ACCREDITATION AND COMPETENCIES IN EDUCATION FOR LEADERSHIP IN PUBLIC SERVICE

JEFFREY A. RAFFEL, STEVEN M. MASER, AND CRYSTAL CALARUSSE

What competencies do professionals in public administration need? That is, what knowledge, skills, and aptitudes does a public administration professional need to have in order to produce results that serve the public? What does the profession consider to be the characteristics of exemplary educational programs that educate professionals in the field?

The answers matter because they inform decision makers: program directors and faculty working to improve their programs, attract students, and serve their communities with their graduates; prospective students choosing among alternative programs and careers; employers who want validation that the employees they hire have the competencies they value; and university administrators and policy makers who want independent affirmation that the resources they invest in their programs are paying off.

The answers can be found in the accreditation process and standards promulgated by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). For more than twenty-five years, NASPAA has been accrediting programs in the United States at the master's level to "prepare students . . . for leadership positions in public affairs, policy, and administration" (NASPAA 2008, 6).[1] Accreditation involves a process of peer review meant to ensure and improve the quality of educational programs. By establishing a set of standards, accreditation agencies define the content of a professional or academic field. The standards establish the competencies to be required of professionals in the field and set thresholds of acceptability and quality for programs whose missions include helping students master them.

NASPAA's accreditation process embodies the values that define the field: accountability, transparency, professionalism, equity, trust, and responsiveness—all in the public interest. It involves a rigorous peer review. Defining the standards employed by the reviewers is the critically important precursor to accreditation. The evolution of NASPAA's accreditation standards reflects the history of the profession since 1970, as well as its direction.

Amid a changing environment for accreditation, public administration, and public policy, in 2006 NASPAA launched a review of its standards and accreditation process, ten years after it adopted its existing standards. The effort sought input from a variety of constituencies, including faculty members and employers, about the competencies every graduate of a program accredited by NASPAA should acquire to be a successful public servant. This chapter outlines the history that informed the recent review, the reasons and the process for the review, the competencies that have been defined in the standards adopted in 2009, and the challenges of assessing student learning.

THE EMERGENCE OF ACCREDITATION FOR U.S. PUBLIC AFFAIRS, ADMINISTRATION, AND POLICY PROGRAMS

NASPAA is an institutional membership organization with a twofold mission: to ensure excellence in education and training for public service and to promote the ideals of public service. NASPAA was founded in 1970 as a satellite of the American Society for Public Administration, a professional society for public service (Henry 1995). NASPAA's institutional membership grew along with the expanding numbers of public administration programs in the United States. In 1977 member institutions of NASPAA voted to adopt a program of voluntary peer review evaluation of master's degree programs in public affairs and administration and adopted *Standards for Professional Masters Degree Programs in Public Affairs, Policy and Administration.*

NASPAA-accredited programs demonstrate compliance with the NASPAA standards during a rigorous process of self-study and peer review.[2] Many nonaccredited programs in the United States and abroad shadow the standards.[3] Prior to 1992, NASPAA's standards were relatively input oriented, requiring, for example, curriculum coverage of specific topics such as human resources, budgeting, and financial management. In 1992, NASPAA added a mission-based layer to the standards, making them more output oriented. Mission-based accreditation allows each program to articulate its mission and the process by which it develops and implements it. The program must assess the extent to which it meets its mission and describe changes the program adopted in light of the assessment. Mission-based accreditation was designed in part to allow a broader array of programs, including public policy, into the fold of accreditation (Ellwood 2006).

In 2004, the Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation (COPRA), NASPAA's accrediting arm, altered slightly its self-study instructions—the guidance it gives to programs preparing their reports—introducing a larger philosophical change. It anticipated the third generation of NASPAA's accreditation standards, giving greater prominence to the requirement that programs articulate the extent to which their students learn a set of competencies. Programs had to "identify the general competencies that are consistent with the program mission" (NASPAA 2006a, 8), encouraging them to be more outcome oriented. However, this change did not have a major impact on programs seeking accreditation, in part because programs promulgated and COPRA accepted broad, almost generic missions that by inference allowed broad, generic competencies, and in part because defining and measuring competencies proved to be difficult.

ACCREDITATION, PROGRAM DIVERSITY, AND THE CORE CURRICULUM OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Several histories of NASPAA and education for the public service strike consistent themes: the diversity of programs in the field, the continued responsiveness of NASPAA and accreditation to the public service environment, a lack of a uniform approach to the field, and a foundation built on POSDCORB. In 1937 Gulick and Urwick created the POSDCORB acronym to define the competencies required of public administrators: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. In 1985, Elwood's *A Morphology of Graduate Education for Public Service in the United States* began with the statement "Graduate education for public service in the United States is characterized by its diversity—a diversity to meet the differing needs of the various levels of American government and the variety of professions which dominate employment in the public sector" (1). Almost a quarter of a century later, Riccucci (2007) echoed Ellwood's themes, recognizing the interdisciplinary roots of the field and the variety of organizational forms, and concluding that no "one best approach to public administration" exists (762).

Laurin Henry's opus (1995) on NASPAA's history highlights similar themes of balancing program diversity with other goals, the responsiveness of NASPAA to its environment, and the difficulties in finding a common core. Henry refers to NASPAA as a "dependent variable" (2), responding to the challenges faced by deans and directors from the "unstable seas of national politics" (3). Describing the roots of the accreditation process, initially a peer review exercise, Henry highlighted the development of a "matrix of competencies" in 1973–74 by a NASPAA Standards Committee. The matrix "was summarized on a spreadsheet that began with several subject-matter areas listed down the left side: Political, Social, and Economic Context; Analytical Tools; Individual, Group, and Organizational Behavior; Policy Analysis; and Administrative/Management Processes. For each subject-matter area, appropriate knowledge, skills, and behavior were elaborated in successive columns to the right" (14). This approach helped to diffuse a conflict over accreditation standards between elite programs, which wanted to focus on institutional characteristics such as the number of faculty as indicators of quality, and smaller programs, which lacked resources and size.

