

Education and Training in Public Administration:  
Transference of Segmenting Organizational Behavior

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ABSTRACT

Organizations can survive, let alone progress, only if they carry out meaningful transactions with society at large. This process requires they differentiate their "organizational being" to respond to clientele needs and/or user demands. The inherent problem is that these differentiated structures may become segmented into tightly closed systems, being in effect organizations within organization characterized by self-serving vested interests. Expediency becomes the operating rule. Segmentation is common to all societies, but it is especially prevalent in situations of decline.

Advanced in this discussion is that the segmentation process may be accelerated and consolidated by in-house training and education, and especially by those of a public management character. A plea is made for universities to become more actively engaged in (a) the preparation and placement of "quality" educated persons, and (b) the search/development of new public organizations.

I. The Problem

Public organizations as large systems are required to carry on two paradoxical acts. To process demands with society at large, they must establish differentiated structures. To preserve integrity, they must integrate these structures into idealized purpose.<sup>1</sup>

In the terms of contending organizational groups, seldom is it possible to bring these two acts into "win win" situations. A gain for one group invariable leads to a loss by the other. Proper relationships must be determined by the

changing contingencies in each organization's domain.<sup>2</sup> Because of uncertainties and perplexities, managers are typically hesitant to intervene organizationally — trusting that through a process of muddling proper adjustments and adaptations will occur.<sup>3</sup>

The risk of this decision process is that the incremental path taken will lead to organizational debilitation. Furthermore, organizations cannot afford to differentiate their structures to respond to each and every societal demand. If so responsive, in due time their structural integrity will be shattered into contending factions. On the other hand, organizations cannot place undue emphasis on the maintenance of structural integrity.

Public organizations seldom reach either one of these extremes. Endemic, however, is tight segmentation of entities of differentiated structures into almost self-contained entities. In a political sense they are not too far removed from being "states within a state," as characterized by "warlordism."<sup>4</sup> These segmented entities become extremely self-serving — compartmentalizing events, problems and actions within their own systems and isolating themselves from others.<sup>5</sup> Cooperation and coordination with other differentiated (segmented) structures is difficult to achieve since minimum exchanges take place outside of entrenched order of affairs. Greater rationality is assumed to occur within the structures than that exercised by higher authority. Those persons closest to what is being done know what is best. Top down initiatives are often rebuked by lower order actors as forms of meddling elitism.

Because of organizational imperviousness, implementing change becomes a horrendous activity. Essential information is not widely disseminated between segmented structures. Organizational-wide learning is minimal, being confined mainly within narrow organizational confines.

Society as well experiences segmentation.<sup>6</sup> As a consequence, formal as well as social organizations strive to weld together their segmented interests. When this occurs such as with the so-called triangle arrangements in the U.S. federal bureaucracy (an interest group aligned with an appropriate subcommittee of Congress and a bureau of the agency) segmentation becomes almost a closed social-technical system. Nineteenth century colonial governments employed the same technique by which to consolidate their control over disparate populations and cultures. An example is the British-Indian Army which represented a merging of class and caste into segmented structures. Nevertheless this army became one of the world's finest military organizations.<sup>7</sup>

Possibly, in simple agrarian economies, segmented organization creates no

serious problems. A satisfactory level of law and order may be maintained, an acceptable equity of justice carried out, adequate communication established, and these essential factors for society's well being achieved with a tolerable tax burden. It is in complex industrial societies undergoing transformation that organizational segmentation becomes pathological in nature. These societies are characterized by an imperative of temporary organizations to process numerous contingencies emerging out of transitory time.<sup>8</sup> Societies undergoing massive socio-economic transitions either as a consequence of industrialization and/or reindustrialization must learn how to create temporary organizations with relatively short life spans to achieve survival goals. In character they are akin to construction projects. Once the irrigation dam and its distribution systems are constructed, the construction organization is "destroyed." Mobilization of itinerant farm workers to harvest a crop on a large farm is another example. Retooling to bring out a new model of an automobile is a common occurrence.

As industry in the United States, and elsewhere, moved from product to process orientation, the need for and the development of temporary organizations dramatically increased.<sup>9</sup> Endemic segmentalization in part is traceable to employment uncertainties generated by this technical innovation.<sup>10</sup>

Historical factors may contribute to segmentation. The British Isles is an example where the residues of the feudal and colonial traditions have segmented society into classes, in-group loyalties, and local orientations — once powerful qualities in spreading imperial rule around the globe. As British imperial power declined, these segmented structures in turn became organizational constrictors. Modern organization demands the lessening of class and caste differences, with authority vested in office on prescriptive criteria rather than ascriptive behavior.<sup>11</sup>

The contention being advanced is that segmented organization is a chronic problem in the United States as well as elsewhere. It is endemic to all kinds of organizations — public and private, social and artificial, profit and not-profit. Segmentation is a subtle organizational disease. Large scale organization demands flexibility in the delivery of services. Lower order actors must be given substantial capacity and opportunity to initiate and respond to their operating contingencies. Yet within this context arises provincialized self-interests that often segment themselves into protective sociotechnical systems.

How to keep in balance the ever constant need of organizational rejuvenation in the forms of differentiated actions and integrative actions is a perplexing managerial problem, and one that managers across societies have not carried out well. A number of factors may be identified contributing to this situation. A

significant one, although very difficult to assess with any degree of finality, is to be found in the educational and training process of public administrators — a topic scarcely addressed in scholarly literature except possibly in terms of socialization.

The remainder of this discussion will address this particular factor in the following terms: (a) formulating education and training efforts in public administration, with illustrations of output perplexities, (b) varying confluences in socio-organizational segmenting, with emphasis on education and training in public administration, and (c) undertaking a general discussion, with indications on future education and training directions in public administration.

## II. Formulating Education and Training Efforts

Formulating education and training in public administration is perplex and painful matter. The task is to prepare individuals to perform as professionals in carrying out useful services for the benefit of society. In societies which ascribe worth to the individual there is involved execution of the social function of matching individual needs for growth and development against those imperatives of organizational instrumentalities and goals.<sup>12</sup> Historically, there has existed antagonistic relationships between education in the form of preserving human worth and training in the form of exhausting human worth. Organization as a goal fulfilling entity is by its nature expendable. Once the goal, for example the harvesting of a farmer's grape crop, is achieved the organizational entity vanishes. As a consequence organizations typically pursue program goals of a short term nature.<sup>13</sup> They want technically equipped persons to fill immediate jobs. People are treated in the accounting terms of investment capital. As with all forms of capital they must be "depreciated out." The few fortunate ones expended in timely ways receive severance compensation such as corporate executives and early retirement such as military officers. In the vast number of instances, expendables are scattered as social debris such as itinerant farm workers or untenured university teachers. They pay the cost for carrying out of something called economic efficiency.

"Educating for survival" within the terms of human dignity must be the central theme in any educational program in public administration.<sup>14</sup> But this very mandate poses a difficult dilemma. Programs in professional education must give concern to the placement and advancement of their graduates. The question then arises: To what extent should employing agencies dictate content

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of curricula to meet their own short term needs?

