive discussion the group arrived at the conclusion that variation in the historical and cultural context of individual regionalization efforts is a very important factor to consider in the analysis and discussion of the regionalization process. Particular emphasis was given to the differences in the regionalization process experienced by countries with different stages of development. The group did not come to any conclusions regarding the regionalization process in developing nations, since in most of these entities this process was in its experimental stages.
3. The group gave considerable attention to the advantages and disadvantages of regional policies and processes for particular countries. The different outcomes of these policies in economic, social, and political terms were also analyzed in some detail. Particular emphasis was placed on political outcomes, such as greater popular and higher democratization of administrative systems and procedures.
4. The group recognized the constraints and limitations that different political systems imposed on the utilization and implementation of different management tools. Emphasis in this discussion was on the different tools utilized by countries with central economics versus those utilized by countries with decentralized market economies.
5. The group discussed the different ways to provide for popular participation in the execution of regionalization policies and programs. The group concluded that proper motivation is the key to the success of regionalization efforts.

Successful experience shows that the process of regionalization had been preceded by intensive motivation campaigns in which a true mystique (an "act of faith" promoted by a true "regionalization priesthood") was created in advance. No less important in this process are: (a) the motivation of officials assigned from the government center through material incentives, such as proper housing, transportation, cultural activities, and better salaries and fringe benefits; and (b) the hiring and training of as many people as possible who are indigenous to the area being served.

6. The group concluded that it is especially important to train properly the management personnel to be in charge of the implementation of regionalization programs and to define clearly their authorities and responsibilities.

7. The group agreed that administrative technology and procedure must be adapted to local conditions. Particularly important is the proper adaptation of such technology and processes to the stage of development being experienced by the country in reference. Technologies useful in developed nations are not necessarily successful or even useful in developing ones.

8. In connection with the budgetary requirements needed for successful regionalization, it was evident from the discussion that decentralized operations are more expensive in money and manpower than highly centralized systems, but substantial long-range advantages usually outweigh this consideration. However, the factor of greater out-of-pocket cost had to be acknowledged. Hence, there was general agreement among group members that without proper financial resources the best designed programs are bound to fail. The group also understood that training, promotional opportunities, and career incentives are also important factors in the success of regionalization efforts.

9. Some members of the group argued that countries with centralized forms of political power (authoritarian governments) provided certain key advantages in the process of regional development. However, other members contended that more liberal systems (those with decentralized distribution of power) were more sympathetic to regional development. In those countries with a long and successful tradition of local government it was easier to carry out regionalization. Some members disputed these assumptions, arguing that even in liberal systems

the central governments still have overwhelming powers. The assumption in such cases that the localities did have real power for decision-making and for implementation of public policies was more an ideological myth than a factual reality.

10. There was a consensus on the point that it is necessary to conduct promotional campaigns to facilitate regionalization programs and trends in different contexts. It was also considered that good starting places to initiate these campaigns would be in the universities, research institutes, the press, and other mass media instruments.

## II. Follow-up Measures

Most significant was the clear desire to see the subject pursued further. The following were seen as opportunities for such follow-up:

1. An article relating to this general subject is expected to be published soon by Samuel Humes of Rider College. It will be available to interested colleagues and Conference participants.
2. There is to be a conference on "Comparisons of Approaches to Regional Development in the U.S.A. and Europe" to be held in Plymouth, England, during April 7 - 11, 1980, under the chairmanship of Michael Bradshaw at the College of St. Mark and St. John.
3. The IIAS Working Group studying the administrative aspects of sub-national regionalism, under the leadership of Donald W. Whitehead, offers an additional opportunity for continuing discussion at the IIAS Congress in Madrid in June 1980, to be preceded by a session in Barcelona.

It was the general consensus that this subject is so important that it deserves full and continuing exploration and is not amenable to one-time resolution.

CHAPTER IV  
SPECIAL OPEN FORA

Apart from the eleven topic discussion groups, one period in the Conference was devoted to Open Fora on subjects of high priority concern to public management around the world. These meetings, held concurrently, were open to any and all participants regardless of the Topic group in which they had been taking part. The Open Fora subjects were:

1. Increasing Efficiency in the Public Sector; Improving Productivity While Controlling the Growth of Bureaucracy and Expenditures. (This subject was so popular that two separate groups had to be established to permit free discussion.)
2. Problems of Crisis Management: Famine, Floods, and Other Disasters.
3. Simplifying Government Procedures.