Eleanor Laudicina (2007) described a layered approach to curriculum and standards rather than an integrated and coherent approach. For example, describing trends in the 1950s, she indicated, "In general courses and curricula continued to reflect the traditional emphasis on organization and management, administrative technique, public personnel, budgeting, and finance" (732). During the 1980s, the challenges to NASPAA and public service education included the emergence of public policy programs, the burgeoning use of microcomputers, and privatization, associated with distrust in and the downsizing of government—just as "some consensus on curriculum finally emerged" (743). Observing NASPAA's response, she concluded, "Those who seek a real synthesis or a universal paradigm probably are doomed to disappointment" (750). According to Laudicina, NASPAA had yet to respond to the necessity for "new competencies in team building, communication, employee involvement, cultural awareness and labor relations" (749) likely to be needed by public managers.

At the turn of the century, NASPAA's curricular requirements in the accreditation standards were defined as follows (2007):

> 4.21 *Common Curriculum Components.* The common curriculum components shall enhance the student's values, knowledge, and skills to act ethically and effectively

In the Management of Public Service Organizations, the components of which include:

- Human resources
- Budgeting and financial processes
- Information management, technology applications, and policy.

In the Application of Quantitative and Qualitative Techniques of Analysis, the components of which include:

- Policy and program formulation, implementation and evaluation
- Decision-making and problem-solving.

With an Understanding of the Public Policy and Organizational Environment, the components of which include:

- Political and legal institutions and processes
- Economic and social institutions and processes
- Organization and management concepts and behavior.

The standards also called for programs to "prepare students to work in and contribute to diverse workplaces and communities."

ACCREDITATION AND THE CORE CURRICULUM IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

In spring 2006, NASPAA president Daniel Mazmanian, with the support of NASPAA's Executive Council as per an October 2005 vote, appointed the NASPAA Standards 2009 Steering Committee. The committee included representatives from the profession and academic programs. The executive council, supplemented by representatives from the committee, held a March 2006 retreat in Tucson, Arizona, led by strategic planning expert, John Bryson, to consider the future of public service education (NASPAA 2006e). The outcome was a process for drafting a set of new standards, ultimately voted upon and approved by accredited members at NASPAA's 2009 fall conference.

NASPAA committed to thoroughly evaluating and revising the public service degree curriculum and the NASPAA Accreditation Standards to ensure that accredited degree programs serve the profession and give graduates the competitive skills they need to lead the public sector.

During the years following the retreat, NASPAA's annual conference titles included "The Future of the Public Sector" (2006), "Embracing the Certainty of Uncertainty: Creating the Future of Public Affairs Education" (2007), and "NASPAA Meets the Future" (2008). At about the same time, other national associations in the fields of public administration, affairs, and policy built their conferences around the topic. The Association for Public Policy and Management, for example, held a conference titled "Charting the Next Twenty Years of Public Policy and Management Education," generating more than a dozen papers (APPAM 2006). In sum, the profession focused on updating the collected wisdom its degree programs conveyed.

Forces in the environment of public service education set the stage for reexamining NASPAA's standards, including projections of the future state of the world of public affairs, administration and policy, national accreditation issues, and trends in quality review and assessment (see, in general, the chapters in Liou 2001, especially Durant's [2001], and, of course, all of the chapters in this volume). Other forces originated with the degree programs themselves, as they attempted to address the increasing demand for innovative offerings. These included executive programs attending to midcareer and senior learners with leadership offerings and flexible course scheduling (NASPAA 2006c); new program delivery mechanisms, such as online courses or satellite campuses facilitated by improved technologies and electronic information sharing; contracting to educate entire cohorts of international public servants and opening campuses overseas, requiring an understanding of the international context of public service in curriculum and in program design; and cooperation with academic programs outside of the traditional public service fields to develop curricula and offerings that prepare graduates for the multisectoral workforce (NAPA 2005).

Given these forces, what, then, makes a program accreditable in terms of its core curriculum? Specifically, what are the competencies that future public servants are expected to master as a result of experiencing the curricula offered by accredited programs as the twenty-first century progresses? The answers provided in this chapter derive from four sources: statements by academic leaders in the profession, advice from practitioners, the literature on public service education, and comments solicited during the accreditation review process.

Visions of Academic Leaders

During the first decade of the twenty-first century, several visionaries challenged the field of public service education to address change. Barbara Nelson, in her NASPAA Conference Plenary address in October 2002, "Education for the Public Interest," suggested that curricula should encompass problem solving across boundaries, educating students for shared power and shifting alliances, citizen engagement and diversity, and the realities of public opinion, including declining support for the public sector. Focusing on the federal government, Abramson, Breul, and Kamensky (2003)—practitioners who were elected to the National Academy of Public Administration—believed that "the next decade will best be categorized by a topsy-turvy ride for government leaders" as government learned to respond to four trends: (1) changing rules, (2) emphasizing performance, (3) improving service delivery, and (4) increasing collaboration.

Similarly, Astrid Merget, in her 2003 Donald Stone Lecture to the meeting of the American Society for Public Administration, challenged the profession to confront a "sampler of changes," including (1) the globalization of the political economy, (2) technology, (3) the imperative for public, private, and nonprofit partnerships, (4) a renewed and amplified view of institution building, (5) complexity, and (6) the importance of research while asserting a healthy respect for the political milieu. Jeffrey Straussman, in a discussion paper for the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management spring 2006 conference (2008), cited several of the same trends but brought an empirical analysis of management and policy process course syllabi to his analysis. Among the topics he found to be necessary in today's world: (1) globalization, (2) managing across sectors, (3) collaborative management, and (4) being reflective yet evidence based. Lester Salamon's address to NASPAA in 2005 called for preparing "professional citizens": people educated for jobs that involve solving public problems, again, across sectors.

In 2007, American Society for Public Administration president Harvey White appointed a five-person committee to address "several disturbing developments pushing public administration towards academic obfuscation" and "an increasing propensity to prepare students for almost everything except careers in public administration" (quoted in Henry et al. 2009, 118). The committee called for the master of public administration (MPA) degree to be distinctive from degrees in public policy and public affairs, emphasizing public administration values—albeit U.S.-centric (Raffel 2009)—such as a focus on the U.S. Constitution and principles of "individual rights, due process of law, equal protection, and the separation of powers" (123).

Employer Expectations

In 2006, more than four hundred city managers responded to an online survey conducted by NASPAA and the International City/County Management Association. The city managers were given fifteen types of management knowledge and skills and asked to consider how important each was for their organization's management needs. Decision making and problem solving were rated as "extremely important" by 82 percent of the respondents. The other items receiving over 70 percent in the highest category were communications skills (77 percent), leadership (72 percent), and teamwork (71 percent). Items receiving few ratings of extreme or high importance included statistical analysis and marketing. When asked to check the three most important skills in their organizations, respondents added budgeting and financial management to this list, but e-governance, information technology, policy analysis, and statistical analysis never made it above ground level. A list of public service knowledge and skills indicated that ethics and integ-

rity topped the city managers' list, although many other topics were also considered important, such as openness to citizen participation and involvement, organization and group behavior, and political and legal institutions.

