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THE UNIVERSITY AND THE COMMUNITY
A CASE STUDY IN RESPONSIBILITY

by

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PREFACE

The problem of the proper educational philosophy at the university level has been receiving a great deal of critical attention in the past few years. This attention has been due to the growing realization of the need to reappraise the assumptions on which university education was based in the past.

Some of the questions that are often asked in connection with this reappraisal include the following: What is the role and responsibility of a university? What kind of education should the university give? How many should be educated and who should be educated? What trends should be encouraged and how should information be exchanged to further the aim of educational progress in a free society?

The central and fundamental problem in the question of what education a university should give is the relation of general education to specialized education. Should university education be a combination of the liberal arts and the technical, or should the two be separated? If they are to be joined, how best to do it?

This problem is complicated because there is no agreed model of what constitutes a university. For example, the university as conceived in the British tradition, and as conceived by the different educational agencies in the

United States differs greatly in curriculum, standards, government and admissions policy. British universities are located in communities by historical accident. The relationship which they have with their locality is presumably neighborly but rarely involves patterns of mutual support, dependence and interaction. Their "community" is larger than their locality.

The same may be said of many United States universities, but the more characteristic pattern is found where a university is designed to respond to the needs of its locality, to meet those needs through research, special training, technical assistance and various other means. Such a university is performing a service function which has been an arresting characteristic of higher education in the United States in recent years. Here we see a new and refreshing answer to the problem of the role of the modern university. The indications are that Europe is gradually if only cautiously interested in the American experiment.

Such universities have relied on the premise that a university should satisfy the needs of training for a job or profession, as well as civilizing experience of companionship with superior minds and acquaintance with the great arts of all the ages. While it is the responsibility of the university to serve society as guide and

mentor, it is also its task to send out men and women who are equipped to use and improve the means of life, as well as to inspire and direct its ends, and to be the instruments of its regeneration.

University education is far more diverse in the United States than in Europe. The American university tries to coordinate many types of education and to combine general learning for intellectual growth with specialized professional education. Admission and achievement standards vary greatly, but the primary aim is to raise the general educational level of the society. The university assumes both an active role in the affairs of the community and a measure of responsibility for community values and actions. The sequel to this is that the curriculum in some courses and programs is tailored to local needs.

The better American universities are attempting to meet their new responsibility by providing facilities for education in all academic disciplines, for the training required in the professions, and for the promotion of fundamental research. The universities have become centers of learning for the regions around them, even if only through indirect influences and part-time study programs.

This study will be focused on the efforts of the University of Southern California to serve its community by providing a carefully tailored training program in the

field of public administration for the Southern California area. Public administration is a new field of study and there is some controversy regarding its status as an academic discipline at the university level. The nature of public administration will be examined and an attempt will be made to suggest a curriculum of study that is best designed to meet the two-fold aims of a modern university education, namely training for a job or profession and civilizing the individual mind. Throughout the paper the reader may see the manner in which this particular university has identified and met its community responsibility with a practical program of training and research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITION OF TERMS	1
The problem	2
Statement of the problem	2
Hypotheses	3
Administrators can be trained	3
The university is best equipped to provide the basic educational pro- gram for the public service	4
There is no terminal point in train- ing for the public service	5
A definite curriculum aids an effect- ive public administration training program in the university	6
Case study	7
Importance of the study	7
Definition of terms used	9
Public service	9
Management	9
Pre-entry education	10
Internships	10
In-service training	10
In-service education	11
Organization of remainder of the thesis	11

CHAPTER	PAGE
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	11
Literature on university education and the public service	13
Summary	20
III. THE STUDY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	22
The scope of public administration	25
The meaning of public administration	25
The purpose of public administration	28
The processes of government	29
The quest for effective administration	30
The purpose of public administration study.	30
The management concept	32
Scientific management	33
The study of management	34
Effective administration	35
Elements of administrative management	37
Organization	37
Some aspects of organization	38
Authority	38
Responsibility	41
Other features of organization	43
Authority to determine structure	43
Unity of command	44
Departmentalization	44

CHAPTER	PAGE
	iii
The staff functions	45
Kinds of staff	47
Hierarchy	48
Conditions of group effort	52
Group solidarity	52
Purposeful behavior	52
Stability in intergroup relationships	53
Group recognition and appreciation	53
Summary	54
Administrative principles	55
The limitation of administrative principles.	56
Conclusion	60
Overview	61
IV. THE UNIVERSITY AND THE PUBLIC SERVICE	64
The role of the university	64
Introduction	64
The public service today	65
Purpose of university education	68
The responsibility of universities	70
British experience	72
Summary	74
Pre-service education	76
Introduction	76
Objectives of pre-service education	77

CHAPTER	iv PAGE
Specialization	79
Generalization	81
Liberal education	82
Summary	84
The curriculum	85
Introduction	85
The classical tradition	85
Criticism of the classical tradition	86
The new approach	88
Summary of the new approach	89
Sample curriculum	92
First two years	92
Second two years	93
Specialization	95
Conclusion	96
Public administration professional sequence	97
Summary	98
Methodology	99
Part-time teachers	100
Case method	100
Summary	103
V. IN-SERVICE TRAINING, EDUCATION AND THE UNIVERSITY	104

CHAPTER	PAGE
Introduction	104
In-service training and education	105
In-service training	105
In-service education	105
The need	107
Other factors	109
Career service and merit system	109
The role of the university	111
Introduction	111
Resistance to in-service education	113
Why university assistance?.....	115
Types of university assistance	118
Stimulation of in-service training	118
Consultation	119
Research	119
Training the trainers	121
Preparing teaching materials	121
Pilot programs	123
The faculty	124
Full-time teachers	124
Part-time teachers	125
Organization for teaching public administration	126
Interdepartmental organization	130

	vi
CHAPTER	PAGE
Departmental organization	131
Divisional organization	132
VI. THE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	134
The Institute of Government	134
The motivation	134
How initiated	135
The objectives	135
The Institute program	136
Curriculum development	137
The first Institute	137
Attendance	137
Participants	138
Duration	138
Daily schedule	138
The general assembly	138
The sections	138
Teaching technique	139
Public reception of the Institute	139
Life of the Institute	140
Life span	140
Pattern	140
Sections	141
Attendance	142
Prominent participants	142

CHAPTER	PAGE
	vii
The end of the Institute	143
World War II intervenes	143
Recognition	144
Assessment	146
Establishment of the school	146
Why a separate school?.....	147
Purpose of the school	148
Control of the school	150
Civic Center division	150
Early physical facilities	150
Location	150
Office	151
Office space	151
Classrooms	151
Present physical facilities	152
Office	152
Library	152
Classrooms	152
Classes	153
Civic Center division staff	153
Early period	153
Present staff	153
Class and office hours	154
Announcements	154

CHAPTER	viii PAGE
Academic program	155
Main objective	155
Degrees and certificates	155
Typical experience	155
Curriculum	156
Initiation of courses	156
The faculty	156
Problem of part-time faculty control	156
Students	157
Enrollments	157
Summary	158
Other formalized units	158
Delinquency Control Institute	158
Aim	158
Control	158
Sponsors	159
Program	159
International Public Administration Center	159
Origin of the center	160
Objectives of the center	160
Staff	161
Program	162
Formal university course work	162
Field work and observation tours	162

CHAPTER

ix

PAGE

Individual tutoring and consultation...	162
Cultural problems	163
Lessons from the project	163
Results	164
Special curricula	165
Police administration	165
Fire administration	165
Others	166
Summary	168
VII. ACADEMIC PROGRAM OF THE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC	
ADMINISTRATION	169
The philosophy of the school	169
Role of the university	169
Educational leader	170
Good citizenship	170
Public welfare is paramount	170
Professionalization of the public service .	171
The university should train administrators.	171
Administrators can be trained	172
Who is an administrator?	172
Administrative technicians	172
Needs of the administrator	173
Intellectual ability	173
Middle road	173

CHAPTER

PAGE

Guide lines 174

 Taxes buy civilization 174

 Community decision 174

 Flexibility 174

 Line and staff 174

Degrees and certificates 175

 The bachelor's degree program 175

 Pre-public administration courses 175

 Public administration courses 176

 Specialization and electives 177

 Specialization 177

 Electives 178

 Graduate program 178

 Master of science in public administration 178

 Background 179

 The management approach 179

 Basic aim 180

 Doctor of Public Administration 180

 Certificates 183

 Public administration courses 183

 Field of specialization 184

 Summary 185

Contributions of the school of public
administration 188

CHAPTER	xi PAGE
Accomplishments	188
The faculty	193
The President	193
The Dean	194
Other faculty members	196
Summary	200
VIII. CONCLUSIONS	202
Summary	202
Conclusions	203
University responsibility	203
Public administration as an academic discipline	204
Curriculum	205
In-service education	206
The School of Public Administration	206
BIBLIOGRAPHY	208
APPENDIX A. Course Descriptions	221
APPENDIX B. International Cooperation Administration- Financed University Contracts in Operation as of September 30, 1955	225

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE

PAGE

I. Graduate Educational Preparation for Public
Administration, A Summary, 1952-53 129

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

The need to provide training in public administration for public servants is the most pressing problem facing many governments today. This is true in the old countries with a long and well-established tradition of public service, but the need is even more urgent for the new countries that are just emerging from colonial status to independence. These countries realize that their status as free and independent nations will lack any real substance if they do not have honest and effective public administration.

For many years the public service was considered as something within the competence of any citizen. There was nothing in it which the average person could not master within a few days. To some extent this was largely true because of the very limited functions which the government performed. However, as the functions performed by government increased in number and variety, it was recognized that special competence and knowledge was needed to execute these functions. The

complexity, size, number, and the highly technical character of the tasks that government performs in our day have made both policy and adjudication dependent on specialized knowledge that no popularly elected

amateur group possesses, no matter how wise, honest, or well-intentioned it may be.¹

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. The controversy today is not over whether public administration can or should be taught. Although there is no universal agreement on the teachability of public administration, there is a wide measure of agreement on the need for some kind of educational training for the public service.

Perhaps the problem in connection with training for the public service is best presented in the following series of questions: How best can education for public administration be done? Where should this education begin? What should be the content of such an educational program? What is the role of the university in the public administration training program? Should such a program be designed to train specialists or generalists in administration? These are some of the vital problems that must be faced in any consideration of the question of university education for the public service. The problems identified in these questions assume that educational preparation for

¹Samuel C. May, "General Discussion," University Training for the National Service, Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1932, p. 298.

public administration is here to stay, and they rest on some simple implications growing from that assumption.

It is the purpose of this study to attempt (1) to show that public administration as such is a legitimate field of study; (2) to show that the university can and should assume active leadership in promoting an educational program for public administration study and training; (3) to show that university interest in public administration training has no terminal point, it embraces both the pre-entry and post-entry periods; and (4) to study the case of a particular school where a conscious and extensive effort has been made in the direction of university training for the public service.

Hypotheses. It is the intention of this study to explore the following hypotheses:

Administrators can be trained. This is a proposition over which a heated controversy has raged for some time. Some men of influence and experience doubt very strongly that the art of administration can be imparted by instruction.² They contend that it is something that can be acquired only through practical experience. They say

²Robert M. Hutchins, "Shall We Train for Public Administration?" Public Administration Review, 1:3, March, 1938.

that administrators are born, not made. But some others believe that effective administration is an art made up of certain elemental components. These elements can be studied and learned. The arts of organization, management and human relations which are among the important elements in the management of men are subject to study and observation. It is possible to organize them for teaching purposes.

The university is best equipped to provide the basic educational program for the public service. The role of a university in the community is a subject on which there is no universal agreement. There are those who see the university as a center of cultural life and cultural progress. They say it should only maintain and advance knowledge and learning. Others maintain that vocational and professional education is not out of place in the university. It will therefore, be necessary here to answer the question: What is the proper role of a university in the society? This writer believes that the university should maintain a dynamic interest in the affairs and problems of the community. However, care should be taken to avoid turning the university into a mere instrument for serving all sorts of local or partisan interests.

There are those who contend that prospective public servants need not have any knowledge of public administra-

tion before they enter the civil service. This attitude might have been valid during an age when government functions and activities were very limited. But in an age when public services have increased tremendously both in number and in variety such an approach cannot be satisfactorily justified.

While a public administration program in the university may not properly attempt to equip the students with all the skills-- technical and otherwise-- that they will need in the service, it should seek to give them a knowledge of the nature and functions of government. The modern state is a service state and the university should help students to gain a higher conception of the contribution that the public service can make to the welfare, happiness and good government of the community. It should acquaint them with the opportunities that are available in the public service. Such a program should teach the basic and fundamental tools that are needed in administration.

There is no terminal point in training for the public service. A university public administration program should be designed to encourage post-entry as well as pre-entry training. This should enable those already in the service to come back for refresher courses. It should appeal to those who feel the lack of an adequate academic background in their various jobs.

Such a training program should be based on friendly cooperation with government agencies so that both in its pre-entry and post-entry aspects the students will have the opportunity to observe departments in actual operation and thereby relate more effectively their classroom studies with real work situations.

The university program should take into consideration the method of recruitment into the public service, the available avenues for advancement within the service, and the principal motivations for civil servants. The post-entry aspect will be particularly effective where advancement is based on merit and accomplishment. Civil servants feel the urge to better their performance. But in a system where nepotism and corruption are rampant such a program will be very difficult to organize because civil servants will have little or no motivation to go to school.

A definite curriculum aids an effective public administration training program in the university. Public administration embraces a wide range of specialties such as personnel, finance, budget, planning, organization and many others. Supporters of public administration training programs are not in agreement on the question of the kind of curriculum that is necessary for this purpose. We shall seek to examine the nature of the curriculum that attempts to provide a sound public administration education program.

Case Study. The University of Southern California which has one of the oldest and best-known public administration training programs in the United States will be examined in the light of the hypotheses stated above. This examination will include a brief historical survey of the School of Public Administration, the School's role in the community through some of its programs, and the School's academic curriculum.

Importance of the study. The number and complexity of present day governmental activities impose tremendous burdens upon the traditional machinery of government. Because of this burden every government is now compelled to seek ways and means of raising its standards of administration in order to meet current demands.

Much more than the ancient goal of more economical administration is now involved. The conservation of public revenues continues to be important. But an even more compelling reason is the survival of a form of government and the security of a people. It is now increasingly realized on the part of students and practitioners of public administration that the term "democracy" must include the proper administration of public programs as well as certain legislative and electoral forms if account was to be taken of the total impact of government in a society.

The introduction of the suffrage and representation may fulfill a narrow definition of democracy as a

form of government; but so long as public management institutions remain ineffective or autocratic, democracy as a condition of living would be nonexistent.³

This need of more effective management is a very urgent concern particularly for the new and underdeveloped nations in Africa and Asia. Political and social pressures from home and abroad make it necessary for these governments to solve the problem of effective and responsible execution of public policy in a relatively short period of time.

Learning from experience will not solve the problem either effectively or in time. The adoption and expansion of public administration training programs by the universities will help to meet this desperate need for trained administrators. Such a program will not only train professional administrators but it will also provide the opportunity for imparting administrative knowledge and skills to substantive specialists in such fields as health, agriculture, and education. It will also help to promote a greater knowledge of governmental institutions on the part of all citizens in and out of government.

³Frank P. Sherwood and William B. Storm, Technical Assistance in Public Administration, A Report on a Domestic Training Program for Five Turkish Professors, Los Angeles: School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, 1953, mimeographed, p. 1.

II. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Public service. This term is used synonymously with public administration. The term "public service" will be used in this study to include a great many occupations in the government. It includes different classes of positions, including those of accountants, chemists, foresters, auditors, policemen, highway engineers, public health officers, and a great variety of others.

A conference sponsored by the Public Administration Clearing House on training for the public service⁴ reported that

There is really no employment which may properly be designated as "public service" as distinct from other occupations so far as the general range of duties attached to the employment is concerned. The term is rather a means of designating those persons who are engaged by public authorities to perform duties which are generally similar to those performed by persons engaged by private employers.⁵

Management. This term is defined with some difficulty; but it will be used in this study as a generic term rather synonymous with the over-all concept exemplified by the term "administration" as used in public administration. "Management is indicative of professional personnel charged

⁴Morris B. Lambie, (ed.), Training for the Public Service, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1935.

⁵Ibid., p. 10.

with the general task of directing others in getting work done."⁶

Pre-entry education. This term will be used synonymously with pre-entry training in this study. It will be used here to denote the formal academic or educational processes completed in established educational institutions, including general background studies, plus, for certain technical pursuits, a highly specialized preliminary training-- all antecedent to official appointment to the public service.

Internships. This term will be used to mean the stage of experience and observation between the processes of formal educational preparation and formal establishment in a public service career. It is a period of

advanced practical training prior to official appointment, pursued as part of an academic or other program, involving actual work or close public contact with a public service activity.⁷

In-service training. This term is used interchangeably with the term post-entry training. It will be used in this study to mean any type of training which is formally pursued by a public servant after entry into the service under official direction or sponsorship and con-

⁶John M. Pfiffner, Public Administration, New York: Ronald Press Company, 1946, p. 28.

⁷Lambie, op. cit., p. 2.

ducted with relation to work assignments or for a better understanding of career aspects. It is "the process of aiding employees to gain effectiveness in their present or future work through the development of appropriate habits of thought and action, skills, knowledge, and attitudes."⁸

In-service education. This term will be used in this study to closely approximate in-service training but pursued mainly through the private initiative of the public servant.

III. ORGANIZATION OF REMAINDER OF THE THESIS

The remainder of this paper will be devoted to an analysis of the nature of public administration in order to determine its suitability as an organized course of study at the university level. This will be done mainly through an examination of the writings of recognized authorities and students of public administration. The study will attempt to examine the role of a university in the community. The last section of this paper will undertake a case study of the University of Southern California School of Public Administration. This will be done through

⁸Committee on Employee Training in the Public Service, Employee Training in the Public Service, Chicago: Civil Service Assembly, 1941, p. 2.

examination of the School's records and personal interviews with the men who have been mostly responsible for the organization and development of the program.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Much has been written in connection with the function of the universities and the role of the social sciences in preparing men for responsible administrative positions in the public service. Most of the literature in this field is in the form of articles in professional journals and academic periodicals. However, only a few of the studies bearing directly on this topic will be briefly reviewed here.

Literature on university education and the public service. University Training for the National Service is the report of the proceedings of a conference held at the University of Minnesota, July 14 to 17, 1931, on the problem of university training for the public service.¹ The program arrangements for the conference were jointly sponsored by the United States Civil Service Commission and the University of Minnesota.

The term "public service" was broken down into concrete employments reflecting the basic personnel classification employed in the national service. These included

¹University Training for the National Service, Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1932.

agriculture, consular and diplomatic services, law, scientific services, public welfare, and economics and statistics. It was pointed out that positions which require university training are always available in these areas.

The conference agreed on the need for better "procedures for university and government cooperation"² and for better methods of informing qualified students as to vacancies in the service.

Morris Lambie edited the report and recommendations of a conference sponsored by the Public Administration Clearing House on the problem of training for the public service.³ This conference was held at Princeton, New Jersey, on June 22 to 24, 1935. This report presents a summary of the discussions at the conference together with a description of the then current programs of in-service training.

The conference broke down the problem of education and training for the public service into its elements and attempted to establish certain criteria and principles to serve as a guide considering the desirable types and

²Ibid., p. iii.

³Morris B. Lambie, Training for the Public Service, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1935.

extent of such education and training programs. Resolutions and recommendations were framed in respect to three phases of the problem:-- "preliminary education, so-called 'internships' or 'apprenticeships', and in-service or post-entry training."⁴

The conference agreed that the problem of training for the public service is beyond the confines of any single department or special institute or school. "No formula warrants the establishment of an isolated university or college which will emphasize preparation for the public service."⁵

While the conference agreed that the undergraduate aspects require no particular attention to the problem of preparation specifically for the public service, it recommended some courses which "it is desirable, nonetheless, that students who contemplate entering the public service in any classification will find it advantageous as undergraduates to acquire."⁶ It is interesting to note that these include "proficiency in the use of certain 'tools' or techniques desirable for administration, including

⁴Ibid., p. v.

⁵Ibid., p. vii.

⁶Loc. cit.

statistics, accounting, oral and written English . . ."7

George Graham's book, published in 1941, is still the most comprehensive and best treatment of the subject of education for public administration.⁸

The book is the result of a survey conducted under the sponsorship of the Public Administration Committee of the Social Science Research Council on the types of training in public administration on American university campuses. It was the purpose of the survey

to review the present practice of American colleges and universities in training for public administration and to raise questions about more effective future action, and to consider particularly the role of the social sciences.⁹

Graham found five types of training in which universities should be interested:

(1) the traditional professional school, the graduates of which are increasingly going into the public service; (2) research in the natural sciences; (3) research in the social sciences; (4) auxiliary staff agencies engaged in personnel, budgeting, purchasing, public relations, and fiscal control activities; and (5) managerial work.¹⁰

He emphasized post-graduate training in public

⁷Ibid., pp. vii-viii.

⁸George A. Graham, Education for Public Administration, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1941.

⁹Ibid., p. 14.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 19.

administration without sacrificing the civilizing and cultural attributes of liberal arts education. The report favored greater cooperation between universities and the civil service commissions. He recommended that universities could offer more graduate courses designed especially to train for public administration, whereas the civil service could adapt their examinations to test for those attributes which the liberal arts colleges have long regarded as helping to make up the well-rounded individual.

The report gives an account of the activities of each of the major educational institutions offering courses in public administration.

In a remarkable concluding portion of the survey, Graham reported that the

practice in the best managed governmental organizations has pretty well caught up with theory. Furthermore, the change in the character and scope of governmental functions has produced a new and more difficult set of administrative problems. Today faculties are teaching all they know about public administration and may be a little bit more. We cannot perpetrate the past upon the future without committing the fraud that we have to the present avoided. Research is perhaps the only escape-- research that involves the mutual assistance of a broader body of scholars, that is enriched by close collaboration with public officials, and that is related to fundamental problems of government and administration, research that utilizes greater and more sustained effort than has yet been applied to the field of administration. Without this sort of activity the universities will not be able to meet the needs of the present and the future. Gradu-

ate training for public administration worthy of the university tradition must be based upon and closely related to research.¹¹

Joseph McLean's book is a symposium which resulted from the Princeton Bicentennial Conference on University Education and the Public Service.¹²

The symposium was not intended to be a definitive study of personnel training and management. It was directed

to basic issues of social and governmental organization, to social and administrative values, and to intellectual and moral convictions about the shape of things to come (and) is related primarily to the larger and more fundamental problems of the relationship between higher education and the public service in a free society.¹³

The interest was in exploring the capacity of American universities to meet certain expressed needs of government. The writers attempted to evaluate the personnel needs of government and then examined the role of the universities in the education of prospective public servants.

There was general awareness of the changing role

¹¹Ibid., p. 132.

¹²Joseph E. McLean (ed.), The Public Service and University Education, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1949.

¹³Rowland Egger, "A Second View: An American Administrative Class?" in McLean, ibid., p. 206.

of government and of the environment in which public servants must work.

Taken together, the essays seem to point to the following essential conclusions:

1. There is a critical lack in the federal service of men . . . who have breadth of experience, maturity of personality, and a capacity to deal with large matters of state.
2. There is currently no program to develop such men, nor are there well-established posts at the top of the American public service for career men of these qualities. The responsibility for developing such a program rests with the highest levels of government.
3. Any plan that may be developed by government cannot be a pale imitation or mere importation of the British administrative system. We must devise a system (a) that will be in harmony with American traditions, (b) that will aim at high levels of intellectual and personal capacity, (c) that will put an emphasis upon the production of generalists, and (d) that will feature adaptability rather than rigidity.¹⁴

Goals for Political Science¹⁵ was a comprehensive study sponsored by the American Political Science Association "on matters pertaining to the scope, objectives, and methods of political science instruction."¹⁶

The study reported that "the testimony of experi-

¹⁴Ibid., p. 18.

¹⁵Committee for the Advancement of Teaching, American Political Science Association, Goals for Political Science, see especially Chapter 4, "Education for the Public Service," pp. 68-98, New York: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 1951.

¹⁶Ibid., p. vi.

ence shows that colleges and universities should not train technicians alone, but must also produce men of vision."¹⁷ While the report would prefer "broadened" education to "narrow" training, it is significant that it pointed out the diversity of skills that are required for government service and concludes that "there is room for educational programs of diverse types."¹⁸

The report cautions that the "practical" programs of education should be designed to "give our students the ability to decide policy issues intelligently, which means that they must know more than most of them do about content areas and not merely procedural techniques."¹⁹ It always calls attention to the danger of splintering political science into mutually exclusive fragments, and advises that "where there is a justifiable case for new units in public administration . . . we should take care to secure a broad approach in the new unit and close collaboration with the parent department."²⁰

Summary. The literature in this field is young

¹⁷Ibid., p. xii.

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 97.

²⁰Ibid.

and limited in quantity, but the quality of the available material is excellent. The volume of articles in the professional and academic journals is large and will certainly continue to grow because of the importance of the subject.

CHAPTER III

THE STUDY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration had to overcome some obstacles before it gained its place as an accepted and respected member of the academic fraternity. The argument was made that "administrative genius" is a natural gift and that "a man does not need to be formally educated in order to have it, for his principal endowment is apparently natural."¹ The "genius" is so natural that "the administrator of outstanding ability is frequently unable to explain how he does it."²

Some of the critics of public administration as a field of academic study contended that public administration "is not a subject-matter . . . (because) there is nothing that can be taught that can be called public administration as such."³ The argument stated that

public life is concerned with action adapted to im-

¹Marshall E. Dimock, "The Meaning and Scope of Public Administration," in John M. Gaus, Leonard D. White, and Marshall E. Dimock, The Frontiers of Public Administration, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1936, p. 5.

²Ibid.

³Robert M. Hutchins, "Shall We Train for Public Administration?" Public Administration Review, 1:3, March, 1938.

mediate concrete situations . . . (and) it is impossible to learn how to deal with immediate concrete situations except by dealing with them.⁴

It was felt that the concrete situations with which public administration dealt could not be imported into a college curriculum.

Dr. Hutchins further stated that

public life deals with action upon organizations in particular situations. The ends of action, the nature of organization, and the qualities of men are all prior, from the standpoint of understanding, to the actions that constitute the alleged subject-matter of courses designed to prepare men directly for public life.⁵

There were others who argued that while

public administration cannot teach anybody to administer anything regardless of the thing to be administered . . . academic studies in public administration can explore the many relationships which must arise out of the relationships which must of necessity be formed among the participants in the governmental process.⁶

The interest here is not to pursue the negative arguments against the study of public administration. Instead, an attempt will be made to review briefly the nature and purpose of public administration and to explore some of the elements that are essential to effective pub-

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

⁶William S. Carpenter, The Unfinished Business of Civil Service Reform, Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1952, p. 91.

lic administration. The objective is to find out if these lend themselves to systematic organization for academic study. Education in any field of study is based on the assumption that there exists in the field a body of knowledge which can be organized for the purpose of teaching and learning.

