Education and Training for New Public Management

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ABSTRACT: This article argues for a new approach to educate and train public managers. Several functional requirements regarding knowledge, skills and attitudes are discussed. The status and trends of public management education and training in several countries are reviewed. Situation and recent developments of public management education in Germany are subject of an exemplary case study. Elements of an effective curriculum with an international perspective and steps towards a common understanding of public management education are suggested.

This article addresses obligations of the international academic community regarding the new public management. The article argues that a new public management requires a new approach to training public managers. The status and trends of public management education and training in several countries are reviewed and elements of an effective curriculum with an international perspective are suggested.

Administrative reforms adopted in nations around the world have been identified as the following the principles of "new public management." These reforms are characterized by the following features:

- A strengthening of competition and market and customer orientation;
- Management concepts and instruments imported from the private sector;
- Goal- and results-oriented management;
- Decentralized structures with semi-autonomous organizations (e.g., agencies); and
- A clear distinction between strategic and operative responsibilities—the political versus the administrative spheres (Hood, 1991).

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New public management reforms (NPM) have been implemented in different states with diverging strategies. While some governments have chosen a rather autocratic top-down strategy, others opted for a smooth, voluntary step-by-step process. However, apart from the different mixes of new public management-elements, and apart from diverging strategies, one major prerequisite has existed in all countries: new public management reforms were successful only if the respective governments succeeded in transferring the new public management philosophy into the thinking of the public servants.\(^1\) In nearly all cases it was necessary to develop a new management thinking, new values, and attitudes to train the existing personnel in the use of new techniques and instruments. “New” public management requires “new” public managers!

Implementing new public management elements within an existing institutional setting and with existing personnel, requires the formulation and implementation of a program for educating and training those public servants who are expected to serve as the “new public managers.” There is a need to develop specific curricula and training methods for them. Although existing curricula for public administration and for (private sector) business administration can be utilized for new public management education to some extent, neither the “old” public administration programs nor a simple transfer of private sector-oriented management programs will be an adequate solution. A specially designed curriculum concept for new public management education is required.

Although there is some convergence between public and private managers, significant differences have been identified (Farnham and Horton, 1996: 49).

1. Whereas private managers typically strive to increase demand for their products or services, public managers often must to suppress it to stay within their budgetary limits.

2. Economic efficiency cannot be used by public managers as the primary decision criterion in public organizations due to their overall welfare and redistribution mission. Public managers are expected to follow a “public service ethic.”

3. Public managers have to balance the diverging interests of multiple stakeholders, including politicians with their particular rationales; and

4. Public managers often must manage networks of several public (and private) organizations instead of being responsible for a single organization.

Training is only one factor in the successful development of the human side of new public management. For public managers to be able to follow the new public management guidelines, it will also be necessary to take into account:

- Selection and recruitment of “suitable” public managers;
- Career development and promotion for public managers;
- A motivating incentive system for public managers;
• Adequate interaction between public managers, their superiors, and
• The team of employees regarding leadership, communication, and control (Hasenböhler, 1995).

The new public management will be sustainable only if the concepts and instruments are supported by an appropriate “administrative culture,” as expressed by the managerial values and attitudes of the senior level of civil servants.

However, reflections about an adequate new public management-oriented system of education and training must include the framework of public service. Concepts of education and training can only be judged in the light of the respective personnel system. There are three defining issues. (1) Does education/training serve only for a distinct and time-limited job or is it the entry for life-long task-fulfillment? (2) How isolated is the respective service class from other classes and from the private sector? (3) Are there opportunities to rotate into other functions or to other sectors (private, non-profit)?

It remains an open question as to whether education and training of the “new” skills and attitudes is a prerequisite for new public management reforms, or if it should follow such reforms. There is some evidence for the second position. It can be expected that the readiness of public servants to undertake training measures will increase after the start of crucial reforms and after feeling pressure for reform. The Austrian experience is a case in point (Strehl and Hugl, 1996). However, in most cases it can be assumed that there will be an interrelation between reform and training. Training leads to the changing of public servants’ attitudes and thus promotes change. On the other hand, ongoing reforms will increase the demand of public servants for training.

FUNCTIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR NEW PUBLIC MANAGERS

The managerial criteria proposed for the “new public manager” include having responsibility for executing a program or providing a service; being subject to evaluation of program results according to well-defined criteria and objectives; being subject to direct or indirect accountability to a public body; having a significant degree of autonomy in decision-making; having freedom of action over the use of financial and human resources; having a line management function instead of an advisory or consulting role; and having a contract of employment, often with a limited term. (Barlow et al., 1996: 7)

“New” public managers differ from the of “old,” bureaucratic-style public managers predominantly with regard to their values, orientations and attitudes. Several characteristics of the “new”—as distinguished from the “old”—have been observed, including emphases on: (1) ethical competence (fair play in competition, private interest, etc.); (2) political competence (neo-liberal ideologies, sectional interests of the manager’s own unit and of consumers, accountability to individual
clients and to superiors, etc.; (3) professional competence (output- and cost-consciousness, quantitative measurement of non-profit goals, control by pricing, coordination by competition, etc.); and (4) task competence (money-driven motivation, negotiation between competitors, reward for performance, etc.).

The major functional requirements for "new" public managers include, of course, the overall requirement of an ability to manage the organization or any sub-unit according to the essentials of new public management (Gore, 1994). This includes the ability to formulate strategic goals and programs, to allocate resources according to the given goals, to guide and control the organization in a goal and result-oriented manner. Furthermore a "new" public manager should have the ability to: (1) identify citizen or customer needs, and to communicate actively with the citizens; (2) include politicians in the management process, assist political decision makers in strategic thinking; motivate and empower the team of employees.

The public manager should be able to direct the organization in its effort to be "competitive" in its "market" and to establish an organizational culture with a distinct service orientation. To fulfill this role, a "new" public manager should acquire a specific base of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes.

**Knowledge**

The "new" public manager requires a broad range of management theories, concepts, instruments, techniques (including policy analysis, financial management, personnel management, etc.) and as well as basic knowledge of law, economics and social sciences.

**Skills**

The manager must have the skill to apply the above mentioned management concepts and instruments to the different managerial decision situations; as well as the ability to communicate, to resolve conflicts, to motivate, to plan, to coordinate, to manage contracts, and to control. Skill in managing contracts, (negotiating, contracting, and monitoring), is particular relevant because contract management plays a dominant role in the new public management concept.

**Values and Attitudes**

Sensitivity for the political implications of the manager's activities; entrepreneurial values (orientation to markets, customers and new opportunities), commitment to changing the existing administrative culture; and a strong drive to increase effectiveness and efficiency are all characteristics that are expected of the new public manager (Hasenböhler, 1995: 383f; NASPAA, 1992).
The Dilemma Of Cultural Change

To what extent is it possible to inculcate future public employees with managerial values and attitudes during their education/training? Will newly trained managers be able to act in the intended managerial way, or will the existing administrative culture force the trainees to adapt their behavior? Existing experience indicates a dilemma. When trainees have a radical new public management-orientation they may face the danger of being isolated in, or expelled from, the prevailing administrative system. If trainees choose to assimilate themselves to the existing culture, they will find greater acceptance within the system. But assimilation brings the danger of adaptation to the existing bureaucratic rules and “old” attitudes. The readiness to initiate managerial reforms and innovations may well be dissipated by such cultural adaptation.

Recruiting for the New Public Management

A practical consequence of this issue is the question of the best source of public manager recruits. Should it be from inside bureaucracy or from the external labor market? Each alternatives have positive as well as negative aspects. The internal candidate is familiar with the organization and its culture (but carries also cultural legacies), whereas the external candidate may have conflicts with the existing culture, but may be more innovative and reform-oriented on the other side.

INTERNATIONAL PUBLIC MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Definitions

An initial distinction must be made between education and training. The author refers to “education” as being a general comprehensive pre-entry preparation for future public servants, in general schools or colleges (open to the public), as well as in specialized civil service colleges or academies (closed shop for public servants only). Public sector education—particularly for the upper classes of civil service—will usually follow general or professional education such as studies in law, economics or humanities. “Training,” on the other hand, refers to a narrower instructional processes which takes place after recruiting and job assignment. Training can be performed as an initial measure immediately after recruitment and/or as an ongoing measure during the job. It can be done on-the-job or off-the-job (in seminars, etc.).

Status

The system of education and training for public servants which is practiced in a state depends to a large degree on the system of public service and furthermore on the underlying basic structures of state and public administration (Claisse and Ziller, 1994). For 200 years France and Germany, for instance, have been educat-
ing their public servants to become members of a separate and specific profession, distinct from other professional categories. As long as this specialized pre-entry education seemed to be functional, no significant demand for continuing training during the life of the job arose. Thus, in these two countries the qualification process has concentrated heavily on (pre-entry) education. In Great Britain, on the other hand, the higher-level civil servants have traditionally been recruited as generalists from programs such as the humanities, without any specific public sector professional study. Because of their lack of such public sector preparation, there was a much greater need for in-service training.