A 2007 federal survey (NASPAA 2007) mirrored the city manager survey in the skills most frequently identified, with the addition of program evaluation and accountability to the list of important topics. In a 2007 survey of students, which included many practitioners seeking their MPA degrees, respondents perceived the most important skills desired by potential employers to be written and oral communication, decision making, leadership, and teamwork, quite similar to the skills selected by the local and federal practitioner surveys (NASPAA 2007).

Individual employers are not shy about expressing their needs. Angela Evans, deputy director of the Congressional Research Service (CRS), identified the core competencies required by that organization (2006). These included knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) to perform analysis and to operate in a public policy community, as well as a good work ethic and a commitment to public service. Among these KSAs were old academic standbys such as "establishes conceptual frameworks," "speaks and communicates effectively," and "conducts public policy analysis." She also included more organizational abilities such as "leads and tasks effectively," "negotiates and resolves disputes," and "innovates and creates." Value considerations also played a strong role; KSAs included "desires to serve the public," "behaves with honestly and integrity," and "behaves professionally" (Evans 2006).

Sallyanne Harper, chief financial and administrative officer of the Government Account-ability Office (GAO), summarized a study of factors associated with the success of entry-level hires in the GAO (2006). The GAO's study used the ratings of 534 analysts hired in fiscal years 2002–4 supplemented by discussions with managing directors. The factors identified as differentiating the highest-rated performers from others included critical thinking, written and oral communication, and collaborating with others. Other significant factors included showing initiative, demonstrating flexibility, detail orientation, adapting quickly to the GAO, and seeing the big picture.

Thus, a gap appeared between the needs of employers and NASPAA's accreditation standards for curricula in place at the time: people and leadership skills. Although the standards begin with the statement that accredited programs prepare leaders for public service, the core curriculum as defined in the standards remained focused on POSDCORB. The standards did not address leadership competencies. Practitioners began asking whether the MPA curriculum, for example, was strictly a management curriculum. Was there a place, indeed, a need for, explicit leadership content and skill development (Fairholm 2006; NASPAA 2005)? Even some policy analysts, whose programs had been focused on methods, not process, recognized the need for "people skills" in their curriculum (Mintrom 2003) because designing and implementing a policy successfully is a social and political as well as a technical matter.

The Literature on Public Service Education

The academic literature on the KSAs expected of public servants during the twenty-first century repackages existing competencies and identifies new ones. For example, research on networks of both people and organizations that are dealing with complex public problems, as opposed to unitary, purposeful, and hierarchical organizations dealing with similar problems, reinforces the importance of leadership (Milward and Provan 2006). Public service degree holders need to understand not just *government* but also *governance* that moves across boundaries (Berry and Brower 2005; Goldsmith and Eggers 2004; NAPA 2005; Salamon 2005). Defining the compe-

tencies of leadership in these environments will provoke healthy debate and inspired pedagogy (Crosby and Bryson 2005).

Changes in technology, like changes in governing structures, have led to a new set of needed competencies. Competency using e-government refers to using the Internet and the World Wide Web as tools not only to reduce the cost of transacting business with government but also to transform the relationship between the government and the governed. Student competencies with word processing, spreadsheets, and even databases and global information systems no longer prepare them adequately for e-government. Technology today makes possible the reengineering of administrative processes and services, assuming practitioners are competent to manage privacy, security, and Americans with Disability Act concerns (Kim and Layne 2001), as well as to plan and execute the organizational changes associated with process reengineering.

Risk management revisits the elements of POSDCORB with an eye on the exposure of agencies and their clients to liability by virtue of administrative actions. This broader view encompasses legal, financial, occupational safety, employment, contract performance, and reputational risks. It entails broadening the traditional way of teaching administrative law in MPA programs to include, for example, contract law and public employment law (Roberts 2008).

A case exists for de-emphasizing traditional statistical tools drawn from the social science roots of public service education in favor of statistical tools drawn from management science. As technology trickles down, public servants are moving from consuming statistical reports delivered by others to producing models, forecasts, projects, and decisions. This involves tools beyond testing hypotheses and regression analyses to include decision and value trees, linear programming, Program Evaluation and Review Technique/critical path analysis, and payoff matrices (Aristigueta and Raffel 2001; Caulkins 1999; Horne 2008).

The literature also reveals a debate about whether public administration students should learn policy analysis and whether policy analysts should learn management. Piskulich and Mandell (2007) prepared a white paper on curricular competencies for the standards review process, addressing the "balance between maintaining a common identity without limiting the ability of programs to experiment and to respond to perceived changes in the public sector environment" (4). They advocated specifying a minimal number of competencies consistent with the changed world of public service. Because the changing world needs policy analysts, for example, they should understand how public administrators manage projects in an organizational context so the policies that analysts propose can be implemented feasibly; moreover, public administrators should understand, if not conduct, policy research so their implementation achieves the objectives of the analysts. A quarter century after Behn called for the same thing (1980), Ellwood (2006) concluded that public administration and public policy programs were converging in just this way.

New competencies might come from new paradigms of management. One is "design science" (Dunne and Martin 2006; Barzelay and Thompson 2007). This is less a concept of managerial decision making than one of managerial problem solving. It encourages students to think broadly, to integrate, and to consider sustainability; to focus on the needs of those who will be served by the solution to the problem; and to welcome constraints, as opposed to limiting them, on the grounds that the more complex the problem, the more inspired and satisfying the solution.

New competencies might emerge from new technologies, as well. Will new competencies be required to manage a virtual workplace built around telecommunication (Cascio 2000)? What will the impact on government workplaces be from information technologies that allow collaborative work to be done away from central office buildings or even in virtual worlds such as Second Life (www.secondlife.com)? To the extent that government is not immune to these technical changes, managers will have to focus even less on time at work and more on results.