Any criticism of the study of public administration in the abstract would be justified. The rigid, and even dogmatic separation of politics and administration which characterized the early attempts at the study of public administration lost sight of the fact that

administration is the most obvious part of government; it is government in action; it is the executive, the operative, the most visible side of government, and is of course as old as government itself.⁷

A proper study of administration cannot neglect its relations to the process of government as a whole. The study of administration should consider the economic, social, and psychological characteristics of the society in which it operates. The legislative-administrative relationship needs to be studied. Schuyler Wallace in his study of the factors that influence administrative organization writes that

on the basis of available data, it is impossible to determine whether the existence of a vehicle for popu-

⁷Woodrow Wilson, "The Study of Administration," Political Science Quarterly, 2:197-198, 1887.

lar criticism is the indispensable element in the process of administration without which long-continued efficiency and honesty appear to be improbable; but there is more than negligible evidence indicating that such is the case.⁸

Public administration embraces more than the technical aspects of administration. A "breadth of vision as well as specialization as a prime prerequisite for the development of a more comprehensive science of administration"⁹ is implicit in the study of public administration. Viewed from this total picture the contention that public administration is not a substantive field of study declines in significance.

I. THE SCOPE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The meaning of public administration. There are differences of views as to what the field of public administration embraces. George Graham writes that the

broadest view of public administration includes the whole complex field of governmental activities. So conceived, public administration is the totality of governmental operations, many of them highly specialized. A second view is that public administration is essentially a collection of distinct professional or vocational fields. A third view centers on interrelations of the many people and organizations carry-

⁸Schuyler C. Wallace, Federal Departmentalization-- A Critique of Theories of Organization, New York: Columbia University Press, 1941, p. 234.

⁹Ibid., pp. 234-235.

ing on public business, emphasizing the managerial problem and process. A fourth view stresses the contribution of governmental experience to governmental policy, and the essence of public administration is conceived to be the formulation of public policy.¹⁰

Other aspects from which the subject has been viewed include public administration as law, as institution, as experience, as theory and invention, and as a problem of relationship.¹¹ The legal standpoint emphasized judicial rules and decisions and statutory and constitutional limitations and requirements. This approach almost completely neglected the human side of administration, methods and concrete experience.

The underlying conception of the "institutional" approach is that administration is a distinct department of government, and that the problem of the student is to examine its organization and operation. The emphasis is on the formal framework and procedures of the administrative machine. This approach has dealt with administration in the large--

with the role of the chief executive, the organization of departments, the coordination of administrative services, the central place of finance and budget-making in the administrative process, the staffing of

¹⁰George A. Graham, Education for Public Administration-- Graduate Preparation in the Social Sciences at American Universities, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1941, p. 3.

¹¹Dimock, op. cit., pp. 6-9.

administrative units, and the forms of control brought to bear upon the administrative department. The underlying objective has been efficiency. . . .¹²

The "experience" approach to public administration is empirical and pragmatic in method. Those who are engaged in the actual conduct of governmental services emphasize the practical routine aspects of public business.

The theory and invention approach is

the rational, analytical method of dealing with public administration, and the purpose is clearly that of reconciling the various concepts and methodologies of public administration, both in and for itself, and also in relation to the broader field of the social sciences. . . . the purpose of this approach is largely to uncover false assumptions and to invent new ideas and ways of doing things for the administrator.¹³

The problem approach views public administration simply as a means, a tool by which problems of society can be solved. The proper technique is first to analyze the social problem which awaits solution, and this necessarily involves the sociological approach to administration.

After briefly surveying these various approaches, Dimock attempts a comprehensive definition of public administration by saying that "Public administration includes the problems, powers, organization, and methods of management employed in enforcing the law and in discharging

¹²Ibid., p. 7.

¹³Ibid., p. 8.

governmental responsibilities."¹⁴ Individual scholars may emphasize some particular approach, but no one concept is predominant. The various approaches are not mutually exclusive.

The purpose of public administration. The purpose of public administration is to implement the policies of government. In other words, public administration "is government in action."¹⁵ Public administration

includes the totality of government activity, encompassing experience of endless variety and the techniques of organization and management whereby order and social purpose are given to the efforts of vast numbers.¹⁶

The activities that government undertakes depend upon the nature of the people's expectations of what they should get from the government. The ends of administration are

the ultimate objectives of the state itself-- the maintenance of peace and order, the progressive achievement of justice, the instruction of the young, protection against disease and insecurity, the adjustment and compromise of conflicting group interests-- in short, the attainment of the good life.¹⁷

¹⁴Ibid., p. 9.

¹⁵Wilson, op. cit., p. 197.

¹⁶John M. Pfiffner and R. Vance Presthus, Public Administration, New York: Ronald Press Company, 1953, p. 7.

¹⁷Leonard D. White, Introduction to the Study of Public Administration, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1955, p. 3.

In this context, public administration is a dynamic and a "vital social process, charged with implementing great ends."¹⁸

In the process of implementing the policies of government, public administration deals with the inescapable question of how best to organize and direct its human and material resources so as to achieve the desired ends. A growing body of "administrative knowledge"¹⁹ now exists and is constantly being developed to assist the effort at effective organization and direction of government activities. This will be explored later in this chapter.

The processes of government. Public administration is not only concerned with "action" as such, it is also vitally concerned with the purpose of action. Any student of public administration must have an understanding of all the processes of government. The public service has some peculiarities which distinguish it from private business and industry. Anyone trained for work in the public service must be aware of these peculiarities of government. Such a person should have some understanding

¹⁸Priffner and Presthus, loc. cit.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 4.

of public law, of the administrative discretion which is exercised under such law because finally the scope of a public official's activity is circumscribed by law. He should have some understanding of governmental organization and relationships under such organization. He should appreciate how budgets of public authorities are set up and controlled. Further, he should have a pretty good comprehension of personnel controls and the law affecting public officials. Matters of this sort are essential to intelligent behavior in the work-life of a public employee.²⁰

II. THE QUEST FOR EFFECTIVE ADMINISTRATION

The purpose of public administration study. To a surprisingly large degree the main objectives for the study of public administration which Woodrow Wilson stated in his classic essay are still the same today. "It is the object of administrative study," he stated,

to discover, first, what government can properly and successfully do, and, secondly, how it can do these proper things with the utmost possible efficiency and at the least possible cost either of money or of energy.²¹

The central idea of public administration is "rational action, defined as action correctly calculated to realize given desired goals. Public administration both as a study and as an activity is intended to maximize the

²⁰William E. Mosher, "Schools Can Do Much," Public Administration Review, 1:21, March, 1938.

²¹Wilson, loc. cit.

realization of goals"²² that are public by definition.

In the past, some objection to the study of public administration was based on the narrow view that such study was mainly the acquisition of technical skills. While such skill is desirable, it is not, the main purpose of public administration study. It is not necessary for the heads of governmental organizations to be masters of the various functions performed by their staffs in order to be masters of their own executive functions.²³ But they need the

ability to handle relationships in their larger and broader terms-- the quality of philosophy. . . . A philosophy of absolutes and cold logic; a philosophy technical and rigid, would be ruinous. A sound political philosophy must comprehend people's spirits and emotions as well as their reasoned opinions, it must embody the logic of events and the logic of statistics.²⁴

A realistic approach to the study of public administration will emphasize that administrative posts

are filled by human beings who vary not only in their skills, but in the intensity of their drives for recognition, in imaginativeness and initiative, in self-discipline, in loyalty to superiors and employing agency, and in maturity of judgment. Much of the fascination of administration is imparted by the

²²Dwight Waldo, The Study of Public Administration, Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1955, p. 11.

²³Paul Appleby, Big Democracy, New York: Alfred Knopf, 1949, p. 41.

²⁴Ibid., p. 43.

very variety of types of persons that must somehow be brought to work together toward common objectives.²⁵

Public administration deals not only with the ends of government, it is also concerned with the problem of how to organize human relationships for the attainment of these ends. The material resources available to the public service are limited and it is the concern of public administration to maximize the utilization of the limited resources. It is for this reason that administrative management must be regarded as a legitimate area of study in public administration. The study of public administration should be concerned with understanding how people in organizations behave, how organizations operate, and with practical recommendations as to how agencies can be most effectively organized.²⁶

The management concept. When people are organized in a formal group for the purpose of achieving some common goal, it becomes necessary to direct and to facilitate the work of the group. This process of direction, facilitating and guiding is known as management. It is "the mechanism which exercises the authority and accepts

²⁵James W. Fesler, "Undergraduate Training for the Public Service," American Political Science Review, 41:510, June, 1947.

²⁶Herbert A. Simon, Donald W. Smithburg, Victor A. Thompson, Public Administration, New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1954, p. 19.

responsibility for carrying on certain specified activities."²⁷ Attention is focused upon how to achieve maximum output with limited resources. Management is concerned with the effectiveness of its performance. The management concept abandons law as the "chief basis for administrative study and action."²⁸ The emphasis is placed on how best to organize, plan, coordinate and direct the available resources in order to achieve maximum results. "Management manipulates facilities-- plants, tools, machines, materials and labor. It is concerned with the detailed conduct of operations,"²⁹ and its purpose is to achieve the ends of government service by "building a pattern of behavior among numbers of persons designed to accomplish certain desired ends."³⁰

Scientific management. The quest for effective management led to the so-called scientific management movement which was prominently associated with the name of Frederick Winslow Taylor in the early part of the

²⁷John D. Millett, Management in the Public Service-- The Quest for Effective Performance, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954, p. 3.

²⁸Waldo, op. cit., p. 19.

²⁹Millett, op. cit., p. 398.

³⁰Ibid., p. 8.

twentieth century.³¹ The central idea of scientific management is that "there are scientifically ascertainable and demonstrable best ways to perform muscular work such as shoveling."³² It is a belief in the use of scientific methods to determine the one best way to perform complex human operations. Though the original fervor of "Taylorism" has faded and the original methods superseded, its spirit persists, for it was "a thrust upward toward better, more rational, and more effective methods of administration at a very high point . . . its effects are felt in nearly all areas of administrative study."³³

The study of management. The achievement of common objectives among large numbers of persons would be practically impossible without the integrating force of management authority. Management has evolved into a specialized profession and, therefore, of study as well. Both Burnham and Drucker emphasized the divorce of ownership of industry from control and the resultant rise of the managerial profession.³⁴ The managers pursue the

³¹Frederick W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1911.

³²Waldo, op. cit., p. 18.

³³Ibid., p. 19.

³⁴James Burnham, The Managerial Revolution, New York: Harpers, 1941, p. 80; and Peter F. Drucker, The New Society, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950.

profession of directing and controlling industrial organizations which they do not own, but for whose performance they are responsible. The important point is that management is now a profession. "Its elements and requirements can be analyzed and can be organized systematically, can be learned by anyone with normal human endowments. . . . The days of intuitive managers are numbered."³⁵

Effective administration. The scientific management movement was first originated in private industry, but it was not long before it also found its way into the area of public administration. The desire for effective administration coupled with the belief that governmental inefficiency was expensive was primarily responsible for the search for efficient methods and techniques of administrative management.

Early intellectual theories in the field emphasized the dichotomy between "policy" and "administration." The assumption was that administration could be safely entrusted to politically neutral civil servants selected under civil service procedures while elected officials would be responsible for making the policies.³⁶ In this way,

³⁵Peter F. Drucker, The Practice of Management, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954, p. 9.

³⁶Frank Goodnow, Politics and Administration, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1900.

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efficiency in administration could be pursued without the considerations of policy acting as stumbling blocks,

Many writers accept efficiency as the criterion by which the administration of government agencies is to be judged.³⁷ John Millett writes that, in general, effectiveness would seem to depend upon three factors:

The first is the state of personal relations within a management group and between management and subordinate working groups. If personal relationships are harmonious, cooperative, inspired with determination to achieve a common goal, fired with enthusiasm for a common purpose, and infused with loyalty to the group, then management is effective. The second factor is work accomplishment. If the output of an organizational unit is subject to some degree of quantitative enumeration-- number of purchase orders executed . . . then effective management may be indicated by the work record over a period of time. . . . The third factor is efficiency. Efficiency may be the engineering concept of relationship between physical units of input and output in a given enterprise. Efficiency may be a fiscal quality: the relationship between dollars spent and income obtained. Or efficiency may be the relationship between human costs incurred and human satisfactions or benefits produced. In whichever sense the term "efficiency" may be used, the management which creates some evidence of efficiency is effective.³⁸

The quest, then, for effective administration has been at the root of the study of the elements of administrative management. Some of these elements will be reviewed in the section that follows.

³⁷Simon, Smithburg and Thompson, op. cit., p. 17.

³⁸Millett, op. cit., p. 4.

III. ELEMENTS OF ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT

Organization. The quest for efficiency made it necessary to study the nature and behavior of organization, the mechanism through which it is hoped that effective administration will be achieved. It was believed possible to analyze organization problems with scientific objectivity, "not science in the sense of the exactness that the physical sciences have achieved, but science in the sense of an objective understanding of the phenomena without confusion between facts and values."³⁹ The objective of such a study is to help people to understand how to organize. Pfiffner says that

It is not yet possible to predict with precision that if an institution is organized in a certain way specific results will be obtained. But it is entirely feasible to say that under particular conditions certain preferred practices exist.⁴⁰

Organization is the building of individuals and functions into a productive relationship.⁴¹ It is the function of management to direct the men and the functions in such a way that they will achieve the purpose for which they were created. Organization involves relationships,

³⁹Simon, et al., op. cit., p. 20.

⁴⁰John M. Pfiffner, Organization: The Science of Hierarchy, Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1955, mimeo., p. 4.

⁴¹Pfiffner and Presthus, op. cit., p. 5.

relationships of "things to things, jobs to jobs, people to people, groups to groups, processes to processes."⁴² Organization is a group of people behaving. These "people are not tools or machines. They have feelings, hopes and fears. They get sick, hungry, angry, frustrated, happy sad. . . . Their behavior in organization is a resultant of all these influences."⁴³

The problem of organization is how several individuals, working at different jobs, with different materials, at the same or separate geographical and time locations, could be held together so that they could achieve the objectives which they have in common.

Some aspects of organization. The search for effective management has resulted in a greater understanding of some of the factors that are essential to a successful organization. The knowledge is by no means complete and studies in this general direction are always in progress.

Authority. This is the foundation upon which management builds its efforts to influence the action of those in an organization. In governmental organization authority is closely allied with the concept of power

⁴²Pfiffner, op. cit., p. 1.

⁴³Simon, et al., op. cit., p. 55.

because "public administration is an instrument for the exercise of political power."⁴⁴

There are several possible approaches to the subject of authority. The legal approach would emphasize the formal sources of authority and the rules which define its scope and limit its exercise. The status approach depends upon the position held and the degree of authority assigned to the particular position. Any individual in the position automatically assumes the authority that inheres in it. Another aspect of authority is that which depends upon human relationships. People acquire authority as a result of personal influence.⁴⁵

Authority may be defined as "the power to make decisions which guide the actions of another."⁴⁶ A keen student of management, Chester Barnard argued that the primary element of authority is its acceptability to those subject to it. He lists the four conditions essential to the acceptance of authority by those subject to it as:

- (a) he can and does understand the communication;
- (b) at the time of his decision he believes that it is not inconsistent with the purpose of the organiza-

⁴⁴Millett, op. cit., p. 7.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 5.

⁴⁶Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954, p. 125.

tion; (c) at the time of his decision, he believes it to be compatible with his personal interest as a whole; and (d) he is able mentally and physically to comply with it.⁴⁷

Authority, then, involves the making of decisions, the communication of these decisions in an understandable manner, and the execution of these decisions in varying conformance with the original intent.⁴⁸ For management to function effectively, it must have authority commensurate with the magnitude of the task that it is assigned to accomplish. Such authority must embrace at least the following elements:

1. Program authority-- the power to determine the goals of administrative activity within the limits of statutory and executive direction.
2. Organizational authority-- the power to create the administrative structure necessary to accomplish stated program goals.
3. Budgetary authority-- the power to frame budgetary needs in terms of programs as enacted into law with discretion and flexibility.
4. Personnel authority-- the power to determine personnel assignments and appointments, within broad limits of salary, recruitment, and tenure set forth in government legislation.⁴⁹

⁴⁷Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1950, p. 165.

⁴⁸Millett, op. cit., p. 7.

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 14.

Responsibility. The concept of management responsibility makes management accountable for the results arising from its exercise of authority. Responsibility imposes obligations on management and limits the exercise of authority. Failure on the part of management to meet its obligations may result in some form of disciplinary action. This is necessary as a safeguard against the abuse of management authority. Responsibility means regard for consequences, and this "connotes a certain amount of rationalism and an element of prudence."⁵⁰

Discretion is essential to responsibility.⁵¹ "A duty that contains no element of initiative, judgment, or choice for the one obliged to perform it may be a matter of accountability, but not of responsibility in the wider sense."⁵²

Responsibility means the "recognition of an obligation to meet a need that exceeds the individual's and to act according to a standard that is outside himself and

⁵⁰George A. Graham, "Essentials of Responsibility," in Fritz Morstein Marx (ed.), Elements of Public Administration, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1946, p. 502.

⁵¹H. F. Summers, "The Idea of Responsibility in Government," Public Administration, 28:97, Summer, 1950.

⁵²Graham, loc. cit.

beyond his control."⁵³ It is this fact that forces a public servant to recognize the public interest as overriding any interest of his own or the interest of any group or class to which he may belong.

A system of management responsibility has been developed in the public service and it assumes the following forms:

1. Political responsibility. The ideal of political responsibility impels the permanent civil service to cultivate the tradition of loyalty to the political leadership of the day. This is the most important responsibility limiting management authority in the public service.⁵⁴

2. Institutional responsibility. It is the responsibility of management to ensure the survival of an entire organization.⁵⁵ It is the responsibility of management to "provide to an entire organization a sense of concern for its continued effective existence"⁵⁶ by advancing the general reputation and performance of the organization and by caring for the welfare of its individual participants.

⁵³Ibid.

⁵⁴Millett, op. cit., p. 20.

⁵⁵Drucker, op. cit., p. 204.

⁵⁶Millett, op. cit., p. 23.

3. Professional responsibility. A standard of ethical conduct to guide the utilization of knowledge and technical skill is an important element of any profession. This code of ethics instills in the individual a sense of personal responsibility.

The individual is responsible first of all to himself, to his own conscience, for the observation of that professional code. He is also responsible to all his fellow members of the profession for his standard of personal conduct.⁵⁷

It is fair to sum up the discussions on authority and responsibility by saying that these two factors constitute the twin pillars upon which the structure of management in the public service is erected. They are factors about whose nature something is known, but a great deal more needs to be known.

Other features of organization. If authority and responsibility are the leading pillars in an organizational structure, there are other elements which are conducive to the effective operation of the organization as a whole.

Authority to determine structure. In the discussion on authority in the preceding section it was determined that the authority which first gives life to any organization in the public service is statutory and legal

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 25.

in nature. It is the legislative body which determines the function that needs to be performed, and through the enabling legislation, the objective to be pursued is defined. This point emphasizes the fact that administration is the means for pursuing political ends.⁵⁸

Unity of command.⁵⁹ The concept of unity of command is in the spirit of the biblical advice which says that "a man cannot serve two masters." This means that each workman in an organization should be "subject to orders from but one superior,"⁶⁰ and "that there is one person at the apex of the pyramid who has final authority to make decisions on all moot points."⁶¹

Departmentalization. An organization "is a unity . . . rather than a collection of parts."⁶² The concept is to group the essential part of the organization on a functional basis. The division of work is not automatic however, for there are mitigating factors that need to be

⁵⁸David M. Levitan, "Political Ends and Administrative Means," Public Administration Review, 3:356, Fall, 1943

⁵⁹Henri Fayol, Industrial and General Administration, English Translation by J. A. Goubrough, Geneva: International Management Association, 1930.

⁶⁰Luther Gulick, "Notes on the Theory of Organization," Luther Gulick and L. Urwick (eds.), Papers on the Science of Administration, New York: Institute of Public Administration, 1937, p. 9.

⁶¹Pfiffner, op. cit., p. 198.

⁶²Ibid.

considered if the organizational structure is to be most effective. Among these factors are

supervision needed, the need for the head of subunits to see the chief, functional relationships with other activities, and the possibility that a unit will be neglected if dovetailed into a big department.⁶³

In the public service the primary administrative groups are based on broad substantive purpose such as the conduct of foreign relations or the apprehension of criminals.⁶⁴ Specialization prevails in the subdivisions inside a department because homogeneity of function is the guiding principle. The unity of command prevails within a department as well as within the departmental subdivisions.

The staff functions. The staff is a thinking, planning and advisory agency necessary as an aid to high ranking officials of any large operating organization. It is a primary function of the executive to do the sort of thinking on which major policy decisions are based.

But executives become so bogged down in troubleshooting and on-the-spot emergency decisions that they do not have time for studying basic policy problems. So they farm out a portion of their intellectual activities to staff assistants.⁶⁵

The reason for, and the place of the staff agency

⁶³Ibid.

⁶⁴White, op. cit., pp. 30-31.

⁶⁵Pfiffner, op. cit., p. 138.

has been described as follows:

Whatever their ability and their capacity to work, the heads of great enterprises cannot fulfill alone all their obligations. . . . Thus they are forced to have recourse to a group of men who have the strength, competence, and time which the Head may lack. This group of men constitutes the Staff of Management. It is a help, or reinforcement, a sort of extension of the manager's personality, to assist him in carrying out his duties. The staff appears as a separate body only in large undertakings and its importance increases with the importance of the undertaking.⁶⁶

Another student of the subject writes that "Staff services . . . are bound to grow up in every organization (and) then formal organization . . . is demanded if we are to achieve the most efficient forms of concerted human effort."⁶⁷

The importance of staff work cannot be overestimated. The staff collects the facts upon which planning and organizing depend. In other words, the staff process is "an organized approach to doing the thinking, planning and organizing which an organization should do."⁶⁸ This job of fact-finding for the purpose of planning and organizing the affairs of an organization is the essence of the

⁶⁶Henri Fayol, "The Administrative Theory in the State," in Gulick and Urwick, *op. cit.*, p. 104.

⁶⁷James D. Mooney, "The Principles of Organization," in Gulick and Urwick (eds.), *ibid.*, pp. 95-96.

⁶⁸Priffner, *op. cit.*, p. 140.

staff function and it is indispensable to the effective management of any enterprise, whether public or private.

Kinds of staff. While there is general agreement among authorities that substantive organizations which are concerned with the actual provision of services for people are to be identified as "line" agencies, there is no such agreement on the composition of staff agencies. However, three kinds of staff are identifiable:

1. General staff-- These are people who work on overall plans and policies. Their primary function is thinking. They "are the advisers on strategy, including directors of such research activities and planning facilities as may exist in an agency."⁶⁹

2. Technical staff-- These are substantive experts or subject-matter specialists. They advise the chief administrator on the supervision of various technical phases of the operations of the agency.⁷⁰ The technical staff units "devote their time principally to development, training, and advice, although they sometimes engage in 'functional supervision'."⁷¹

⁶⁹Arthur W. Macmahon, John Millett and Gladys Ogden, The Administration of Federal Work Relief, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1941, p. 245.

⁷⁰Ibid.

⁷¹Pfiffner, op. cit., p. 143.

3. Auxiliary staff-- Perhaps the term "auxiliary services" is a more fitting description of this category of staff work. Auxiliary agencies do not serve the public,⁷² rather, they "perform phases of the task of keeping the organization going at all levels and in all its operations."⁷³ Their concern is not with major substantive policies, but rather, with the maintenance of an existing organization.⁷⁴

Auxiliary services deal with such functions as budgeting and accounting, personnel and industrial relations, management planning and administrative analysis. On a more mundane level it also includes such services as "central mailing, maintenance of buildings and equipment, control of transportation, archives and record-keeping, real estate management, and communication facilities."⁷⁵ The essence of all staff work is to facilitate the work of the central agencies of action. This function is indispensable to the effective and efficient performance of any organization.

Hierarchy. The concept of hierarchy is that of

⁷²White, op. cit., p. 32.

⁷³Macmahon, Millett, and Ogden, loc. cit.

⁷⁴White, op. cit., p. 34.

⁷⁵Pfiffner and Presthus, op. cit., p. 185.

the "superior-subordinate relationship through a number of levels of responsibility reaching from the top to the bottom of the structure"⁷⁶ of any large-scale organization.⁷⁷ Hierarchy is more than a physical structure. It is more in the nature of a "texture of relationships (with each member of the hierarchy responding to his superior and in turn influencing his subordinates, with countless variables entering into the picture."⁷⁸

The essential function of hierarchy is to provide an "integrated scheme of intermediate control points"⁷⁹ for the purpose of aiding the attainment of efficiency, consistency, and continuity of cooperative effort. It is through the path of hierarchy that the lines of authority and responsibility flow. The chief executive is united with the most lowly individual worker in the organization through the link of hierarchy. Hierarchy is the channel of command.

It is the principal channel of communication, downward and upward, along which flow information, advice,

⁷⁶White, op. cit., p. 35.

⁷⁷Max Weber, Essays in Sociology, translated by H. H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills, London: Oxford University Press, Inc., 1946.

⁷⁸Fritz Morstein Marx and Henry Reining, Jr., "The Tasks of Middle Management," in Marx, op. cit., p. 400.

⁷⁹Ibid.

specific instructions, warnings, and commendations. It is the channel for the delegation of authority. It establishes a sequence of related centers for decision making and thus prevents congestion in the dispatch of business by closing out much of it in lower levels. It is the line of review of such decisions where appropriate, and the line of appeal by citizens against controverted decisions. It is the channel of internal control of the establishment and the line of fiscal accountability of disbursing officers. It is a means of clarifying responsibilities and defining relations. In short, the linkage of civilian officers in a chain of command and responsibility is the main two-way highway along which public business travels in an endless stream.⁸⁰

Some distinct levels or zones of operations within the hierarchy are recognizable: (1) administrative or top management; (2) executive or middle management; (3) supervisory management; and (4) the work force or level of specific performance.⁸¹ Some authorities combine (2) and (3) above in one zone of "middle management."⁸²

Hierarchies are made up of two important elements which, while not mutually exclusive, are distinct enough from each other to merit some attention. Professor Pfiffner terms these two elements as "the structural and the human."

The structural aspect of hierarchy is composed of jobs, positions, processes and procedures and is concerned

⁸⁰White, op. cit., p. 36.

⁸¹Pfiffner, op. cit., p. 28.