Although time did not permit the concentration and intensity of participation over several days that characterized the regular Topic discussions, a certain cross-fertilization of concerns that had developed in various Topic groups emerged in these Open Fora, and the overwhelming preoccupation with bureaucratic effectiveness (as demonstrated in the numbers of persons who participated in Open Forum number 1) further underscored the importance that this challenge held in the minds of most participants.

Open Forum No. 1 --- INCREASING EFFICIENCY IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR:  
IMPROVING PRODUCTIVITY WHILE CONTROLLING  
THE GROWTH OF BUREAUCRACY AND EXPENDITURES

Session A.

Convenor:	John Hayes	(Canada)
Co-Rapporteurs:	Warren B. Buhler	(USA)
	Robert Bonwitt	(OECD)

### Purpose

There has been a growing perception around the world that government is becoming increasingly inefficient. People see government as growing larger, consuming an ever greater share of resources, and yet less and less responsive and capable of achieving national goals. Numerous methods for countering these tendencies have been utilized: decentralization of authority, greater public participation, and shifting government functions to private and quasi-private organizations, just to mention a few. The objective of this session was to discuss such methods and others to promote greater efficiency and productivity in government.

### Definitions

Participants offered a number of definitions of efficiency in government. They ranged from single input/output ratios for an isolated administrative function to more subjective measures of how well government is satisfying various socio-economic demands. It was noted that efficiency is by no means always the standard by which government is judged. In many countries government has the function of serving as employer of last resort, which often is in conflict with the narrower concept of minimizing resources and maximizing output. Government policy in some cases is contradictory to efficiency. Nevertheless, for the most fundamental management reasons, it was agreed that proper public management requires accountability for the use of resources and a constant striving for efficiency.

### Methods

Several methods which have been successfully utilized to promote efficient public administration were noted:

- a. Maintaining a "lean" government. It was generally agreed that the most universally sound method was simply to limit the size of government through strict controls on hiring, promotion, and the use of "across-the-board cuts" on a regular basis.
- b. Maintaining a backlog of well-planned projects. The need for government sometimes to take up the slack in the economy has often led to inefficient,

unproductive projects. Several countries noted that by keeping a backlog of well-planned projects on the shelf, they could expand government activity rapidly with little loss in productivity.

- c. Encouraging public interest in projects. It was noted that public scrutiny often encouraged greater efficiency in governmental programs.
- d. Establishing productivity councils and other change agents. Several countries noted that productivity councils had been able to focus attention on improvement opportunities. However, in every case it was noted that the productivity councils within five years had become inhibiting forces making change more difficult.
- e. Improving training. In all countries, it was stated, there was a substantial failure to properly train public managers. Several developing countries noted the need for greater international support for their training efforts and greater recognition of the importance of public managers within government.
- f. Improving planning and evaluation. The Swedish experience in providing better planning for administrative goals and issues prior to the adoption of new programs was presented as worthy of use elsewhere. No country seemed particularly pleased with how well it evaluated and reformed existing programs.

### Limiting Factors

A number of factors were presented as limiting our ability to promote greater efficiency and productivity in government.

- a. Few case studies. Everyone agreed the Conference had been valuable in identifying examples of improved public administration which could be analyzed for possible use in other countries.

In short, we need to document and trade among ourselves good and bad experiences.

- b. Lack of efficiency measures and standards. It was agreed we need to develop measures of efficiency and standards by which various administrative functions can be judged. It was felt that this would be a long-term project, but that a start had to be made.
- c. Accommodating policies promoting inefficiency. Special attention needs to be given to cases where governments are viewed as motors of development and distributors of employment. While it was agreed that cases exist in which efficiency is impossible, it was noted that inefficiency by definition involves a poor use of scarce resources. Methods do exist for coping with such pressures, such as having well-planned projects on the shelf. In part, it was agreed that greater public attention and even international support would help raise the level of interest in efficiency as a constant, rather than competing goal in government programs to spur development and provide employment.
- d. Promoting accountability for efficiency. A general sense existed that government as a system could stress better the need for greater efficiency. Changes should be encouraged in drafting programs to avoid inefficiencies or unintended impacts. Routine evaluations should be held accountable for the most efficient administration of their programs, but the political leaders and the public must recognize all the costs of the programs they establish.
- e. Use of regulation to avoid accountability. It was noted that in many countries government regulation has become a major management problem because the costs of the programs are borne by those outside government, the regulated. Regulation raises another increasingly important set of problems involving efficiency and effectiveness.