Feedback from the Standards Review Process

In April 2008, after distributing a draft of the proposed standards, NASPAA sponsored fourteen focus groups around the nation. Participants—approximately 160 in all—reacted with constructive criticism to a draft of the new standards. When it came to curriculum content, the theme that emerged from reviewing notes of the group meetings was the importance of branding—distinguishing degrees in the field from others chosen by students as pathways to enter and advance in the public sector. This concern has a history. In 1971 Frank Marini, writing about the first Minnowbrook conference on public administration, predicted optimistically, "Public administration will deal with its relationships to its old foes—law and business administration—more intelligently while it is dealing with its old disciplinary base—political science—more intelligently" (357).

Dealing with these relationships continues to be problematic. Federal employees with an MBA degree have salaries, grades, and supervisory authority comparable to those who earned an MPA; those holding law degrees command higher salaries (Lewis and Oh 2008; see also Yeager et al. 2007). The 2006 Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management conference revisited master of public policy curricula in light of competing degree programs (Radin 2008, 636). Branding can be an intelligent way for public administration to deal with its old foes, but only if the brand associated with the public administration degree signals substance: a promise and an experience that are distinctive and valuable.

What competencies in public administration make its degree distinctive and valuable?

First, consider competencies of concern to NASPAA's focus group participants that should be part of the public service curriculum but are not necessarily distinctive: to manage complex organizations, to manage change, to manage high-performing organizations, to conduct economic as well as political analyses, and to manage in cross-cultural and international contexts. To be culturally competent, for example, requires a manager not only to acknowledge different pathways to leadership among people with whom he or she is working, different concepts of career success, and different demands for and responses to authority and services (Boxall and Gilbert 2007), but also to respect and honor these differences, as well as to have the capacity for cultural self-assessment (Rice 2007, 2008). These are competencies expected of managers in business, government, and nonprofit organizations, so educational programs in business include them, too. (See also Friedman 2005; NASPAA 2004.)

Second, consider competencies of concern to NASPAA's focus group participants that appear to be cross-sectoral but that, as applied in the public sector, are distinctive: to manage the policy process, to measure and manage performance, to manage relationships and communication. Managers—at least enlightened ones—in business recognize the interdependence of business and government. This requires them to understand and participate in the public policy process because its outcomes impact their activities. Managers in the public sector, however, not only have to work within that process; they participate in creating and making the process work with citizen engagement (Morse et al. 2005). At least in modern democracies, where efficiency can take second place to due process and equity, the process is not businesslike, which is one reason why managers with only business experience who move into government roles absent prior public service experience can have a rocky start.

The third set of competencies of concern to NASPAA's focus group participants speaks to competencies they saw as distinctive to public service: managing diversity, adhering to public values, and leading. The government of any jurisdiction is by definition inclusive. It discriminates at its peril. Businesses succeed by discriminating, matching their products and services to segments of the market. They create inclusive workplaces when advantage can be gained in creativity and

productivity. For public servants, inclusiveness is a raison d'être. A community chooses the government it wants to be served by; a business chooses the community it wants to serve. Community and government are synonymous in a way that business and community are not. In that sense, diversity is a core public service value, and managing it is a core competency in public service degree programs. Other public values, such as due process, equity (see also Svara and Brunet 2005), and ethics are as important and distinctive to public service as diversity is.

The final category of competencies that participants in NAPSAA's focus groups perceived to be distinctive is leadership. Yet public, private, and nonprofit organizations all have leaders. Indeed, the new accreditation standards embrace an expansive definition of leadership, one likely to be interpreted by the accrediting body to include generic competencies, such as creativity and innovation, conflict management, vision, and building coalitions, that complement, if not exceed, management skills. The career paths of students, wherever they work, will move them from less authority to more, from more supervision to less, and from well-defined tasks requiring technical skills to ill-defined tasks requiring adaptive capacities: different leadership competencies at different times and places (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1997; Charan, Drotter, and Noel 2001). Regardless, one can lead throughout one's career, even without having achieved nominal authority, high position, and significant discretion. Leadership in pursuit of public service values and leadership within a group in similar pursuit involve distinctive competencies.

Limits on Predicting the Future

While defining the world of public service has been the subject of thoughtful academic and professional leaders, defining the future of public service education is problematic. Are the generals in the field fighting the last war; that is, are these the changes of the last decade? What changes will the next decade bring? Are these changes overstated; that is, will *all* graduates really confront a globalized, IT-dominated, multisector world, or are these trends at the edge of the field? Will a counterforce, as there often is in history and politics, swing the pendulum back to more traditional forms of government?

During the 2006 NASPAA Executive Council retreat on the future of public service education, one speaker noted that ten years earlier few, if any, would have predicted the issues that vex us today (NASPAA 2006e). Another way to view this reflection is that the challenges confronting our graduates in ten years may be quite different from those they confront today, so what educational program can prepare them for a world that cannot be imagined? Of course, the financial meltdown of 2008 and the Democratic victory and election of America's first African American president highlight the difficulty of predicting changes even two years out. In a fast-paced world, the relevance of public administration programs depends on their ability to respond quickly to changes in the environment of public administrators.

Predicting the future will be much easier than determining what NASPAA should do about it. The consensus on the future, and our ability to add one more prediction on top of many others, makes this exercise relatively noncontroversial. Translating these predictions into policies and standards, the difficulties become apparent. Major questions include the following:

- Will the consensus on what to add to the core curriculum be stronger than the consensus on what to reduce or eliminate? For example, practitioners and others have made a good argument for adding leadership competencies to the list of requirements, but how many would support removing competencies in human resources management? Adding is easier than subtracting.

- How can programs maintain a set of standards in a fast-paced world where the context changes so rapidly? Will NASPAA's mission-based approach be sufficient?
- Where will programs obtain the resources to move from traditional public administration to programs incorporating topics such as managing information technology, security, and contracts? For example, many NASPAA programs have struggled to meet the five-faculty minimum and to find faculty to teach basic information technology.

ASSESSING STUDENT COMPETENCY

The best practices in accreditation now include the evaluation of student learning outcomes, and the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (2003) and U.S. regional accreditors require it.[4] What is a "student learning outcome"? According to CHEA (2006a), an "outcome is something that happens to an individual student as a result of his or her attendance at a higher education institution or participation in a particular course of study. . . . A 'student learning outcome,' in contrast, is properly defined in terms of the particular levels of knowledge, skills and abilities that a student has attained at the end (or as a result) of his or her engagement in a particular set of collegiate experiences."