⁸²White, op. cit., p. 35.

with operations and things as distinct from people. Its establishment is based on the duties, activities, and things to be performed.⁸³ This aspect of hierarchy influences the theory of position classification which is based on the concept that the position is distinct from the employee.

The human element of hierarchy is composed of the people who fill the jobs and positions and perform the necessary tasks. People are not just mechanical beings who move like automatons that have no will of their own. There are individual and cultural differences which affect the allocation of people to their proper positions in the job hierarchy.⁸⁴ The abilities of people to perform hierarchical tasks vary greatly.

The significance of this fact for management is that there should be "more concern with how to discover individual differences and fundamental competence," and more attention should be "directed to the development of skills in those thought to possess the potentialities."⁸⁵ It is only in this way that a satisfactory union of the

⁸³Priffner, op. cit., p. 30.

⁸⁴Ibid., p. 45.

⁸⁵Ibid., p. 37.

structural and the human elements of hierarchy could be brought about in the organization. In short, it is important for management to know the workers as individuals, to be aware of their personal capacities and peculiarities, both actual and potential.

Conditions of group effort. The individuals who occupy the positions in a hierarchical structure do their work under conditions that are not mutually exclusive. They are brought together in work groups because they are "participants in specific cooperative systems,"⁸⁶ and the administrator deals with "well-knit human groups and not with a horde of individuals."⁸⁷ It is, therefore, important for management to think of persons in their group relationships as well as to think of them as individuals.

Group solidarity. A sense of common interest and well-being promotes group solidarity within a working group. Management needs to accept and to promote this sense if it is not to undermine the whole idea of group effort in an organization.⁸⁸

Purposeful behavior. Men work together because

⁸⁶Barnard, op. cit., p. 16.

⁸⁷Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization, Boston: Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1945, p. 111.

⁸⁸Millett, op. cit., p. 189.

they have a sense of worthwhile accomplishment, and the sense of purpose enhances the individual's disposition to cooperate.⁸⁹ It is the duty of management to promote this sense of achievement because it builds effective group behavior within an organization.

Stability in intergroup relationships. This is the third condition of cooperative group activity. The human desire for some degree of certainty in group behavior aids intergroup relationships toward harmony and mutual adjustment. Management must be willing to compromise jurisdictional conflicts with other groups in the attempt to promote harmonious intergroup relationships.

Group recognition and appreciation. "Group willingness to cooperate with other groups is enhanced or diminished by the system of external rewards or other satisfactions provided in recognition of their accomplishments."⁹⁰

The conditions of group solidarity, purposeful behavior, stability in intergroup relationships and the concern for group recognition and appreciation are basic to intergroup cooperation. If internal harmony is to prevail among the primary work groups that make up an organi-

⁸⁹Ibid.

⁹⁰Ibid., p. 190.

zation, management must assume the responsibility to promote an environment which recognizes these conditions. In a research study designed to determine some of the factors that influence organizational effectiveness, evidence indicated that members of an effective work group take pride in the group's work record and "are more likely to become angry at a fellow worker who does not do a good job."⁹¹ The same report also indicated that there was a lack of good feeling among members of the less effective work groups and that there was "more animosity and bad feeling of group toward group"⁹² among them.

Summary. The nature of organization, management and human relations have been briefly explored here. The purpose has not been to explore all the elements of administrative management, but rather the attempt has been to indicate that effective administration is something that is made up of elemental components that are substantive. These elements cannot be acquired by mere intuition. They provide enough material for a lifetime of study.

⁹¹A. L. Comrey, J. M. Pfiffner, and W. S. High, Factors Influencing Organizational Effectiveness, A Final Report, Los Angeles: The Office of Naval Research, University of Southern California, 1954, mimeo., p. 53.

⁹²Ibid.

IV. ADMINISTRATIVE PRINCIPLES

The problem of "principles" in administration has been a subject of controversy among those who are skeptical about public administration as a field of study. It has also been a point of sensitivity among sympathetic students of the field.

The terms most commonly used in the field such as line, staff, hierarchy, authority, responsibility, are useful for describing and classifying administrative situations. These terms furnish no "guidance as to whether a given system should be more or less highly centralized, nor as to whether auxiliary agencies should be given more or fewer duties and authority."⁹³ They are, therefore, not "principles."

However, if we may rightly use the term science or principle in connection with a body of exact knowledge derived from experience and observation, and a

body of rules or axioms which experience has demonstrated to be applicable in concrete practice, and so work out in practice approximately as forecast, then we may appropriately . . . speak of a science of administration.⁹⁴

⁹³White, op. cit., pp. 40-41.

⁹⁴Charles A. Beard, "Philosophy, Science and Art of Public Administration," address delivered before the Annual Conference of the Governmental Research Association, Princeton, N. J., September 8, 1939, quoted in Dwight Waldo, Ideas and Issues in Public Administration, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953, p. 77.

Ordway Tead writes that our understanding of a general body of "principles which would warrant the name of a science is still less than adequate," but he goes on to argue that "there may be a common body of attitudes, approaches, and methods of attack which can be useful, if not, indeed, essential, in many kinds of organizations and situations,"⁹⁵ and the application of these points of view to specific situations comprises an art requiring great skill, discernment and moral fortitude.

There are no immutable laws of organization at the present time, but if we interpret "principles" to mean working rules of conduct which wide experience seems to have validated, then a number of principles do exist in the field of public administration. The point of controversy seems to be the exact formulation of these principles.⁹⁶

The limitation of administrative principles. One example of some of the difficulties encountered in the formulation of administrative principles is seen in the

⁹⁵Ordway Tead, The Art of Administration, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1951, p. 4.

⁹⁶Herbert A. Simon, "The Proverbs of Administration," Public Administration Review, 6:53, 1946; and Robert A. Dahl, "The Science of Public Administration: Three Problems," Public Administration Review, 7:1, 1947.

principle of "unity of command." This means that no subordinate shall be subject to the orders of more than one superior. Failure to secure unity of command is supposed to lead to disorganization, irresponsibility, confusion and vacillation; but Simon points out that "the real fault that must be found with this principle is that it is incompatible with the principle of specialization."⁹⁷ The rule of specialization requires a subordinate performing a specialized job to receive orders concerning his specialty from a superior who is himself a specialist in the same matter.⁹⁸ The two principles of unity of command and specialization are sometimes contradictory. Simon resolves the conflict by reformulating the principle of unity of command as follows:

In case two authoritative commands conflict, there should be a single determinate person whom the subordinate is expected to obey; and the sanctions of authority should be applied against the subordinate only to enforce his obedience to that one person.⁹⁹

Catheryn Seckler-Hudson writes that

The leaders within the great "fourth branch of government"-- the administrative branch, have no one single

p. 55. ⁹⁷Simon, "Proverbs of Administration," op. cit.,

⁹⁸Arthur W. Macmahon, John Millett, and Gladys Ogden, The Administration of Federal Work Relief, p. 266.

⁹⁹Simon, op. cit., p. 56.

boss. For these leaders, the well-known principle of "unity of command" dies before it is born. These men must graciously receive orders from many bosses; they must loyally execute these orders; and they must account faithfully to their many bosses. Their success and the lives of the organizations they head may depend upon this "multiple command."¹⁰⁰

The study of public administration has as yet not evolved any generally accepted scientific principles capable of automatic application to the problem of organization and other administrative problems. Often

the points of conflict relative to administrative organization do not lie wholly within the field of administration itself. Instead, they ramify not merely throughout the whole governmental organization, but throughout the political, social, and economic order as well.¹⁰¹

Schuyler Wallace points out that the technique of departmentalization has gained such well-nigh universal acceptance that it might justifiably be characterized as a principle of administration. Yet a number of important considerations preclude the automatic application of this "principle" to the organization of the administrative branch of any large-sized unit of government. Among the considerations are the following problems:

How many departments should there be and what size should they be permitted to attain? Should they be

¹⁰⁰Catheryn Seckler-Hudson, Organization and Management: Theory and Practice, Washington, D. C.: The American University Press, 1955, p. 24.

¹⁰¹Wallace, op. cit., p. 185.

organized upon a hierarchical or devolutionary basis? Upon what principles should the subordinate administrative units be allocated places in the departmental structure? What machinery-- if any--should be established to insure interdepartmental integration? To what extent should cognizance be taken of the play of powerful political forces? What is the role of the legislature in the process of administration?¹⁰²

An analysis of the concepts of the principles of public administration in the abstract has limited value. The application of the principle of functionalism to a concrete situation necessitates a survey of the administrative activities of the several administrative units, and an examination of the actions of constituent assemblies, legislative and judicial bodies.¹⁰³

At no time and in no place has any department ever been constructed upon the basis of one of these concepts alone. Instead, all departments rest upon that combination of and compromise between these various concepts which the exigencies of time and place have dictated.¹⁰⁴

The boundaries of an executive's "span of control" cannot be ascertained and described in a mathematical formula of universal application. Instead, they must be discovered through the study of each specific situation, and will be largely determined by a number of impressions, by a combination of rele-

¹⁰²Ibid., p. 38.

¹⁰³Ibid., pp. 93-94.

¹⁰⁴Ibid., p. 114.

vant knowledge and practical judgments, rather than by any scheme of scientific measurement.¹⁰⁵

Conclusion. The question is legitimately asked whether there can be any science of administration. Much of the thinking in the field of administration must of necessity rest upon unverified, and in many cases unverifiable, postulates of value judgments. While only some data can be reduced to measurable terms in the field, the fact is that progress has been made in spite of the handicap presented by unverifiable assumptions. It is important that "the student of public administration must be continuously on guard to recognize the character of the intellectual operations which he is conducting."¹⁰⁶ If, by science we mean the existence of a body of organized knowledge on the basis of which it has been possible to found a number of completely verified general principles of universal application, then it must be admitted that public administration is not a science because its fundamental postulates are largely based upon "value judgments hidden away in inarticulate major premises."¹⁰⁷

The fact that predictions of results in public

¹⁰⁵Ibid., p. 43.

¹⁰⁶Ibid., p. 236.

¹⁰⁷Ibid.

administration cannot be done in detail is irrelevant since "it is sufficient that we can predict probable trends."¹⁰⁸ The findings and recommendations that result from the study of public administration should be considered on their merits instead of being cloaked behind the claims of scientific omniscience. For further advance and development in the field Schuyler Wallace recommends to the students of public administration the following as prerequisites:

- (1) A greater recognition of the connection between underlying assumptions or presuppositions and the character and quality of thinking in the field;
- (2) the development of some technique or process of thought which will bring these assumptions to light and subject them to analysis and criticism and equally important, indicate the limitations of the superstructure of thought which can be erected upon them;
- (3) a greater realization of the necessity of taking into consideration all discernible relevancies rather than concentrating upon some particular aspect or phase of the subject to the total exclusion of others;
- (4) the avoidance of formulas too simple to encompass the pertinent fact; and (5) the development of a terminology in respect of all generalizations which will at one and the same time indicate the extent of their applicability and their limitations. In this fashion the study of administration may eventually come to merit the appellation to which it now aspires.¹⁰⁹

Overview. The discussion in this chapter has at-

¹⁰⁸J. A. C. Brown, The Social Psychology of Industry, Human Relations in the Factory, Great Britain: C. Nicholls and Company, Ltd., 1954, p. 287.

¹⁰⁹Wallace, op. cit., p. 238.

tempted to explore the nature of public administration. It was indicated that as an instrument of government, public administration is concerned with the fulfillment of social objectives and the accomplishments of the ends of the state.

Public administration seeks to be efficient in the performance of its task. The nature of public administration makes it necessary for it to have a social concept of efficiency as well as that of scientific management relative to the productivity of the individual plant or person.¹¹⁰ The mechanical and narrow interpretation of efficiency is rejected for a broader and more humane concept.

Administration helps to formulate policy and to fashion important realms of discretion in the modern democratic state. Policy and administration are not compartmentalized. "Administration involves planning, and planning is essentially a choice of objectives."¹¹¹ The administrator is concerned with policy and it is his duty to work out methods whereby policies can actually be ef-

¹¹⁰Marshall E. Dimock, "The Criteria and Objectives of Public Administration," in J. M. Gaus, L. D. White, M. E. Dimock, The Frontiers of Public Administration, Chicago: The University of Chicago, 1936, p. 116.

¹¹¹Ibid., p. 128.

fect. "Policy and methods" are the two categories of the administrator's planning job.

Some of the elements that are essential to effective management have been explored. Some of these elements include

the location of authority to determine structure; the doctrine of unity; the formation of departments and their subdivisions; the nature of line, auxiliary, and staff agencies; the nature and purpose of hierarchy; the location and delegation of authority; the coordination of parts; and the basic organizational unit, the individual position.¹¹²

The evidence indicates that these elements lend themselves to systematic organization for academic study.

There exists a large body of knowledge in the field of public administration. This knowledge is constantly growing. It can be organized for the purpose of teaching and learning. The study of public administration is certain to grow increasingly important in the universities, because it is worthy to rank as a university discipline in its own right. L

¹¹²White, op. cit., p. 28.

CHAPTER IV

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE PUBLIC SERVICE

I. THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY

Introduction. Today, as never before, institutions of higher learning in many countries of the world are being called upon to train men and women for the various branches of the public service. The technical assistance program which has become a prominent feature of post-World War II international relations is being conducted mainly through the agency of universities and colleges.

The governments of the "have" nations are employing the services of their colleges and universities to help provide the needed assistance to the "have-not" underdeveloped nations. As of September 30, 1955, forty-eight American colleges and universities were taking part in the International Cooperation Administration-sponsored contract programs in thirty-six different countries, and the number of such contracts in operation was seventy-seven.¹ Many of these contracts call for cooperation with educa-

¹Quarterly Summary Statements, ICA-Financed Contracts, Washington, D. C.: International Cooperation Administration, S/UCC, November, 1955.

tional institutions in the host countries. The fields of activities vary widely and the countries that need help are scattered all over the world.² Not only individual nations, but the United Nations organization also is utilizing the services of universities in the implementation of its technical assistance program.³

The study of public administration has become very prominent in this drive to utilize the universities for public service training purposes. The exchange of scholars between different institutions is taking place at an increasing rate and universities in both the underdeveloped and advanced countries are expanding their faculties to include the "new" faculty of public administration.⁴

The public service today. The problem of training for the public service has become a major concern because of the nature of present day government. The concept of modern government has undergone a change from negative control to that of a positive and dynamic instrument of

²See Appendix B for the countries and the fields of activity covered in the contracts.

³H. L. Keenleyside, "Administrative Problems of the United Nations Technical Assistance Administration," Public Administration, 33:241-267, Autumn, 1955.

⁴John W. Lederle and Ferrel Heady, "Institute of Public Administration, University of the Philippines," Public Administration Review, 15:8-16, Winter, 1955.

social service. This change in the concept of government has resulted in an equally tremendous change in the nature of the functions of government.

The Civil Servant does more than control and regulate. . . . The duties of the Local Authorities have become more numerous and more positive. To supervise their powers in such fields as housing and town planning demands a different kind of knowledge from that which sufficed for the days of simple regulation. In agriculture, in health, in education, the Departments not merely restrain; they encourage certain forms of activity.⁶

Writing about this transformation in the nature and function of government another student said that:

In the past, the greater part of our public administration consisted of regulatory services: that is, services in which departments were required to control the conduct of individuals and corporate bodies in accordance with carefully enacted legal provisions. A typical example of this is the Factory Acts. Today, however, the most important part of our public administration consists of service functions, i.e., those in which a service is provided, such as housing, transportation, education, and so forth. In these service functions the official is less concerned to administer law than to promote energetic and far-reaching projects based on plans which he must himself create. The question is whether this kind of constructive work can be performed successfully by merely obedient officials who are indifferent to the social purposes involved.⁷

⁶Emmeline W. Cohen, The Growth of the British Civil Service-- 1780-1939, London: George Allen and Unwin, Limited, 1941, p. 208.

⁷William A. Robson, "The Public Service," in William A. Robson, (ed.), The British Civil Servant, London: George Allen and Unwin, Limited, 1937, pp. 18-19.

The demand for governmental services is almost overwhelming. The government is expected not only to restrain, but also to stimulate the private sector of the economy. It is because of this that inefficiencies in the conduct of public affairs can no longer be lightly regarded.

Public administration in its manifold aspects has become the principal intermediary by which the statutorily formulated synthesis between private initiative and the common weal is transformed into social actuality. In its role of intermediary, it is today one of the dominant forces that mold civic attitude. Far more than the legislative and judicial branches of government, it realizes day by day, through an abundance of more or less subtle contacts with the public, the omnipresence of the state. . . .

In view of this obligatory expansion, it is obvious why administrative efficiency is more and more recognized as the mainspring of good government. . . . Administrative efficiency practically depends upon the ethical standards and the professional qualifications of the public personnel. . . . The importance of the public service as an indispensable instrument of modern government can hardly be overestimated.⁸

It is the need to meet this great demand of the public service that has impelled the universities to give an increasing attention to the problem of training. Some people think that this training should not be conducted at the university level. They think it is inconsistent

⁸F. Morstein Marx, "Civil Service in Germany," in Leonard D. White, Charles H. Bland, Walter R. Sharp and F. Morstein Marx, Civil Service Abroad, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935, pp. 161-162.

with the aims of university education.

Purpose of university education. The university must be viewed from the standpoint of what it can contribute to sustaining and supporting the ideals of the society in which it exists. In a democratic society its aims must be to contribute to the conditions under which "freedom can flourish and in which man can attain his highest fulfillment."⁹

Universities are the seats of learning, but at no time have they been restricted to pure abstract learning.

The university of Salerno in Italy, the earliest of European universities, was devoted to medicine. In England, at Cambridge, in the year 1316, a college was founded for the special purpose of providing clerks for the king's service. Universities have trained clergy, medical men, lawyers, engineers.¹⁰

The national life should be affected by the activities of its universities and they should promote the imaginative acquisition of knowledge. The reason for the existence of universities

is not to be found either in the mere knowledge conveyed to the students or in the mere opportunities for research afforded to the members of the faculty.

⁹Donald C. Stone, "The Top Manager and His Environment," in Joseph E. McLean, The Public Service and University Education, Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1949, p. 69.

¹⁰Alfred North Whitehead, "Universities and Their Function," in Alfred N. Whitehead, The Aims of Education and Other Essays, New York: Mentor Books, by the New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1954, p. 96.

Both these functions could be performed at a cheaper rate, apart from these very expensive institutions. . . . So far as the mere imparting of information is concerned, no university has had any justification for existence since the popularisation of printing in the fifteenth century. . . .

The justification for a university is that it preserves the connection between knowledge and the zest of life, by uniting the young and the old in the imaginative consideration of learning. The university imparts information, but it imparts it imaginatively. At least, this is the function which it should perform for society. . . . This atmosphere of excitement, arising from imaginative consideration, transforms knowledge. A fact is no longer a bare fact; it is invested with all its possibilities. It is no longer a burden on the memory; it is energizing as the poet of our dreams, and as the architect of our purposes. . . .

The task of a university is to weld together imagination and experience. . . .

The universities have trained the intellectual pioneers of our civilization-- the priests, the lawyers, the statesmen, the doctors, the men of science, and the men of letters. . . . The conduct of business now requires intellectual imagination of the same type as that which in former times had mainly passed into those other occupations; and the universities are the organizations which have supplied this type of mentality for the service of the progress of the European races.¹¹

Perhaps even more important than the promotion of civilization is the university's purpose to develop individuals and make it possible for them to develop to their fullest capacities. The great contribution of the university, and "the function in which it excels other institutions, is the development of the individual as an individual for his own sake. In other environments the individu-

¹¹Ibid., pp. 97-99.

al's development is incidental to some ulterior motive."¹²
 The university teaches the student both mental habits and skills. He is given not only the formal knowledge of tool subjects, but he is taught to do something with the knowledge, "formulate a plan of action and can define, explain, and defend it in spoken or written words if necessary."¹³

It is the aim of university education to promote culture. This it does through the medium of the students.

Culture is activity of thought, and receptiveness to beauty and humane feeling. . . . What we should aim at producing is men who possess both culture and expert knowledge in some special direction. Their expert knowledge will give them the ground to start from, and their culture will lead them as deep as philosophy and as high as art. We have to remember that the valuable intellectual development is self-development. . . .¹⁴

The responsibility of universities. From the discussions in the preceding paragraphs it will be seen that universities should have a warm and living interest in the future of their government and of the nation's civilization. In a broad sense, all university education is training for the national service. "Without fully realizing

¹²George A. Graham, Education for Public Administration, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1941, p. 64.

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Alfred N. Whitehead, "The Aims of Education," in Whitehead, op. cit., p. 13.

and largely without intending to, colleges and universities have been supplying national, state, and local governments with their specialists, scientists, and professional workers."¹⁵

The responsibility of universities to train prospective public servants is not a mere academic question. It is a real and practical problem because "whether they like it or not, the universities are involved in public service training. Sometimes intentionally, but if not, inadvertently, they are sending their graduates into the public service."¹⁶

In a questionnaire sent to 17,825 graduates of the University of Minnesota who had received A.B. or B.S. degrees from 1928 to 1936 about their employment experiences, 5,835 of them responded. An analysis of these revealed that 2,124 were employed in the government. An additional 894 had previously been in the employ of government. That is, 52 per cent of such graduates either were or had been public employees.¹⁷ While this figure may not be the same

¹⁵John M. Gaus, "The University-Wide Approach," McLean, op. cit., p. 191.

¹⁶Graham, op. cit., p. 5.

¹⁷Lloyd M. Short and Gordon O. Pehrson, A Survey of University Graduates Employed in Government Service, 1928-1936, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Public Administration Training Center, 1939.

for other schools, it can reasonably be presumed that a large number of all university graduates find their way into the public service. The universities cannot, therefore, go into an ivory-tower isolation from the modern world and pretend that they are deeply concerned with the concrete political and social problems of their own day.¹⁸

British experience. The responsibility of the university to train public servants has long been recognized in Britain. "What the universities are concerned with is, in the main, the administrative class (whose function is) to provide the general managerial capacity."¹⁹ This is the class that works out detailed policy and legislation in accordance with the political directions of ministers. They are responsible for the management of their departments, again under the general orders of ministers.

The public schools and the universities of Oxford and Cambridge have played important roles in directing exceptional young men to the Civil Service. They have been the educators of boys and young men of the upper classes

¹⁸Frederick S. Dunn, "Education and Foreign Affairs: A Challenge for the Universities," in McLean, op. cit., p. 140.

¹⁹Sir James Grigg, "The British Civil Service," in McLean, op. cit., p. 150.

and the traditions of these ancient institutions of learning impress upon them their responsibilities to the state.

The liaison of the universities and the Civil Service has been powerfully strengthened by the recruitment system of the latter. Since the beginning of the Civil Service reform movement it has been an axiom that the competitive examinations for appointment to the Service should be geared into the educational system of the country. Examinations of increasing severity should parallel the stages at which boys and girls complete their education. Thus . . . the Administrative class examination is framed for university graduates.

These competitions come annually, and the age limits are so restricted that the candidates must take the examinations soon after they leave school or the university. . . . This gearing together of the educational system and the Civil Service examinations has the effect of inducing many young men and women to try for positions in the public service before they seek other employment. The examinations are set as the natural culmination of a young person's education. . . .

Besides the effort made to integrate recruitment to the Civil Service and the educational system, the type of examinations is important in attracting young, university-trained people into government service. The Administrative Class examination is designed to test young men and women not in the more or less practical work of a government department, but rather in their mental equipment.

The quality of the candidates is so good and the examination so stiff that a person with less than a university honors degree has little chance of appointment.²⁰

It should be pointed out that the trend in Britain is towards the liberalization of the opportunities for appointment to the administrative class. It is now theor-

²⁰Hiram M. Stout, Public Service in Great Britain, Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1938, pp. 83-85.

etically possible for those without university education to rise to this class from lower civil service positions, but, in practice, the great majority of recruits are from the universities.²¹

Summary. It is the obligation of all educational institutions to recognize preparation for participation in public affairs as an essential part of general education.

Good government depends upon intelligent and trained personnel in all its branches. The training of such personnel is the task to which schools, colleges and universities throughout the country must address themselves. "Implicit in the accomplishment of the task is the assumption that the policies and practices of government and the educational institutions are inter-related."²²

The universities have the obligation to train men and women to serve as useful citizens who will carry on "the cultural heritage of the past, and . . . take their

²¹R. K. Kelsall, Higher Civil Servants in Britain--From 1870 to the Present Day, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited, 1955.

²²William S. Carpenter, The Unfinished Business of Civil Service Reform, Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1952, p. 101.

places as productive members of private professions and occupations . . . (and) a responsibility to train students for service in federal, state, and local governments."²³ The overwhelming importance of political and administrative leadership in the modern world places an obligation on universities to provide education for the public service and to provide direct aid, consultation, and research on governmental problems.

Training for public administration does not imply a special professional apprenticeship. It is part of the broad problem of educational policy. The ideal is continuous growth and widening experience for the individual as he prepares himself to meet successive tests of competence for tasks of greater responsibility.

The problem of the kind of academic program that is best for training for the public service is one on which there are divergent ideas. One American scholar argues that

The universities should not shape their courses to civil service examinations, but they should attempt to turn out men so well prepared for life, including public life, that civil service authorities will be compelled to recognize their competence and to adapt civil service examinations to their qualities.

²³James W. Fesler, "Undergraduate Training for the Public Service," American Political Science Review, 41:507, June, 1947.

The university authorities must go half way.²⁴

In short, then, it is the role of the universities to increase the supply of competent men whom education fits to be policy-makers or advisers to policy-makers.

They should

maintain, by adequate research programs, a constant stream of new knowledge, new insights, and new ideas to aid the work of decision-makers and increase our general understanding of the world in which we live. . . .²⁵

II. PRE-SERVICE EDUCATION

Introduction. The great importance of political and administrative leadership in the modern world makes it a primary obligation on the part of the universities to provide education for public service and to "assist in the training of government employees as well as to provide direct aid, consultation and research on government problems."²⁶ This means that the university needs to develop an

organized program of education, training, research and consultation . . . and devoted primarily to the devel-

²⁴Graham, op. cit., pp. 23-24.

²⁵Dunn, op. cit., p. 138.

²⁶Henry Reining, Jr., "Pre-Entry Education for the Public Service," Lecture delivered before the Institute of Public Administration, University of Puerto Rico, October 18, 1955.

opment of currently employed administrative personnel and of probable candidates for such posts.²⁷

Objectives of pre-service education. The major objective of pre-service education is to produce individuals with the qualities which are useful in public administration.

James Forrestal advised that for those who propose to enter the service of government,

university training should have as its objective the capacity for clear thinking, for lucidity and clarity of expression and, above all, for the application of understanding and pragmatic methods, rather than dogmatic methods, to the human problems which are and always will be the main problems of government.²⁸

He also included such qualities as a "sense of responsibility beyond the immediate one of earning a living," and "humility which is the foundation of sound scholarship"²⁹ as aims of such education.