To identify characteristic patterns of education and training in selected countries it can be useful to structure the countries along the four fields presented in Table 1.

By and large in the "classical" European administrative states such as France and Germany, etc., the closed intra-administrative institutions—like École Nationale d'Administration (ENA) in France or Bundesakademie für öffentliche Verwaltung in Germany—are still dominating the supply side. Only in the last few years have universities\(^3\) and private training institutions gained a minor share of this market. In the English-speaking sphere—and to a large extent also in the Netherlands and in Scandinavia—there seems to be much more openness and competition (Flynn and Strehl, 1996: 16). Education there usually takes place in general schools and colleges, while training is offered by a mix of competing public and private suppliers. Even the pay structure is interesting. Whereas public organizations, such as ministries in France and Germany do not have to pay for sending their employees to the central training institutes, they do pay in Great Britain or in the Netherlands.

The result of the relative isolation of public sector education/training institutes from the general academic sphere in the "classical" administrative states and their lack of interaction with private sector management training has largely prevented the exchange of ideas and concepts between the public and private sectors. In contrast, Great Britain, the United States and the Netherlands, have exhibited the tendency for systematic integration of private and public management elements into the learning process. In these countries training institutions try to promote the

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<td>specialized (closed) civil service colleges/academies</td>
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<td>France, Germany, Austria, Italy, Spain, Great Britain (Civil Service College), USA (OPM etc.)</td>
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<td>general (open) schools/ colleges</td>
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exchange of the ideas and experiences of the two sectors in order to learn from appropriate private sector concepts.

PUBLIC MANAGEMENT EDUCATION IN SELECTED NATIONS

France

The traditional academic education system remains in place (Cauden, 1992; Rouban, 1996; Ruess, 1992). The Grandes Écoles still play a dominant role; (the École Nationale d’Administration [ENA], École des Hautes Études Commerciales [HEC], École des Ponts et Chaussées, École Polytechnique, École des Mines, etc.). Most top public managers originate from one of these elite schools which are located outside the normal university system. Critics mention the elitist and caste-oriented character of this system. Career success largely depends on admission to, and completion of, one of the schools. The traditional Grand Corps (cadres) seem to have enough power to block a modernization of the education system.

The typical education and training for the public sector in France is: (1) a three- or four year university course (of optional disciplines), concluding with a diploma; and, an optional 1-year preparation course for the admission examination for the pre-service education (1 year, optional); and, a one-year education at a regional training institute (IRA); or, a two and one-half year program at the ENA; (2) in-service training at the ENA, IRAs or in the ministries, after appointment. For the central government offices; see Cauden (Cauden, 1992: 65).

Public management is a quite well-known discipline taught in most of the schools and academies in France such as ENA, the IRA’s, HEC, etc. (Chevallier, 1996). Business schools and courses at the political science and law faculties of the universities also deal with public management. Since 1983, Politiques et Management Publique has been published. Although the French academic literature shows that several issues of new public management are frequently under discussion, there is a lack of information to what extent new public management issues are subject of education and training in France.

Nearly half of the higher civil servants in France (41.9%) show the values and attitudes of a public manager (Rouban, 1996: 153f). The majority of these work as field officers in public utilities like Post, Telecom offices or other infrastructural authorities. Only few of them belong to the Grand Corps. Thus, adoption of a managerial culture has occurred, as Rouban concludes, at the periphery of the state but not in the center (Rouban, 1996: 167).

Italy

As a an element of the classical European administrative state, Italy’s civil service relies heavily on the legal training credentials of its employees. Almost
two-thirds of the management personnel hold a degree in law (D’Orta and Talamo, 1996: 221f). Formal education in management is not significant. Staff members for managerial functions are selected from internal career paths by seniority. The average waiting time for the appointment to a management position is 20 years; lateral appointments have been possible only since 1993. In-service training is performed by the central Advanced Academy of Public Administration (ASPA) and by several sectoral ministries. It is not surprising that qualifications related to the new public management-related have not yet played a dominant role within the Italian civil service (D’Orta and Talamo, 1996).