### Suggested Actions

Three follow-on actions were given priority by the participants: (1) The first was the need to document cases and disseminate information on promoting efficiency in governmental programs. The sense was that much of our experience is going unheeded. (2) The second was that the area of government productivity and efficiency deserve greater research. The feeling was that we could greatly improve our definitions and techniques through greater research. (3) The third was that the profession of public management needs to promote accountability for efficiency and give greater recognition to excellence in performance. It was felt that the profession was not establishing standards of excellence and insisting on them.

### Session B.

Convenor: Jean-Claude Garcia-Zamor (IDG)  
Rapporteur: Dona Wolf (USA)

The purpose of this session was, of course, identical to that already stated for Session A. Although there was a great deal of general discussion about the Efficiency topic in Section B, there was also more philosophizing than formulating of specific action ideas. The essence of what was recommended may be summarized as follows:

1. Governments should work closely with unions to increase productivity and to improve quality of life. Example: In one country, public service jobs were restructured to combine five inspection roles (fire protection, building codes, safety, health, and environment) into one job. It required changing top level management to effect this change and to refocus the thrust of the department to human services delivery.
2. Governments should evaluate all programs to see what functions might be returned to the private sector. Example: One country is preparing to sell eight or ten public corporations to the private sector.

3. Governments should share bureaucratic functions with the people and allow citizens to volunteer their time and service to community projects. Example: Citizens could volunteer one day a week or one month a year to specific government projects, e.g., in road construction, hospital or health care services, etc.
4. Reducing government paperwork is one method of increasing efficiency and effectiveness.
5. Greater use of "feedback" mechanisms needs to be incorporated in planning and implementing programs.
6. Politicians and policy-makers should be more involved in technical discussions and decision-making.
7. Laws should be so written as to promote change and flexibility. Policy and laws must be usable by practitioners.
8. Professors and instructors concerned with governmental affairs should work full-time occasionally as practitioners in government, in order to wed practice with theory more effectively.
9. Politicians must be made aware of the need to support employees in the public service so as to attract and retain high caliber people. Constant attacks on civil servants create low morale; low morale results in loss of competent workers and managers to the private sector and fails to attract able young persons to government service.

Open Forum No. 2 --- PROBLEMS OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT: FAMINES,  
FLOODS, AND OTHER DISASTERS

Co-Convenors: John W. Macy, Jr. (USA)  
Tidian Sy (Senegal)  
Rapporteur: Melbourne L. Spector (USA)

Following substantial discussion among the small number of participants in this Forum, consensus on a number of possible actions seemed to emerge. They are presented here in skeleton form.

1. Need for Definition and Research

A. The meaning of such terms as "crisis" and "disaster" should be categorized and made clear. This is especially the case if future discussion is to be facilitated and if exchange of experience and information among nations is to be fostered. For example, the following classifications suggest a pattern for definition:

(1) Timing or duration:

- a. Immediate or sudden: Flood  
Fire  
Blizzard  
Hurricane/Typhoon/  
Tornado  
Earthquake  
Tidal Wave (e.g.,  
Tsunami)  
Nuclear accident
- b. Gradual or long-term: Epidemic  
Insect or animal migra-  
tions (e.g., fruit  
fly)  
Drought (e.g., US dust  
bowl)  
Desertification (e.g.,  
the Sahil, portions  
of Spain)

(2) Source or origin:

- a. Natural: Most of the "immediate" above  
Some of the "long-term" above
- b. Man-made: Riots  
Civil wars  
Terrorism  
Poor land management

B. Communication with the public should be further emphasized. More work could be done on policies and ways and means of communicating with the affected public before, during, and after a crisis or disaster. The obvious purposes would be to prevent panic and disruptive, precipitate behavior; to preserve calm; and especially to achieve citizens' understanding and cooperation.