Government is interested in more than job proficiency.

. . . it is interested in potentialities, breadth of

²⁷Henry Reining, Jr., "The Establishment of an Institute of Public Administration," Memorandum submitted before the Committee on Administrative Practices, IX Congress of the International Institute of Administrative Sciences, Istanbul, Turkey, September 6-14, 1953.

²⁸James Forrestal, "Managing the Public's Business," in McLean, op. cit., p. 242.

²⁹Ibid.

comprehension, and all the other attitudes and attributes of truly educated men and women. It wants men who have developed critical intelligence, who are free from littleness and prejudice, who not only had experience or experiences, as all animals do, but have generalized upon them and evolved principles and values for the future. Without such men and women, the complicated tasks of government simply cannot be done. The need is by no means vocational alone. It is cultural . . . in the sense of development of attitude, emphasis, and approach, which transcend content. . . . Culture . . . the residue, the distillation . . . of facts themselves forgotten. . . . If "bureaucrats" are always to be with us, they should be the best that education can make them.³⁰

Frederick Dunn argues that while the aim of university education should not be job or vocational training, "it does not follow that the best training of future decision-makers is found in subjects that have no discernible relation to the types of problems which they may later face."³¹ He believes that

the primary task of education for prospective decision-makers and their advisers must be to provide them with the kinds of knowledge, methods, and intellectual skills that will enable them to face new questions in their fields without dismay.³²

The British emphasize "a wide intellectual hori-

³⁰Eldon L. Johnson, "Education: Antidote for Bureaucracy," School and Society, December 16, 1944, pp. 386-387.

³¹Dunn, op. cit., p. 124.

³²Ibid., p. 127.

zon . . . prudence, resolution, invincible common sense"³³
 as some of the objectives of their pre-service education
 program. They aim to produce

persons of general managerial capacity-- people who
 may not know all about everything, but who are capable
 of learning almost anything and who know where to find
 people who do know about the things they don't.³⁴

The aim of pre-service education is not to produce
 a finished administrator.

It should be emphasized that no training program
 will produce a finished administrator. In an import-
 ant measure, administration is an art that can be
 learned only in years of practical experience. But
 it has been demonstrated in this field as in so many
 others that education . . . will make one more adept
 in the practice of the art and will shorten the road
 to the goal of competency.³⁵

The logical question that presents itself here is
 what kind of education is best fitted to produce men with
 the qualities which have been described above?

Specialization. Specialization calls for the con-
 centration of pre-service education in training for a
 special or specific job. William Carpenter argues that
 it would be dangerous for American education to con-

³³H. E. Dale, The Higher Civil Service of Great
 Britain, London: Oxford University Press, 1941, p. 214.

³⁴Grigg, op. cit., p. 152.

³⁵"Graduate Courses in Public Administration,"
Syracuse University Bulletin, September 15, 1947, p. 5.

centrate too closely upon employment. It is neither possible nor desirable for schools, colleges, and universities to provide training for specific jobs in the government service. The jobs may not be available at any level of government when the training program has been completed.³⁶

Rowland Egger argues that administration is broader than mere technical expertness which is the main concern of specialization.

Specialized training in the law or the sciences is an inadequate foundation upon which to build an administrative career. . . . Administration, although not separate and apart from the activity administered, involves a series of relationships not inherent in what is to be administered, but superimposed upon it. The understanding of the nature of these relationships and of the art of utilizing them effectively will be facilitated by a mastery of the principles of public administration and an exploration of the content of the social sciences. If government is to secure for the public service recruits who have the capacity to become satisfactory administrators, our educational institutions must be induced to afford selected students an opportunity to acquire a perspective of the relations of governmental operations to the public interest much broader than that usually developed in the standardized technical courses.³⁷

A noted British scholar believes that specialization makes for rigidity of mind and narrowness in outlook, and these are considered to be undesirable qualities in public administrators. Specialization demands a fund of exact knowledge which leaves little or no room for

³⁶Carpenter, op. cit., p. 83.

³⁷Rowland Egger, "American Administrative Class?" in McLean, op. cit., p. 224.

metaphysical adventuring, and the confines within which doubt and curiosity might arise are rather narrow . . . the German being based much more upon the correct use of authorities, the British more upon personal judgements. . . . This produces civil servants more useful in a static than a dynamic state; excellent interpreters of the past but not inventors of the ways and means of the future: apter to explain than to evaluate; and inflexible in the power to make exceptions . . . which is nine-tenths of administration.³⁸

The limitations of specialization as the basis of pre-service education for the prospective public administrator are pointed out more clearly in this question posed by a scientist who asked:

Will the educated man be a specialist, a scientist or technician with no other interests, who will run his fellow men by the mean and brutal efficiency of George Orwell's book? Or will he be a statesman, an administrator, a humanist, who is at home in the methods of science, but who does not regard them as the mere tools of efficiency?³⁹

Generalization. A generalist program involves the production of students who have training enough in several fields to understand subject-matter questions when presented for solution, and skill enough in administration to fit them together as need arises without friction or disaster.⁴⁰

³⁸Herman Finer, The Theory and Practice of Modern Government, Vol. 2, New York: Dial Press, 1932, pp. 269-270.

³⁹Dr. J. Bronowsky, Research Director of Britain's National Coal Board, in John A. May, "British Savants Sift Education," The Christian Science Monitor, Boston, September 9, 1955. . . .

⁴⁰Fesler, op. cit., p. 508.

The generalizing mind is one that can grasp a multitude of complex relationships,

penetrate and understand the significant conclusions of a variety of technical specialists, bring them together into order and unity, and lay out a plan of action which is within the realm of existing possibility.⁴¹

Henry Reining, Jr. believes that "public administration must be studied and taught in the light of the broad culture of each different place, and in a manner which will be effective in that particular cultural context."⁴² The generalist approach to pre-service education should therefore be based on a

broad cultural and scientific training, designed to give men power of independent thought, ability for clear and lucid expression of ideas, and possibly the most important of all, what may be called the humanistic attitude that government shall remain the servant, and not become the master of the people.⁴³

Liberal education. Liberal education consists of training in the liberal arts and of understanding the leading ideas that have animated mankind since the dawn of history. "It aims to help the human being to think for

⁴¹John M. Pfiffner and R. Vance Presthus, Public Administration, 3rd edition, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1953, p. 344.

⁴²Reining, "The Modern Role of the University in Public Affairs," loc. cit.

⁴³James Forrestal, "The University in Public Service," The Journal of Higher Education, 18:5, January, 1947.

himself to develop his highest human powers."⁴⁴

Among the goals of a liberal education are understanding, expression, and taste.

The first goal . . . is to understand life. The second goal is to loose a man's tongue, to free his mind, to release him from his isolation, to teach him to think and to convey his thoughts to his fellows. A third goal is taste, appreciation, values-- ability to distinguish between good and evil in aesthetics, ethics, and utilities; a preference for the rich and enduring joys that are also social in their general availability and beneficial effect.⁴⁵

But liberal education also involves understanding of an important phase of modern life which is represented by the social sciences. "It is necessary to know something of social, economic, and political institutions. We can no longer take the social order for granted."⁴⁶ A speaking acquaintance with the social sciences including public administration is an integral part of a liberal education. The liberal objective of such a course in public administration, to understand this important phase of modern life, is no less liberal because it is essential to one who would work within that sphere. George Graham contends that a systematic introduction to the social

⁴⁴Robert M. Hutchins, The Conflict in Education in a Democratic Society, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953, p. 83.

⁴⁵Graham, op. cit., p. 112.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 113.

sciences is particularly important for the prospective administrator because

It is no easier to get acquainted with accumulated experience, to discover the elusiveness of truth, or to master the art of thinking straight in the social studies than it is in chemistry or physics. There is a fundamental difference between the artist's approach to social problems and the social scientist's approach that is apt to escape the man who has not had a thorough introduction to both. The humanist focuses on the individual, considering one man at a time, even if briefly. The setting and the rest of the cast are assumed. The social scientist's concern is with the scene, the players, their movements and relationships, with the common problems and the social behavior of men, not with the peculiar individual and his fate. The social scientist is perhaps too prone to overlook the individual and take him for granted at times, but without his broad perspective and systematic approach to social problems, a man will be handicapped in dealing with public affairs. One does not learn to deal with social data except by doing so. Early superiority in letters and science may lead to latter success in administration, but that success is more apt to be cleverness in playing the game under the rules than wisdom in revising the old or constructing new rules.⁴⁷

Summary. The decision to make a conscious attempt to train students for the public service implies a professional training and a preparation for action rather than education for understanding alone. But this does not mean a purely vocational training or specific preparation for a particular task. The objective is to develop the knowledge and qualities of mind which will make for sub-

⁴⁷Ibid.

sequent success. Liberal education is the best foundation for such training.

III. THE CURRICULUM

Introduction. The problem of designing an academic program for students who plan to enter the public service is one on which opinions are divided even among eminent authorities in the field, and there seems to be no magic formula for resolving it. The needs of the public service are both considerable and important. The problem seems to be "a matter of determining what phases of the rich store of human experience are most significant and what skills, methods and facilities are most useful for careers in the public service."⁴⁸

The classical tradition. This has been the educational foundation of the British administrative class. The students are trained on Plato and Aristotle at Oxford or grounded in the abstract thought of modern science and mathematics at Cambridge. The belief is that a humanistic culture, intensely philosophical and with a rich historical perspective, is the groundwork of any long-run human development.

Herman Finer concedes that the subject matter

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 23.

studied at Oxford and Cambridge can be of great value to a modern administrator, but he believes that the tutorial method is the important asset of the old universities. He says that "it is important to insist that it is the method of studying and learning and not the subject of information which is of moment. . . ."49 He suggests that

there should be no handicap placed upon sociology, politics, and economics as fields of study for civil servants, because they can be taught to give the mind a general liberal culture as well as to give it a special cast and interest.⁵⁰

Another scholar noted that classical education might be a good foundation for prospective public servant, but he pointed out the fact that the administrator

is frequently called upon to deal with very practical problems of administration before he has had an opportunity to acquaint himself with the trends of modern thought in economics, sociology, and government. There is an abrupt change from a sheltered life where he has been dealing, in the main, with theory to the decidedly vital and practical problems of a government department.⁵¹

Criticism of the classical tradition. In a critical analysis of the British civil service, Donald Kingsley argued that classical education was a limiting

⁴⁹Herman Finer, The British Civil Service, London: Allen and Unwin, 1937, p. 93.

⁵⁰Finer, The Theory and Practice of Modern Government, op. cit., p. 1311.

⁵¹Stout, op. cit., p.90.

factor to the intellectual training of the student of public administration.⁵² He stated that the vision and understanding which the student brings to his work

will depend upon his orientation to social and economic questions and upon his clear perception of the relations of his own activity to the general picture. To be sure, such understanding may be acquired in the course of duty. But for large numbers, this is unlikely, unless institutional arrangements are provided conducive to such a development. What seems to be indicated by the changing administrative climate is either greater emphasis upon the social sciences in the entrance examinations, or a system of post-entry training designed to orient the young official in this area. In any event, existing arrangements seem inadequate.⁵³

Hiram Stout argued that classical education as such was not the only reason for the satisfactory foundations for public service which students received in Britain. He writes that both

the "old" and the "new" learning can be satisfactory foundations for public service . . . the new will produce its share of capable administrators if it is studied in a liberal fashion and not allowed to degenerate into vocational techniques. The tutorial method applied to both develops powers of comprehension, discrimination, and appreciation. The student must not only absorb, but he must arrange to defend his opinions against a skilled mind.⁵⁴

⁵²J. Donald Kingsley, Representative Bureaucracy: An Interpretation of the British Civil Service, Yellow Springs, Ohio: The Antioch Press, 1944.

⁵³Ibid., pp. 165-166.

⁵⁴Stout, op. cit., pp. 87-88.

The new approach. The new approach maintains that "administration is not alone an art, but also a science, and that certain principles may be deduced from administrative practices which, taken all together, provide a body of organized knowledge."⁵⁵

This new approach is based on the idea that a liberal education and professional education are not mutually exclusive. They overlap in many respects, particularly if both are conceived realistically and carried out effectively.

In making an undergraduate's education liberal a faculty need not attempt to divest it of all professional utility . . . the curriculum may contain a great deal that is equally essential as a foundation and general preparation for careers in the professions, business, and the public service.⁵⁶

Training that is professional in the broadest sense is not substantially different from education that is liberal. The object "is to get such experience in a field of action and to understand it so well that one can thereafter move around in it with a sure foot and with full understanding of what one is doing. . . ." ⁵⁷ It is

⁵⁵William E. Mosher, J. Donald Kingsley and O. Glen Stahl, Public Personnel Administration, 3rd edition, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950, p. 396.

⁵⁶Graham, op. cit., p. 105.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 42.

important for the student to be introduced to the humanities which are concerned with man as an individual, particularly his feelings and tastes, and the social sciences which are concerned chiefly with the organized relations and activities of men. The important thing here is to give the student some impression of the nature and scope of human experience as it relates to his future field of activity.

Summary of the new approach. In summary, the new approach to the problem of pre-service education considers the needs of the prospective public servant to include:

1. Liberal education described as

a reasonably comprehensive word picture of the world; some understanding of human life, individual and social; a personally satisfying way of thinking and living that is sympathetically although critically social in its basic premises; and some facility in thought and expression. . . .⁵⁸

2. Substantive subjects. A man going into the public service should have a knowledge of certain subjects.

Political economy . . . an analytically descriptive type of institutional economics is most useful . . . Political science or governmental institutions and processes, unofficial as well as official public law, public administration-- treating both management processes and the whole phenomenon of organized group action.⁵⁹

The course in public administration should give attention

⁵⁸Graham, ibid., p. 42.

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 44.

to the problems and techniques of administrative management.

Here especially the emphasis should be on the problems of operating officials several steps down the line from agency heads-- the level often spoken of as "middle management." Attention would be given to such aspects of the practice of administration as the art of leadership and supervision of subordinates; the use of staff meetings; the development of effective lines of communication with superiors, subordinates, and coordinates through administrative orders, progress reporting arrangements, and informal contacts; the documentation of proposals and of decisions arrived at; the skills involved in presiding over or representing one's agency at, meetings of representatives of several units, agencies, or even governments; the tools for analyzing administrative operations to bring about more effective performance.⁶⁰

3. Tool subjects. Public administration needs full command of tools of thought and expression. One should be able to understand the mother tongue, the languages of statistics, accounting, and some other specialties. These are

used so widely in nearly all large organizations, whether or not in the public service, and they are so important in dealing with masses of data and large sums of money, that they are almost indispensable for the man who is to have a responsible position in a governmental organization.⁶¹

Other subjects regarded as "tool courses" include English composition, psychology, personnel management, fiscal administration, organization and methods. Some authorities

⁶⁰Fesler, op. cit., p. 510.

⁶¹Graham, op. cit., p. 45.

would expand the list to include sociology, anthropology, public policy, and political parties and public opinion.

The mere listing of courses can be misleading however, for it conceals the important factor of the content and approach of these courses. James Fesler urges that

The statistics course, for example, had better be economic statistics or social statistics, rather than mathematical statistics or psychological statistics. The English composition course, preferably an advanced undergraduate expository writing such as is done in government memoranda and reports, rather than the writing of fiction. The psychology course should focus on problems of human relations rather than on the structure of the eye.⁶²

In short, the curriculum for undergraduate training for public administration should emphasize a general liberal education plus the acquisition of general skills such as oral and written expression in the use of quantitative as well as verbal symbols. It should avoid offering a narrowly vocational course, but rather place more emphasis on developing certain interests and attitudes of mind, the ability to interpret facts and ideas, and the ability to think critically. Such a curriculum must recognize the need to provide training for "leaders-- who must necessarily be few-- but also train middle-level adminis-

⁶²Fesler, op. cit., p. 508.

trators for small and medium-sized towns, and for administrative technicians of modest rank."⁶³ The emphasis on a broad and a "curricular flexibility . . . does not preclude an emphasis on certain core courses having special value to future administrators."⁶⁴

Sample curriculum. It would be difficult to draw up an ideal curriculum that would receive universal approval. There may be general agreement on the broad objective of such a curriculum but it would be more difficult to reach a unanimous agreement on the details. Henry Reining, Jr. prefaced the following sample curriculum with the remark that there is no magic formula for making a public administration curriculum,

but I should like to suggest the first two years completely devoted to general and citizenship education and half to two-thirds of the Junior and Senior years likewise . . . conversely then public administration gets about 25 or at most 30 hours.⁶⁵

First two years.

English Communication (at least one full year's course)

History of Civilization

⁶³Ibid., p. 510.

⁶⁴Ibid., p. 507.

⁶⁵Henry Reining, Jr., "Pre-Entry Education for the Public Service," loc. cit.

Social Study (one full year)

National History and Governmental Institutions
(one full year) This should be cast in
such a way as to impart citizenship skills
as well as real knowledge.

Psychology

Philosophy (including ethics and logic)

College Laboratory Science (preferably Chem-
istry and Physics)

A Foreign Language (two years)

Mathematics

Accounting

Statistics

Music and Art Appreciation

Second two years. Three components: (a) general
education, (b) requirements basic to public administration,
(c) public administration itself.

(a) Continuation of general education with empha-
sis on those social science courses that are basic to
administration as well as to politics:

Economics (especially public finance)

Psychology (especially social psychology)

Sociology

Anthropology (especially cultural and social
anthropology)

Political Science (with emphasis on political dynamics).

The electives such as Speech, English, Journalism and the fine arts should not be neglected.

(b) Requirements basic to public administration include:

Law and the Instruments of Government (including national, state, and local governments)

Statistics

Accounting.

These should all be taught in such a way as to enlighten and illustrate the problems of administration.

(c) Public administration courses:

Introduction to Public Administration:

Staff

Program

Personnel Administration

Human Relations

Financial Administration:

Budgeting and Expenditure Control

Theory of Organization and Management

Politics and Administration

Administrative Analysis.

It is important to notice that the curriculum

outlined above does not provide for either technique courses such as Public Relations, Planning, Training, Testing, or functional courses such as Police Administration, Fire Administration, Government and Business, etc.

Some students of this field would argue for the inclusion of these courses and their case would be strong especially if the courses were broadly conceived, well taught, amply demonstrated with practical illustrations and by use of the case method. However, the problem that presents itself here is how to crowd all the desirable courses in the curriculum toward the three-way objective of personal, public, and professional education and still leave room by way of electives for the student's own predilections.⁶⁶

Specialization. It should also be noticed that this sample curriculum does not provide for specialization. Such technique courses as Testing and Training could be used for electives if the student wishes to become a personnel technician upon graduation or Police Investigation and Evidence if he wants to become a police officer. But the pre-service student should be discouraged from such a course of action. However, such specialization presents a different problem if the student

⁶⁶Ibid.

has already started in that career.

This leads us to a further consideration of curriculum. Do the same considerations apply to the part-time student who is a full-time government employee and who for some reason or other was not able to complete his baccalaureate prior to entry and who as a result goes after that degree either after hours, on a part-time basis, or full-time on a leave of absence basis? In other words, should the same curriculum be specified for in-service or post-entry education as is laid down for pre-entry?

In general, the answer, it appears to me, is yes. But as to the extent of specialization, the answer is probably different than for the pre-entry student.⁶⁷

In the case of the part-time in-service education students the electives could be used for specialization on condition that all the general education and other necessary requirements are met. This problem of specialization will be discussed further in the section dealing with in-service education.

Conclusion. A careful analysis of the curriculum suggested for pre-service undergraduate training will reveal the following facts:

(a) The "school of public administration" or the political science department does not have a monopoly in the training of students for the public service. Almost every department of the university is engaged in such training.

(b) A number of the required courses would normally form a part of the course of study of students whether

⁶⁷Ibid.

they were consciously training for the public service or not.

(c) There is a deliberate avoidance of driving a student down the narrow channel of vocational training. This means that a student acquires skills that will be useful in other walks of life if he decides not to enter the public service after his graduation.

Public administration professional sequence.

There are undergraduate students who are pursuing substantive specialist courses and have in a sense already chosen their future careers in the government. These include engineers, doctors, lawyers, scientists, etc. Some of these men may in time become supervisors, managers and administrators in the public service.

The university should provide such students the opportunity to take some administrative subject matter as part of their undergraduate training. The suggested courses for this sequence might consist of the following:

Public Administration (introductory course)

Organization

Personnel

Human Relations

Finance

Statistics.

This could serve as a core curriculum in public

administration which could be followed by students majoring in almost any department or school of the university.

The public administration department or school owes it to the rest of the university to offer its courses as a supplement to other curricula for the non-public administration students prior to their entry into the government service.

Summary. Undergraduate training for public administration requires:

(a) recognition of the university's obligation to facilitate the movement of able graduates into the public service and to guide students into the courses that will be equip them for that service;

(b) . . . provision of a core curriculum . . . which will provide an orientation in the social sciences, furnish knowledge of administrative tools, and afford a basic understanding of administrative problems for students planning to become subject-matter specialists, administrative specialists, or administrative generalists in the public service;

(c) careful fashioning of the introductory course in public administration so that it shall give students a realistic appreciation of the problems encountered by administrators and an awareness of the experience of administrators who have sought solutions to those problems; and

(d) emphasis upon guiding potential administrative specialists and administrative generalists into those advanced undergraduate social science courses which will give them a broad foundation for their later in-service training or graduate training and for their future advancement to positions of administrative responsibility.⁶⁸

⁶⁸Fesler, op. cit., pp. 516-517.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Methodology in the teaching of public administration is a difficult problem. The problem arises partly from the inadequacy of the lecture method as a means of transmitting information in any subject, and partly from the fact that public administration is an applied subject. Not only knowledge, but skills such as analysis in various forms-- job evaluation, organization surveys, procedural analysis, etc.-- and decision-making are important parts of the subject.

The major task is to compensate for the pre-service student's lack of acquaintance with the administrative environment. James Fesler, summarizing the result of a series of round tables held in Washington, D. C. during the Second World War on the problem of Undergraduate Instruction, said that this problem cannot be met by the traditional text book teaching method alone.

Among the possible remedies are: frequent referring by the teacher to his own administrative experiences; arranging for the class or for individual students to visit selected administrative agencies; bringing in public administrators to report to the class on typical administrative problems, assigning reading in biographies of administrators, administrative histories of particular administrative agencies, and case studies; use of student organizations and university administration as examples; and posing of hypothetical administrative problems to students. The more promising students might be encouraged to

obtain summer employment in an administrative agency between their junior and senior years. . . .⁶⁹

These methods provide means of bringing reality to the classroom.

Part-time teachers. The use of mature government officials as either guest lecturers and/or part-time lecturers provides a

cross-fertilization of ideas . . . between the academic and the practitioner. . . . Where cooperation between academic and administrator has flowered, it has been facilitated by opportunities for the university professor to work in the government and for administrators to take a leave to teach in a university.⁷⁰

Case method. This is the study of the actual case histories of administrative decisions and actions. It helps to force the student into the role of the responsible participant who is required to make the decision. This involves the weighing in balance of all the factors attending a given situation. The case method attempts to convey to the student some of the realities in government service such as the fact that problems seldom have a single cause, but usually are a welter of complex motivations and cross currents.

⁶⁹Fesler, op. cit., pp. 515-516.

⁷⁰Fred Riggs, Training for National Administration, Brussels: International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 1953, pp. 21-22.

The most important effort to advance the case method has been through the Inter-University Case Program which furthers case writing and teaching in universities and allied public administration research centers. The program was organized to stimulate the use and writing of case studies as aids to the teaching and practice of public administration and policy formation. Through the writing and distribution of case studies on decision making by administrators at various levels of government the Inter-University Case Program aims

1. to enlarge the existing basis for realistic generalizations about administrative organization and behavior;
2. to explore the manner in which the insights developed by the various social sciences and disciplines can be marshalled in administrative policy-making;
3. to make generally available a body of varied case materials useful for teaching purposes, for scholarly inquiry, and for analysis by practitioners in the field of public administration; and
4. to secure widespread acceptance of the case study technique as a scholarly tool of research and reporting for use in theses, dissertations, and learned articles.⁷¹

Field work and internships. Administrative internship aims to help the student to develop administrative

⁷¹Inter-University Case Program, Index and Summary of Case Studies, Alabama: University of Alabama Press, Current, 1955, Preface.

maturity and skills by introducing him to the living structure of government and to the realities of administrative situations. This is done through the direct participation of the student in the actual work of governmental agencies. "The main concept is learning by doing."⁷²

Students are required to go out on field visits to government departments on observation trips or on actual work assignment. The work experience needs to be something more than of a clerical or routine nature. The primary concern is not with administrative minutiae but rather to help the student-intern to develop

an attitude which will lead him to study and appreciate not only what "is" and what "is possible," but also what "ought to be" thus opening the way into the realm of fruitful evaluation . . . acquire first-hand data and develop an insight into the cause-and-effect relationships in institutional behavior and the laws operating thereon.⁷³

The student intern should receive individual assignments to special and actual problems in the government agency with which he is working and

The departments give the research associates full access to departmental operations and records, and after careful investigation, each student submits a

⁷²E. John Rizos, "City Hall Internships for Management," Public Management, 38:3, January, 1956.

⁷³Ibid., pp. 8-9.

written analysis of his findings and recommendations for action.⁷⁴

The field work should be under faculty supervision and academically oriented if they are to be of maximum benefit. The students are guided through periodic reports on their activities, case studies and special seminar courses for the interns.

Summary. In summary, the study of public administration presents some peculiar problems and therefore, calls for some peculiar teaching methods. These include lecture and reading of text books, discussion seminars of the conference type, use of official reports, charts and materials, field visits and internships, use of the case method, and the use of guest lecturers such as experts in different fields and mature government officials.

⁷⁴Graham, op. cit., p. 7.

CHAPTER V

IN-SERVICE TRAINING, EDUCATION AND THE UNIVERSITY

I. INTRODUCTION . . .

There is no terminal point in the training and education of the men and women who enter the public service today. The ever-changing objectives and programs of government with a vast assortment of technological tasks make training and education the continuing need for those who are actively engaged in the public service. The new emphasis upon positive government impels this course of action.

The functions of Government have changed from being mainly negative into being mainly positive, that is to say, Governments have come to be engaged not merely in preventing wrong things from being done, but in bringing it about that the right things shall be done. . . . A negative Government only requires courage and consistency in its officials; but a positive Government requires constant supply of invention and suggestion. . . .¹

The rate of technological change creates new problems which can only be met by training.

We get more technical changes in one generation today than happened in a couple of centuries two or three hundred years ago. And technical change postu-

¹Graham Wallas, "Government," Public Administration, 6:3, 1928.

lates social and organizational change.²

In-service training and education.