**United Kingdom**

The traditional way of preparing civil servants for the higher echelons (the administrative class within the central government offices) in Great Britain has been: (1) a three or four-year university course in varying disciplines (formerly the humanities a large extent), concluding with a masters degree; (2) some short term training courses at the Civil Service College (or as part of an in-house program), after entering the civil service.

The concentration on generalists has been reduced in the last years. It is now restricted to the so-called “fast stream,” a relatively small group of senior executives to be trained for a flexible placement in different functions and policy fields. The recruitment of professionals—including “public managers”— has been increased.

The Civil Service College still plays a major role in educating and training higher civil servants, but contributes only 3% to the overall training figures. After being restructured and transformed into an agency, the Civil Service College is now only one supplier among others, and it competes with other private and public training organizations. The field of management training is largely left “to the market” (Flynn, 1996; Barlow et al., 1996). An important training program is the “Top Management Program” which has been given since 1985 by the Civil Service College. It is a 6-week, compulsory residential course (Maor, 1995).

Although the British government traditionally preferred generalists for its top management positions, public administration was a relevant discipline for civil service (particularly for the executive class). It was traditionally taught by a large number of British “old universities.” The “new universities”—the former polytechnics—discovered the field of public management and developed it in the 1980s as an applied discipline, dealing with practical public management problems (Pollitt, 1996). The “old universities” continued to offer public administration in the more traditional sense and concentrated on adding postgraduate courses. At present, public management programs are offered by a large number of universities, including departments or schools of business administration, mostly ending with a MBA or MPA degree.
The Netherlands

The normal way to be prepared for managerial functions in public organizations is to study public administration at one of the several programs offered by Dutch universities or polytechnic institutes. However, the pursuit of other disciplines such as law or business administration is also an acceptable path. Several administrative academies ("Bestuursacademies") are offering in-service training for positions in local or regional services. In-service training for central government functions formerly was given by a national training institute ("Rijksopleidingsinstituut"). This institute has recently been transferred into an agency and government departments are free to decide to purchase a course or not.

Personnel management—including training—has been strongly decentralized and "normalized" in the Dutch administration. Departments are free to choose the content and supplier of the training they want.

The departments of public administration at the Erasmus University Rotterdam and at the University of Leiden offer a full-degree program with a specialty in public management (Kickert, 1996). At the polytechnic level the Thorbecke Academy (Nederlandse Academie voor Overheidsmanagement) in Leeuwarden offers a 4-year program for public management.

Austria

Similar to the practices in Germany and Italy, the evaluation of candidacy for positions in the Austrian civil service is based predominantly on legal qualifications. A majority of senior officers holds a degree in law. The bulk of education and training in the Austrian federal administration is done by the Federal Academy of Public Administration Verwaltungsakademie des Bundes, at Vienna (Strehl and Hugel, 1997). This internal academy, under supervision of the Chancellery, is responsible for the education of federal employees, for pre-promotion training, for professional training, and for leadership training. New public management-related themes are part of the programs, although not central to them.

United States of America

The usual prerequisites for public managers in the United States are the "Master of Public Administration" programs (MPA) or similar postgraduate programs which normally take two years. No less than 214 universities are cooperating in the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) and are offering MPA programs. Additionally 36 schools, cooperating in the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management (APPAM), are offering programs in the field of "Public Policy" (MPP). In the last few years, several hybrid programs emerged, combining classical public administration with policy analysis and with public management (degrees under the names of "Master of Public Management and Policy," "Master of Management and Policy," "Master of Policy Analysis and Public Management," show this tendency (Averch and Dluhy, 1992).
MPA—as well as MPP—programs include considerable elements of public management. In general, the field of public management is of growing interest for academic programs in the U.S.

It is possible that the interest in public management mirrors a concern with administrative structures and processes and their reform, called “management reform,” apparently because other terms have been overused. Public-policy training could revisit some of the most interesting questions of policy making: (1) how political and administrative structures and processes influence the outcome of the policy process; and (2) the quality of policies (Jann, 1991: 126).

Training public managers through in-service training is the task of a great variety of institutions in the U.S. (Klimecki and Habelt, 1993). On the federal, state and local levels, public administration academies, universities, professional associations and private sector commercial training institutes are offering training programs. One of the most prominent suppliers at the federal level is the Office of Personnel and Management (OPM), with several institutes and training centers. A well-known university training program is the one-year mid-career program of the Kennedy School of Government at Harvard University. An interesting example of public management training courses is the “Certified Public Manager (CPM) program,” offered by several states and guided by the National CPM consortium.