Possibly there is no reason to seek an answer to this question since organizational imperatives within unique transactional contingencies invariably triumph. In other words, organizations specify the educational content for a person gaining admission to and the retention in their socio-technical orders. Educational programs which do not adequately service their human resource needs have no place in their personnel recruitment and advancement decision making.

Illustrative to this discussion is to be found in the historical contrast of higher education in the United States in business and public administration.

### **Business Education in the United States**

As a consequence of businessmen initiatives, the first business program, Wharton, was established in 1881 at the University of Pennsylvania, soon followed by other prestigious universities.<sup>15</sup> By the time of World War II, business education was a commonplace field of study in U.S. colleges and universities but it generally had a poor academic reputation. With Ford and Carnegie foundation support in the late 1950's academic and business leaders took initiatives to remedy this situation. These foundations' investigations were critical of business schools across the nation, charging them as being little more than vocational-type programs engaged in non-rigorous instruction. Very little research was being conducted and only a few faculty members held Ph.Ds. The nonbusiness faculty generally felt that as "trade schools" business education did not belong on university campuses.<sup>16</sup>

Schools of Business took seriously recommendations contained in these two foundation reports, adopting essentially a liberal arts model. School after school successfully turned itself around according to the new academic prescriptions. In research productivity schools of business often out emulate their liberal arts critics. On many university campuses they may be regarded as the epitome of successful academic rejuvenation, but ironically they are losing out to the very corporate clienteles they seek to service. Securing a MBA is no longer the "golden passport" to success that it was a few years ago.<sup>17</sup>

Interestingly, however, one discipline in conventional schools of business refused to go along with the Ford and Carnegie prescriptions – accountancy. To this day there is an uneasy relationship between accounting and other business faculty. Accountants regard themselves as the only "true" professionals

in this academic conglomeration and as such they strive to differentiate themselves into separate schools, and in recent years with considerable success.

Accounting faculties have forged strong working relationships with the "Big Eight" as well as large regional accounting firms. They are sensitive to preparing students to pass the Certified Public Accounting (CPA) examination and in training them in ways that are acceptable to the personnel needs of accounting firms. Over the last forty years working in conjunction with powerful intermediate professional associations, a profession was literally manufactured out of the process of credentialing a once lowly occupation known as bookkeeping. Educational differentiation is now a widespread feature in the professional world of accountancy.

### **Public Administration Education in the United States**

Academic interest in public administration in the United States traditionally dates to 1887 with the publication of Woodrow Wilson's famous essay, "The Study of Administration."<sup>18</sup> Unlike business education which quickly differentiated into compartmentalized units, this was not the case with public administration. Academic interest prior to World War II was dispersed and erratic. Those few academic programs in existence were largely results of progressive reform efforts centering on municipal government. Included here are the first two schools, Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs (1924), Syracuse University, New York, and The School of Public Administration (1928), University of Southern California, Los Angeles.<sup>19</sup>

In the mid-1960s a surge in public administration education occurred, with an astounding variety of diffused "packaging" of academic disciplines. Nevertheless, the overwhelming number of these programs were tacitly or intacitly appended to political science departments. By the mid-1970s with the establishment of the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs/Administration (NASPAA), there existed over 200 such programs graduating annually over 6000 MPAs. Schools of Business developed a similar interest in public service education, graduating over 6000 out of their annual output of 60,000 MBAs.<sup>20</sup>

Whereas business education has been immensely successful in marketing its professional MBA degree, the same is not the case with public administration education's MPA except possibly for municipal government in the state of California.

### **Clientele Demands and Outcome Perplexities**

If the experience of business education has any utility in the furtherance of public administration education, it is possibly to be found in the requirement to foster clientele demands which lead to healthy organizational differentiation in institutions of higher learning.

But this experience should not be unquestionably accepted since in recent years something has gone awry. Business education is again becoming suspect. Charges being levied against it are more serious than ever in the past. In the 1960's the claim was that business education was not realizing its potential for human resource development. If educators vigorously modify their educational programs on the grounds of academic excellence, students, businesses and society will all mutually benefit. Now this belief and confidence has been shaken. U.S. businesses have not performed well. Many voices contend that this performance is traceable to the small army of inept MBAs. Distressing is the unethical behavior of MBAs from leading U.S. universities who engaged in insider trading and related manipulations of financial markets along with other white collar crime.

If placed in historical context along with even limited social analysis, these outcome perplexities can be read as disturbing realities. Philosophically, American business education is a product of the nation's enduring belief in the superior utility of practical education. For over 100 years it worked, and worked very well. Its crowning achievement was to be found in the nation's agricultural sector with its model of educating young agriculturalists, conducting experimentation and research, and dissemination of practical knowledge and technology to users.

Through the auspices of U.S. humanitarian aid programs, this educational philosophy and organization was uncritically introduced abroad to foster socio-economic progress. Suggested is the consequences of this intervention in a number of third world societies is not substantially different from which the U.S. is now experiencing. Typically, organization segmentation is endemic to third world societies. For the first time in its history the United States is faced with this same organizational perplexity.

The claim being made is that one unfortunate result of U.S. educational and training efforts undertaken abroad was that it innocently fostered and reinforced endemic forms of organizational segmentation. While these initiatives invariably resulted in quick "pay offs," they introduced systemic rigidities in these societies which will be difficult to rectify. The so-called Green Revolution is full of such rigidities. By using the conventional U.S.

agricultural research and innovation diffusion practices, a powerful technology was introduced which dramatically increased rice and wheat production. Early adopters were invariably surplus farmers who had inside tracks on getting seeds, fertilizers, water, equipment, and fuel. With their now additional surpluses these entrenched farmers, in many cases powerful landlords, won further economic advantage making it more difficult to bring about critical institutional and social change such as mandated by land reform. In other terms, a nation may have become temporarily self-sufficient in wheat but the socio-economic inequities of a segmented society were further aggravated. The agricultural system became bigger but it did not develop since its socio-technical core in character remained virtually unchanged. A great deal of past endeavors in foreign assistance once termed as development can now be seen as carcinogenic growth.<sup>21</sup>

### III. Varying Confluences in Segmenting Education and Training

By their very nature organizations are power generating entities. Organizations survive, let alone flourish, to the extent they are able to find and maintain services niches which translate into power.<sup>22</sup> Organizations have propensities toward the concentration of power in the hands of the few<sup>23</sup> and the formation of largely invisible infraorganizational networks in a myriad of socio-cultural-economic areas.<sup>24</sup> Those in power strive to perpetuate their own kind by using these networks.<sup>25</sup>

At work, however, are new intervening contingencies which challenge these and related organizational propensities. The new technologies demand well educated workers, functioning in flexible-system production, in which teams identify and solve problems.<sup>26</sup> Human capital becomes the critical factor in the future of organizations, and this can no longer be easily tapped and wasted.<sup>27</sup>

As developmental economists have learned over the last three decades, investment in education is a high risk proposition. It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to capitalize out specific rates of return. Investments in education are imperatives but they can only be rationally conceived in expedient time frames.<sup>28</sup>

On the other hand, there is a more perplexing dimension. Every society requires elitist structures, aristocracies of civic merit and ethical behavior which provide the substances for maintaining organizational consistency.<sup>29</sup> How to structure educational investments and the selection and placement of those potentially significant persons into educational streams is an exceedingly



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complex and delicate matter.