In-service training. In-service training is directed mainly towards individuals who are actually at work.

The specific objective in view is performance. Training to improve performance may be special or general, but the immediate objective is definable in terms of present or future responsibility.³

It aims to

make organization members more effective in promoting the organization's goal. To promote the goal, organization members need certain personal "tools" or abilities which training provides.⁴

In short, the purpose of in-service training is to direct conscious efforts toward "the improvement or increase of a person's powers, skills or understanding, and the development of his beliefs or values."⁵

In-service education. The basic objectives of in-service education are essentially the same as those of in-service training. However, the former frequently re-

²Lyndall Urwick, "Experiences in Public Administration," Public Administration Review, 15:250, Autumn, 1955.

³Leonard D. White, Introduction to the Study of Public Administration, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1955, p. 3.

⁴Herbert A. Simon, Donald W. Smithburg, Victor A. Thompson, Public Administration, New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1954, p. 19.

⁵Ibid., p. 367.

sults from the individual employee's initiative while the latter is generally sponsored by the employer. Morstein Marx writes that

In-service education is not easily distinguished from pre-service education except by extrinsic factors such as that the students are employed, the course hours outside the normal working day, and perhaps that the instructors are part-time rather than full-time.

There may be intrinsic differences. Often, in-service courses are much more highly specialized in subject matter because these are designed for given groups of government employees whose desire it is to delve more deeply into a peculiar subject matter which is under their jurisdiction or part of their work.

An institution which is devoted to raising the professional level of competence of a given type of employee, i.e., the public service, cannot take the point of view of general education. Its objective is "professional" education. Its point of view is nearer to the law school, the medical school, the school of agriculture and the school of engineering than it is the college of liberal arts and sciences.

Does this mean that the courses to be offered by the institute should be so specific in nature as to be merely vocational? On the contrary, in-service education courses while specifically oriented should be broadly based. The appropriate base of public administration is to be found in all of the social sciences. Aside from political institutions and processes, spiritual elasticity . . . cannot be maintained solely by offering everybody a position which fully corresponds to the civil servant's mental energy. It is no less necessary to make him continually realize that he neglects to fulfill his duty unless he remains able to raise his head above the departmental problems. He must keep himself fit to envisage the great political, social, cultural, and economic tendencies outside the office.⁶

⁶F. Morstein Marx, "Civil Service in Germany," in Leonard D. White, Charles H. Bland, W. R. Sharp and F. M. Marx, Civil Service Abroad, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1935, p. 230.

In summary, the purpose and function of in-service education and training is to help employees to grow,

not only from the standpoint of mechanical efficiency, but also in terms of the broad outlook and perspective which public servants need. Training, like education, is a continuous process which should never end, because the need always exists.⁷

In addition, therefore, to purely vocational training directed to the proper performance of his day-to-day work, in-service education aims to encourage the worker to persevere with his own educational development, thus developing his capacity for higher work and greater responsibilities. Education aims at broadening the mind in order to appreciate that public administration is not a self-contained entity, but a tool through the use of which society can solve certain of its problems. It is not an end in itself, but a means for achieving social purposes. Those who practice this calling must have full grasp of all matters which condition its use.

The need. The need for in-service training in any large scale organization is constant. The personnel "is always shifting through deaths, resignations, retirement, dismissals, promotion, reductions in force, and new ap-

⁷Felix A. Nigro, Public Administration Readings and Documents, New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1951, pp. 253-254.

pointments. Every change means a new employee to be trained."⁸

The Second Hoover Commission reported that:

Continuous job training is a necessary corollary of continuous technological change.

Training is needed both to provide or improve job skills and to develop employees for a career in the public service.

Federal agency officials should make training beyond entrance levels a reward for competence, an incentive to increased and improved productivity, and a sign to employees that their talents and capabilities have been recognized.

The Federal employee most needs training at three major points in his career. First, on his entrance to public service his agency should make certain that he has a basic understanding of the needs of the American public service.

Second, as the employee advances in his field, there comes a time when he needs higher advanced knowledge of his occupation, skill in supervision of others, or both.

Third, as the employee enters executive ranks he needs to gain a working knowledge of Government programs outside of his own, a more thorough insight into public attitudes and legislative issues and a more comprehensive view of the techniques of management.⁹

⁸W. Brooke Graves, Public Administration in a Democratic Society, Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1950, p. 152.

⁹Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, Personnel and Civil Service: A Report to the Congress, Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, February, 1955, pp. 45-51.

There is the need to inculcate the right attitude towards the public in the public employee.

It is sometimes suggested that civil servants tend to form a class apart from the rest of the community and are apt to forget that John Citizen is a composite of innumerable individual John Smiths. The Civil Servant must never forget that he is the servant, not the master of the community, and that official competence need not, and should not involve the loss of the human touch.¹⁰

The behavior and education of the professional administrator are closely interrelated. Both have a direct bearing on the citizenry. The people and the civil service mutually depend on each other. "Without this immediate contact the administrative profession is in constant danger of degenerating into narrow-minded seclusiveness inclined to monopolize the political sphere."¹¹

These, then, are the considerations which make the training and education of those who are already engaged in the public service a continuing necessity.

Other factors. There are some other factors that have contributed to the ever-growing interest in educational programs for the public service.

Career service and merit system. Schools emphasize education for the public service with faith that

¹⁰Report of the Committee on the Training of Civil Servants, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, Gmd. 6525, May, 1944.

¹¹Marx, "Civil Service in Germany," op. cit., p.217.

government employment is or will be attractive to the more adventurous of their qualified graduates.

This change of attitude results not only from the public demand for a high order of professional, scientific and administrative personnel, but also from the gradual purging of the public service of undesirable or provocative factors injurious to civil service careers.¹²

The gradual elimination of the influence of spoils has contributed to making the civil service more attractive. "Without a merit system there is insufficient incentive to stimulate interest in training among employees."¹³

Summarizing what it described as "a philosophy of training," a Conference on Training for the Public Service sponsored by Public Administration Clearing House at Princeton in 1935 stated that

. . . there is a period "in preparation" for eventual appointment which includes all formal academic or other processes of an educational character, and, in addition for some pursuits, an internship in the form of practical application, for acquaintance with and preliminary experience in a given public service pursuit. And there is "in-service" training, wholly after appointment, which may include, for some pursuits, an apprenticeship on the job and for all pursuits continuing training or facilities for better acquaintance

¹²Morris B. Lambie (ed.), Training for the Public Service, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1935, p. 9.

¹³George A. Graham, Education for Public Administration-- Graduate Preparation in the Social Sciences at American Universities, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1941, p. 3.

with and understanding of the practice of the particular vocation within the public service.¹⁴

II. THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY

Introduction. The role of the university in education and training for the public service does not end with pre-service training. There is the need for constant cooperation between the public agencies and the universities.

Unless a cross-fertilization of ideas occurs between the academic and the practitioner, the former may become arid and unrealistic; the latter, narrow and superficial. In some countries, poor communication between the academic and administrative world may have sharpened the divorce between pre-entry education and in-service training, with a resultant loss for both. Where cooperation between academe and administrator has flowered, it has been facilitated by opportunities for the university professor to work in the government and for administrators to take leave to teach in a university.¹⁵

There is no coherent theory or widely accepted concept of training civil servants. Various systems ranging from brief orientation courses for new employees to intensive seminars for executives and senior specialists are in

¹⁴Lambie, op. cit., p. 2

¹⁵Fred Riggs, Training for National Administration, Brussels: International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 1953, pp. 21-22.

operation.¹⁶ The Hoover Commission recommended that "except for special skills, training should be systematically conducted by agencies themselves, and that training should count heavily as a factor in the promotion of employees."¹⁷

Another view of the problem of in-service training is expressed by Lomax who writes that

the training-for-government service picture is confused and unrealistic. The Federal Government has left too much to the imagination and resources of the academic world. Too frequently the universities have been neither imaginative nor resourceful. At present, little if any realistic coordination exists between government need and training for the public service.¹⁸

However, in spite of the sharp differences of opinion as to where the university's efforts should leave off and the government's begin, or vice versa, there seems to be a reasonable measure of agreement on the need for collaboration between the academic person in the universities and the administrative personnel in the government. In other words, in-service education and training must be closely related.

¹⁶Wallace S. Sayre, "The Recruitment and Training of Bureaucrats in the United States," Annals, 292:44, March, 1954.

¹⁷Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, op. cit., p. 51.

¹⁸W. Richard Lomax, "University Training and Public Administration," Personnel Administration, 16:24, March, 1953.

Resistance to in-service education. There is some resistance if not outright opposition to in-service education. The chief arguments against it are mainly academic.

(a) The "pure science" approach, holds the view that public administration is an applied field of study. This raises the need of special schools and institutes for public administration which, together with all other professional schools should be relegated to "off-campus" locations. This practice obtains in Britain, Canada, and some other countries. The opposite practice obtains in the United States. The broader implications of university organization which this problem raises is beyond the scope of this paper. An American student of the field suggests that the pure science approach "can be simply aloofness of snobbish faculty . . . defense mechanism of insecure scholars."¹⁹

(b) The "full-time scholar" approach is opposed to part-time study of any kind or, as a variant regarding part-time, especially after-work hours study. It holds such study to be inferior, unworthy of college credit, and disturbs routine, exhausts the worker and makes him diffi-

¹⁹Henry Reining, Jr., "In-Service Education," Lecture delivered before the Institute of Public Administration, University of Puerto Rico, October 21, 1955.

cult to deal with.

Henry Reining thinks that

the full-time scholar approach has merit . . . but can also be really based on the ruling class concept for it overlooks the stimulation the in-service student gets from his job. Many are in situations where needs of daily work vastly stimulate curiosity and willingness to work.²⁰

The schedule of classes for the working students should be geared to their working hours, and the teaching schedule of the faculty arranged accordingly. Their study should be limited to a reasonable load.

It seems that the ever-changing objectives and programs of government as well as the vast assortment of technological tasks and changes being added to them make in-service education a real necessity. Unless the government is willing to set up the equivalent of colleges and universities within its own organization, the collaboration of outside educational institutions is essential, and the university faculties should be ready to help the government with further training and conditioning of workers already on the job.²¹

The important factor, therefore, with reference to in-service education in an academic environment is the

²⁰Ibid.

²¹Ibid.

point of view of those who are responsible for administering the program. The basic courses of in-service education in public administration should impart an understanding of individual and social behavior and of cultural factors and values. Though in-service education courses may be specifically oriented, they should be broadly based.

This means that a course in public works administration will be taught not only from the point of view of the techniques involved in building roads and bridges, but rather as a meeting ground for all the political, economic, social and human values which are a part of the public works administration.²²

Why university assistance? The question can be legitimately asked why do agencies seek university assistance in public personnel training in spite of the fact they are the best judges of their own training and educational needs?

The general and obvious answer is that the training resources of public agencies are not always equal to the job-related educational or training needs of their officers and employees. Finding it impractical or uneconomical to undertake their own training, both public agencies and private corporations . . . have sought university assistance. Agency resources have been supplemented by universities in cooperative programs resulting in mutual benefit.²³

²²Henry Reining, Jr., In-Service Education: The Role of the Institute of Public Administration of the University of the Philippines, Memorandum submitted to the Director, Institute of Public Administration, University of the Philippines, 1954, pp. 1-2.

²³Linton K. Caldwell, "University Assistance in Training Public Personnel," Public Personnel Review, 14:151, October, 1953.

Some of the reasons why public agencies seek the help of universities or independent institutes in their training activities may be summarized as follows:

(a) Economic. Training by public agencies may be uneconomic. Many of the agencies are not large enough to justify full-time professional training personnel. Some of the larger agencies may have the potential for providing their own training needs "but it is not always economical to assign those people to training duties-- to reorganize work units in order to make teachers out of technicians."²⁴

(b) Better resources. Sometimes the staff of a university is better qualified to teach a subject than are practitioners who cannot devote enough time to the development of teaching methodology and the study of the theoretical significance of practices which they employ empirically.²⁵ Universities are sometimes better equipped by the character of their functions and personnel to do the training job.

. . . in some specialized areas, notably in scientific fields, the university frequently affords the best source of instruction and the most adequate facilities

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵Riggs, op. cit., p. 11.

such as libraries and laboratories.

In-service training provided by the public agency is chiefly intended to help the employee perform his immediate duties. Training for promotion and for supervisory or executive development, however, must deal with broader areas of experience. In addition, the strengths, weaknesses, and potentialities of people with aptitude for administration vary considerably. Universities ordinarily can provide more readily than can public agencies the individual approach needed for effective executive development programs.²⁶

(c) Human element. Many of the public agencies do not have personnel training facilities. Even where they do exist, outside assistance may be preferred because

Top administration may lack confidence in the personnel training program; the program may not meet the immediate needs of the agency; department heads may be unwilling to expose staff inadequacies to a central personnel agency with supervisory powers; and elective officials are sometimes reluctant to be "trained" by permanent staff personnel, preferring instead to secure information and educational assistance outside their own organizations.²⁷

Officials experience less loss of status in seeking training outside their agencies than in going to a training officer in the administration.

(d) Academic cooperation. Universities, for their part, may take the initiative in providing training services for the government in order to obtain entrée to government agencies and to make contacts with officials.

²⁶Caldwell, loc. cit.

²⁷Ibid., pp. 151-152.

This facilitates research in public administration.²⁸

Universities also derive other advantages through collaboration with government,

including the vitalization of their academic instructional program preparatory to public service, and the enriched practical experience which their faculty members derive from working with public agencies. Considerations of prestige and public relations have also prompted university initiative.²⁹

The university that cooperates with the administration gains depth and reality for its research and teaching in public administration, and

it should have little difficulty in overcoming any tendency to lack profundity or maturity of approach through becoming overly technical. Government agencies should find their training programs improved in quality by full utilization of university facilities.³⁰

III. TYPES OF UNIVERSITY ASSISTANCE

Stimulation of in-service training. It is easy to characterize the role of a university in in-service training as that of stimulation and facilitation of training within the government agencies themselves rather than to give training directly. However, the actual process of organizing a program for transmitting improved under-

²⁸"The reorganization of the Chilean 'Contraloria'," Progress in Public Administration, 13:1-3, October, 1955.

²⁹Caldwell, loc. cit.

³⁰Riggs, op. cit., p. 12.

standing and techniques of administration and management to the officials and employees of the government is not always easy.

The assistance which a university could render to government agencies in terms of in-service training and education could take many forms and among these are: consultation, research, training of trainers, and preparing training and teaching materials.

Consultation. This involves consultation with government officials in order to help them diagnose their training needs and attempting to prescribe remedies. Assistance is given the agencies in analyzing current problems and devising solutions in terms of training. The important objective is to stimulate training programs in the government agencies themselves.³¹

Research. Research involves the effort to advance the science of administration generally. Research designed to help public agencies could take the form of case reports, case histories and documentation, that is, the collection, exchange, collation, translation, analysis and annotation of materials, not only as ancillary to

³¹Reining, loc. cit.

to instruction but as generally useful.³²

One form of assistance to the training of government personnel is the monthly periodical which explains legislative changes and new administrative procedures, and facilitates exchange of views on a variety of practical problems. Examples of such publications include Popular Government published by the Institute of Government of the University of North Carolina, Municipal Government issued by the Associated Institutes of Government of Pennsylvania Universities, and California Public Survey published by the Bureau of Public Administration of the University of California at Berkeley. Since 1934 the staff of the Bureau has prepared, either at the request of the Legislature or on its own initiative, over six hundred reports on policy and administrative problems confronting the state of California.³³ Such practical assistance "can best be performed by permanent institutions with their own full-time staff."³⁴

³²Henry Reining, Jr., "Pre-Entry Education for the Public Service," Lecture delivered before the Institute of Public Administration, University of Puerto Rico, October 18, 1955.

³³John A. Vieg, "Two Men and Two Institutions: The Lengthening Shadows of Samuel C. May and Emery E. Olson," Public Administration Review, 15:245, Autumn, 1955.

³⁴Caldwell, loc. cit.

Training the trainers. An important form of assistance for in-service training on the part of the university is concentrating on training the trainers who will give on-the-job supervisory training in their own departments and agencies.

The supervisor, who is very often accustomed to authoritarian methods of dealing with his subordinates, does not easily alter these habits unless he himself is given explicit training in training methods. Hence, a program for training supervisors in methods of job instruction may be a very essential part of the total in-service training program.³⁵

The supervisors have a good understanding of their fields, but many of them lack

the knack of taking on the role of educator, but, given this knack, he should be stimulated and aided to organize the material to be presented so that it may be offered in a systematic and comprehensive manner.³⁶

The course of training for the supervisor-trainees needs to emphasize "doing" through which the trainees can convert the experience into an actual personal skill. It is important for such participants to deal with problems that relate to their own agencies.

Preparing teaching materials. Universities can

³⁵Simon, Smithburg and Thompson, op. cit., pp. 376-377.

³⁶William E. Mosher, J. Donald Kingsley and O. Glenn Stahl, Public Personnel Administration, 3rd edition, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950, p. 404.

provide in-service training and education assistance by preparing teaching materials that are either written, graphic or visual.

The In-Service Training Division officer in charge of supervisory training, for example, cannot run a conference for four hours a day every working day and still find time and energy to develop new courses, training materials, follow up previous trainees and otherwise work at stimulating the government agencies to build their own supervisory training programs.³⁷

The nomenclature of organization, administration and management concepts are examples of needful teaching materials the universities could provide. Brief lists and descriptions that will provide an inventory of possible solutions to problems need to be developed. Such might be:

A job description of the executive; traits desirable in the executive; the most frequently encountered problems of administrative law in the country; the common tools of the executive; the common causes of executive failure; how to draw up an organization chart; the techniques of work simplification; the technique of job analysis; the requirements of . . . (Performance Budgeting); the technique of work measurement; how to utilize group thinking at the executive level; methods to save the executive's time; how to use a secretary effectively; how to organize to handle callers; how to organize to handle telephone calls; how to organize to handle correspondence; how to make decisions; the essentials of an effective promotion program; how to select supervisors; how to evaluate work performance of subordinates; how to set-up a policy manual; how to set-up a suggestion system; how to run a staff meeting; what makes people work (human relations); the precepts of organization; how to delegate authority; the mechanics of long range planning; common techniques of executive control; the technique

³⁷Reining, op. cit., p. 5.

of the field inspection; common causes of failure to delegate authority; the job to the staff officer; the essentials of an employee counseling program; techniques of management improvement; the concept of completed staff work; the essentials of an effective issuances-control system; common communications devices for a government organization; what should be in an employee handbook; training as a device of communications; how to use employee unions as a channel of communication.³⁸

The above is a partial list of the type of materials that the university could contribute toward in-service training programs.

Pilot programs. Training assistance to local officials and employees can also be provided by the university through the conduct of pilot programs. These could take the form of periodic short courses or institutes. They could be offered on the university campus and could vary in length depending on the circumstances. One example of this approach are the short courses provided by the University of Kansas and which draw "attendance from many local units, and assist in the establishment of local training programs offered by local officials or public school teachers."³⁹ Such programs serve as practical examples to the public agencies and stimulate them in their in-service training programs.

³⁸Ibid., pp. 6-7.

³⁹Caldwell, op. cit., p. 152.

IV. THE FACULTY

Full-time teachers. The faculty is the vital factor in any university program because "a university is no better than its faculty."⁴⁰ The success of any public administration training program depends upon the strength of the faculty, "particularly in the social sciences."⁴¹ The faculty members should be social scientists with public administration orientation.

Because of the applied nature of the public administration, it is desirable that the faculty should have actual government experience.

Whether one selects his group instructors from among successful practitioners or professional teachers, it will usually be necessary to groom them for the task in hand. The former are inclined to lose themselves in details and the latter not to appreciate the relation of theory and broad treatment to practical application.⁴²

Apart from their skill as instructors, the faculty in this field should be able to function as supervisors and as assistants to other instructors whose practical experience is needed in order to introduce some element of reality in the class rooms. They also need research

⁴⁰Graham, op. cit., p. 90.

⁴¹Ibid.

⁴²Mosher, Kingsley and Stahl, op. cit., p. 404.

skill in order to develop their subject matter.

This means that the public administration faculty member ideally should be a "triple-threat" man. They should be able to teach successfully and help others in giving good instruction; they should be able to do research and writing and to develop new subject matter and they should be able to function as consultants and to help solve the problems of government.⁴³

Part-time teachers. For the purpose of strengthening the public administration faculty especially in some subjects where the knowledge of those with practical experience is concerned it is very desirable to utilize public officials as part-time teachers. "There are public officials whose training, experience, temperment, and present work are such that they make good teachers of some subjects,"⁴⁴ and the advantage to the university is "its ability to get instructors who are peculiarly qualified to give specialized courses that it could not otherwise offer."⁴⁵

However, part-time teaching has its dangers. The part-time teacher being a full-time official may not be able to do justice to his part-time teaching.⁴⁶

⁴³Reining, op. cit., p. 4.

⁴⁴Graham, op. cit., p. 91.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 73.

⁴⁶Ibid.

Part-time instruction can be dangerous if unsupported and unsupervised; on the other hand it can be effective academic instruction if it is assisted by regular faculty supervision. For each such special field such as police administration, for example, the working rule might be adopted that there should be at least part-time supervision from some one faculty member who is on a full-time academic basis. Part-time instructors need help in instruction. They need help with the more academic part of their responsibility, namely examinations, bibliography, papers and class reports, preparation of syllabi and the like.⁴⁷

In summary, the faculty of the curriculum in public administration should be

oriented toward social science research; emphasis upon the "why" without neglecting the "how", fundamental approaches and understanding to take precedence over techniques and gadgetry.⁴⁸

The use of full-time public officials with experience and experts in their particular fields as part-time teachers is very desirable, but some supervision needs to be exercised by the regular faculty in the interest of maintaining academic standards.

V. ORGANIZATION FOR TEACHING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The question of what is the best organization for the teaching of public administration is one which evokes

⁴⁷Reining, op. cit., p. 3.

⁴⁸John M. Pfiffner and R. Vance Presthus, Public Administration, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1953, p. 7.

different answers. There are those who hold to the conviction that "public administration is a phase of political science and that the unity of the parent discipline should not be vitiated by fragmentation."⁴⁹

But some others, while conceding to the necessity of the continued utilization of the traditional teaching departments such as political science and others contend that this is not the complete or final answer.

What seems to be required is a new vehicle for mounting a meaningful cross-departmental curriculum in public administration, a vehicle which currently is the object of study and experimentation in many situations and of satisfaction in but few.⁵⁰

This school of thought believes that "the appropriate base of public administration is to be found in all of the social sciences,"⁵¹ and they point out the contributions which cultural anthropology, sociology, and social psychology are prepared to make to the field. "They have also emphasized the historical foundations, and the economic content of the subject as well."⁵² There is, therefore, a strong and growing sentiment in favor of a reorientation

⁴⁹Vieg, op. cit., p. 245.

⁵⁰Roscoe C. Martin, "Educational Preparation for Public Administration," Higher Education, 10:142, May, 1954.

⁵¹Reining, op. cit., p. 2.

⁵²Martin, op. cit., p. 136.

which would provide a base for public administration in the social sciences, broadly defined, rather than in political science as such. Nevertheless, the basic orientation of public administration is still toward political science as can be seen from Table I which presents a summary of graduate educational preparation for public administration in 1952-53.⁵³

The material on which this summary rests was gathered by questionnaire. The resulting report-- Educational Preparation for Public Administration: A Catalog of Graduate Programs, 1952-53-- very likely is not complete, since a questionnaire return is almost never complete; but every important educational program is represented in the compilation. The table indicates that the universities continue to place chief reliance for instruction in public administration on their departments of political science.

The important and fundamental problem here involves the means of integrating the social sciences for students of administration. In the past students were sent into various academic departments to sample the offerings. Something was gained from this procedure but

⁵³Educational Preparation for Public Administration: A Catalog of Graduate Programs, 1952-53, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1952.

TABLE I

GRADUATE EDUCATIONAL PREPARATION FOR PUBLIC
ADMINISTRATION, A SUMMARY, 1952-53

Number of colleges and universities reporting.....	105
Number of States and Territories represented.....	45
Organization for instruction: Number of institutions employing--	
1. Department of political science (or Government).....	68
2. Combined department (including political science).....	8
3. Bureau of public administration (or equivalent).....	8
4. Institute.....	8
5. School of public administration.....	6
6. School of business and public administration.....	3
7. Training program in public administration.....	3
8. School of government.....	2
9. Miscellaneous (special schools and depart- ments, faculties, curriculums, committees, centers)*.....	13
Degrees: Number of institutions offering the degree of--	
1. Master of arts.....	89
2. Master of science.....	15
3. Master of public administration.....	13
4. Special master's.....	3
5. Doctor of philosophy.....	45
6. Doctor of public administration.....	4
7. Special doctorate.....	2
8. Diploma or certificate.....	3
Internship and/or field training: Number of institutions employing.....	54 ^{***}

*Since some institutions employ more than one organizational device, the number of vehicles for instruction listed (119) does not equal the number of institutions reporting (105).

***See footnote 53.

the process proved to be always laborious and frequently disappointing. Pedagogical merchandisers often offer their wares in such a way that the hapless student has to take the whole series of courses in order to realize on his investment. Time does not permit him to do this in more than one field. Hence, he must choose either specialization with large elements of irrelevance or superficial sampling. This dilemma finally has been broken down by young social scientists from different fields working together to plan, prepare, and give jointly a course of instruction in which the joint faculty assumes responsibility for the integration. The results are most promising.⁵⁴

It therefore appears that the question of the best organization for the teaching of public administration can be answered only in terms of the conditions that exist on a campus and of the objectives in view.

Interdepartmental organization. In a university that is highly unified

a training supervisor or director working under an interdepartmental committee with strong support from the cooperating departments can meet all the student needs for guidance, supervision and assistance in placement.⁵⁵

This organization could also promote the development of new courses that may be needed and administer interdepartmental programs of study. The effectiveness of such an organization demands generality of interest and unity of

⁵⁴George A. Graham, "Trends in Teaching of Public Administration," Public Administration Review, 10:73-74, Spring, 1950.

⁵⁵Graham, Education for Public Administration, op. cit., p. 100.

purpose among all the cooperating departments since opposition or sabotage will cripple it.

Departmental organization. Another type of organization is a separate department devoted specifically to training students for public administration. This procedure fixes responsibility for the training program and provides freedom, within the existing university regulations, to plan the study program, to determine requirements for students, and to supervise their work.