C. Technological improvements should be undertaken to forestall the worst effects of disaster. Further work could be done on architecture and engineering to minimize destruction and damage. Work is being done, for example, in Dominica on better roofing. Much work has been done, but more is needed, on building structures that are more resistant to earthquakes especially but also to floods and strong winds. In other fields, the work of epidemiologists, entomologists, and others has been going on for a long time.

## 2. Crisis as Opportunity

The aftermath of a crisis may be viewed as an opportunity to analyze crisis management for possible administrative reform in government structure, processes, and relationships. Also, technical assistance organizations have found that a major crisis can become a development opportunity for long-term work. Urban disasters have led to better city planning, improved river channeling, dam construction, and so forth.

## 3. Operational Critiquing

There seemed to be a unanimity of opinion in the group that it was important to critique the event soon after a disaster. In the United States the National Transportation Safety Board has performed this function for transportation accidents. One specific suggestion was to hold a meeting soon of the countries in, and bordering on, the Caribbean to explore special problems of that area.

Open Forum No. 3 --- SIMPLIFYING GOVERNMENT PROCEDURES

Covenor: Rebecca Polland (USA)  
Rapporteur: Edmund N. Fulker (USA)

The small number of participants in this session from seven different countries shared several "horrible" examples of overly complex, time-consuming, multi-agency-approval, maze-like government procedures required of citizens seeking access to government services, such as applying for passports, building permits, and the like. Basic issues identified were: (1) how perceptions of the proper role of government affect performance, that is, whether some problems could be solved by "getting government out" of some activities that are troublesome; (2) the matter of trust in people, that is, whether elaborate regulations and overcontrol do not result essentially from a deep-seated assumption that people are dishonest; (3) the need of governments to adapt to rising expectations of the populace.

In facing these or other sources of unwarranted complexity or sluggishness in government responses to citizen needs, a number of ideas were advanced, but almost every one carried with it some reservation as to its practicality. Among the remedies considered were: (1) reducing government involvement in functions that could just as well or better be carried on outside government (but samples of such seemed few and far between); (2) allowing citizens to make use of "brokers" or "dispatchers" who become expert in guiding individuals and businesses through the maze (but some participants viewed such a solution as a denial of equal access to the poor and uninformed and therefore a failure of government); (3) use of post-audits instead of pre-clearances; (4) use of sampling techniques and other streamlining efforts; (5) decentralization of authority to lower levels in the bureaucracy, including increased use of mutually drawn and agreed-upon guidelines (but a major barrier to decentralization cited was resistance by officials who fear loss of status, power, and territoriality); (6) contracting out some functions, even for social programs, as a means of reducing government obligations and possibly saving money (but problems of maintaining control and of contractors' hiring less-skilled persons were acknowledged); (7) increased use of petty cash funds instead of dependence on treasury checks as a means of speeding up service; (8) more emphasis in selection and training on "accountability" of candidates and employees, stressing that government employees work for the people and not as rulers; (9) arranging for "one-stop shopping", under which the agency originally contacted by the citizen takes responsibility for helping him get to the proper authority, no matter what other agency may

be involved; (10) making periodic systematic reviews of policies and procedures to make certain they are still needed in their existing form; and (11) exempting small businesses from many reports required of larger industries.

The central theme coming out of this discussion was that, since governments exist for people, efforts must be continually made to keep governmental processes flexible and responsive to changing needs and to select, train, and retain competent employees who view their role as serving the people.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION: -- ACTION AGENDA

There was never any intention that the Conference would take any formal action on issues or problems. No committee on resolutions was established. No propositions were submitted to plenary sessions. No votes were taken on any matters, even in the individual Topic Discussion Groups.

Few of the subjects or problem solutions given attention would have warranted international action; most were of a character that required action by individual states -- and even then, only with essential adaptations to fit a plan, a change of direction, or a solution, to the particular situation in a given nation.

Thus, both for reasons of intent and by the very nature of the objective to improve the delivery and management of public services in many countries and diverse situations, this Conference was not expected to arrive at formal conclusions or to chart some systematic obligatory course for future action either on an international plane or as required steps for individual nations. Nevertheless, this does not mean that no consideration was given to what the future should bring. Certainly it was hoped that emerging from the intensive discussions there would be a number of proposals and designs that would at least be suggestive to the public administration community for action, both internationally and in specific countries, even though these were not established by formal vote or similar official determination.