From this review of national experience we are able to conclude that the institutional structure of education and training in the field of public management is diverse. In those countries which seem to be more progressive in implementing new public management-oriented reforms we find an open, flexible, competitive institutional arrangement, and generally, a convergence of the management education patterns for the private and the public sectors. In those countries not in the front of new public management movement, the institutional structure is much more statist, isolated from societal developments, and inflexible. Regarding the contents of education and training, this study acknowledges that “public management” seems to be a well established discipline in a number of countries, particularly in the English-speaking sphere. However, it must be pointed out that there is little empirical data as to what extent existing curricula include content related to “new” public management.

**PUBLIC MANAGEMENT EDUCATION—THE GERMAN CASE**

**General Structures of Education and Training for Public Administration**

The “landscape” of public sector education and training in Germany is complex and not at all transparent. This is a result of the complex structure of German public service. In the Federal Republic of Germany there are 6.7 million public servants: (1) .7 million at the federal level; (2) 2.6 million at the Länder level; (3) 2 million in local governments; (4) 1.4 million in postal/telecom and railway services (and other “indirect” services).
Of this total: 31.5% are "Beamte" (lifetime public servants); 44.3% are "Angestellte" (public employees); and 24.2% are "Arbeiter" (manual workers).

Staff is distributed on 4 service classes or cadres (Reichard, 1993; Röber, 1996): (1) administrative class ("höherer Dienst"); (2) executive class ("gehobener Dienst"); (3) clerical class ("mittlerer Dienst"); (4) sub-clerical class ("einfacher Dienst").

Whereas about 15% of the "Beamte" belong to the administrative class, and 50% to the executive class, only 26% of the "Angestellte" belong to these two classes, while 70% of them are in the clerical class. This shows that the "Beamter" has been dominant in the middle and upper management levels of German public offices. However, the legal construct of "Beamter" is coming under pressure because of its traditional values, its hidden cost and because of its isolation within the European public service context.

Education of "Beamte" and of "Angestellte" differs remarkably. In general, it can be said that "Beamte" enjoy a relatively better, more focused education than "Angestellte" because they are expected to climb the career ladder of their respective service class whereas "Angestellte" normally are employed for a specified position.

The traditional path for entry into the administrative class (regarding the general-non-technical-services) in Germany still is to acquire a degree in law and to complete a two-year preparatory course ("Referendariat") with stages at courts as well as at public agencies. The bias of public service education toward the study of law has been a topic for a number of years. In the 1970s almost 70% of the administrative class held a law degree, creating a near "lawyers monopoly." This bias for the education of the administrative class has also pertinent to the executive class.

The education of candidates for the executive class takes place at internal colleges for public administration (in each Länder and at the federal level). Candidates are selected by government. They then have the status of civil servants (subject to revocation), and they receive a government salary during their education. Public/administrative and private law are dominant in the curricula; public management and social sciences are only a minor part (Röber, 1996). The candidates graduate with the degree "Diplom-Verwaltungswirt," comparable with a Bachelor of Public Administration (BPA). Usually participants will remain in the civil service for life.

Training is the task of special institutes or academies run by federal, state or local authorities. At the federal level, the Federal Academy of Public Administration plays a dominant role. Each Länder operates an academy. The state of Baden-Württemberg is particularly well known for its public management development program.) On the local level there are numerous institutes, jointly run by local government associations. In the field of public management training, the association for managerial reforms in local government, at Köln and the German Institute for Urban Studies, at Berlin have significant trend setting roles.
Recent Trends in the Diversification Of Management Education

Since 1990, local governments in Germany have undertaken some remarkable reforms in the direction of new public management (Reichard, 1996). They implement "new steering models" and carry out experiments with cost accounting and budgeting techniques. Consequently, they have experienced a severe lack of qualifications regarding public management skills in their employees. Thus, local governments with increasing pressure are calling for changes in the traditional education system, particularly for the training of the executive class, demanding management skills for their public managers.

There have been two kinds of reaction from the supply side of the market for public administration:

Reorientation and Diversification of Programs in the Internal Staff Colleges

Some colleges are offering specializations in public management. Others are offering post-graduate courses in public management. In two states, Nordrhein-Westfalen and Brandenburg, the colleges have developed completely new curricula for public management. Furthermore, there are some first signals that the total isolation of these internal staff colleges from the "normal" world of academic education will be broken up. The first steps to open these colleges for "normal" students, i.e. for non-civil-servants, are being taken.