In some countries such as Japan the educational filtering process is fine-tuned by state administered examinations of students' academic performance. Only a selected number are admitted to higher educational opportunities including mandates of the government as to what discipline each student may pursue.<sup>30</sup> In other countries such as the United States the educational filtering process is more open, with selective admission of students typically confined to a few prestigious private institutions of higher learning. In terms of filtering for higher education Japan places primary emphasis on the first six years of elementary education and the United States on the first year of higher education. The United States has an elaborate complex of "save" educational programs throughout its entire educational levels whereas Japan has virtually none.

But the United States and Japanese systems strive to prepare students for future occupational opportunities. The major difference is to be found in the freedom of individual choice. In Japan the government is heavily involved in setting career paths whereas in the United States the government is largely confined to issuance of market reports.

A striking feature of United States higher learning is that it is not exclusively tied to its colleges and universities. Drawing upon Northern European practice, the nation since its early colonial days established learned societies and related bodies which were profoundly shaped by egalitarian thought and behavior. Forums of learning and discussion across the disciplines of knowledge existed outside of the conventional educational system. As a consequence creative minds were not suffocated by degrees, rituals and institutional controls. Only within the last 75 years has emerged in the United States extensive credentialing of occupations and professions.

#### **"Wheels" within "Wheels": Segmenting of General Education and Training**

A subject scarcely addressed in the literature in general education is the rapid segmenting of general education within the confines of large organizations, both business and government. This practice is an old one and cuts across national boundaries. However, it never has been as pervasive and critical as now except possibly in the colonial context of European powers in the late 19th and early 20th centuries.

A recent study sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation revealed that U.S. corporations are annually spending estimates of \$40 billion upward which

approximates that of the nation's four-year and graduate colleges and universities.<sup>31</sup> Nearly eight million employee-students are involved which possibly equals the total enrollment of the nation's institutions of higher learning. Courses taught range from remedial English to Ph.D. programs. The Carnegie study states that these educational activities will continue to expand, with hundreds of business corporations carrying out general education.<sup>32</sup>

The federal government maintains and operates even a more impressive complex of education and training institutions, with each large agency having its own center. For illustration, the Federal Aviation Administration's Academy at Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, employs over 900 instructors. Annual guides are issued which for larger agencies equal in size telephone directories of large urban areas. These guides describe in detail each course offered and suggest the number of academic credits earned.<sup>33</sup>

The same educational phenomena is found as well in other countries. Large organizations prefer to educate their own in their own unique ways. No where is this more evident than in the preparation of significant persons to staff critical administrative positions in government. Here are found special academies, institutes, and schools.<sup>34</sup> In the 1950s and 1960s a number of these institutions received developmental assistance from the United States.<sup>35</sup>

### **Concurrent Confluences Segmenting of Public Administration Education and Training**

Education and training in public administration involves two developmental aspects of human resource investment: (a) investment for infra-construct and (b) investment for functional-implementation. Essentially, but not exclusively, this amounts to the perplexing problem of investing for executive managers or for program managers.

In the complex world of organizations, these two perplexities may be analyzed within several concurrent confluences which take on differentiations of social class. Four such differentiations may be identified: gentlemen, expertise, in-place, and pariah.

**Gentlemen Class Segmenting.** The India Civil Service (ICS) of the British Raj is a prime example of a gentlemen class functioning within segmented organization. Persons of the right class went to the right schools and entered the right public service at the right age. Under this segmenting process ideal administrators for the purposes of imperial government were fashioned, who

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for nearly 100 years performed in remarkable ways.<sup>36</sup>

In the course of its history the United States also developed a gentlemen class which reflected its own peculiar cultural characteristics.<sup>37</sup> Unlike the British, as well other European experiences, Americans distrust government in particular and suspicious of other organizations in general. Paradoxically, they espouse a high level of confidence in the shaping of human affairs. Mankind need not be strangled by tradition and institution. By rational approaches intelligent persons can shape organization and in turn society to advance the lot of the common man.

For the 19th century man nothing could replace the experience of earning a living. Education acquired in struggle for daily bread supposedly gives individuals unexcelled capacity for judgment and strength under adversity.<sup>38</sup> To become an administrator required education in the realities of life. This sort of thought still exists since young Americans regardless of their families socio-economic status are typically expected to work.<sup>39</sup> The best formation of character and ability comes from practical work experiences. It was out of this pragmatic bent that American management and organizational thought emerged. Frederick Taylor and Frank Gilbreth were engineers seeking practical ways to accomplish work. They were also servants of big organizations which was a haunting matter throughout their professional lives.

Historically, American big organizations have identified and nurtured their own managerial talent – not too dissimilar from the long experience of the U.S. military establishment. Many of these big organizations, such as General Motors, have their own academically accredited undergraduate institutions which are military academies of a sort. If these educational-type institutions cannot produce sufficient talent, then agreements are made with selected universities to provide raw recruits which are ROTC programs of a sort. To maintain contact with the public at large and keep peace within the ranks, selected entrants from the mass of workers are recruited who experience intense socialization into the management class which are “officer boot camps” of a sort (once known as 90-day wonders). In times of acute shortages there may be promotion from the onsite work force which are battle field promotions of a sort.

Then there may be found a few elite free standing private institutions such as the Virginia Military Institute and the Citadel of South Carolina that in the past have produced a few George Marshall types. For the business world there are found such prestigious business programs as located at Harvard, Chicago,

Stanford, Columbia, and Pennsylvania universities. For other graduates who enter this prestigious concourse toward higher business success it is a difficult and precarious venture. Becoming a significant person first means holding a significant job in a significant organization. Some universities go to great lengths to make this way possible for their graduates, others do not regard this activity as an important part of their educational mandate.<sup>40</sup>

Painful as it may be for egalitarian driven Americans, nevertheless it does exist, being born into the right social class greatly facilitates movement into and occupying significant management jobs.<sup>41</sup> How much of Harvard's School of Business historical success is traceable to quality education or selective social recruitment is an interesting question to ponder. For Pace University located in New York City, possibly the nation's largest School of Business, this question does not arise since nearly all of its students are poor bright recruits, and many of them, over the years, sons of immigrants. Large numbers of these school graduates make their mark in the business world; and much of their success is due to a unique educational institution that provides for its graduates throughout their careers advancement opportunities. In America it is possible to win gentlemen class when a responsible institution stands behind its novitiates.