Concerning the disadvantages of a separate department, Graham makes the point that:

The department has no subject-matter content separate from the social sciences, and it must obtain the active interest and cooperation of scholars in many other departments of the university. Its separateness may handicap its coordinating and promotional function.⁵⁶

While the validity of this point is largely true it nonetheless must be pointed out that some amount of subject-matter content specific to public administration has been developed; hence there exists a transmittable body of professional knowledge in the field. Albert Lepawsky writes that

. . . with remarkable success in the competitive process of college curriculum-making they have superimposed upon the existing courses in the liberal arts colleges their own battery of specialized courses;

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 101.

public administration, public management, public personnel administration, public finance administration, government budgeting and accounting, principles of organization, city and regional planning, public utilities, administrative planning, administrative law, municipal and state government, political statistics, political psychology, research and reporting, public relations, propaganda techniques, political parties and elections, legislation and public policy-making, public regulation of business, agricultural and natural resource administration, labor law, and public welfare administration.⁵⁷

But this is not to say that the school or department of public administration will ever become completely self-sufficient. This is neither possible nor desirable.

Divisional organization. The divisional organization would carry the scheme of interdepartmental committee somewhat further. The Division is like a departmental bureau which is a unit of a bigger whole.

This plan would have the advantage of fixing responsibility for courses and supervision of students while at the same time preserving traditional departmental status of individual scholars. Another advantage of this would be to recognize the interdepartmental character of public service training.

The divisional type of organization has its dangers also.

Such an organization would have to be more than

⁵⁷Albert Lepawsky, "The University and the Public Service," Journal of Legal Education, 2:270-271, Spring, 1950.

a loose confederation. It would require wise leadership to avoid the rivalry and fears that were important factors in the original separation of the social sciences. But it would promote unity and permit flexibility in action while retaining the standard organization of departments. Such a divisional organization would seem to be advantageous for public service training in the long run.⁵⁸

In conclusion, it needs to be pointed out that training for public administration is still in the process of development. Continued experimentation is not only desirable, but essential. There seems to be the need for "a new vehicle for mounting a meaningful cross-departmental curriculum in public administration."⁵⁹

The conditions that exist on any campus influence greatly the type of organization that develops for public training purposes. Local conditions are also very important in determining the type of organization. Perhaps it is significant that one of the most successful departmental organizations has developed in a locality that contains a large proportion of public employees. This is the School of Public Administration at the University of Southern California in Los Angeles.⁶⁰

⁵⁸Graham, op. cit., pp. 101-102.

⁵⁹Martin, op. cit., p. 142.

⁶⁰Herbert Emmerich, "Good Government for the Growing Golden Giant," in Frank P. Sherwood, editor, Twenty-five Years of Building Better Government, Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1955, p. 65.

CHAPTER VI

THE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The School of Public Administration at the University of Southern California, which celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary in February, 1955, has experienced an active history during its short span of existence. An attempt will be made here to set down the course of development which has brought the School to its present status of prominence and importance in the field of education for public administration.

I. THE INSTITUTE OF GOVERNMENT

The motivation. With the spread of the "scientific management" movement in private industry in the early part of the twentieth century, there was a growing interest in the introduction of a more "scientific" method in the management of the public business also. An appreciable number of citizens began to be concerned with the problem of how to bring about efficiency and economy in government. People were no longer content with the old doctrine of the spoils system.

Practitioners in the field of government were no less interested in the cry for effective management, and the Institute of Government which was first conducted at

the University of Southern California in 1927 was a dramatic example of a program which resulted from the initiative of the practitioners.

How initiated. It was in 1926 when a committee of city managers presented the idea of a "short course" of training for municipal officials to the president of the University of Southern California. Members of the committee included: J. W. Charleville, City Manager of Glendale, Chairman; A. E. Stockburger, City Manager of Alhambra; Harry Scoville, City Manager of Monrovia; and Otto Roen, City Manager of Ontario, California. The committee requested that the University "think about the city administration and education in city affairs."¹

The President of the University, Rufus B. von KleinSmid, received the suggestion with enthusiasm. He assigned Professor Emery E. Olson the task of developing the project. A great deal of planning work then followed, and this resulted in the first "Institute of Municipal Administration" which was held August 13-18, 1927.

The objectives. The Institute was intended to

1. Present a one-week's intensive professional course of study.

¹Emery E. Olson, "Training for Public Administration after Entry into the Service," Public Management, 12:173, March, 1930.

2. Furnish inspiration and new information to the public administrator.
3. Build standards in this fast developing new profession of government service.
4. Make the new standards known to the greatest possible number of interested persons.
5. Facilitate exchange of information and experience among public officials, employees, and citizens.
6. Aid those responsible for meeting the technological demands made upon government by modern civilization.
7. Inspire them to greater efforts.
8. Aid post-entry training of public officials.²

In summary, the main purpose of the Institute was an educational program designed to present an intensive and highly professional short course of study in specific branches of public work. The emphasis was on the "school" idea, rather than the "convention" plan.

The Institute program. The development of the Institute program provided a unique opportunity for cooperation between the professional practitioners in the field and the University faculty. A planning committee was set up to plan the Institute program, and this committee was composed of representatives from professional organizations, persons active in the field of public administration, and selected specialists from different fields.

The planning committee responsibilities included the determination of the theme for the Institute, selecting

²Institute of Government, Tenth Annual Session, Program and Schedule of Courses, Los Angeles: University of Southern California, School of Government, 1938.

the main subject matter for study and its devisions, deciding on the title of sections, selection of participants who would lead the discussions, and deciding on the teaching technique to be used in the Institute.

Curriculum development. The committee which was appointed for the purpose of curriculum development for the Institute was pivotal in the success of the Institute. The committee assignment was a voluntary undertaking on the part of committee members. Committee meetings involved long hours of work after regular office hours. Members posed questions and problems in the different fields of public administration. Out of these questions and problems, the University professors prepared the Institute syllabus which also contained a suggested bibliography of reading materials.³

The first institute.

Attendance. Estimates of the actual number of officially registered participants in the first Institute of Government varies between six hundred and seven hundred and fifty. These were mostly municipal officials. They came from twelve western states of the United States. Among them were mayors, police, fire chiefs, councilmen, city managers, city engineers and probation officers.

³Ibid.

Participants. Prominent authorities, scholars and practitioners in the different fields of municipal administration were on the Institute staff. Among these were: Dr. Miller McClintock, Director of the Erskine Bureau for Street Traffic Research of Harvard University; Dr. Ira V. Hiscock, Professor of Public Health at Yale University and Bacteriologist of the Connecticut State Department of Public Health; and Professor William B. Munro of Harvard University.

Duration. The Institute lasted for one week, August 13-18, 1927.

Daily schedule. The schedule for the daily program was as follows:

- 9:00--9:50 A.M. First Morning Period
- 10:00--10:50 A.M. Second Morning Period
- 11:00--12:00 M. General Assembly (All Sections)
- 12:00-- 1:00 P.M. Luncheon
- 1:00-- 2:20 P.M. First Afternoon Period
- 2:30-- 3:50 P.M. Second Afternoon Period
- 4:00-- 5:00 P.M. General Assembly (All Sections)

The general assembly. The general assembly discussed the broader implications, philosophy, and general principles of government. The sections embraced a special field of governmental activity.

The sections. There were thirteen sections in

which the following subjects formed the items of discussion and study during the Institute: Municipal finance, public work procedure, street improvement and administration, personnel in public service, fire protection, police and police methods, citizenship and municipal administration, public welfare and social welfare, city planning and zoning, problems of municipal engineering, city records and financial transactions, councilmanic problems, legal problems of municipalities.

Teaching technique. The teaching technique used in the "classes" included lectures-- section leaders opened the classes with a short introductory lecture on the subject, panel discussion, and round table conferences. The students in the different sections were guided by the study outlines and bibliography which had been prepared by the professors out of the meetings of the program committees.

Public reception of the Institute. The public reception that greeted the introduction of the Institute was widespread in the local community. The press thought that it was an undertaking of the "highest value to its state."⁴ Private organizations like the Chamber of Com-

⁴G. H. Gilbert, "A Great University Undertakes a Work of Highest Value to Its State," Culver City, California, The News, September 17, 1927.

merce, Realty Boards, and the League of California Municipalities, passed resolutions of commendation and encouragement for the Institute. City councils, the Board of Supervisors of Los Angeles County, and city boards of directors passed resolutions commending the Institute.⁵ Some of the city councils granted leaves of absence with full pay to their employees so that they could attend the Institute. Other cities paid the registration fees for their employees so as to encourage them to attend. Glendale, for example, registered

a group of twelve students for the Institute of Municipal Administration to be held at the University of Southern California in August with public officials and department heads from Pacific Coast and Rocky Mountain cities attending sessions on municipal affairs.⁶

Life of the Institute.

Life span. The first Institute of Government was a success. This inspired the Institute sessions to become an annual event. A total of thirteen annual Institutes were held, the last one being in 1941.

Pattern. The first Institute in 1928 set the pattern which was followed every year thereafter. General

⁵Emery E. Olson, "The School of Government," Southern California Alumni Review, 14:12, February, 1933.

⁶Leader Press, Elsinore, California, April 19, 1928.

assemblies in which a principal speaker discussed one main topic were followed by section meetings in which the students discussed special phases of governmental operation under the guidance of a section leader.

Sections. The sections which were based on the different phases of governmental function increased greatly each year. The following list of the sections during the tenth annual session of the Institute which was held on June 13-17, 1938,⁷ showed a marked increase from the thirteen section divisions of the first Institute: Building inspection; California State Employment Service; case work practice--new developments; case work supervision; city clerkship administration; council-manager government; federal administrative reorganization; federal grants-in-aid; financial administration; government correspondence; government in relation to aviation; in-service training; legislative processes; municipal organization: general law and charter provisions; office management; organization and management: general principles; part administration; planning--housing; power supply and distribution; problems of youth; public buying; public engineering; public health division; public personnel administration;

⁷Institute of Government, Tenth Annual Session, Program and Schedule of Courses, loc. cit.

public relations; research; right of way and land administration; sanitariums; social statistics; supervision: methods and techniques; taxation; traffic control and safety; water supply and sanitary engineering.

Attendance. An accurate record of student registration in the Institute is, unfortunately, non-existent; however, it is estimated that the average annual registration was about eight hundred.⁸

Prominent participants. The Institute annually attracted prominent authorities and specialists from all over the country, and some of these acted as lecturers and as section leaders during the Institute. The following list of section leaders during the tenth annual Institute of Government is representative of the type of men who participated in other years.

H. Lee Bancroft, City Forester, Superintendent of Parks and Recreation, Lansing, Michigan.-- Park Administration; William G. Bowie, Chief of the Division of Geodesy, United States Government.-- Public Engineering; Margaret C. Bristol, Field Work Instructor in Case Work, The School of Social Service Administration, University of

⁸Henry Reining, "The School of Public Administration-- Its Past, Present, and Future," Trojan in Government, March, 1955.

Chicago.-- Case Work Supervision, Case Work Practice-- New Developments; Richard Carlson, Consultant, Personnel Administration and Industrial Relations, San Francisco.-- Organization and Management: Principles of General Administration, Supervision: Methods and Techniques; Lewis V. Carpenter, Professor Sanitary Engineering, New York University.-- Water Supply and Sanitary Engineering; John M. Pfiffner, Professor of Public Administration, University of Southern California.-- Research; Henry Reining, Jr., Educational Director of the National Institute of Public Affairs.-- In-service Training; Clarence E. Ridley, Executive Director, International City Manager's Association, Editor, Public Management.-- Council-Manager Government; Donald C. Stone, Executive Director of Public Administration, University of Chicago.-- Public Personnel Administration.

The end of the Institute.

World War II intervenes. The last Institute was held in 1941. The suspension of the annual Institute of Government was due mainly to the difficulties imposed by the Second World War. This is the unanimous opinion of those who had a major part in the affairs of the Institute. The personnel of the University was heavily depleted. The Director of the Institute, Dean Olson, was called to Washington, D. C., on federal government war work. The

planning committee meetings demanded more time than anyone could spare.

Recognition. Recognition for the training activities of the annual Institute came from local, state, and national quarters. These came in the forms of resolutions of endorsements by city councils, and letters of commendation to the University for the work of the Institute.

The City Council of the City of Los Angeles passed a resolution of endorsement and recommendation and authorized leaves of absence with full pay to those who wished to attend.⁹ Mr. A. E. Stockburger, the California State Director of Finance, wrote that "State employees will be permitted to attend the School whenever the request is made and concurred in by the department head."¹⁰

A statement of endorsement from the League of California Cities stated that:

The Officers and Directors of the League have followed with interest and a sense of satisfaction the growth of the Institute and the development of its program.

We believe the Institute has made an invaluable contribution to local government administration in California, and that it has made the officials who have attended the Institute more competent in their work.

⁹Institute of Government, Tenth Annual Session, Program and Schedule of Courses, loc. cit.

¹⁰Ibid.

The Officers of the League feel that good government depends upon effective administration by trained administrators. It is for this reason that we are so much interested in the Institute of Government and annually commend it to the municipal officials of California.¹¹

A letter from Mr. Harry B. Mitchell, President of the United States Civil Service Commission, stated that

The Commission believes thoroughly in the value of special courses for the further education of federal and other governmental employees, such as are given by the University of Southern California.¹²

National recognition of the Institute also came from such organizations as the Playground and Recreation Association of America; Civil Service Commission of the State of New Jersey; National Probation Association, Boston, Massachusetts; Department of Public Health of Yale University; Institute of Research in the Social Sciences at the University of Virginia; National Municipal League; Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada; Institute of Public Administration, New York City; and the National Bureau of Public Administration.¹³

Favorable comments about the Institute appeared in professional publications such as the American Political

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Olson, loc. cit.

Science Review, and in Public Management.¹⁴

Assessment. Although an accurate record of attendance at the annual Institute of Government is not available,

it is estimated that ten thousand or more government officials and workers . . . participated in the one-week Institute of Government which . . . ran annually until 1941, after which World War II intervened.¹⁵

The Institute was a pioneer effort in the field of in-service training for government employees on a large scale, and its contribution was therefore significant. Public employees were helped to relate common problems to common purposes without regard for jurisdictional boundaries and departmental limitations. In a sense, the Institute was an experiment intended to test the reaction of public employees to a post-entry training program. The experiment was positively successful, for it demonstrated the need for a full-time training program. It can therefore be justifiably said that the success of the Institute was to a large extent responsible for the launching of the School of Public Administration.

II. ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SCHOOL

After the successful sessions of the "Institute of

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Reining, loc. cit.

"Municipal Administration" in 1927 and 1928, the Board of Trustees of the University authorized the establishment of the School of Citizenship and Public Administration at the University on February 28, 1929. The name of the school has undergone a metamorphosis from the original name to the "School of Government" in 1933,¹⁶ and then to the present name of "School of Public Administration" in 1945.¹⁷

Why a separate school? The creation of a separate school was thought necessary "in order to crystalize the interest in public administration education, and to properly coordinate the educational program necessary for a comprehensive curriculum in the field."¹⁸ It was hoped to develop awareness and appreciation of the functions of government, interest in citizenship and government, and planning for professional training.

It was necessary to point out that the creation of

¹⁶School of Government, Winter Quarter Schedule, Los Angeles: University of Southern California, School of Government, January, 1933.

¹⁷Evening Professional Training Program, Los Angeles: University of Southern California, School of Public Administration, Civic Center Division, 1945; Bulletin of the University of Southern California, School of Public Administration, 1953-1955, Los Angeles: University of Southern California, School of Public Administration, September, 1953.

¹⁸Olson, loc. cit.

a separate school was not meant to foster an exclusive unit within the University. In no case should there be duplication of courses. There should be an understanding of the various departments and schools interested in order that the student might always secure the expert training in particular fields. The School of Public Administration was to relate the knowledge and background made available in a particular school and department to the general problem of governmental affairs.

A faculty advisory committee on public administration was set up as follows: Dean, School of Government, Chairman; Dean, School of Engineering; Dean, School of Social Work; Dean, School of Medicine; Dean, School of Dentistry; Dean, Graduate School; Dean, School of Commerce and Business Administration; Dean, School of Law; Dean, University College; Department Head, Political Science; Department Head, Physical Education.

Purpose of the School. The purpose of the School of Citizenship and Public Administration was to offer its services to men and women engaged in public service who desired an organized plan of study. "It is aimed to bring together the resources of the University and the practical knowledge of persons in public positions for the benefit of

such public employees."¹⁹ The School aimed to provide service to

selected men and women preparing for careers in civic administration, research, and in the performance of official functions in public agencies of national, state, and local character; college students, as well as adults in active life, interested in a broad training and preparation for the duties and practice of citizenship; individuals charged with specific governmental responsibility.²⁰

The School aimed to place a greater "emphasis upon the function of management as distinguished from emphasis upon official or employee . . . the emphasis upon doing well what it had been decided it was well to do."²¹ It aimed to improve "the organizing of men and materials for public purposes."²²

The immediate objective of the School was essentially an in-service training program for those already engaged in the public service. As these men sensed their limitations in the daily performance of their jobs, they sought a remedy by registering for those courses at the

¹⁹Bulletin of Announcement, School of Citizenship and Public Administration, University of Southern California, 1929.

²⁰Olson, loc. cit.

²¹Emery E. Olson, "The First Twenty-five Years," Address on Twenty-fifth Anniversary Celebration of the School, February 26, 1955.

²²Ibid.

School that promised to help them in their departmental promotional examinations. However, in-service training alone was considered too narrow a base on which to establish a School of Public Administration, and so, with the change of name from "School of Citizenship and Public Administration" to the "School of Government" in 1933, the objective was broadened to include pre-entry training as well.

Control of the School. The School is established as an independent unit of the University with its own dean and faculty. It comes under the control of the Board of Trustees of the University, the President, and the all-university faculty committees. Since 1950 the graduate work of the School is controlled by the Council on Graduate Studies and Research in the same manner as are other similarly established schools of the University.

III. CIVIC CENTER DIVISION

In view of the main original objective of the School, which was in-service training, it was necessary from the very beginning to locate a branch of the School at a convenient spot for the prospective students.

Early physical facilities.

Location. The original office of the Civic Center Division was located in the Wilson Building, First and

Spring Streets, opposite the City Hall and State Building, and near the Federal and County Buildings. This location is in the civic center of the City.

Office. A small office was maintained here for immediate urgent matters and to permit registration and business transactions to be handled in the downtown area. Textbooks and classroom supplies were obtainable in the Wilson Building Office.

Office space. One room, thirty by eighteen feet in size, was used for stenographic purposes, records, report files, registration facilities, and for the transaction of all other similar business. There were two other smaller rooms, one was used by the Assistant to the Director and the other was used as a combination store-room, office for the graduate Assistant, and sometimes as a classroom for a small group. There was also one conference room that was capable of seating twenty-four conferrees. There was no library facility.

Classrooms. Classes were held in public buildings in the Civic Center area-- chiefly in the City Hall and the County Hall of Records, and occasionally in offices and laboratories of the Department of Water and Power, City of Los Angeles. Different arrangements for securing these rooms were made with the various jurisdictions, in most instances upon a yearly lease basis. However, some

engineering and laboratory courses were taught on the University Park campus which is located about four miles from the Civic Center.²³

Present physical facilities:

Location. The Civic Center is now located in the Wilcox Building at 206 South Spring Street. The operations of the Center cover one half of the third floor of this building, with a total floor space of 6578 square feet.

Office. Office space consists of the Director's Office, stock room, mimeograph room, information office, bookstore, and a large conference room.

Library. There is now a library room and a reading room which is adequate for the needs of the Center.

Classrooms. There are eleven classrooms of varying sizes. In addition, some classes are still held in such public buildings as the County Engineering Building, the Hall of Records, State Division of Highways, and the Pacific Coast Building Official Conference Headquarters. Arrangements are made early in the semester for the use of these buildings if necessary. The rent for the use of

²³An Administration Report upon the Management and Operations of the Civic Center Division, School of Government, Los Angeles: University of Southern California, School of Government, August, 1941.

these buildings cover mainly a monthly gratuity to the janitors.

Classes. Classes are held mainly once a week from 6:30 P.M. to 9:30 P.M. Some of the classes have double sections. One section is held in the daytime for the benefit of those who have irregular office hours. These repetitive classes held to accommodate those working at different hours underscores the necessity for the School to have its own classrooms.

Civic Center Division Staff.

Early period. The Civic Center Division Staff during the early period of the School consisted of: the Director-- this position held by the Dean of the School, as "Assistant to the Director," who had his office at the Civic Center and was the executive officer of the Division, and other staff members, including one secretary, one stenographer, and one graduate Assistant to the "Assistant to the Director."

Present staff. The Dean of the School has since relinquished the title of Director. This position is now held by someone appointed by and directly responsible to the Dean. A field representative has replaced the original graduate student assistant position. This person is a roving representative who makes contacts with public officials in the whole Southern California area and gives

information concerning the Civic Center Division program.

The staff also includes one secretary, one stenographer, one librarian, and a storekeeper.

Class and office hours. Classes were usually held between 5:40 P.M. and 8:00 P.M. This was designed for the convenience of the public employees who usually leave their office by five o'clock in the evenings.

Office hours were also designed for the same purpose, 8:30 A.M. to 8:15 P.M., Monday through Friday, and 9:00 A.M. to 12:30 P.M. on Saturdays.

Announcements. The Civic Center Division used different devices to spread information about its program. Posters were placed in public buildings and other prominent spots. Letters explaining the training program were sent to department heads, public officials, and to legislative bodies. Bulletins announcing the details of course offerings were sent to the names on the mailing lists which came from various sources such as, the general file of persons who have attended either the Institute of Government or made inquiries to the School, previously registered students of the Civic Center Division, division and department heads and representatives of legislatures in the area, and from the roster of California city officials prepared by the League of California Cities. Messengers were used to distribute the Civic Center Division schedules

to the different public buildings.

Academic program.

Main objective. The Civic Center program is designed primarily as post-entry educational development for men and women already engaged in public service.²⁴

Degrees and certificates. The Civic Center Division offers classes toward both degrees and certificates, the latter being designed for those who are interested in training for work in the public service but lack the background for a degree. The curriculum requirements for degrees are the same as obtain on the university campus. However, the special needs of the students at the Civic Center who are mainly government employees are kept uppermost in mind in the planning of courses. The degree of Bachelor of Science and Master of Science in Public Administration are awarded. The Doctor of Public Administration program has recently been added.

Typical experience. Students enroll in one or two classes. They become sufficiently interested in the program and, its possibilities, and then they signify an intention to seek certificate or a degree. The usual load for full-time employees is two classes a week. This makes possible twelve semester units during the academic year.

²⁴Ibid.

Curriculum. The All-University Curriculum Committee exercises control in the establishment of courses. Request for a particular course is submitted to the Curriculum Committee stating the need and place of the course in the university program. A description of the course content is included in the request.

Initiation of courses. The initiation of new courses into the curriculum is influenced by several factors. These included the basic course requirements by the University and the School of Public Administration, courses that have proved successful in the past, request from government departments and division heads in the area, petitions signed by students, and some direct result of research activities carried on by faculty members.

The faculty. The Civic Center Division faculty consists of the regular university faculty and part-time instructors who are drawn mainly from experienced practitioners in government. The Dean of the School has made it a policy that all the regular faculty members must teach some classes at the Civic Center Division. The part-time instructors are selected from various public jurisdictions in the area.

Problem of part-time faculty control. Instructors may go an entire semester or even an academic year without seeing the director of the Civic Center Division except

when certain problems arise, or at some meeting, such as the faculty meeting, or the gathering of a professional group. Very little functional control and supervision is exerted over faculty members of the Civic Center, partially because of the type of faculty used, and partially because of the belief that these individuals are capable of carrying out their own work of their own accord in a very high manner. Valuable suggestions and criticisms may be lost due to infrequent contacts with instructors. The problem is to keep existing informality, permitting instructors considerable leeway to plan and teach in accordance with their own methodology, but at the same time, bring such freedom under supervisory control.

Students. The students who are registered at the Civic Center Division are bona fide students of the University of Southern California with all the rights, privileges, and responsibilities that it entails. The students are mostly government officers and employees from the federal, state, county, and municipal jurisdictions, in the Southern California area.

Enrollments. The enrollment of students in the Civic Center program has remained high. 1171 students were registered in the fall semester of 1954; 992 in the fall of 1955 and 873 in the spring of 1956. There were 70 class offerings in the fall semester of 1955 and 75

classes in the spring semester of 1956.

Summary. The Civic Center Division has not been departmentalized, but rather it functions within the School of Public Administration. However, the unique nature of the function that it performs makes it the most outstanding operation of the School. It provides in-service training and education for public employees, and this is done in a way that cuts across the barriers of departmental compartmentalizations.

IV. OTHER FORMALIZED UNITS

Delinquency Control Institute.

Aim. The Delinquency Control Institute aims to provide "a unique in-service training arrangement for police officers responsible for handling juveniles in law enforcement agencies."²⁵

The Institute was established in September, 1946, to provide specialized training in understanding and working with youth for law enforcement officers and workers in allied fields.

Control. The Delinquency Control Institute is

²⁵Dean Henry Reining, Jr., "The School of Public Administration, Past, Present, and Future," Address during Twenty-fifth Jubilee Celebration, February 25, 1955.

under the School of Public Administration administratively, but its original conception was the result of interdepartmental and interagency consultations. In the University, this embraces the College of Letters, Arts, and Sciences, the Schools of Law, Social Work, and Public Administration.

Sponsors. Sponsors of the Institute include such organizations and agencies as the Attorney General of the State of California, California Sheriff's Association, District Attorneys' Association of California, California Peace Officers' Association, California Youth Committee, and the California Youth Authority.

Program. The course involves a twelve-week program of classroom lectures and field trips. The curriculum covers the basic problems of juvenile delinquency. Field trips are made to the important agencies and institutions in the area that are concerned with the problem of delinquency control.

International Public Administration Center. The International Public Administration Center has become the seat of the foreign training program of the School of Public Administration. Foreign student groups are located here for special postgraduate and practical instruction in American administrative institutions and practices preliminary to their return to teach public administration in their own universities, to provide in-service training and

consultation to their governments, and to do research and writing in this universally troublesome field.

Origin of the Center. In the summer of 1951, the Economic Administration (later re-named Mutual Security Agency, and then re-named Foreign Operations Administration, and still later re-named Intercultural Cooperation Administration) made a contractual arrangement with the University of Southern California to provide a technical assistance training program in the field of public administration for Turkey. On September 1, 1951, five young Turkish professors started an eighteen-month study of public administration at the University of Southern California under this contract. The University provided a private home to serve as the focal point for this special project.²⁶ This home was later transformed into the International Public Administration Center.

Objectives of the Center. The program aimed to provide Turkish government institutions with modern American management skills and know-how.²⁷ This would place

²⁶Frank P. Sherwood and William B. Storm, Technical Assistance in Public Administration, A Report on a Domestic Training Program for Five Turkish Professors, Los Angeles: School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, mimeographed, 1953.