Development of New Programs for Public Management in General Polytechnics

New courses are being developed and offered, primarily within the departments of business administration. New curricula can be found in the state of Niedersachsen (Fachhochschule Osnabrück), in Bavaria (Fachhochschule Hof), in the city state of Bremen (Hochschule Bremen) and in the city state of Berlin. They have an orientation similar to those of business administration programs, but they are adapted to fit the specialties of public sector organizations.

Interestingly, the universities in Germany where some, only a few, chairs for public management can be found have largely ignored the trend for public management education. Public management education in quantitative terms does not play a significant role in most German universities. The University of Konstanz is an exception, and for the last 25 years has been the only German university offering a masters program for public administration. A second masters program has been initiated very recently at Potsdam. Both programs offer specializations in public management.

The PUMA Program in Berlin

The polytechnic institute of technology and economics and the college of public administration at Berlin have jointly operated a new program for public management, called "PUMA" since 1994. The program is a 5-year educational model prototype, funded by the Federal Ministry for Education and Research and by the
State of Berlin until 1999. It is one of the first cases of specific public management education in Germany.

The program covers eight semesters and offers a "Diplom-Kaufmann (FH)" degree, comparable to a Master of Business Administration. The program's goal is to educate its students for managerial functions in public administration, in public enterprises, and in the private non-profit sector. After three semesters of basic studies and an internship of one semester in public sector organizations, three semesters with two choices of specialization, the program requires a comprehensive work project. Specializations are possible in "functions" (marketing, financial management, organization and personnel management) and from "areas" (at present: local government management, and public enterprise management). The last semester is devoted to writing a thesis.

It is anticipated that graduates will fill roles and performing managerial tasks in: (1) strategic and operative planning; (2) goal formulation, general coordination; (3) accounting; (4) financial management; (5) control and reporting; (6) marketing; (7) personnel management; (8) organizational restructuring and development; and (9) project management.

The primary target sectors of the labor market are: (1) public administration at all levels (federal, Länder, local); (2) semi-autonomous public organizations such as universities, hospitals, theaters etc.; (3) public utilities and enterprises; and (4) third-sector-organizations (nonprofit organizations such as welfare associations, voluntary organizations, quangos, etc.).

Although the "PUMA" program grants the equivalent of an MBA degree (to broaden the job opportunities of the students), the curriculum is not a regular MBA program. It is a mix of several disciplines oriented to the public sector-with: (1) 40% in business and public management (including accounting); (2) 10% in macro- and micro-economics; (3) 15% in public (constitutional, administrative) and private law; (4) 10% in policy analysis; (5) 12% in social sciences (sociology, psychology); (6) 7% in information techniques and quantitative methods; and (7) 6% foreign languages.

Although there are no statistics on the employment opportunities for graduates (because the first graduating class will not leave the school until 1998), several public employers are interested in this program and in its graduates. The strong demand from public sector organizations for student internships appears to be another favorable indicator. Expectations are positive: new public management-oriented reforms at federal and Länder level are just beginning. Public enterprises and third-sector institutions are coming under increasing pressure to reform their internal management systems, due to cutback of state subsidies and increasing competition. Although limitations resulting from the unification-related financial crisis are visible, the need for "new public managers" is expected to increase in the next few years in Germany.
However, a great deal of public relations work must be done to convince the tradition-oriented recruitment officers in public authorities that “PUMAS” graduates may have qualifications for public management tasks superior to those of the legalistic-oriented graduates from civil service colleges.

Training For New Public Management

Since about 1990 the training situation in Germany has changed remarkably. Several hundred of local authorities—and an increasing number of state agencies—are experimenting with the “new steering models.” They recognize the need for new skills for their public employees. Consequently, they are requesting special training programs in new public management. In the meantime, most of the state run and locally operated training institutes offer a variety of seminars and workshops (Kühnelein and Wohlfahrt, 1995). The above mentioned KGSt seems to be a trend setter in this field. Private contractors (e.g., consultancy firms) are also increasingly active. They have discovered the “public training market” and they offer ready-made programs. These are costly. Most of the training curriculum is not yet specifically designed for the new public management. Training programs usually concentrate on private sector-related management issues, with some limited adjustments to the particularities of public sector organizations.