Careerism is endemic in this confluence, with importance ascribed to specific educational events controlled by strategically placed persons. As the U.S. military well illustrates, the upward mobile officer must gain entrance to the right school in relationship to the right time in rank or face the frustrating demise of his career.<sup>42</sup>

The haunting aspect is that greater value is ascribed to the organization's own education/training event than that of an outside institution of higher learning. As one business reporter writes, Charles Nekvasil, "Today, having an IBM or a P&G on your resume may be more important than having a MBA."<sup>43</sup> Within a nine month period at the U.S. Department of State's Foreign Service Institute a foreign service officer in the administrative specialty can be refurbished to fit the economic officer specialty. Completing a master or Ph.D. degree in economics without the prior agency's stamp of approval would probably have no merit.<sup>44</sup>

Equally disconcerting is the rash of so-called executive MBA and MPA degree programs. With a particular agency's stamp, the degree awarding institution invariably "softens" the academic requirements. Somehow experience on the job translates into superior knowledge, even though there may have been a technological explosion which rendered the executive obsolete in the first instance such as new information systems that require a knowledge of

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quantitative methodologies which are not easily mastered. In terms of intellectual requirement such persons received a "watered down" MBA/MPA degree when their job requires a strong DBA/DPA degree. They do, however, have a symbol of legitimacy when their degrees are secured from a prestigious university.<sup>45</sup>

How to convert long time technical specialists such as a Ph.D. geologist or B.S. civil engineer into a managerial mode of thought and behavior constitutes the greatest challenge facing large governments in the United States, and elsewhere. In their highly segmented worlds these persons have been dealing with little things, although understanding these little things may require erudite thought and technical ability. Now in the upward process they are being forced to take on new dimensions of organizational thought and action. In mental reformation they are being moved from the narrow and comfortable realm of control and predictability to the broad and uncomfortable realm of confrontation and probabilities. The organizational imperative demands they transform themselves into a new kind of professional, a public manager, who knows how to accomplish things in even chaos<sup>46</sup> — setting objectives, establishing priorities, securing resources, and driving their organizations to productive outcomes. In the lower echelons the managers operate in the world of "administrative politics," which border on the military practice of World War II of "midnight requisition" since no one organizational entity is self-sufficient into itself. To achieve program goals, for example control in the spread of AIDS, demands energies of other entities. At upper levels the external political forces become more prevalent. How to capture these as productive factors in the form of sensible political management becomes the propelling consideration in organizational affairs.

On the other hand, political management is a difficult subject to teach, and it cannot be mastered in a short time frame.<sup>47</sup> Yet this is what is taking place. Technocrats are being sent to short programs at some prestigious institute with the purpose to experience wholesale mental reformation in order to become competent in political management. Enough is known that expediency training is not the solution to this critical matter, yet the practice continues unabated.

**Expertise Class Segmentation.** While gentlemen class administrators sense out the proper direction to move organizational affairs, it is the expertise class managers functioning within their technocratic modes who literally drive their organizations into action.<sup>48</sup> They are the "mule-skinners," responsible for the effective operation of the organization's technical (production) core.<sup>49</sup> Without them nothing can be accomplished. Business, most particularly Japanese business,

understand the critical nature and importance of the technical operating core which is carefully protected and nurtured.<sup>50</sup>

Unfortunately, the same is not the case for American governmental organizations where even the very notion of the production function is scarcely understood and seldom articulated. Unlike business, government's technical operating core is composed of a hodge-podge of a variety of professionals, para-professionals and non-entities crudely held together by amateur-type public managers. The notion of technocratic management is typically foreign to the very being of government organization.

This situation is further aggravated by the heavy political and social loading factors in government agencies as a consequence of segmented interest groups which secure employment privileges in the form of affirmative action quotas, equal employment quotas, extra veteran points on employment examinations, lowered educational requirements for jobs, and preferential consideration as to place of residency. These matters are further complicated in unionized situations.

Possibly the most serious form of segmentation in government is to be found in the excessive professionalization of lower-level occupations. Over the last three decades such professionalization has been rampant with large and small groups alike neatly carving out compact domains in the public service. The health field is a prime example, with nearly every occupation having a licensing requirement.<sup>51</sup> Concomitantly, there is the heavy reliance in recruiting "experts on things," such as geologists, marine biologists, clinical psychologists.

Unless clothed with ascriptive privilege, securing a technical-type skill facilitates entrance into large scale government, and other organizations as well. While the great need may be a viable technical system managed by technocratic managers, this does not seem to appear to be possible in the near future because of excessive segmentations into vested interests making it difficult to develop an expert class. Yet it should be acknowledged that there are "pockets" in the federal government which have evolved classes of expertise in a cadre sense. Examples are the forest service, public health service, and foreign service. Within their own compartmentalized organization notable experts in "general things" have emerged, even though usually it has been difficult for them to move on to a larger complex of organizational affair. Typically other large agencies have not been able to mold an expert class within their technical core. For these agencies their core operations are characterized by weak groups of occupational technicians who are highly vulnerable to personnel and external actions.

**In-place Class Segmenting.** While this category partakes characteristics of the gentlemen class, there are sufficient differences to warrant its separate categoriza-

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tion. Here is found organizational segmentation in its extreme form characterized by intense inwardness in activities and almost impervious boundaries. There is little need for external education and training since the organization seeks to perpetuate its established order of affairs both in time and space. In effect it seeks to wall itself off from its larger environment. A small mind syndrome literally exists. Tradition is extremely important, with ascriptive behavior given primary importance as to organizational role, status and prestige. Age and seniority take on extraordinary importance. Coming to mind are such organizations as guilds, monasteries, feudal estates. Typically, seniority established work procedures take on extraordinary importance.

However, in-place segmenting is much more prevalent than evidenced in these examples drawn from another historical era. It is commonplace in situations of declining resources. An example is a university whose enrollments have stagnated. While the need may be for additional faculty in public management, the entrenched full professors in international relations retain not only their positions but also their organizational control. In such situations change comes mainly through retirement, with the organization literally fossilizing.

The U.S. foreign service is susceptible to this type of segmenting since basically its clientele are mainly diffused and foreign in character.<sup>52</sup> It is for these reasons that carrying out bilateral foreign aid is fraught with so many problems because of the personnel insecurities generated in the form of temporary programs.<sup>53</sup>

The business sector is full of this sort of segmenting, especially in large corporations that are strongly unionized. The established order will be maintained, even though new events demand other ways.<sup>54</sup>

As Gareth Morgan writes: "Human beings have a knack of getting trapped in these webs of their own creation."<sup>55</sup> In this regard he advances the notion of "organizations as psychic prisons." People in the organization become so obsessed with themselves they read not other signs until a major crisis takes place.<sup>56</sup>

Endemic to this sort of segmenting is heavy emphasis on in-house training and encapsulation of basic notions in public management. Again, universities show strong proclivities in this area. Professional schools such as business, education, health services, and public affairs, take notions drawn from the behavioral and social sciences and unquestionably "package" them as "management truths" serving their own segmented interests. With strong accreditation bodies in-place such as the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools

of Business (AACSB), these segmented divisions become almost psychic prisons enmeshed in cognitive traps.<sup>57</sup> For example, AACSB carefully details the structural elements and components necessary for accreditation. There is little room for program flexibility and innovation. The quest for uniformity in business education triumphs across the nation regardless of different educational contingencies. A high socio-economic cost results out of this sort of quest for uniformity.<sup>58</sup> Using Morgan's insights, there are cognitive traps such as: "False assumptions, taken-for-granted beliefs, unquestioned operating rules, and . . . premises and practices (combined) to created self-contained views of the world . . . ." <sup>59</sup> These traps create telescoped ways of seeing and acting. An illustration is the low opinion of public management education typically held by business school professors with the MPA being considered an inferior professional degree.<sup>60</sup> These traps create ways of not seeing and thereby reducing the possibilities for alternative actions. An illustration is the myth government agencies function at unsatisfactory levels of economic efficiencies.<sup>61</sup> The only policy alternative is to privatize as much as possible government services. The notion that America's future will be written by the quality of its public management is unacceptable.