What happened was that some ideas seemed to generate such common support, such a consensus in expression, that it would be a great waste of energy if they were not taken into account in this Report. As already pointed out in Chapter I, some common threads of thought and finding were too obvious to ignore. Similarly, some fairly clear suggestions for action in various quarters appeared to have so much support in the discussions and in the plenary sessions that they deserve expression here.

Rather than simply list these potential action items as they are found in the specific Topic reports or in the speech summaries or elsewhere, the Editor has attempted to

consolidate and classify them by their subject coverage and present them as concluding Action Agenda in this chapter. It is impossible to claim that all significant proposals have been captured. With so many hundreds of man-hours of discussion having taken place, only a monumental verbatim transcript (and one that would never be read) could assure such completeness. Also, in the consolidation of ideas, few points will appear here precisely as they may have been expressed in dozens of different sessions or by even more individual participants. This is merely a distillation and a summation; that is all it can hope to be.

Under each major heading that follows, proposals that are gleaned from the various sessions are presented in abbreviated, telegraphic-style language -- both to save space and to facilitate rapid reading and digestion. At some points the items may appear disappointing, in that they postpone conclusive determination until after "further study" or "further exploration" at future meetings. But the Conference participants need not feel apologetic about such derivations from their efforts. However vague or inconclusive some "next steps" seem to be, they represent a very important first step in definition and evaluation that should help guarantee the quality, the practicality, and the feasibility of future action that hopefully may be more concrete.

A. FOR THE ATTRACTION, PREPARATION, AND MOTIVATION OF PUBLIC SERVANTS:

Manpower Planning

1. Manpower planning should have
  - more determined support from political leadership;
  - more realistic linking of planning to the actual use of personnel by government ministries.
2. Through one of the international bodies, a comparative survey should be made, in a representative group of countries, of the successes and failures in manpower planning.

Education and Training

3. Development of civil servants and public managers, both in pre-service education and in-service training, should emphasize the role of government employees as servants of the common good and as committed agents of change.
4. Developing nations particularly should place more emphasis on technical and professional preparation of people (engineers, physicians, agriculturists, etc.) instead of on liberal arts and law.
5. Individual countries should evaluate the effectiveness of their academic institutions and their in-service training in preparation of candidates and employees for modern government.
6. More systematic exchange of information between government and educational institutions should be fostered.
7. Training should be related more clearly to various levels of individual competence and to realistic opportunities for advancement.
8. With particular reference to the rationale and management of public enterprises, the field of public administration training should:
  - insure the continuous and increased involvement of IASIA in training for public enterprises;
  - develop criteria for experimental use on this subject;
  - train managers in the global political, social, and economic framework in which public enterprises operate.
9. Organizational responsibilities for education and training should be divided as follows: (a) professional schools or other entities within general universities should offer advanced study in public

administration leading to professional degrees; and (b) government training institutes should provide in-service programs that emphasize knowledge and skills needed to improve the competencies of managerial personnel. Both categories of institution should have adequate facilities, resources, autonomy, faculty, and means of evaluation and accountability.

10. Inter-institutional cooperation should embrace interchanges of instructional staff with practitioners, mutual research projects, and intensive forms of communication between governmental and educational organizations. This might include substantial full-time assignments of professors as practitioners in government service.
11. The Working Group of IASIA on Curricula Development is prepared to undertake technical assistance in education and training to developing nations, with the cooperation of the German Foundation for International Development.
12. Public service training institutions, as distinguished from general education institutions, should:
  - be identified with strong governmental organizations but should have maximum autonomy, especially with respect to their own personnel;
  - have practical programs related to real-life government needs but should not neglect broad-gauged theoretical study, especially for managers;
  - have a heavy research component, with research staff not being down-graded in comparison with professors;
  - be open institutions, with strong incentives and facilities for mobility of both professorial and research staff for service in governmental posts.
13. Regional training centers have a place especially among developing countries where they need not

supplant national institutions but should supplement programs offered within countries and help fill in gaps that exist within national institutions.

14. To strengthen the special role of public works in a developing economy training efforts should take these particular directions:
  - evaluating the impact of previous training efforts;
  - establishing programs responsive to local needs;
  - training mid-level technicians in maintenance and operation;
  - getting commitment for funding;
  - training in proper use of equipment;
  - planning use and placement of those trained;
  - training managers in policy guidance to political leaders.