²⁷Ibid.

emphasis on such management tools as methods analysis, personnel administration, budgeting, accounting, and planning. It also aimed to provide experience with the functioning of public administration in a democratic society. The belief was that in order "to be most effective, a training program must take place where the administrative policies and practices under study are actually carried out."²⁸

The center was designed to provide leadership for the Turkish training program. It was therefore established with staff headquarters under the Dean, but separate from the School of Public Administration. The main functions of this office were to make arrangements for field trips, tutoring, the handling of administrative matters, for the Turkish professors.

Staff. The leadership staff consisted of a Director who gave half-time services to the project, two graduate assistants who were identified as "counterparts" on a one-third time basis. Together with help in general administrative matters, the counterparts were expected to interact culturally and intellectually with the Turkish

²⁸William B. Storm and Frank P. Sherwood, "Technical Assistance in Public Administration, The Domestic Role," Public Administration Review, 14:33, Winter, 1954.

participants. A half-time secretary completed the staff of the Center.

Program. The program was developed by the leadership staff and the faculty of the School of Public Administration.

Formal university course work. This covered the areas of management, finance, supervision, personnel, and planning. Instruction in subject-matter fields were given by eight different schools and departments of the University, including the School of Public Administration, School of Commerce, Economics Department, Sociology Department, Political Science Department, Geography Department, Psychology Department, and the English Department.

Field work and observation tours. This afforded the opportunity of seeing the American administrative machine in motion. Visits were made to governmental agencies, private businesses, and to various other types of private organizations, such as taxpayers' associations, labor unions, and chambers of commerce.

Individual tutoring and consultation. These arrangements served the purpose of helping the participants with subjects in which they had special interests or subjects they found particularly difficult, and also providing experts who could cover areas of interest in which there were no course offerings.

Cultural problems. The educational background of the Turkish participants predisposed them to think of public administration as inseparable from the law.

First, there is a tendency to reject the experiences of non-governmental large-scale organizations, particularly businesses, as being unconstructive. Second, the pragmatism of United States administration is more difficult to impart to students whose central orientation is legal principle.²⁹

The general European approach toward research emphasized the importance of accumulating all the written material on a particular subject. The methods of synthesis and empiricism find little favor. The applied problem-solving type of research that characterizes the best administration in the United States was not easily assimilated by the Turkish participants.

Textbooks created some difficulties due to the fact that conclusions based on illustrations drawn from the United States structure of government may not be correct in another country. It was not always easy to separate useful ideas from their cultural entanglements.

Language was a source of difficulty. More care was needed to make effective communication.

Lessons from the project.

There is much that is teachable in public administration in the United States. There is the general

²⁹Ibid., p. 37.

social science area, where emphasis is placed on human behavior in a group situation, there are the specific techniques of fact-finding for purposes of administrative analysis, and there are the unique elements of the American response to the basic problems of large-scale organization and management.

There was a growing awareness by the participants in their field work that effective, democratic management, in its planning and operations, must necessarily take into account the individual as well as the state. Perhaps the most significant accomplishment of the project came from enabling the group to see management activity that regards orientation to the individual as the prerequisite to effective group action.

The project provides further evidence that technical assistance should not be a one-sided program in which United States experts are sent abroad. Just as important, and perhaps of greater effectiveness in the long run, is the bringing of native experts to this country for training and observation. The kind of learning experiences the Turks had, particularly in their many field trips, simply could not have been made available to them in their own country.³⁰

Results. One of the results from the Turkish experience was the decision to maintain the leadership center as a permanent feature of the School of Public Administration under the new name of International Public Administration Center.

Two other groups have come to the School from Brazil and Iran.

The School has also attracted a number of foreign students in residence at their own expense or on a scholarship. Students have come from such countries as India, the Philippines, Formosa, Japan, Korea, Hawaii, Costa Rica,

³⁰Ibid., p. 39.

Puerto Rico, Iran, Iraq, Nigeria, Finland, and Turkey.

V. SPECIAL CURRICULA

In addition to such formalized units as the Civic Center Division, the Delinquency Control Institute, the International Public Administration Center, there are a number of special curricula in the School of Public Administration.

Police administration. Law enforcement and correctional administration curriculum is the largest of the special curriculums. Criminology and police science are taught, but the main emphasis is placed on management, and the degrees conferred are in public administration. This is primarily an undergraduate curriculum.

Fire administration. The administration of fire departments is emphasized rather than the engineering and other technologies involved in fire safety. This program was introduced at the Civic Center Division in 1950. The courses, which include basic fire administration, supervisory training, basic mathematics, personnel training, report writing, and speech, are designed to help the firemen to become better qualified professionally for their work in fire administration.³¹

³¹Trojan in Government, August, 1950.

Others. Other curricula which have been organized as programs of study leading to degree or certificate include: Employment Security Administration, City and Regional Planning, Building Department Administration, Recreation Administration, Personnel Management, Financial Administration, Public Works Administration.

VI. SUMMARY

The School of Public Administration, which "is actually the second oldest school of its kind in the United States,"³² has justified its existence and amply demonstrated the need for "deliberate training for the public service,"³³ both pre-service and in-service, at the university level.

The impact of the School in this field of education has been felt locally, nationally, and internationally. Mr. Herbert Emmerich, Director of the Public Administration Clearing House, stated that:

The University of Southern California has made notable contributions in this field. It has opened its doors to students and officials from overseas and has dispatched distinguished administrative missions to Brazil, Turkey, and Iran. . . . Nearly

³²Herbert Emmerich, "Good Government for the Growing Golden Giant," Trojan in Government, March, 1955.

³³Ibid.

a third of California's cities have adopted the council-manager form of government. This figure is significant for a School of Public Administration which has distinguished itself in training public officials.³⁴

The philosophical and academic contributions of the School in the field of administration and management have been many and varied. They include important textbooks and many research findings, and these will be discussed in the next chapter.

Perhaps it is best to sum up the importance of the training program of the School in the words of the former President of the University of Southern California, Dr. Rufus B. Von KleinSmid, who said that the impact of the Institute of Government and of the School of Public Administration is something that

is not exactly measurable, but it is safe to say that it has greatly enriched the public service. It has been responsible for better trained employees at all levels of government, particularly in the local Southern California area.³⁵

The School has demonstrated that with the active cooperation of public agencies, a university situated in a metropolitan area provides one of the best means

³⁴Ibid.

³⁵Interview-- Chancellor Rufus B. von KleinSmid, March 1, 1955.

for both pre-service and in-service training programs
for public employees.

CHAPTER VII

ACADEMIC PROGRAM OF THE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

I. THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE SCHOOL

Before we examine in detail the academic program of the School of Public Administration, it will be necessary to find out what is the School's conception of the proper role of a university in the community. It is within this framework of thought that the growth and development of the School has been guided.

Role of the university. The President of the University in 1928, Dr. Rufus B. von KleinSmid, believed that the university should interest itself actively in the problems of the area in which it is located. This is a responsibility which the university cannot justifiably decline.

President von KleinSmid stated that:

The university should be a leader in the consideration of and in the search for the solutions to community problems. The university should not be a secluded and excluded institution from the community in which it exists.

The university must strive to relate itself to the daily life of the people supporting it. The university should examine the nature of accepted principles and study their implications for the public service.¹

¹Interview with Chancellor Rufus B. von KleinSmid, March 1, 1955.

Educational leader. The first Dean of the School of Public Administration, Emery E. Olson, believed that the metropolitan university should act as the educational leader and make its resources and facilities available to the solution of current problems. Dean Olson said that

The public administration work at the university is directly in line with the conception of administration of the university concerning a metropolitan institution. . . . It is felt that any human need which can be met better by the organized thinking of the students and the faculty in a classroom or laboratory has a claim on the faculty facilities of that institution. . . . If the university can contribute through its organized educational leadership, failure to do so is treason to its ideals.²

Good citizenship. It is the belief of the school administration that the university should promote good citizenship. This is

a duty common to all students of all departments. . . . Good citizenship and good government are necessary if civilization is to endure and progress. . . . The future of civilization depends on developing a professional attitude in as many human activities as possible.³

Public welfare is paramount. The school administration believes that service to the public is the paramount interest of the agencies of government. It is the responsibility of the School to inculcate this ideal in

²Emery B. Olson, "The School of Government," Southern California Alumni Review, 14:28, February, 1933.

³Ibid.

the students who are prospective public servants. "Our citizens are demanding from their public servants high performance, and in so doing, they are insuring that government will be a contributor to the nation's welfare."⁴

Professionalization of the public service. The administration believes that a professional attitude should be encouraged in the field of public administration. The professionalization of the public service is

one of the most significant and healthful trends in American government. Professional administrators must be of a calibre, a breadth, and of an integrity to discharge their ever-expanding responsibilities. In short, the future of professional administration depends entirely on the kind of men who enlist in its cause.⁵

The university should train administrators. The public service of today calls for able, well-equipped, and competent young people. It is a challenge to the universities to provide "the education necessary for such administrative work. . .and make sure that young people are made aware of the opportunities in the service of local government."⁶ The first Dean of the School writes

⁴Henry Reining, Jr., "Training for Local Management in Southern California," Trojan in Government, November, 1953.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Ibid.

that

No greater service can be rendered by a metropolitan institution than to coordinate its educational program so as to be of direct usefulness to the public employees of the area in which it is located. . . .⁷

Administrators can be trained. The School of Public Administration believes that administrators can be trained.

We do not agree that it is necessary to learn from one's own mistakes only. We feel it is possible to profit through systematic education and training from the experience of others without repeating their mistakes, at least without repeating all of them.⁸

Administrators may be born, but they can also be made.

Who is an administrator? The administrator is one who plans, directs, and controls the activities of others in order to achieve some established purpose, "to provide a service, to produce a commodity, or even, as in some public activities, to suppress, restrain, regulate, certain activities which are prescribed."⁹ He is responsible for the total operative of an enterprise.

Administrative technicians. A new administrative corps has come into being. These men specialize in a

⁷Emery E. Olson, "Training Programs for Government Employees," Personnel Journal, 15:287, February, 1937.

⁸Henry Reining, Jr., "Executive Has 360 Degree Role," Trojan in Government, January, 1955.

⁹Ibid., p. 2.

given activity or technique of administration like personnel administration, training, budgeting, and other phases of financial and fiscal management, organization and analysis, public relations, or planning. They are not specialists in the narrow sense for they have had training in administration. Their work as staff assistants brings them into contact with all the bureaus and departments of an organization.

Needs of the administrator. Human relations skill is necessary. The administrator works through people. He needs "human skills to be able to work through people, to like them, to understand them, to lead them, to direct them, as a smoothly functioning team."¹⁰

Intellectual ability. The administrator needs a broad intellectual ability and training sufficient to cope with the full circle of his total responsibility.

Middle road. The School tries to organize a program that will "prepare a student for the administrative tasks that will face him when he takes a job in government, while at the same time giving him the breadth that comes from a liberal arts education."¹¹

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Richard Gable, "Relationship of Public Administration to Liberal Arts Education," Trojan in Government, August, 1954.

Guide lines.

Taxes buy civilization. Taxes should be used to purchase "those fruits of civilization which the people have decided should be provided by government . . . efficiently and honestly."¹²

Community decision. The quality of administrative decisions will be improved when the administrator is aware of the "wide variety of implications arising from the varied forces at work in the community."¹³

Flexibility. The science and art of public administration demands imagination and flexibility.

We almost always challenged the concept phrased rigidly as 'either, or.' Rather did we seek the more flexible 'and' or 'in relation to.' Our decisions assume a dynamic process. We accepted both policy and administration, academic research and field survey, organization structure and motivation, line and staff, techniques of administrative procedures and the behavioral sciences, as equally important bases for investigation and study.¹⁴

Line and staff. Some emphasis is placed on line and staff functions, however,

generalist administrators, such as city managers and cabinet officers, and specialist administrators, such as public works engineers or law enforcement police chiefs, were recognized as the reason for public administration.¹⁵

¹²Emery E. Olson, "The First Twenty-five Years-- Challenge and Response," Trojan in Government, March, 1955.

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Ibid.

The staff organizations are regarded as auxiliaries to the administrators.

The main guide posts of the School in its public administration educational program could be summarized as being the promotion of efficiency and honesty in the conduct of the public business, improvement in the quality of administrative decisions and leadership, and the introduction of imagination and flexibility to public administration.

II. DEGREES AND CERTIFICATES

A total of eight hundred and one degrees and certificates in Public Administration had been granted by the School up to the end of January, 1955. These were distributed as follows: two hundred and four certificates, a certificate representing the equivalent of two years of specialized college work; four hundred and thirty-two baccalaureate degrees in public administration; one hundred and sixty-one master of science degrees in public administration; and four doctor's degrees in public administration.

The bachelor's degree program. The degree of Bachelor of Science in Public Administration involves one hundred and twenty-four units of college work distributed as follows:

Pre-public administration courses. Candidates for

admittance to the School of Public Administration must complete two full years of acceptable college work equal to sixty units of general lower division requirements including courses in English, history, and the social sciences. These are the same general requirements that are expected of all students in the other departments of the university.

Public Administration courses. Common requirements in the field which all public administration majors must take are:¹⁶

Core Courses:

300	Staff Administration	3	units
301	Program Administration	3	"
324	Public Personnel Administration	3	"
335	Public Financial Administration	3	"
410	Principles of Public Organization and Management	2	"
412	Administrative Analysis	3	"
417	Human Relations in Management	2	"
480a	Politics and Administration	<u>2</u>	"

21 units

General courses: General requirements which involve the so-called tool or technical subjects are re-

¹⁶See appendix for all course descriptions.

quired to be in the upper division courses.

404	Statistics in Public Administration	3	units
430	General Accounting	3	"
	Governmental Institutions, e.g., Municipal County Metropolitan State or National	<u>3</u>	"
			<u>9</u> units
			30 units

Specialization and electives. The remaining thirty-four units can be distributed in any proportion between a field of specialization and general elective courses, depending on the special interest and the objectives of the student.

Specialization. Limited specialization in a particular governmental field is allowed, but it is only supplementary to, and cannot be a substitute for, the common and general requirements. Specialization is not a necessary requirement for the degree, but the program is flexible enough to meet the interest of those who may wish to specialize. Areas of specialization include, for example: Municipal Management, Financial Management, Personnel Administration, Police Administration, Fire Administration, Public Works Administration, Planning Administration, Public Law Administration.

Electives. Students are strongly recommended to take courses outside the School of Public Administration in the following general areas: Social Sciences-- Sociology, Psychology, Social Psychology, Economics, Anthropology, Political Science; Communications-- Speech, English, Journalism, Telecommunications; Cinema; The Arts-- Music Appreciation, Art, Comparative Literature.

The program outlined above indicates that the undergraduate training in Public Administration leading to a Bachelor of Science degree conforms generally to the broad cultural program that is offered in most liberal arts colleges.¹⁷ Even within the specific Public Administration courses which are sometimes designated as narrowly specialized, the actual content consists of a high degree of cultural and philosophical background material.

Graduate program. The School offers advanced courses leading to the professional degrees of Master of Science in Public Administration and Doctor of Public Administration.

Master of Science in Public Administration. Twenty-four units of course work plus four units of thesis is the minimum requirement for the Master of Science in

¹⁷Gable, loc. cit.

Public Administration degree.

Background. The acceptable professional background for graduate work is an undergraduate Public Administration major, or a major in any other related field. Undergraduate majors in either engineering, commerce, the physical sciences, biological sciences, or the social sciences are also acceptable provided they have eighteen semester units of upper division work in the social sciences. Candidates with any deficiencies in the social sciences are allowed to substitute up to a maximum of ten units of graduate social science courses as part of the course work leading to the degree. The rest of the deficiency has to be made up by taking courses in addition to the 28 units required for a Master's degree.

The management approach. There is a general agreement that specialization should be at the graduate level. The "must" requirements emphasize the "how-to" rather than the "what-to-do" aspect of administration.¹⁸ "The management approach lays emphasis on the 'how-to'-- how to organize, how to budget, personnel management. It means not being afraid to get your feet wet on the job."¹⁹

¹⁸Henry Reining, Jr., "The Development of Government in Underdeveloped Countries," Address before Town Hall Meeting, Los Angeles, December 21, 1954.

¹⁹Interview with Dr. John M. Pfiffner, April 22, 1955.

"Our primary focus is on the man who does a job in the field. We try to give him the tools with which to do a better job."²⁰ The program assumes that relatively few students who aspire to top policy positions will reach them. "Above all, the School . . . has not withdrawn from the essential task of preparing students for lesser positions, as well as top positions, in units of government."²¹

Basic aim. The School does not aim to produce ready-made administrators.

All that we are attempting to do is to introduce the students to the broad general field of Public Administration and to give them the basic ideas about the fundamental tools of administrative management. The competence will come with experience and performance on the job.²²

The public service is emphasized because we have kept in mind preparation for civil service positions, the development of a consciousness on the part of the student body that there exists a field of importance and interest in the public service.²³

Doctor of Public Administration. The Doctor of

²⁰Interview with Dr. William B. Storm, Director of Graduate Studies, School of Public Administration April, 1955

²¹Gable, loc. cit.

²²Storm, loc. cit.

²³Emery E. Olson, "The School of Government," Southern California Alumni Review, 14:13, February, 1933.

Public Administration is a professional degree comparable in general requirements and procedures to the Doctor of Philosophy degree. It permits the substitution of examinations in research methods and statistics for the examinations in foreign languages. In addition, the student is required to demonstrate through examination familiarity with American government institutions at the local, state, and national levels. A minimum of sixty graduate course units is required.

The work for the Doctor's degree in public administration is organized to insure that the candidate is competent in the following areas:

1. A broad general education as revealed by the academic history and by the Graduate Record Examination or a thorough specialized education in engineering, commerce, and the sciences as revealed by the academic record.
2. A thorough knowledge of the fundamentals of public administration to be judged by the scope and extent of previous studies and experience or a special examination in public administration administered by the School of Public Administration.
3. Mastery of the following four fields in public administration, one of which will constitute the field of concentration for the dissertation:
 - a. Organization, administration, and management;
 - b. Personnel administration and human relations;
 - c. Financial administration and controls;
 - d. Any one of the fields of administrative application, such as fire administration, law enforcement, public health administration, public welfare administration, public works administration, institutional management, municipal management, planning and community development, regulatory administration.

Candidates will be examined in each of the four fields

in the preliminary examinations and will be expected to demonstrate a basic understanding of the background materials, such as human relations, administrative law, and political dynamics.

4. An awareness and understanding of the relation of the social sciences to the administration of public business. It is not assumed that candidates for the D.P.A. are to be examined as specialists in economics, sociology, or other social science fields, but they will be expected to select, under the guidance of the faculty of the School, courses in the social sciences that will facilitate the development of such an awareness and to demonstrate an understanding of public administration as affected by the social sciences.

The degree of D.P.A. is granted on the basis of scholarship and research ability as demonstrated by the student as he proceeds through the program, and not solely on the basis of course work or units.²⁴

The graduate curriculum attempts to develop a professional point of view and an expert knowledge of the administration of governmental activities. It is planned with the idea in mind that the engineer, the attorney, or the graduate of the School of Commerce and Business Administration will build upon one of these backgrounds of expert knowledge in particular fields and so develop his skill and knowledge as to the administrative problems and their solution, so far as the management of governmental activity is concerned in relation to the

²⁴School of Public Administration, 1955-1957, 51:32-34, Bulletin of the University of Southern California, 1955.

field in which they have specialized.²⁵

Certificates. Persons who are interested in training for work in the public service but who are not in a position to meet the requirements for a degree may work for the Certificate in Public Administration. The minimum requirement for a certificate is sixty units of course work which are to be distributed as follows:

General requirements. These are selected from the lower division of the general undergraduate degree curriculum in the university.

100ab	English Communication	6	units
100ab	Man and Civilization	6	"
200	Problems of Human Behavior	3	"
204a	American Civilization and Institutions	2	"
100a	Speech	<u>3</u>	"
	Total	20	units

Public administration courses. The candidate is expected to take between twenty-one and twenty-seven units of basic courses in the field of public administration. Fifteen of these must be in consultation with the faculty adviser.

A minimum of fifteen units must be taken from the

²⁵Olson, "The School of Government," op. cit., pp. 12-13.

following group of courses in public administration:

300	Staff Administration	3 units
324	Public Personnel Administration	3 "
335	Public Financial Administration	3 "
404	Statistics in Public Administration	3 "
410	Principles of Public Organization and Management	2 "
412	Administrative Analysis	3 "
417	Human Relations in Management	2 "

Between six and twelve units must be taken from the

following group:

301	Program Administration	3 units
302	Principles of Governmental Administration	3 "
304	Governmental Report Writing	2 "
305	Public Relations	2 "
480ab	Politics and Administration	2 - 2 "
492	Administrative Law	3 "
300(Economics)	Fundamentals of Economics	3 "
307(Political Science)	Municipal Government	3 "
301(Sociology)	Social Psychology	3 "

Field of specialization. Each candidate chooses a field of specialization according to his own particular interest. The certificate is offered for specialization in a specific field, and the balance of the sixty unit requirement comes from this area of specialization. The

following are some of the fields of specialization: Building Department Administration, Correctional Administration, Employment Security Administration, Financial Administration, Fire Administration, Law Enforcement and Police Administration, Municipal Management, Public Administration, Public Office Administration, Planning, Public Personnel Administration, Public Works Administration, Recreation Administration, Right of Way and Land Administration, Sanitation Inspection, Delinquency Control.

This particular program is designed for those who wish to have a university training in Public Administration but lack the academic background to work for a university degree. It is available for both pre-entry and post-entry candidates in the public service. These people benefit from the broadening experience that a liberal arts education affords them.

Some of the students after obtaining their Certificate decide to continue their studies toward a degree. In that case, the work that they have already done is credited toward the degree program. These people bring to their classes the stimulation and insight that results from association of the scholar with the practitioner of Public Administration.

Summary. The program of the School stresses the "so-called 'administrative skills,' meaning by that the

knowledge of organization and management technique."²⁶ But it also attempts to develop administrators "who are to occupy positions of responsibility involving important judgments as to policy and decision,"²⁷ men whose "work is not that of the organization, but the specialized work of maintaining the organization in operation,"²⁸ and the work of coordination of all aspects of the organization function.

The program of the School recognizes that

The growth of technology has so altered the working of public administrative machinery that it can be manned only by those skilled in its manifold ramifications. Management becomes the primary need, and managerial ability is not a part of the stock-in-trade of the man in the street.²⁹

The program is therefore, designed to help the student to acquire this skill.

The program attempts to give students the broad intellectual grasp which liberal education affords so that they can acquire a perspective of the relations of

²⁶American Political Science Association, Committee for the Advancement of Teaching, Goals for Political Science, New York: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 1951, p. 82.

²⁷Ibid.

²⁸Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1950, p. 215.

²⁹John M. Pfiffner, "Competence in Public Service," Civic Affairs, 2:1, September, 1934.

governmental operations to the public interest much broader than that usually developed in the standardized technical course. The depth of the liberal education thus acquired is open to speculation, but that is a question outside the scope of the present study. Suffice it to say that the School recognizes the need for such an educational foundation and is attempting to meet it.

In summary, the curriculum of the School of Public Administration envisages a genuinely professional training program designed to prepare

young men for managerial, auxiliary staff, or research work in public service . . . (this) implies a core of required subjects, attention to equipping students with essential skills and techniques, and definite plans for field work.³⁰

At the same time, the School attempts to avoid the tendency to turn out "specialists whose vision, skills, and understanding do not extend beyond their particular provinces. . . ."³¹

³⁰George A. Graham, Education for Public Administration, Graduate Preparation in the Social Sciences, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1944, pp. 125-126.

³¹Ralph F. Fuchs, "Legal Education and Public Administration," Public Administration Review, 8:226, Summer, 1948 (Review of Lawyers, Law Schools and the Public Service, 1948, by Esther L. Brown).

III. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Accomplishments. It is difficult to measure the exact impact of the School of Public Administration in the Southern California area, but it is safe to say that its influence for good government has been immense.

There is hardly a department in Los Angeles City and County governments which does not have at or near its head an officer or a number of officers trained in the School. Such alumni are to be found in almost every other municipality in this and the surrounding counties, not to mention the departments of state government both here and in Sacramento.³²

The emphasis which the School has placed on professionalized education in public administration over the period of twenty-six years has resulted in a high level of administrative efficiency and morality in the Southern California area. One result of this is that

despite the threat to Southern California's social stability from mass immigration, rapid industrialization, tense racial problems, and various other factors, the area's institutions have remained relatively effective and virile. The personnel of local government agencies have become increasingly professionalized, even with a chronic labor shortage. Individually and collectively they rank with the best

³²Henry Reining, Jr., "The School of Public Administration Today," in Frank P. Sherwood, editor, Twenty-five Years of Building Better Government, Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1955, p. 25.

in the United States.³³

The School has had a notable influence on other universities whom it has helped to develop centers of Public Administration.

The School of Public Affairs at the American University in Washington, D. C., the Institute of Public Administration at the University of Denver, the School of Public Administration at the University of Puerto Rico, The United Nations Training Centers at Ankara, Turkey, and at Rio de Janeiro in Brazil, were either started by or materially assisted through the efforts of the staff of the School.³⁴

The newest addition to this list is the Institute for Administrative Affairs at the University of Tehran, Iran, which was officially opened in January, 1955.³⁵

The School had made both academic and scholarly contributions and has produced a number of standard reference books and writings in the field of public administration. It has pioneered in such fields as juvenile delinquency control and fire administration, both of which are still unique with the School, and in "law enforcement,

³³Frank P. Sherwood and W. B. Storm, Technical Assistance in Public Administration, A Report on a Domestic Training Program for Five Turkish Professors, Los Angeles: University of Southern California, School of Public Administration, mimeographed, 1953, p. 50.

³⁴Reining, "The School of Public Administration Today," loc. cit.

³⁵Contract between the International Cooperation Administration and the University of Southern California, June, 1954.

employment security, right of way and administration, public sanitation, and building department administration, not to mention Dr. Pfiffner's work in human relations and in organization research."³⁶

Books written by members of the faculty include John M. Pfiffner's Public Administration,³⁷ which is now in its third edition, The Supervision of Personnel,³⁸ Research Methods in Public Administration,³⁹ and Municipal Administration;⁴⁰ Police Work with Juveniles by Kenney and Pursuit;⁴¹ Dean Reining's Cases of Public Personnel Administration;⁴² and Public Control of Economic Enter-

³⁶Reining, op. cit.

³⁷John M. Pfiffner and R. Vance Presthus, Public Administration, 3rd edition, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1953.

³⁸John M. Pfiffner, The Supervision of Personnel--Human Relations in the Management of Men, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951.

³⁹John M. Pfiffner, Research Methods in Public Administration, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1940.