**Pariah Class Segmenting.** In contrast with the three previous categories of segmenting agents, the pariah class is neither strongly invested in either business or public enterprises. Found here are the host of management consulting and counseling firms and "free standing" associations for training. An umbrella expression encompassing the vast majority of persons in this class could be experts in human resource development.

In transference of segmenting behavior this class is probably the most invidious which is traceable in part to high insecurities of its agents and opportunistic ploys they employ to seek continued employment. Complexities of organizational behavior are reduced to simplistic terms of changing the way people react to each other in organization by mainly humanistic interventions. Quick fixes are offered to resolve complex organizational problems. Very little "hard" knowledge of the participants is required in either the training courses or conduct of organizational improvement efforts.

Training programs range from those conducted by self-serving professional associations to opportunistic professors. Brochures describing these programs are usually "flashy" and the training sessions delightfully entertaining. The important consideration is to leave the participants with good feelings about their training experience.



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Although pitched as innovative education, the result is cheapened education. To become a good manager all that is required is positive thought.

Equally disconcerting in this category are found cheapened off-campus educational programs located on military bases and other governmental installations. Community colleges are prone to engage in such educational ventures, and especially in the field of business education.<sup>62</sup>

A troubling matter is that a great deal of the cross-national transference of public administration in its heyday of the late 1950s and most of the 1960s was of this simplistic kind. The expatriate technicians of that era were "pariahs," innocently seeking targets of opportunities but with missionary zeal.<sup>63</sup>

In developing societies this form of segmenting takes form in large numbers of private but for profit institutions of higher learning. Indonesia and the Philippines are two interesting cases which appear to have usual propensities in establishing private colleges and universities with masses of students enrolled. Public administration is a popular subject in these institutions since the students see this as a way to enter government service with its accesses to power and advantage.<sup>64</sup>

#### IV. Discussion

During these transitional times education and training in public administration is a frustrating activity. A professor cannot conscientiously inform a student: "If you win the MPA, new employment opportunities will arise." Neither can the degree be justified as a way for intellectual development nor conceived as an instrument for enhanced entrepreneurship such as the case with some MBA degrees. Possibly an entrepreneur emphasis should be given since the United States, and other countries as well, could profit from entrepreneurs of the Robert Moses variety.<sup>65</sup>

Fundamentally, these frustrations are traceable to the essential of organizational differentiation which often segment itself into impermeable structure. While this process is not thoroughly understood, enough is known that the segmenting can be the exercise of undue self-serving power in the form of co-optation by either the organizational providers or the users. As an illustration, the cattle ranchers co-opt the government land agency servicing the public domain for which they desire access or the government agency bureaucrats may co-opt the ranchers under guises of meeting other clientele needs.<sup>66</sup>

In advanced industrial-urban societies which are experiencing infrastructure

obsolescence the segmenting process is usually a consequence of agents within impacted the organizations. These organizations create their own inhouse education and training facilities to maintain significant persons vested in strategic positions. Niches in society critical to their positions are co-opted or manipulated into ineffectiveness. An illustration of this sort of organizational behavior is the criminal justice system in the United States, mainly its policy component with its elaborate personnel rules and training academies.

Concomittantly, certain ethnic groups operating in segmenting ways seek, and with some success, to co-opt the police system. Under such circumstances it is difficult for university programs to penetrate into this segmented system and introduce more effective ways by which to carry out the most critical function of society — maintaining law and order.<sup>67</sup>

Little would be gained in dwelling further on other examples were the necessity of organizational differentiation for enhanced effectiveness in doing “good things” has become subverted into self-serving transactions benefiting some interest groups. Nevertheless, the critical position of university education in addressing this matter should be stressed, and particularly as it relates to public administration.

Suggested is that American universities must seriously reexamine their place in these transitional times. As custodians of the great external, moral issues they must return to the ideals of the nation’s foundings, and especially to those of the land grant tradition. Faculties of professional schools particularly should step out as leaders in revitalizing organizations and policing of professional performance.

Possibly as much emphasis should be given in placement and follow-up of students as in the time and content of graduate education. Special institutes and centers should be established within university faculties of public affairs to assist in difficult organizational transitions. Renewed attention should be given to citizenship education where the great ethical principles of American democratic life are not only taught but practiced and experienced.<sup>68</sup>

While the plea being made for American universities to take a more activist role in thwarting the transference of organizational segmentation, it must be recognized that universities in themselves must first get their own organizational and administrative affairs in order. A reexamination of their very being is essential, with a recognition that facilitating the development of human beings in the fullest sense must never be compromised by expedient educational measures. Universities are not in the business of vocational education or explicitly serving the technical

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needs of some large business corporation. They exist to perpetuate civilization and foster human worth. It is proper to have schools of accounting providing that their graduates are well grounded in liberal studies. Accounting is an important function in today's society. Its practitioners are basically historians whose accounts underpin crucial decisions not only for the well being of organizations but of society as well. As significant persons they must not be molded within the simple principles and techniques of accountancy to service immediate demands of Big Eight Accounting firms and selected business corporations. When universities give-in to such demands, they have contributed substantially to the ethical and moral erosion of their own being, something society can illafford. The same occurs when universities abrogate their educational responsibility to service critical social needs. The nation needs educated policemen and not those trained in segmented organizational thought and behavior.

To correct this endemic transference of segmenting factors in the form of inadequately educated and trained persons in public administration will not be an easy task. Tough decisions on educational content and strong institutional measures insuring the incorporation of excellence into public service organizations will be required. Universities must learn how to become better main-spring type organizations in a complex world of organizations.

As the day of amateur public administrators is over, so is the day for self-serving segmented public and other entities. These two aspects need to be more forcefully addressed than ever in the past since it basically means a new way by which to conceive public organization and prepare people to run them.<sup>69</sup>

Since the intellectual demands will be heavy, the kind and quality of graduate education becomes critically important. Those who seek such education should be thoroughly grounded in liberal studies (social and behavioral sciences, humanities, mathematics, languages, and pure sciences). Those who seek strategic management positions should have the requisite graduate education in public management. Training should only be in the form of sharpening of skills for professional performance. It should never be in the form of filling knowledge voids for inadequately educated persons. Training entities in both business and private organizations have assumed too much of the educational function for advancing their own self-interests whereas universities have removed themselves too far from the crucial needs of human development and organizational transition in the guise of intellectual purity. It is time a sensible partnership between government and universities emerges in the area of public administration education since the nation's future, contrary to a prevailing school of political

thought, will be written by the quality of its public services.

## ENDNOTES

Special thanks should be given to the following persons who read earlier drafts and offered constructive comments: Steven Aufrecht, University of Alaska Anchorage; Guthrie S. Birkhead, Syracuse University; Gilbert Siegel, University of Southern California; and Krishna K. Tummala, Kansas State University. If so responsive, in due time societal alienation will occur even to generations of violent disturbance.