#### Policy Involvement

15. Public administrators, especially in developing countries, must be recognized leaders. Their role in political affairs should at least be reexamined.
16. Public administrators should establish a vital and proper relationship with advocacy groups in society.
17. The role of public administrators vis-a-vis their political superiors should be clarified.

#### Client Orientation

18. Participatory management should be explored more fully -- its forms, successes, and failures. Although voluntary effort by citizens might be encouraged, relying on client or other citizen participation must be tempered by recognition of the capacity and information available in the client groups.

19. Orientation toward the interests and needs of client groups, particularly in social reform areas, must be emphasized in the selection and training of public managers.

### Ethics

20. For training in ethical performance, educational institutions and governments should develop: the curricula content needed; multiple formats to meet different needs; and codes of behavior, with enforcement features.
21. Special programs for ethical performance at senior administrative levels should be developed.
22. The Task Group on Ethics of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration should take these steps (some of which are definitely planned):
  - examine specific training modules and packages in its deliberations at the Madrid Conference of IIAS in 1980;
  - survey all institutions (both in and out of IASIA) to find what is being done in teaching ethics and public responsibility;
  - encourage broader interaction between educational institutions and government training agencies;
  - issue a newsletter on the subject, possibly through a regular insert in the IIAS Review;
  - prepare a set of learning modules and supporting teaching materials;
  - establish at the library of IIAS headquarters a clearinghouse for collection and dissemination of information on public service ethics.

Other Personnel Agenda

23. Further research on motivation factors should be conducted.
24. Improving the image of the public service should be a prime objective in all nations, and politicians should be major supporters of civil servants and not be among their irrational deprecators.
25. The effect of strong tenure features in a civil service should be reexamined.
26. Use of personnel interchange among government units should be increased.
27. To achieve maximum impact in modern public administration, more emphasis should be placed on training, criteria, and methods to improve productivity of civil servants.

B. FOR ACHIEVING IMPROVEMENT IN PUBLIC WORKS MANAGEMENT:

1. To achieve national goals through public works, programs in each country should:
  - focus more on providing public works in depressed regions;
  - increase agricultural productivity and promote self-sufficiency in food production;
  - relocate industry outside of primary cities;
  - move central government agencies outside the capital city;
  - provide public services in places other than primary cities;
  - develop the countryside through projects such as farm-to-market roads;
  - improve human settlements;

- improve communication from national to local levels;
  - promote involvement of people in planning in their communities;
  - standardize record keeping, specifications, and equipment and materials;
  - develop a master plan for coordination.
2. To improve the environment, public works should:
- develop a more comprehensive approach to planning projects;
  - balance equity and efficiency considerations in developing public participation in planning.
3. As means for promoting action in the field of public works, the discussion group should:
- establish a continuing group to serve as a central service unit for member countries;
  - expand membership to other countries;
  - issue a simple questionnaire to ascertain each country's interest in the public works function;
  - obtain financial support.

C. FOR ACHIEVING IMPROVEMENT IN PUBLIC ENTERPRISES MANAGEMENT:

1. Greater use should be made of the Documentation Center on Public Enterprises established by IIAS; and the Center should establish an international advisory board to enrich and promote its utility.
2. Additional research should be conducted on:

- theoretical analysis relating public enterprises to the evolution of political systems and to changes in environment;
- relations between public enterprises and central governments;
- management problems of individual enterprises as sources for future case studies;
- transnational, binational, and multinational public enterprises.

D. FOR ACHIEVING MORE EFFECTIVE TRANSFER AND IMPLEMENTATION OF TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION:

Institutional Arrangements

1. Public managers should encourage their governments to establish "Offices of Technology Information" to serve as channels for innovations to all the right points in their society.
2. Both national governments and international assistance agencies should sponsor demonstrations or laboratories illustrating technology choices.
3. More support should be provided to international and regional institutions engaged in the dissemination of technical information.
4. National governments and international assistance agencies should promote professional and governmental associations that can interact with each other.
5. Public managers should support strengthening of local government decision-making and service-delivery.
6. Issues regarding technological choice should be included in public administration curricula.
7. More resources should be allocated in research institutions to the development and dissemination of technological choice.