Huba and Freed (2000) provided a brief political and pedagogical explanation for the movement from a teacher-centered paradigm, focused on curriculum, to a learner-centered paradigm, emphasizing learning outcomes. The latter requires direct measures of not only what students know and understand but also what they can do, for example, on projects, performances, portfolios. "As the goal of a college education for all became more widespread . . . concerns that college graduates did not have the skills and abilities needed in the workplace surfaced" (16). This led to calls for reform and accountability. "In part to curtail the direct involvement of state legislatures in higher education, regional accrediting institutions . . . became involved and began requiring member colleges and universities to perform outcomes assessments" (17).

Huba and Freed also credited the continuous improvement movement with pushing higher education institutions to conduct outcomes measurement. Ewell (2001) recognized the role that distance learning has played because these programs try to show their impacts on student learning compared to traditional classroom methods. Outcomes assessment is viewed as one means to address issues such as grade inflation, employers' concerns about the relevance of program content to their needs, programmatic versus individual course learning, and comparability across institutions.

Requiring student learning assessments is still new to many accrediting bodies that may have been encouraging it. Comprehensive surveys of current practices in accreditation are lacking, so most data are anecdotal from conversations with other accreditors and Web site surveys. NASPAA held an informal accreditation summit in the summer of 2007 with representatives of three accreditation assessment leaders: the Accreditation Board of Engineering Technologies, the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, and the Council on Accreditation of Healthcare Management Education. The most common path for specialized accreditors appears to be to either establish, or to have the program establish, a set of competencies for student achievement based on the needs of the profession. The programs are then expected to demonstrate that students achieve those competencies to be accredited. Typically, it is up to the program to determine the method of student assessment, usually within some parameters (Kershenstein 2002).

CHEA (2002, 2) specified a typology of outcomes assessment measures: direct (sources of evidence: capstone performance, professional/clinical performances, third-party testing, such as licensure, and faculty-designed examinations) and indirect (portfolios and work samples, follow-up

of graduates, employee ratings of performance, self-reported growth by graduates). While assessment may be widespread and includes measures from job placement through student satisfaction, few assessment measures are "*direct* evidence of student learning outcomes of the kind currently being asked for by external stakeholders" (Ewell 2001, 1). Whatever measures are used, the recognition standards for CHEA stated that "to be recognized, the accrediting organization provides evidence that it has implemented: . . . accreditation standards or policies that require institutions or programs routinely to provide reliable information to the public on their performance, including student achievement as determined by the institution or program" (CHEA 2006b).

NASPAA has not been at the forefront of the outcome assessment movement, although it has periodically mobilized to address outcomes issues. NASPAA program surveys have found a reliance on indirect outcomes measures, with some programs using capstone evaluations. Measures used in other fields are not necessarily appropriate for public service education. MPA programs have no analog to the passage rate in bar exams used by law schools. Nor is salary necessarily an indicator of the market's assessment of student learning, as it might be for graduates from business schools.

In late 1991 NASPAA's Outcomes Assessment Committee published its report and a symposium in the *American Review of Public Administration* (Poister and Ingraham 1991). At the time fewer than half of the 216 schools and programs in their survey were assessing outcomes, and the most prevalent techniques were alumni and student surveys. Few were using employer surveys, focus groups, or assessment centers. The committee concluded, "NASPAA should implement a decentralized model of outcomes assessment, requiring programs to engage in some form of assessment but allowing wide flexibility in how it is implemented and utilized" (180). This would allow schools and programs to continue to develop appropriate approaches for their situations, but "as schools experiment further in refining assessment methods, more systematic research into the strengths and weaknesses of various approaches and their applicability in different program settings will be necessary."

To update information on the use of outcomes measurement, NASPAA staff conducted a Web survey of NASPAA programs during the summer of 2006. Seventy-six programs responded to the survey. Not surprisingly, a majority (58.1 percent) reported relying heavily on the traditional methods of course and assignment grades. Slightly less than a majority relied heavily on a semester-long capstone course and a capstone project. Student surveys were the next most popular means. Few programs extensively used theses, portfolios, or one-day capstone exercises to measure student learning. About one-quarter of the programs relied heavily on a comprehensive exam (29.6 percent) or an employer survey (26 percent).

Newcomer and Allen (2008) recently analyzed the state of outcomes measurement in the field of public service education. They concluded that, consistent with the previous NASPAA surveys, "the measurement of these student learning outcomes rarely goes past the surveying of students, alumni, and occasionally employers about the change in student knowledge, skills, and abilities from classroom and field learning experiences" (5). They cite Donald Kirkpatrick's typology, which proposed four possible outcomes of training programs (Newcomer and Allen 2008, 6–7): "first, the student' perception of the quality/value/worth of the program at the conclusion of the program typically captured in end-of-course or program feedback forms; second, actual use of the knowledge and skills in the workplace some months after the completion of the program; third, some positive changes in the work processes that resulted from the students' employment of the skills and knowledge they learned; and fourth, increases in the productivity of the organizations where the program alumni worked."

They conclude, however, "Due to the resources and time required to follow-up program alumni,

as well as the analytical challenges to attributing organizational changes to specific student/alumni contributions, evaluation of educational programs rarely goes further than Kirkpatrick's second level." Indeed, the extensive use of surveys "rarely reach[es] beyond Kirkpatrick's first level" (12). The new standards require all programs to assess student learning outcomes but leave the means of assessment to individual programs, thus begging the question of how high programs will venture on Kirkpatrick's scale.

RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS OF CHANGING THE ACCREDITATION CURRICULUM STANDARDS

Building on the foundations outlined above, the new standard on curriculum content requires the following:

> 5.1 Universal Required Competencies: As the basis for its curriculum, the program will adopt a set of required competencies related to its mission and public service values. The required competencies will include five domains: the ability
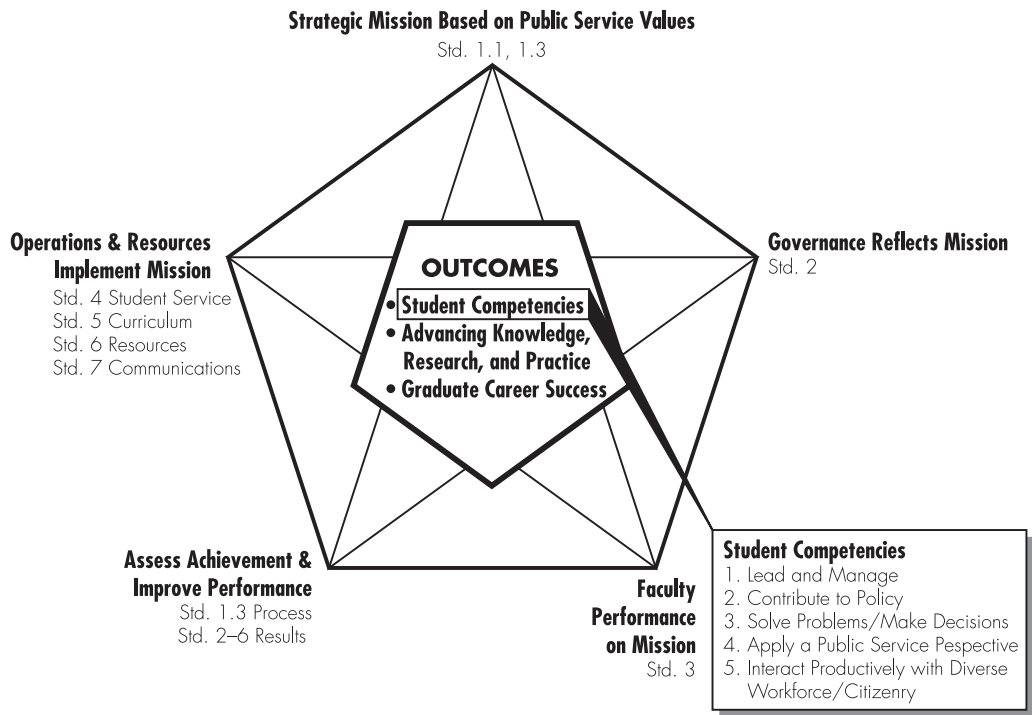>
> - to lead and manage in public governance;
> - to participate in and contribute to the policy process;
> - to analyze, synthesize, think critically, solve problems and make decisions;
> - to articulate and apply a public service perspective;
> - to communicate and interact productively with diverse and changing workforce and citizenry.

The new standard differs from the old in several ways. First, reflecting the verities at the core of public service education, the proposed NASPAA standard expects all accredited programs to demonstrate that their graduates are competent in five general domains rather than three. Remaining, although in a different form, are decision making and understanding and participating in the policy process. Leadership has been added to management. The target of these domains is no longer just public sector organizations but governance more generally. Governance is what a government does, exercising management power and policy.

Second, the new standard requires demonstrable functional competencies rather than coverage of curriculum topics. For example, the new standard lists competencies such as to "lead and manage in public governance" rather than traditional courses such as human resources management. Third, the new standard clarifies what it means to act effectively and ethically. Fourth, and most important, the new standard expects programs to distinguish themselves as public service education by embedding public service values in every competency (Raffel 2007; Raffel, Maser, and McFarland 2007). This revitalizes the profession's commitment to a public service ethos (see chapter 7, "Ethics and Integrity in Public Service," and chapter 2, "The Profession of Public Administration," in this volume).

Reflecting the inevitability of change in their environments and the need to be responsive, the new standard moves the most specific curriculum coverage requirements, such as "human resources," "budgeting and financial processes," and "political and economic institutions and processes," into the self-study instructions. The self-study instructions, prepared by COPRA, allow NASPAA to update its expectations through the guidance it provides without submitting changes to a majority vote of its accredited members. At the same, by specifying the standard on curriculum in terms of competencies—outcomes—rather than subjects, individual programs have

Figure 5.1   **NASPAA Standards, 2009**

Strategic Mission Based on Public Service Values
Std. 1.1, 1.3

Operations & Resources Implement Mission
Std. 4 Student Service
Std. 5 Curriculum
Std. 6 Resources
Std. 7 Communications

OUTCOMES
• Student Competencies
• Advancing Knowledge, Research, and Practice
• Graduate Career Success

Governance Reflects Mission
Std. 2

Assess Achievement & Improve Performance
Std. 1.3 Process
Std. 2–6 Results

Faculty Performance on Mission
Std. 3

Student Competencies
1. Lead and Manage
2. Contribute to Policy
3. Solve Problems/Make Decisions
4. Apply a Public Service Pespective
5. Interact Productively with Diverse Workforce/Citizenry

more freedom to design their curricula around competencies dictated by their missions. Figure 5.1 depicts the foci of accreditation, linking the standards with each of five interrelated components of a management system designed to ensure that graduates learn competencies consistent with a program's mission.

The passage of the new standards will require programs to make a series of decisions about the competencies they are fostering in students and how to measure students' achievement. Discussions with public administration program directors and others indicate that all programs will need to address the following:

• Defining competencies for each of the five areas defined in the new standards for required curricula: What process is appropriate; for example, should it involve stakeholders such as professionals, employers, and students?
• Adding program-specific competencies: What makes this program unique, and how does this relate to competencies?
• Measuring the achievement of competencies: What measures will be inside versus outside of courses? Will competencies and students be sampled? What should be the level of attainment, for example, all students or some percentage? What should be the criteria for selecting measures, for example, reliability? Are absolute or value-added measures, or both, for example, pre- and post-tests, more appropriate?
• Validating the measurement of competencies: Should professionals, employers, academics, or some combination of the three from outside the program become involved in the assessment?

- How can benchmarks be identified or established, for example, through NASPAA? (See Jennings 1989.)
- What resources will this require, and where will they come from?
- How transparent will the results be? Which stakeholders will be able to see which results?

Given that programs have been required to measure student mastery of competencies for well over a decade but remain at a low level of sophistication in doing so, will the revised standards lead to increased sophistication? There are several reasons for a positive answer. First, regional and other professional accrediting agencies are requiring competency-based standards and measurement. This has changed the environment on campuses, raising the expectations for programs setting learning objectives and measuring student learning. Professional accreditors also are offering help to programs. For example, the business accrediting agency the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business specified a phased transition process for meeting their new outcomes-based standards and maintained a complete question-and-answer section on its Assessment Resource Center Web site to address many of the most difficult issues. The Accreditation Board of Engineering Technologies, the accreditor for college and university programs in applied science, computing, engineering, and technology, sponsors assessment seminars, and the Council on Accreditation of Healthcare Management Education, the health policy and management accreditor, collects information on assessment from its members.

Second, practitioners in both the private and public sectors have been adopting competency models, using them for decades as tools in recruiting, developing, and promoting employees. This provides a base of knowledge from which public administration and policy degree programs can build. Tim Mau (2009) has catalogued leadership competencies for the public sector employed in the United States, Canada, and around the world.