1. The notion being advanced rests heavily but not exclusively on the pioneering work of Paul R. Laurence and Jay W. Lorsch, *Organization and Environment, Managing Differentiation and Integration* (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1969). Cf. Peter M. Blau and Richard A. Schoenherr, *The Structure of Organizations* (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1971). For a public administration perspective, see Orion F. White, Jr., and Cynthia J. McSwain, "The Phoenix Project: Raising a New Image of Public Administration from the Ashes of the Past," paper presented at 1988 American Society for Public Administration National Conference, Portland, Oregon, 1988 (offset). Peter Drucker provides insight into this matter when he writes that: "Public service type institutions do not perform well because they are not organized to perform. Too easily they succumb to special interests." See his "Managing the Public Service Institution" in Oscar Tivis Nelson, Jr., (ed.), *People and Performance: The Best of Peter Drucker on Management* (New York: Harper and Row, 1977), p. 64.
2. See John B. Miner, *Theories of Organizational Structure and Process* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1982), pp. 257-91 and Doris L. Hausser, "Comparison of Different Models for Organizational Analysis" in Edward E. Lawler III, David A. Nadler, and Cortlandt Cammann (eds.), *Organizational Assessment: Perspectives on the Measurement of Organizational Behavior and Quality of Work Life* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1980), pp. 132-61.
3. Essentially, this is the rationale of organization as an organic system within the notion of loose coupling. See Karl E. Weick, "Educational Organizations as Loosely Coupled Systems," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24 (March 1976), pp. 1-14; John W. Meyer, "Conclusion: Institutionalization and the Rationality of Formal Organizational Structure" in John W. Meyer, W. Richard Scott and Associates, *Organizational Environments Ritual and Rationality* (Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1983), pp. 260-68, and John W. Meyer, *Change in Bureaucracy* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1979).
4. See Victor A. Thompson, *Modern Organization* (Alabama: The University of Alabama Press, 1977), especially chapter 8 "Bureaupathology." For a case example where the application of classical principles in a massive reorganization lead to this sort of bureaucratic behavior, see Garth N. Jones, "Bureaucratic Innovation in Indonesia: The Office of the Junior Minister," *The Asian Journal of Public Administration*, 6 (December 1984), pp. 153-78. Harold Seidman and Robert Gilmour describe a similar U.S. phenomenon in chapter 9 "Cooperative Feudalism" of their work *Politics, Position and Power: From the Positive to the Regulatory State*, fourth edition (New York: Oxford University Press, 1986).
5. Indebted in part to Rosabeth Moss Kanter, *The Change Masters* (New York: Simon and

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- Schuster, 1983), especially pp. 28-36.
6. Formal organizations are those artificial entities purposely created to achieve goals whereas social organizations are those natural entities inherent to social existence. Armies, schools, hospitals, and business fall in the former whereas families, social groups, clans and tribes into the latter. Both types of organizations have fused artificial and natural characteristics. See Garth N. Jones, *Planned Organizational Change: A Study of Change Dynamics* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1969), chapter one, "Introduction" and "Operational Elements of Planned Organizational Change, A General Statement," Anchorage: School of Business and Public Affairs, University of Alaska at Anchorage, 1987 (offset).
  7. As to difficulties in continuing this practice in decolonization, see Garth N. Jones, "Equity in Pakistan's Public Service: The Ahmaddiyyat Issue," *The Asian Journal of Public Administration*, 9 (June 1987), pp. 74-97. For a knowledgeable novelist's insights into this organizational approach, see Paul Scott's *Raj Quartet*, especially those narratives on the British Indian Army. Published by Avon Books in 1979, *The Jewel in the Crown*, *The Day of the Scorpion*, *The Towers of Silence*, and *A Division of the Spoils*.
  8. Useful in conceptual terms is John R. Kimberly and Robert E. Quinn, *Managing Organizational Transitions* (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1984).
  9. Some organizations must be fixed in place and time and others need not. Fuller details are found in Jones, "Operational Elements of Planned Organizational change," 1987, especially pp. 15-29 and "complex Water Resource Development as Loosely Coupled Systems: A Conceptual Approach," *The Chinese Journal of Administration*, No. 41 (August 1986), 1-75.
  10. For the United State's corporations this is discussed by Kanter, *op. cit.*, especially pp. 35-36. For a third world case study, see Garth N. Jones, "Boundary Spanning and Organizational Structure in Development Programs: The Indonesian Office of Junior Minister Transmigration," *The Chinese Journal of Administration*, No. 33 (May, 1982), pp. 75-116.

Social-economic theorists are perplexed how to deal with this situation. One group takes the position that the market will make the correct determinations in an efficient manner, whereas the other is skeptical of the market solution and proposes selected government interventions. Since the market excludes a sizeable part of government activities, institutional/legal measures with varying degrees of effectiveness have been utilized to set the life span of certain organizations. Regardless, in such transitional times human costs are high and those least able bear excessive costs.
  11. This aspect more sharply surfaced when egalitarian American religions encounter British class society. For a fascinating case study how one person dealt with this contingency, see Madison H. Thomas, "The Influence of Traditional British Social Patterns on LDS Church Growth in Southwest Britain," *Brigham Young University Studies* 27 (Spring 1987), pp. 107-17. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (LDS), Mormon, is now a bureaucratic institution headquartered in Salt Lake City, Utah. It is culturally egalitarian, with a strong commitment to voluntary missionary work. In the mid-1850's large numbers of Britishers joined the church and migrated to Utah, known as Zion. These persons provided much of the intellectual and leadership strength of the nascent Church. On the otherhand, it has been very difficult for the faith to take root in the British Isles. As a perceptive observer, Thomas accepted the fact that as an American outsider, even though clothed with the authority of Mission President, with troops of young American missionary

outsiders, the decision as to whom was worthy of baptism resided with the local religious leaders and not the Utah based mission President. Local rationality triumphed over church rationality — an almost unheard practice in the LDS history. Apparently, his system is working.