CONCLUSION: TOWARD AN INTERNATIONAL COMMON UNDERSTANDING OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR THE NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

If we look at the international development of the new public management during the last few years, we find significant differences among various countries reflecting their underlying cultural backgrounds and managerial philosophies (Kickert 1996). There is a considerable convergence of concepts and instruments. The “hardware” of new public management seems to be somewhat similar throughout the world. But, when we look at the “software,” education and training for new public management, we find much less similarity. Traditional and cultural backgrounds may account for the variation in the educational area. What will be—and should be—the pattern for the future?

An important prerequisite to improve “new public management” teaching seems to be the promotion of a network of new public management teachers. The exchange of information about programs, their organization, and their success should be a first step towards a common understanding about appropriate subjects areas for new public management-related education and training. What we need at first, is more transparency about existing new public management-oriented education and training programs. The criteria for a guideline for empirical research could include: contents of programs (new public management-orientation); teaching methodology; role, duration, and sequence of teaching periods and internships;
duration and frequency of courses; status of training from a client perspective (voluntary/compulsory); incentives for, and consequences of, training (degree, precondition for promotion); role and attitude of supervisors; role and status of teaching institutes (involvement in competition, choice for clients); and the impact of education/training (evaluation of effects, e.g., for new public management-oriented administrative change).

When sufficient information about new public management-oriented education and training in the "leading" countries has been compiled, we should be able to compare the different concepts and approaches, to learn from each other, and to discuss the future development and structure of new public management teaching. An open dialogue about the different means of teaching new public management should yield further clarification as to whether convergence in the field of new public management teaching is desirable and realistic.

A first point of discussion may be whether it is desirable to find a common understanding about the core elements of a "new" public management education curriculum. There are several questions to consider:

1. Is there a common body of a public management curriculum which can be applied to different fields and levels of public management functions?
2. What should be the basic structure of such a curriculum?
3. What should be the "ideal" mix of management science, political science, economics, laws, social sciences, informatics, etc.?
4. Which mix of analytical and of pragmatic (applicative) contents appears to be desirable?
5. Which cultural, legal, social factors of a certain state may have impact on the curriculum structure?

Another topic of discussion should be the future academic degree of new public management-related education. The existing pluralism of degrees, MBA, MPA, MPP, and all the others in countries such as France or Germany, does not contribute to the development of a common core of new public management programs. A movement towards a worldwide accepted academic degree (i.e., "Master of Public Management"—MPM) would seem to be desirable.

Furthermore, the contents and the methodology of training, as distinguished from education, should be a topic of discussion.

1. What are appropriate contents for relevant target groups?
2. What is an appropriate mix of training methods (e.g., classroom courses, seminars, internships, on-the-job-training, organization development, coaching, self development) ?
3. How can training be integrated into a comprehensive concept of management development?
Finally, the relative importance of education and training, and the effective allocation of resources between the two, seems to be an unresolved issue. At which points in the career path and in what duration are learning processes necessary? What are the relative advantages of "education" and of "training"? A comprehensive pre-entry education program—like an MPM-course—does lead to an appropriate "public management" socialization, such as the adaptation to the specific role and rationality of a "public" manager. But such a program is time-consuming and costly. Furthermore, previously learned knowledge declines over time. Training, on the other hand, for a shorter time is not as expensive, and is more focused on specific objectives. Substantial changes of values and attitudes are not very likely. An approach to the distinction between education and training in new public management teaching might be to concentrate education on some of the so-called key-qualifications, economic and managerial thinking, readiness to learn, to innovate, to solve problems, etc., and to aim training efforts on specific functional applications.

NOTES

1. The rationale and the strengths and weaknesses of NPM are not subject of this article. There exists a considerable number of contributions discussing the advantages and the risks/deficits of NPM (see Lynn, 1996; Reichard, 1996). The following arguments and findings deal with the consequences of NPM for the education and training of public managers.

2. The case study of Austria is part of an ongoing comparative research project of IIAS and IASIA on, "In-Service Training as an Instrument for Organisational Change in the Public Administration," see ch. 2.2.

3. According to Claisse/Ziller (1994) universities generally play a minor role in the training of public servants in Europe, because they have concentrated over a long time on academic (graduate) programs, but also because the public sector isolated itself from the general training market.

4. For more details see Farnham et al., 1996 ("New Public Managers in Europe" which offers valuable data from a comparative research study done by an EGPA study group on personnel policies.

5. The author is one of the founders and promoters of this program.

REFERENCES