⁴⁰John M. Pfiffner, Municipal Administration, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1940.

⁴¹John P. Kenney and Dan Pursuit, Police Work with Juveniles, Springfield, Illinois: Thomas Publishing Company, 1954.

⁴²Henry Reining, Jr. Cases of Public Personnel Administration, Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1949.

prise,⁴³ which was co-authored by Gable.

Articles on public administration by various members of the faculty are regular features of many professional journals in the field.

Research, both basic and practical, is an important part of the School of Public Administration program. A report on "Factors Influencing Organizational Effectiveness"⁴⁴ was published in 1954 after four years of basic research in this area of human relations in management.

Students are encouraged to write theses on some practical problems that have some relevance to the department or agency with which they are concerned. Thesis topics have included the following: A study of account classification systems in governmental operations; Administrative control by staff agencies in the Department of Water and Power, Los Angeles; Tort Liability of California Municipalities; The administration of Public Recreation in the City of Los Angeles; Financial administrative reorganization in the Department of Public Works;

⁴³Harold Koontz and Richard W. Gable, Public Control of Economic Enterprise, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956.

⁴⁴A. L. Comrey, J. M. Pfiffner, and W. S. High, Factors Influencing Organizational Effectiveness, A Final Report, Los Angeles: The Office of Naval Research, University of Southern California, 1954, mimeographed, p. 53.

Judicial interpretation of the power of California Freehold Charter (Home Rule) cities under the "Municipal Affairs" clause in the state constitution; The evolution of municipal organization and administrative practices in the City of Los Angeles; Should municipal police and fire activities be combined into a department of public safety; Public relations as a function of administration in municipal government; A critical incident study of public health inspection and restaurant employee training programs in the City of Los Angeles; Teamwork between regulatory agencies and representatives of industry in the development of uniformly accepted national standards and regulations; The declaratory judgment as an aid to the disbursing officer; Indian police; An analysis of administrative internships from the point of view of the intern-- a critical incident approach; An investigation of the establishment and organization of courts of limited jurisdiction and their attaches in Los Angeles County; An analysis of the extent of and limitations placed on governmental control of the subdivision of land in Los Angeles County-- A comparative analysis of California state law and city and county subdivision ordinances and codes; A critique of methods of employee evaluation; A study of the planning function in local government; An analysis of control and coordination in the public service; The Negro

and the police in Los Angeles; Hospital care for home patients; The methodology of the prevailing wage survey, a case study.

The School thereby contributes to the improvement of government and those engaged in the public service bring to the college classroom a rich background of experience and enthusiasm which serves to stimulate teacher and student alike.

The faculty. The School of Public Administration has come to its present status of leadership in the field of education for the public service largely because of the efforts of its faculty leadership. "The faculty has been a teaching faculty," but also one that is not averse to "the acceptance of non-academic public responsibilities."⁴⁵

The president. The President of the University of Southern California when the School came into being, Dr. Rufus B. von KleinSmid, was an active public figure in the community. Dr. von KleinSmid was personally active in the founding of the School of International Relations in the University in 1926. He was also closely associated with the annual Conference on International Relations

⁴⁵Emery E. Olson, "The First Twenty-five Years, Challenge and Response," Trojan in Government, March, 1955.

which the University sponsors at Riverside, California. In this way, the President had demonstrated his interest in public affairs and it was, therefore, almost natural for Rufus B. von KleinSmid, "with the President's typical community interest and vision,"⁴⁶ to give enthusiastic support to a new unit in the University that would be devoted to the problem of improving the management of the public business. In his address on its twenty-fifth anniversary celebration, the first Dean of the School, Dr. Emery E. Olson, said that

The story also includes the dynamic leadership of two chiefs of administration, Chancellor von KleinSmid and President Fagg. They gave me freedom to make mistakes, freedom to grow, and freedom to accept the challenge and to respond to the needs.⁴⁷

The dean. In 1928 President Rufus B. von KleinSmid appointed Dr. Emery E. Olson as director of the Institute of Government which was the forerunner of the School of Public Administration. In 1929, he was appointed head of the new School.

Dr. Olson graduated from the University of Southern California in 1916 with a Bachelor's degree in Political Science and Economics. After a brief teaching career at both Wisconsin and Cornell Universities, he

⁴⁶Ibid.

⁴⁷Ibid.

returned to the University of Southern California where he received the Master's degree in Political Science and Economics, and the Doctors degree in Jurisprudence from the University of Southern California School of Law. Dr. Olson joined the faculty at the University of Southern California as a Professor of Economics and Business Administration. It was from this post that he was called to head the School of Public Administration from 1929 until his retirement in 1953.

Dr. Olson had a distinguished record of public service during his years as Dean of the School. He served as President of the Civil Service Commission of the City of Los Angeles, as the first appointee of the reformed administration of Mayor Fletcher Bowron. He was appointed as President of the California State Personnel Board in 1945 by Governor Earl Warren, and was reappointed to a second five-year term on the Board in 1951. He served as President of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada.

During the Second World War, Dr. Olson went to Washington where he served as Assistant Director of the Labor Supply Division of the Office of Production Management, Chairman of the Committee on Administrative Personnel, and also as Assistant Chief Examiner of the United States Civil Service Commission. He later returned to

Los Angeles where he spent the rest of the war years as Director of the Training Division of Lockheed Aircraft Corporation.

Dr. Olson was on the Board of Directors of the Sterling Electric Motors Corporation before his retirement from the School after which he became the Executive Vice-President of that Corporation in 1953.

In 1950 Dr. Olson served as specialist in organization and management of the Economic Mission to Turkey which was financed by the International Bank for Reconstruction.

This was the background and development of Dr. Emery E. Olson who headed the School of Public Administration from its beginning,

twelve years before the publication of Volume I, Number 1, of the Public Personnel Journal, and twelve years before Volume 1, Number 1, of the Public Administration Review. In fact, the British Journal, Public Administration, was only five years old, and Public Management ten years old at this time.⁴⁸

Other faculty members. Among the faculty of the School of Public Administration have been men with wide acclaim as authorities in their fields, men who have been willing and eager to accept non-academic public responsibilities.

⁴⁸Ibid.

Dr. John M. Pfiffner, who joined the staff of the School in 1929, is a leading international authority in the field of public administration. His texts in this field are widely accepted. Dr. Pfiffner was appointed to the Personnel Commission of the Los Angeles School Board in June, 1936, where he is still rendering distinguished service to the community. Dr. Pfiffner is a leading pioneer in the field of basic research in human relationships and organizational effectiveness.⁴⁹ He is a prominent advocate of the "management" approach to the study of Public Administration.

Dr. Henry Reining, Jr., succeeded Dr. Emery E. Olson as Dean of the School of Public Administration in 1953. He joined the staff of the School in 1932 after a distinguished academic career at Princeton University. Dr. Reining served as Educational Director of the National Institute of Public Affairs from 1936 to 1945, and returned to the University of Southern California in 1947. He made a study of the politics and government of Boulder City in 1950 under the direction of the Bureau of Reclamation, Department of the Interior.⁵⁰

⁴⁹Comrey, Pfiffner and High, loc. cit.

⁵⁰Henry Reining, Boulder City, Nevada, a Federal Municipality, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1950.

Dr. Reining served for eighteen months between 1951 and 1953 as consultant and professor in helping to establish a public administration training center under the direction of the United Nations and the Vargas Foundation in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. He served in the same capacity in the Philippines during the summer of 1954 at the new Institute of Public Administration in the University of the Philippines at Manila. Dean Reining is now the Co-Director of the Institute for Administrative Affairs at the University of Tehran in Iran. He was elected as national Vice-President of the American Society for Public Administration in March, 1955.

Among the faculty of the School are young and ambitious professors who are highly motivated and strongly dedicated to the teaching and development of public administration as a profession.

Dr. William B. Storm who came to the School in the fall of 1949 after receiving his Doctor of Philosophy degree from the University of Chicago. Dr. Storm's special interest is in the area of organization and management. He has served as consultant to the State of California Legislative Assembly Interim Committee on Governmental Reorganization and also to the Air Materiel Command of the United States Air Force on management problems.

Dr. Frank Sherwood is a consultant in state and

local government and has had assignments with the California State Reorganization Committee. Dr. Sherwood is the President of the Los Angeles Chapter of the American Society for Public Administration for the period 1955-56.

Mr. John P. Kenney and Mr. Dan Pursuit have gained national attention by their work in police administration and juvenile delinquency control.⁵¹ Professor Kenney spent the 1954-55 school year helping to establish the new Institute for Administrative Affairs in Tehran, Iran.

Dr. John Gerletti who heads the School's Fire Administration program has had assignments in Civil Defense, both in Washington and in New York.

Dr. Richard Gable has a special interest in the government control of business and he has written a book on this subject. Dr. Gable has a two-year assignment at the Institute of Administrative Affairs in Iran beginning in the fall of 1955.

Mr. Harry Marlow, who was Director of the Civic Center Division, is now serving in Iran as the Executive Director of the Institute of Administrative Affairs. He has also served the City of Inglewood, California, as a

⁵¹Kenney and Pursuit, loc. cit.

councilman. There are seven other faculty members who are serving at the Institute with Mr. Marlow.

Mr. Stanley L. Johnson is the present director of the Civic Center. Dr. David Shirley specializes in financial administration. Dr. Wayne Untereiner who is a social anthropologist is director of the International Public Administration Center.

Among members of the faculty have been men who are now holding high executive and administrative positions in various national and international agencies.

An important part of the faculty are the practitioners in the field who teach classes mostly in the evenings. Each semester between fifty and sixty of these

professionally trained and career-minded men have shared their skill, knowledge and wisdom with more than a thousand . . . students. . . . Thus students have had both academic and practitioner leadership. . . . Each group is indebted to the other for the stimulating, intellectual atmosphere of research, analysis, and application.⁵²

Summary. The School of Public Administration has made significant contributions to the field of education for the public service. It has grown to become the largest School of Public Administration in the United States. It has helped other countries in establishing training programs for their public servants. The faculty

⁵²Olson, loc. cit.

of the School includes professors who are internationally recognized as authorities in their fields. The faculty combines teaching with practical and basic research.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS

Summary. This study has examined the relationships between the university and its community with particular reference to the assumption of responsibility on the part of the university for the more practical aspects of public service education. It briefly analyzed the complicated problem of education for public administration. A case study was made of the School of Public Administration, University of Southern California which has pioneered in the field.

The problem of the proper role and responsibility of a university has been a controversial one because there is no commonly recognized model of what constitutes a university. The university here was viewed from the standpoint of what it can contribute toward sustaining and supporting the ideals of the society in which it exists. In a democratic society the university aims to contribute to the conditions under which freedom can flourish and in which man can attain his highest fulfillment.

The new concept of government as an instrument of social service highlights the importance of administrative effectiveness and efficiency as the mainspring of

good government. It is the obligation of universities to recognize preparation for active participation in public affairs as an essential part of general university education. They must also assist in the training of present government employees, as well as provide direct aid, consultation and research on government problems.

Education in the field of public administration assumes the existence of a body of knowledge that lends itself to systematic organization for purposes of academic study. This body of knowledge includes the arts of organization, management, human relations and the conditions of group effort.

Conclusions.

University responsibility. Universities cannot be divorced from the problems of their locality and times. They are looked to for guidance and leadership in the handling of basic social, economic, and governmental problems. To this end, university faculties must explore not only the fundamentals of human and institutional behavior but also must seek to apply presently available knowledge. Thus the universities must participate actively in the affairs of the community and assume some responsibility for their conduct. The universities, either consciously or unconsciously, are deeply involved in education for the public service. It is, therefore, essential

to plan purposefully and comprehensively for a program that will meet this need.

The enormous expansion in the functions of government makes the problem of effective and efficient administration a pressing one for all countries. This fact makes the study of public administration in the universities an even more urgent necessity. Administrators may take the initiative to establish a public service education program, but it is more appropriate that the universities, in discharging their responsibility to the public interest, should assume leadership. Certainly, closer cooperation between universities and the public service is needed for the successful and effective operation of such programs.

Public administration as an academic discipline.

Public administration is worthy of rank as a university discipline in its own right. There is in the field of public administration a transmittable body of professional knowledge and its frontiers are rapidly expanding. While administrative behavior has not attained the high degree of predictability that obtains in the natural sciences, there nonetheless exists a body of knowledge and pattern approaches derived from experience and observation which experience has demonstrated to be useful in practice.

No education program will produce a finished ad-

administrator, since, to an important degree, administration is an art, that can be learned only in years of practical experience. It has been demonstrated in this field, as in so many others, that education will make one more adept both in the technique and the art and will shorten the road to the goal of competency.

Curriculum. A well-planned curriculum in public administration is necessary for the students who plan to enter the public service as professional administrators. Though based on the social sciences this curriculum should have a core of subjects that bear directly on public administration and are designed to equip the students with some necessary tools of the profession. It is possible to offer training in public administration as a part of the university curriculum for the students whose majors are in other substantive fields. Their curriculum could be enriched with courses in a "public administration sequence" series.

The interdisciplinary approach should characterize any public administration training program. Public administration is considered a social activity subject to scientific inquiry. All the available research techniques and findings of the various social science disciplines are of importance and should be utilized. The participation of the representatives of the various social sciences in

the public administration training program is of extreme importance.

In-service education. Post-entry education is not an alternative to pre-entry education in public administration. It is a necessary and logical continuation of education and training in the field. The universities can help and should cooperate with the public agencies in their in-service training programs. Such cooperation will be mutually beneficial both to the universities and to the public agencies.

The School of Public Administration. In its twenty-six years of active participation and leadership in community affairs the School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, has demonstrated effectively both the need for, and the feasibility of, a consciously directed educational program for both prospective and active public servants at the university level. The professional training program of the School focuses attention not only on those who reach the top of the administrative hierarchy, but also on those whose potentialities lie at the lower levels. As a result of this approach, the personnel of local government agencies in the Southern California area have become increasingly professionalized.

The School's large in-service, part-time profes-

sional education program for government employees provides an excellent laboratory for students to see public management in action, and also enables them to see how public administration knowledge and skill are transmitted to various levels of the government service.

The management approach of the School has demonstrated that there is a common core of problems in large-scale operation, public or private. It has demonstrated that there are skills in management problem-solving that can be taught; and that pattern solutions, derived comparatively from the experiences of others, afford useful starting points for such instruction.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

COURSE DESCRIPTIONS*

GENERAL STUDIES

100ab MAN AND CIVILIZATION

An introduction to the development of human ideas, arts, and institutions.

200 PROBLEMS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR

Principles in the understanding of human behavior, feelings, motives; the nature of human endowment, mental life, emotional development, habit formation, learning, personal and social adjustment.

204ab AMERICAN CIVILIZATION AND INSTITUTIONS

American historical and cultural institutions in the framework of American life, from early settlement to the present. The entire 204ab satisfies the state requirement concerning the study of the American Constitution and federal government, American historical institutions, and the principles of state and local government established under the Constitution of California for both the bachelor's degree and teacher's credential.

300 STAFF ADMINISTRATION

Administrative functions that render services to other departments or are common to all departments: organization, coordination, personnel, financial control, administrative law, and public relations.

*Bulletin of the University of Southern California, School of Public Administration, 1953-1955; Bulletin of the University of Southern California, College of Letters, Arts, and Sciences, 1954-1955; University of Southern California Professional Training Program, School of Public Administration, Civic Center Division, Spring Semester, February 7 to June 11, 1955.

301 PROGRAM ADMINISTRATION

Content and implementation of public policy; governmental interrelations; problems of administrative orientation and coordination; government as the servant of the citizen.

302 PRINCIPLES OF GOVERNMENTAL ADMINISTRATION

Development of the various units of government in the United States, including constitutional phases. Satisfies the state requirement concerning the study of the Constitution, for majors in public administration. Duplicates credit in General Studies 204b.

304 GOVERNMENTAL REPORT WRITING

Principles of, and practice in, writing effective reports in government: letters, memoranda, research analyses, recommendation studies, progress reports.

305 PUBLIC RELATIONS

Requisites of sound public relations programs in government agencies; social, psychological, political principles; mediums particularly suitable for government programs.

404 STATISTICS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Sources of data, sampling, tabulation, graphic presentation, averages, analysis of samples, index numbers, time series, percentages and ratios, correlation; practical applications of the various techniques. Duplicates credit in Ed Ps 537, Business Administration 325, or Psychology 324.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

307 MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Rise and growth of the modern city; political, administrative, and social problems; the different forms of city government, especially in America.

ECONOMICS

300 FUNDAMENTALS OF ECONOMICS

General principles underlying economic activity; relation of these principles to present American conditions. Duplicates credit in 253ab.

SOCIOLOGY

301 SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Analysis of the processes and problems of social interaction, social attitudes, suggestion, and collective behavior.

FINANCE

335 PUBLIC FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION

Problems of financial administration in governmental units; budgeting, accounting and reporting, treasury functions, purchasing, assessment, debt management.

430 GOVERNMENTAL ACCOUNTING

History, basic accounting concepts and structure; funds; budgets; statements. Designed for nonaccounting administrative personnel.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL

324 PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Terms and methods used in the administrative and technical phases of a civil service program.

POLITICAL CONTROL OF ADMINISTRATION

480ab POLITICS AND ADMINISTRATION

Role of the administrator in determination and execution of policy; relative influence of political and economic pressures and managerial problems on administrative policy determination.

PUBLIC ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

410 PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

Departmental organization of public agencies; problems of authority, delegation, control; line and staff concepts; managerial and specialized functions; functionalization and coordination.

412 ADMINISTRATIVE ANALYSIS

Organization surveys; work-flow and work simplification studies; development of procedure manuals; form analyses; space and equipment layout; position-classification surveys; wage and salary surveys; budget analyses.

417 HUMAN RELATIONS IN MANAGEMENT

Leadership of people at work; incentives, motivation, social intangibles; organization and management at lower supervisory levels; work simplification; supervisor as counselor and teacher.

ENGLISH

100ab ENGLISH COMMUNICATION

Reading, writing, and group discussion based on study of the role of language in thought and communication.

SPEECH

100ab PUBLIC SPEAKING

Development of the various units of government in the United States, including constitutional phases. Satisfies the state requirement concerning the study of the Constitution, for majors in public administration. Duplicates credit in General Studies 204b.

APPENDIX B

UNCLASSIFIED

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION

Washington 25, D. C.

QUARTERLY
SUMMARY STATEMENTS

ICA-FINANCED UNIVERSITY CONTRACTS

IN OPERATION

as of

September 30, 1955

S/UCC
11/4/55

UNCLASSIFIED

UNCLASSIFIED

IGA-FINANCED UNIVERSITY CONTRACTS IN OPERATION,

September 30, 1955^{1/}SUMMARY

	<u>Number of Countries</u>	<u>Number of U.S. Universities</u>	<u>Number of Contracts</u>
Regional	--	4	4
Latin America	14	16	21
Europe	1	1	1
Near East, South Asia, and Africa	14	29	34
Far East	7	14	17
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	36 (plus 4 Regional Contracts)	48 ^{2/}	77

^{1/} Limited to contracts under which a U.S. university carries on technical cooperation activities abroad. Excluded are such contracts as those with the Territory of Hawaii, The Government of Puerto Rico, American College of Surgeons, and American Hospital Association.

^{2/} Column totals 64 but some universities have more than one contract.

REGIONAL CONTRACTS

<u>Area</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. Uni- versity</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
1. O/LA	USOMs	Harvard University	Public Health (Nutrition)

<u>Area</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
2. O/LA and O/NEA	USOMs	Teachers College Columbia University	Education
3. O/NEA	USOMs	Syracuse University	Audio-Visual Education
4. O/NEA	USOMs	University of Wisconsin	Agriculture (Land Problems Survey)

LATIN AMERICA

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
1. Bolivia	University of San Andres	University of Tennessee	Public Administration
2. Brazil	Rural University of the State of Minas Gerais at Vicosia, Brazil	Purdue University	Agriculture and Home Economics
3. Brazil	Getulio Vargas Foundation	Michigan State University	Business Administration
4. British Guiana, Surinam and Jamaica	USOMs	University of Maryland	Agriculture, Engineering, Health, Housing, Community Development.
5. Chile	Departamento Tecnico Inter-Americano Cooperacion Agricola	University of California	Agriculture

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
6. Colombia	Instituto de Credito Territorial	University of Illinois	Housing
7. Colombia	National University of Colombia	Michigan State University	Agriculture and Natural Resources
8. Costa Rica	Ministry of Agriculture and Industries of Costa Rica	University of Florida	Agriculture
9. Cuba	Ministry of Education	University of Tampa	Vocational Education
10. Ecuador	Universities of Quito and Guaguaquil	University of Idaho	Agriculture
11. Mexico	Instituto Mexicano de Investigaciones Technologicas, Banco de Mexico	Armour Research Foundation of the Illinois Institute of Technology	Industrial Development
12. Mexico	El Olivar School of Mexico City	University of Michigan	Vocational Education
13. Mexico	Palo Alto Laboratories of the Ministry of Agriculture of Mexico	University of Pennsylvania	Agriculture (Veterinary)
14. Mexico	Escuela Superior de Agricultura "Antonia Narro"	Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College System	Agriculture
15. Mexico	Instituto Mexicano de Investigaciones Technologicas, Banco de Mexico	Teachers College Columbia University	Education

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
16. Nicaragua	Servicio Cooperativo Inter-Americano de Educacion Publica	University of Florida	Education
17. Panama	Panama Ministry of Agriculture and National Institute of Agriculture of Panama at Divisa	University of Arkansas	Agriculture and Home Economics
18. Panama	Government of the Republic of Panama	University of Tennessee	Public Administration
19. Peru	The National School of Engineering of Peru	University of North Carolina	Sanitary Engineering
20. Peru	Programa Cooperativo de Experimentacion Agropecuaria	State College of Agriculture and Engineering of the University of North Carolina	Agriculture
21. Peru	The National School of Engineering of Peru	State College of Agriculture and Engineering of the University of North Carolina	Textile Engineering

EUROPE

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
1. Italy	University of Bologna	University of California	Public Administration

NEAR EAST, SOUTH ASIA AND AFRICA

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
1. Afghanistan	Government of Afghanistan	University of Wyoming	Agriculture, Engineering, Education and Other Fields
2. Afghanistan	Teachers Training College in Kabul and Ministry of Education of Afghanistan	Teachers College Columbia University	Education
3. Ethiopia	Government of Ethiopia and U SOM	Oklahoma A & M College	Agriculture and Education
4. India	Allahabad Agricultural Institute	University of Illinois	Agriculture
5. India	Indian Institute of Technology of Kharagpur	University of Illinois	Engineering
6. India	Bengal Engineering College at Sibpur, West Bengal, and the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore, Mysore, and Others	University of Wisconsin	Engineering and Education
7. India	Ministry of Education of India	University of Tennessee	Education (Home Economics)
8. India	India Ministry of Food and Agriculture	Ohio State University	Agriculture and Engineering
9. Iran	Rural Development Board of Iran	Utah State Agricultural College	Agriculture

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
10. Iran	Rural Development Board of Iran	Brigham Young University	Education
11. Iran	Government of Iran and USOM	Syracuse University	Audio-Visual Education
12. Iran	University of Tehran	University of Southern California	Public Administration
13. Iraq	Government of Iraq	Bradley University	Vocational Education
14. Iraq	Government of Iraq and Abu Ghraib Agricultural College	University of Arizona	Agriculture
15. Iraq	USOM	University of Syracuse	Audio-Visual Education
16. Israel	USOM	State University New York	Public Health, Education, Agriculture and Industry
17. Jordan	Cooperative Department for Agriculture of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan	Montana State College	Agriculture
18. Kenya	The Royal Technical College of East Africa	Rutgers University	Engineering
19. Lebanon	Ecole de Arts et Metiers of Beirut	Isaac Delgado Central Trades School (New Orleans)	Education
20. Liberia	Joint Commission of Liberia	Cornell University	Legal Codification

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
21. Liberia	Booker Washington Institute	Texas A & M College System (Prairie View A. & M College)	Education
22. Libya	USOM	Syracuse University	Audio-Visual Education
23. Nepal	Ministry of Education of Nepal	University of Oregon	Education
24. Pakistan	Punjab University and Others	State College of Washington	Agriculture, Engineering, Education, Business Administration and Home Economics
25. Pakistan	University of Dacca	Texas A & M College System	Education, Business Administration, Agriculture, Engineering and Home Economics
26. Pakistan	Peshawar University	Colorado A & M College	Engineering, Agriculture, Education and Home Economics
27. Pakistan	Karachi University	Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania	Public and Business Administration
28. Pakistan	The University of Sind (and Affiliated Colleges)	New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	Agriculture

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
29. Pakistan	Khyber Medical College of the University of Peshawar	Indiana University	Medicine
30. Turkey	English language training center at Ankara	Georgetown University	Education (English language training)
31. Turkey	Ataturk University	University of Nebraska	Agriculture, Engineering, Business Administration and Education
32. Turkey	University of Ankara	New York University	Public Administration
33. Turkey	Ministry of Education of Government of Turkey	Spring Garden Institute	Engineering (Automotive Mechanics)
34. Turkey	Faculties of Architecture and Community Planning in the Middle East Technical University	University of Pennsylvania	Architecture and Community Planning

FAR EAST

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
1. Burma	Industrial Development Corporation of Ministry of Industry and Mines	Armour Research Foundation of Illinois Institute of Technology	Industrial Research and Development
2. Indonesia	University of Indonesia	University of California	Medicine

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
3. Indonesia	Teacher training centers in Medan, Semarang, and Others	Tuskegee Institute	Vocational Education
4. Indo-	Gadjah Mada University	University of California	Engineering
5. Korea	National University of Seoul	University of Minnesota	Agriculture, Engineering, Medicine and Education
6. Philip-pines	College of Agriculture, University of the Philippines	Cornell University	Agriculture
7. Philip-pines	Institute of Public Administration, University of the Philippines	University of Michigan	Public Administration
8. Philip-pines	Colleges of Engineering, Education and Business Administration of University of Philippines	Stanford University	Engineering, Education and Business Administration
9. Philip-pines	University of Philippines	University of Connecticut	Labor
10. Taiwan	Taiwan College of Engineering	Purdue University	Engineering
11. Taiwan	Taiwan Teachers College	Pennsylvania State University	Education
12. Taiwan	National Taiwan University	University of California	Agriculture
13. Thailand	Chulalongkorn University	University of Texas	Engineering

<u>Country</u>	<u>Host Country Institution(s)</u>	<u>U.S. University</u>	<u>Field(s) of Activity</u>
14. Thailand	Kasetsart University	Oregon State College	Agriculture
15. Thailand	The College of Education	Indiana University	Education
16. Thailand	Thammasat University	Indiana University	Public Administration
17. Vietnam	National Institute of Administration	Michigan State University	Public Administration