12. William G. Scott and David K. Hart, *Organizational America* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1979), especially chapters 2 and 3.
13. I do not wish to become excessively involved with the nature and character of organization. Essentially, this discussion centers on artificial-type organization. Essentially, this discussion centers on artificial-type organizations created to achieve goals. Each organization has a productive core which increases and decreases according to the environmental contingencies. All organizations are involved in complex co-production, some more than others. Useful for this discussion is Henry Mintzberg's, *Structure in Fives: Designing Effective Organizations* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1983).
14. See Ernest L. Boyer and Martin Kaplan, "Educating for Survival, A Call for a Core Curriculum," *Change, Journal for Higher Education* 9 (March 1977), 22-29.
15. See E.T. Grether and others, *The American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, 1916-1966* (Homewood, Ill.: Richard d. Irwin, Inc., 1966), p. 21. By 1917 reputable business schools existed including those at California (Berkeley) and Chicago in 1898, and Dartmouth, New York and Wisconsin in 1900.
16. *Ibid*, especially Preface. Cf. Allan Bloom, *The Closing of the American Mind* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1987), especially pp. 370-80.
17. See David R. Frances, "Harvard dean see oversupply of business schools," *Christian Science Monitor* June 24, 1983, p. A-6, Cynthia F. Mitchell, "Business School Loses some to Its Luster," and Amanda Bennett, "MBA May Not Be Worth It For Many Career-Switchers," *Wall Street Journal*, July 20, 1988, section 2, p. 1. Cf. Garth N. Jones, "Business School Professionals in Public Management: New Issues in Servicing the Public Personnel Function," *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 3(Fall 1982), pp. 21-40, and cover story, "Remaking the Harvard!" *Business Week*, March 24, 1986, pp. 54-70.
18. Published in *Political Science Quarterly*, 2 (June 1887), pp. 197-22.
19. See Alice and Donald C. Stone, "Case Histories of Early Professional Education Programs" in Frederick C. Mosher (ed.), *American Public Administration: Past, Present, Future* (University, Alabama: The University of Alabama Press, 1975), pp. 268-90.
20. See Jones, "Business School Professionals in Public Management," 1982, pp. 33-34.
21. The literature on the Green Revolution is overwhelming. See Jone W. Mellor and Gunvant M. Desai (eds.), *Agricultural Change and Rural Poverty* (Baltimore: 1985).
22. Essentially, this rests on the perceptive thinking of students who are developing the population ecology model of organizational dynamics. See Howard Aldrich, Bill McKelvey, and Dave Ulrich, "Design Strategy from the Population Perspective," *Journal of Management*, 10 (January 1984), 67-86; Howard E. Aldrich and Jeffrey Pfeffer, "Environments of Organizations," *Annual Review of Sociology* (Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews Inc., 1976), vol. 2, 79-105; Howard E. Aldrich, *Organizations and Environments* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 1979), and Michael Hannan and John Freeman, "The Population Ecology of Organizations," *American Journal of Sociology*, 82 (March 1972), 929-64. Cf. Barry D. Baysinger, "Domain Maintenance as an Objective of Business Activity: An Expanded Typology," *Academy of Management Review*, 9 (April 1984), pp. 248-58, and John Kenneth Galbraith, *The Anatomy of Power* (Boston: Houghton

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- Mifflin Co., 1983).
23. See Robert Michels, *Political Parties: A Sociological Study of the Oligarchical Tendencies of Modern Democracies*, trans. E. and C. Paul (New York: Dover, 1915, 1959); James Burham, *The Managerial Revolution* (Bloomington: Indiana Press, 1941, 1960), and Jacques Ellul, *The Technological Society*, trans. J. Wilkinson (New York: Knopf, 1954, 1964). Cf. C. Wright Mills, *The Power Elite* (New York: Oxford university Press, 1957); Henry Mintzberg, *Power in and Around Organizations* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 1983); Jeffrey Pfeffer, *Power in Organizations* (Boston: Pittman, 1981), and Gary Wamsley and Mayer N. Zald, *The Political Economy of Public Organizations* (New York: Frederick Praeger Publishers, 1973).
  24. See James C. Knowles, "The Rockefeller Financial Group" in Ralph L. Andreano (ed.), *Superconcentration/Supercorporation* (Andover, Mass.: Warner Modular Publications, 1973), pp. 343-44 and Morton S. Baratz, *The American Business System in Transition* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1970).
  25. See Sedman and Gilmour, *Politics, Position and Power . . .*, 1986), pp. 170-94.
  26. See Robert B. Reich, *The Next American Frontier: A Provocative Program for Economic Renewal* (New York: Penquin Books, 1983), pp. 246-51.
  27. See a statement by the Research and Policy Committee, *Investing in Our Children, Business and The Public Schools* (New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1985).
  28. See Jan S. Hogendorn, *Economic Development* (New York: Harper and Row, 1987), chapter 9, "Human Capital and Productivity."
  29. This point is effectively portrayed in Herman Wouk's *The Caine Mutiny* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co, Inc., 1951, 1961), especially pp. 491-97. Without Captain Queegs there would be no socio-technical expertise in the form of human infrastructure to mobilize the navy in time of war. For one study that addresses this problem, see Kenneth L. Murrell, "The Managerial Infrastructure in Economic Development: Its Importance and how to Analyze It," *SICA Occasional Papers Series*, Second Series, No. 12, Washington, D.C.: Section on International and Comparative Administration, American Society for Public Administration, 1986.
  30. See Dan A. Cothran, "Japanese Bureaucrats and Policy Implementation: Lessons for America?" *Policy Studies Review*, 6 (February 1987), pp. 439-58.
  31. Sue Nell P. Eurich, *The Corporate Classrooms, The Learning Business* (Princeton, N.J.: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1985), p.1.
  32. *Ibid.* pp. 1-10. Also see Suzanne W. Morse, *Employee Education Programs: Implications for Industry and Higher Education*, Report No. 7 (Washington, D.C.: Clearinghouse on Higher Education, George Washington University, 1984); Mary-Margaret Wantuck; "Bottom Line 101," *Nation's Business*, October 1985, pp. 24-32; Constance Mitchell, "Corporate Classes: Broader Scope of Their Education Programs," *The Wall Street Journal*, September 28, 1987, p. 31, and Kerry Elizabeth Knoblesdorff, "B-Schools, like business find it's time to think in global terms," *The Christian Science Monitor*, October 20, 1987, p. 12.
  33. See, for example, *1987 Guide to Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1987), three volumes.
  34. See "Roster of Participating/Cooperative Institutions and Associates, International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration," Brussels, Belgium: International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 1987 (offset), Lawrence D. Stifel, James S. Coleman, and Joseph

- E. Black (eds.), *Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries, A Special Report* (New York: The Rockefeller Foundation, 1976); Willie Curtis, *Management Training Methods for Third World Development, SICA Occasional Papers Series, No. 10* (Washington, D.C.: Section on International and Comparative Administration, American Society for Public Administration, 1986), and *Reports on a Seminar Series, Institutional Development: Improving Management in Developing Countries* (Washington, D.C.: The American Consortium for International Public Administration, 1986).
35. See Ferrel Heady, *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective* (New York: Marcel Dekker, 1979), Chapter One "Comparison in the Study of Public Administration".
36. Ralph Braibanti (ed.), *Bureaucratic Systems Emergent from the British Imperial Tradition* (Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1967) and Heady, *ibid.*, pp. 314-24.
37. Examples are Dean Acheson, Averell Harriman, Bob Lovett, John J. McCloy, Chip Bohlen and George Kennan. In this regards see Evan Thomas, "The Wise Men," *Virginia Law School Repot*, Spring 1987, pp. 15.17. Within same perspective see Frank P. Sherwood, "The Legacy of John W. Macy, Jr.," *Public Administration Review*, 47 (May/June 1987), 221-26. Cf. Virginia Crowe, "over there: Do ranking Civil servants share the problems of their American counterpart?" *Government Executive*, 20 (June 1988), 57-59.
38. See R.L. Bruckberger, *Image of America*, trans. from French by C.G. Pauling and Virgilia Peterson (New York: The Viking Press, 1959), pp. 151-52.
39. See Jean Jacques Servan-Schreiber translated from French by Ronald Steel, *The American Challenge* (New York: Atheneum, 1968), pp. 179-86.
40. See Scott and Hart, *Organizational America*, 1979, especially chapters 5 to 9. Cf. Rihard Whitley, Alan Thomas, and Jane Marceau, *Masters of Business? Business Schools and Business Graduates in Britain and France* (London: Tavistock Publications, 1981). On pages 211-12 they write: "The education system thus provides cultural capital which, at least metaphorically, they see as functioning the same way as economic capital. Investments in the educational system are made by privileged families through their children and these are expected to pay-off in terms of direct access to privileged posts offering economic rewards and social advantage . . ."
41. See W. Lloyd Warner, Marchia Meeker and Kenneth Ells, *Social Class in America: The Evaluation of Status* (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1960) and Kurt B. Mayer and Walter Buckley, *Class and Society*, third edition (New York: Random Houe, 1970).
42. See David W. Moore and B. Thomas Trout, "Military Advancement: The Visibility Theory of Promotion," *The American Political Science Review*, 72 (June 1978), pp. 452-68.
43. Published in *Passages*, May 1980, pp. 37-40.
44. Without undue violation of confidentiality, this illustration is based upon the experience of two former DPA students. Both entered the U.S. foreign Service under the administrative specialty category which has extremely low status. They opted to change to that of economic affairs. The one who went to the Foreign Service Institute succeeded; the one who secured a master degree in economics failed. Interestingly, both opted out of the foreign service at the earliest possible time for retirement. The former because he was out of phase in time and grade for promotion and the other out of disgust.