Third, requiring competency-based education is at the heart of the new standards, not an add-on requirement. For example, the self-study report instructions drafted by a NASPAA task force provide detailed guidance on what is expected of programs. Finally, NASPAA has linked the revision of accreditation standards and the new self-study instructions to a data warehouse and a renewed commitment to transparency. This will make it easier to study public affairs education and, thereby, to improve it. That stated, NASPAA and COPRA still must take a leadership role for full implementation of competency-based accreditation.

With the adoption of its new standards, NASPAA accreditation has moved from focusing on inputs to focusing on outputs, and then to outcomes, and finally to performance. In each case, NASPAA's accreditation has sought to be state-of-the-art, guiding programs in generating more value for their stakeholders and the public. NASPAA's emerging role as an information clearinghouse for the profession, supported by new information technology infrastructure, will facilitate COPRA's holding programs accountable throughout successive accreditation cycles. This increases the validity and promise of accreditation as a vehicle for helping programs improve and for serving the public.

CHALLENGES AND CONCLUSIONS

The list of competencies for those in public service early in the twenty-first century, as incorporated into the new accreditation standards that include leadership and management, decision making, and communications, is not conclusive. Given recent history, is presuming prescience folly? Questions remain, but the processes for answering them are in place.

What will students need to know in ten years? What profound changes will surface in the decade

ahead that redefine the knowledge, skills, and abilities required of students working in public service? Shifting details from standards to the documentation requirements outlined in the self-study instructions should allow the field to respond appropriately and quickly to the challenges ahead.

Will the field continue to move toward the big-tent approach or will it divide more, for example, with a profusion of degrees in areas such as nonprofit management and health policy and management? Will separate degrees proliferate? Will public administration and public policy degrees stay together under the NASPAA banner? Will these degrees be distinguishable from other degrees as sector lines blur? Specialization is a trend long in the making and likely to continue, but the new standards will allow NASPAA to advance the field by providing guidance to educational programs, whatever their specialization, that are committed to public service values.

Can accreditation and the field keep up with the demands of technology? Will new instructional delivery mechanisms make it increasing difficult to set standards? In every endeavor, people learn from the advance of technology, finding ways to assess quality and improve performance. The academy, which is at its core about learning but is one of the last social institutions to undergo renovation under the onslaught of information technology, will be no different. Accreditation is not likely to become an anachronism. It could become more decentralized and democratic in the sense of increased input from more stakeholders.

Will NASPAA have the capacity and model to allow programs outside the United States to seek and gain accreditation? Is the tent big enough to include a broad range of programs beyond the nation's borders? Will the entrance of non-U.S. programs lead to changes in expectations for performance of U.S. programs? Globalization appears to be inevitable and with it the globalization of accreditation. Changing expectations likely will follow, inducing U.S. programs to become more globalized and cognizant of alternative models of governance and service delivery.

Given the proliferation of competencies required for success in public service, will programs be able to identify curricula and competencies not required of all students? What current competencies will programs drop without harming the competitive position of their graduates? Forces such as specialization, technological change, and globalization likely will induce programs to experiment. NASPAA, which has always encouraged accreditation standards that allow for program innovation, may play an increasingly important role as a clearinghouse for best practices and as an accreditor of quality.

What research is needed to improve the definition, measurement, and use of student learning outcomes? What competencies are needed for various types of positions and careers, for instance, city management or nonprofit leaders? What are efficient and valid measures of the levels of competency acquired by students as a result of their formal education when they bring different backgrounds into programs, especially given the growth of executive education? Institutions of higher education and their accrediting bodies increasingly have accepted contributions to the scholarship of learning as a part of faculty performance portfolios. Faculty members, along with practitioners using competency models in their human resource management practices, will provide the answers to these questions, especially if they wish to continue serving the public interest and attract highly motivated students into the profession.

Whatever competencies will be required of master of public administration and master of public policy graduates during the twenty-first century, the curricula of 2025 and 2050 will have elements that look like the curricula of 2010. Some elements must be different. Upgrading master of public administration and master of public policy curricula to reflect current realities has not made sufficient progress; the necessity for change is increasingly clear (Forrer, Kee, and Gabriel 2007). If MPA programs are to remain relevant, foreseeable changes in communication, information technology, partnering and contracting, and global forces make curricular changes inevitable

(Holzer and Lin 2007). Accreditation plays a role in this, not only by establishing expectations for curricular content, but also by encouraging programs to adapt, to serve their communities, and to pursue their missions by attending to those who employ their graduates (Bremer and El Baradei 2008). In sum, accreditation of programs in public service education is a work in progress with many substantive challenges and opportunities to invigorate the profession.

NOTES

1. NASPAA is an association of programs of "public affairs and administration"; the current standards refer to preparing students for leadership positions in "public affairs, policy, and administration," and as noted in the text, the accreditation process increasingly involves "public policy" programs and preparing students for leadership in the nonprofit sector (see NASPAA 2006b and Nonprofit Academic Centers Council 2003). NASPAA's journal is the *Journal of Public Affairs Education.* This chapter refers to education for the "public service" and standards to be inclusive of the fields of public affairs, public administration, and public policy.

2. In part because public service is not a licensed profession in the United States, the NASPAA accreditation process is voluntary. (See the NASPAA accreditation Web page for details on the process and the standards: http://naspaa.org/accreditation/seeking/reference/reference.asp.) Not all NASPAA institutional members have sought accreditation from the Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation. Its membership includes 271 university programs in public affairs, public policy, and public administration. Of the total number of programs eligible to participate in peer review in 2009, 169 programs at 160 schools (59 percent of member institutions) have been accredited by the commission.

3. NASPAA does not review undergraduate or PhD programs or programs outside of the United States. However, NASPAA standards have become a benchmark for the burgeoning number of public service degree programs internationally, and NASPAA is expanding the jurisdiction of its accreditation. Changes to curriculum expectations or to the assessment of student learning thus have a wide impact on public affairs education globally.

4. In 1983, the members of the association voted to apply to the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA) to become recognized as a specialized agency to accredit master's degrees in public affairs and administration. COPA granted recognition in October 1986. In 2003, the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), COPA's successor association of three thousand colleges and universities recognizing institutional and programmatic accrediting organizations, granted recognition for ten years to NASPAA's Commission on Peer Review and Accreditation (COPRA) to accredit master's degrees in public administration, public affairs, and public policy in the United States. NASPAA and sixty other agencies share CHEA recognition, which results from a process of evaluation and self-scrutiny similar to accreditation. To continue to be recognized as an accrediting body, NASPAA's standard-setting process must meet CHEA's expectations.