Processes to be Fostered

8. Financial and other incentives should be used in public institutions to encourage personnel to seek out alternative technologies.
9. More decision-making should be open to participation by both public employees and constituency groups.
10. The capacity of local constituency groups should be enlarged by efforts of all public institutions and educational organizations.
11. National governments and international assistance agencies should support low-cost needs analysis, priority setting, and technology-assessment methodologies.
12. International assistance agencies should support skill development, exchange of personnel, and actual implementation of new technologies.
13. "Feedback" mechanisms should be incorporated in planning and implementing programs.

E. FOR IMPROVED ORGANIZATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS:

Decentralization

1. In view of widely varying conditions in different countries, the forms and criteria for decentralization of administrative action should be tailored to fit each situation and should be researched in greater detail.
2. Citizens should be allowed to use "brokers" who are expert in guiding them through the bureaucratic maze.
3. Efforts in regionalism should be fortified by adequate promotional steps, by proper training and incentives for management personnel engaged in making this form of devolution effective, and by hiring and training as many persons as feasible from the local areas being served.

### Responsibility

4. Lines of responsibility for all processes involving direct citizen-public-servant contact should be clearly spelled out.
5. Duplicating and overlapping responsibility among ministries should be eliminated.
6. If at all feasible responsibility for any one process should be pinpointed in one organizational unit and official.
7. The original agency contacted by the citizen could be made responsible for getting him to the proper authority.

### Scope of Government Activity

8. Involvement of government in functions that could be carried on outside government should be reduced.
9. Some functions should be contracted out to semi-private organizations, but it should be recognized that privatization is not always compatible with participatory and decentralized democracy.
10. Sampling techniques instead of wholesale inquiries or surveys should be undertaken; and small businesses might be exempted from many reports required of larger industries.

### Accountability

11. Post-audits instead of pre-clearances should be used wherever feasible.
12. Petty cash funds instead of relying on treasury checks should be used to expedite service.
13. Periodic reviews of policies and procedures should be undertaken to make certain they are still needed in their existing form.

Crisis Management

14. In addition to better definitions and research in crisis management, more attention should be given to technological improvements to minimize effects, better communication with the public, prompt post-disaster critiquing, and using the occasion for administrative reform.

Paperwork Reduction

15. Reduction of government paperwork is an important method for increasing efficiency and effectiveness.

Complexities Requiring Further Study

16. Many aspects of decentralization, privatization, and citizen participation are so complicated that case studies should be conducted on these approaches to administrative improvement before they are embraced in too wholesale fashion.

F. FOR INSURANCE OF SUPPORT FOR ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM:  
(The life of a reformer can be a precarious one;  
he needs outside support.)

1. Top political backing must be assured.
2. The international community should provide both examples of success and technical and psychological backing for needed changes in any given country.
3. The international community should provide greater documentation of administrative case studies and a clearinghouse for dissemination of information about such experiences.
4. The international community should give strong backing to national managerial training efforts and to both national and international research in government productivity and efficiency.
5. The profession of public management should give greater recognition to the importance of excellence in public performance.

## EPILOGUE

None of the foregoing Action Agenda items are self-executing. Some require continuing involvement and work by the international community. Others call for specific action by work groups activated in this Conference. A number can be achieved only by convincing other bodies and influential persons of their importance and by eliciting financial support. Even those items seeking further research and study require the dedication and effort of responsible individuals in many countries and international organizations. As one of the rapporteurs concluded his report on a Topic Discussion: "We can only recommend continuing learning based on comparative experience, high professional standards, and hard work."

Nor can it be assumed that magic answers have been or will be found for the many issues involved in administrative improvement. At the minimum, the solutions and strategies must vary substantially in application to varying conditions. Each nation will ultimately have to be responsible for the adaptations and modifications necessary to fit its peculiar situation. Nevertheless, there may be some degree of universality to many of the ideas emerging from this first International Conference on Improving Public Management and Performance. It may be hoped that the Conference, and its follow-up efforts, will, above all, generate the courage to take action on those reforms that have universal applicability, the skill to adapt to local circumstances those that do not, and the wisdom to discern the difference.

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## APPENDICES

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## APPENDIX A

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APPENDIX C  
INDEX OF DOCUMENTS

The documents listed in this Appendix are those that were made available at various sessions, particularly the Topic Discussions, of the Conference. No further distribution of these is being made. A copy of any one of them may be obtained only by writing directly to the author.

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