As to other dimensions, see Susan Kellam, "The Training Tempest," *Government Executive*, 20 (May 1988), pp. 44-46. On p.45: "Political officials say the government's three regional training centers are failing to deliver top-notch instruction to 5,000 federal executives who attend each year — though the attendees seem to like the program."



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45. A long time friend and former associate was fortunate to enroll at one of the nation's status universities on educational leave from the foreign service. He informed me that getting his MPA constituted little effort, and no way did this educational experience compare with that of the non-entity institution from which he graduated.
46. See Tom Peters, *Thriving on Chaos: Handbook for Management Revolution* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1987) and Ilya Prigogine and Isabelle Stengers, *Order Out of Chaos, Man's New Dialogue with Nature* (Boulder, Colorado: New Science Library, 1984).
47. See Joseph L. Bower, *The Two Faces of Management, An American Approach to Leadership in Business and Politics* (New York: New American Library, 1983).
48. The notion of technocrat is used mainly within the sense developed by Bower, *ibid*.
49. See Garth N. Jones, "Credentialing Public Managers: Cost of Amateurs Too High," *Public Administration Quarterly*, 9 (Spring 1985), pp. 55-83.
50. See William G. Ouchi, *Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge* (New York: Avon Books, 1981), chapter 2.
51. See Jones, Credentialing "Public Managers . . .," 1985, pp. 72-77.
52. See Chris Argyris, *Some Causes of Organizational Ineffectiveness Within the Department of State*, Occasional Papers No. 2 (Washington, D.C.: Center for International Systems Research, Department of State, 1966).
53. See Garth N. Jones, "Failure in Technical Assistance in Public Administration Abroad," *Journal of Comparative Administration*, 2 (May 1970), pp. 3-51.
54. See George C. Lodge, *The American Disease* (New York: New York University Press, 1986).
55. See his *Images of Organizations* (Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1986), p. 199.
56. See Larry E., "Evolution and Revolution as Organizations Grow," *Harvard Business Review*, 50 (July-August 1972), pp. 37-46.
57. See Morgan, *op. cit.*, pp. 201-03.
58. See Jones, "Business School Professionals . . .," 1982, pp. 25-26.
59. Morgan, *op. cit.*, p. 202.
60. See "Mosley: Rudder of the Pre-Career Ship," *John F. Kennedy School of Government Bulletin*, 5 (Winter 1981), p. 47.
61. See Arthur M. Okun, *Equality and Efficiency: The Big Trade-off* (Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1975) and Louis L. Gawthrop, "Developing Trends and Challenges in Public Management," *Indiana University School of Public and Environmental Review*, 4 (Fall 1979), pp. 7-11.
62. During my seven years as Dean of the School of Business and Public Administration, University of Alaska, Anchorage, these two educational delivery agencies constituted one of the more difficult obstacles in developing quality professional education in management in Alaska. Outside universities operated at will, usually on military bases, employing instructors with non-terminal degrees and softening degree requirements. One Texas University offered a 30 semester unit master of science degree in management with 15 units transferred from non-credit military training courses. Gresham's Law worked. Both UAA's MBA and MPA failed to attract sufficient students on the military bases.
63. See Jones, "Failure of Technical Assistance . . .," 1970 and "Frontiersmen in Search for the Lost Horizon: The State of Development Administration in the 1960's," *Public Administration Review*, 36 (January/February 1976), 99-110. Cf. Department of Technical Co-operation for Development, *Handbook on the Improvement of Administrative Management in Public Administration* (New York: United Nations, 1979) and Iyed Mumtaz

Saeed, *Managerial Challenge in the Third World* (New York: Greenwood Press, Inc., 1986).

64. This is based upon 30 years of observation where a number of my former national students either established a private institution or joined one. It is well known that such persons teach at several institutions, augmenting their salaries with diminished time spent in research and other academic activities.

In this regards I am inclined to believe that these institutions only heightened frustrations of its marginal youth who receive "cheap" education but with it gain high expectations.

65. See Jones, "Business School Professionals in Public Management," 1982, pp. 20-21.
66. Probably a better example of organizational cooptation is by the military veteran clientele. With the establishment of the fourteenth cabinet department, the differentiation into segmentation will be complete. Interestingly so, the National Academy of Public Administration issued a 50 page report against this elevation of veteran affairs to cabinet status. See "Executive Memo," *Government Executive*, 20 (May 1988), pp. 12-13. In this same publication a survey by Timothy B. Clark and Marjorie Watchal in their "The Quiet Crises Goes Public," on pp. 24-25 note that: "several ranking managers complained that veterans preference prevented them from hiring the most qualified candidates for jobs. One DOD employee said "the fundamental reason for the civil service's appalling incompetence is that it is used as a welfare system for military veterans."
67. See Jeffrey Pfeffer, *Organizations, and Organization Theory* (Boston: Pittman, 1982), on page 228.

Over the last decade across the nation program-after-program in criminal justice education was abolished since it was impossible for them to articulate an acceptable paradigm infused with meaning and purpose. On the other hand, the tragedy is that little or no success has been made, in spite of sizeable infusion of federal and other monies, in the abating the incidences of crime, and particularly that of white collar varieties. Sadly, one violent crime occurs every 24 seconds and one forceable rape every six minutes. The prison population has never been larger, and its numbers continue to increase at alarming rates. See Carrie P. Jenkins, "Abuse By Any Other Name," *BYU Today*, 42 (June 1988), pp. 30-32 (p. 31) and Michael Moran, "So Many Prisoners, So Little Space," *Government Executive*, 20 (May 1988), pp. 40-43.

68. See Clark and Wachtel, "The Quiet Crisis Goes Public," 1988, on pp. 14-29 a survey revealed the sorry condition of the federal service. Among the responses 92 percent gave "American education . . . an F . . . in its record of educating the young about government."
69. See Constance Horner, "Beyond Mr. Gradgrind: "The Case for Deregulating the Public Sector," *Policy Review*, No. 44 (Spring 1988), pp. 3-7.