REFERENCES

Abramson, Mark A., Jonathan D. Breul, and John M. Kamensky. 2003. *Four Trends Transforming Government.* Washington, DC: IBM Center for the Business of Government.

Aristigueta, Maria P., and Jeffrey A. Raffel. 2001. Teaching techniques of analysis in the MPA curriculum: Research methods, management science, and "the third path." *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 7 (3): 161–169.

Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management (APPAM). 2006. Charting the next twenty years of public policy and management education. Paper presented at the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management Spring Conference, Park City, UT, June 15–17 (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.appam.org/conferences/spring/parkcity2006/index.asp).

Bartlett, Christopher A., and Sumantral Ghoshal. 1997. The myth of the generic manager. *California Management Review* 40 (1): 92–116.

Barzelay, Michael, and Fred Thompson. 2007. Making public management a design-oriented science. Paper presented at the Eleventh International Research Society for Public Management Symposium, Potsdam, Germany, April 3.

Behn, Robert D. 1980. Policy analysis and public management: What should Jones do? In *Education for the Public Service,* ed. G.S. Birkhead and J.D. Carroll, 17–25. Syracuse, NY: Maxwell School.

Berry, Frances S., and Ralph S. Brower. 2005. Intergovernmental and intersectoral management: Weaving networking, contracting out, and management roles into third party government. *Public Performance and Management Review* 29 (1): 7–17.

Boxall, Peter, and John Gilbert. 2007. The management of managers: A review and conceptual framework. *International Journal of Management Reviews* 9 (2): 95–115.

Bremer, Jennifer, and Laila El Baradei. 2008. Developing public administration and public policy master's programs in Egypt. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 14 (3): 439–462.

Cascio, Wayne. 2000. Managing a virtual workplace. *Academy of Management Executive* 14 (3): 81–90.

Caulkins, Jonathan. 1999. The revolution in management science instruction. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 5 (2): 107–117.

Charan, Ram, Stephen Drotter, and James Noel. 2001. *The Leadership Pipeline.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Council for Higher Education Accreditation. 2002. Student learning outcomes workshop. *CHEA Chronicle* 5 (2): 1–2.

———. 2003. Statement of mutual responsibilities for student learning outcomes: accreditation, institutions, and programs. September. www.chea.org/pdf/StmntStudentLearningOutcomes9–03.pdf.

———. 2006a. Accreditation and accountability: A CHEA special report. CHEA Occasional Paper, December. www.chea.org/pdf/accreditation_and_accountability.pdf.

———. 2006b. Recognition standards. In *Recognition of Accrediting Organizations: Policies and Procedures,* ed. CHEA, 5–8. Washington, DC: Council for Higher Education Accreditation, January 23. www.chea. org/recognition/CHEA_Recognition_Policy_and_Procedures.pdf.

Crosby, Barbara, and John Bryson. 2005. Challenges of introducing leadership into the public affairs curriculum. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 11 (3): 193–205.

Dunne, David, and Roger Martin. 2006. Design thinking and how it will change management education. *Academy of Management Learning and Education* 5 (4): 512–523.

Durant, Robert F. 2001. Politics, paradox, and the "ecology" of public administration: Challenges, choices, and opportunities for a new century. In *Handbook of Public Management Practice and Reform,* ed. Kuotsai Tom Liou, 1–34. New York: Marcel Dekker.

Ellwood, John W. 1985. *A Morphology of Graduate Education for Public Service in the United States.* Washington, DC: National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration.

———. 2006. Challenges to public policy and management education. Paper presented at the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management Spring Conference, Park City, UT, June 15–17.

Evans, Angela. 2006. Demand for masters of public policy in public service. Paper presented at the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management Spring Conference, Park City, UT, June 15–17.

Ewell, Peter T. 2001. *Accreditation and Student Learning Outcomes: A Proposed Point of Departure.* Washington, DC: Council for Higher Education Accreditation.

Fairholm, Matthew R. 2006. Leadership theory and practice in the MPA curriculum: Reason and methods. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 12 (3): 335–346.

Forrer, John, James Edwin Kee, and Seth Gabriel. 2007. Not your father's public administration. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 13 (2): 265–280.

Friedman, Thomas. 2005. *The World Is Flat.* New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Goldsmith, Stephen, and William D. Eggers. 2004. *Governing by Network: The New Shape of the Public Sector.* Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Gulick, Luther, and Lindal Urwick. 1937. *Papers on the Science of Administration.* New York: Institute for Public Administration.

Henry, Laurin. 1995. History. National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) (accessed July 21, 2010 from http://www.naspaa.org/about_naspaa/about/history.asp).

Henry, N., C.T. Goodsell, L.E. Lynn Jr., C. Stivers, and G.L. Wamsley. 2009. Understanding excellence in public administration: The report of the task force on educating for excellence in the master of public administration degree of the American Society for Public Administration. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 15 (2): 117–133.

Holzer, Marc, and Weiwei Lin. 2007. A longitudinal perspective on MPA education in the United States. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 13 (2): 345–364.

Horne, Christopher. 2008. Teaching what we know: Describing and challenging the neglect of management science methods in MPA programs. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 14 (3): 427–438.

Huba, Mary E., and Jann E. Freed. 2000. *Learner-Centered Assessment on College Campuses: Shifting the Focus from Teaching to Learning.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Jennings, Edward T. 1989 Accountability, program quality, outcome assessment, and graduate education for public affairs and administration. *Public Administration Review* 49 (5): 438–446.

Kershenstein, Karen. 2002. Some reflections on accreditors' practices in assessing success with respect to student achievement. June. www.aspa-usa.org/documents/Kershenstein.pdf.

Kim, Soonhee, and Karen Layne. 2001. Making the connection: E-government and public administration education. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 7 (4): 229–240.

Laudicina, Eleanor V. 2007. A history of pedagogy in public administration. In *Handbook of Public Administration.* 3d ed., ed. Jack Rabin, W. Bartley Hildreth, and Gerald J. Miller, 723–755. Boca Raton: Taylor and Francis.

Lewis, Gregory, and Seong Soo Oh. 2008. Graduate education and federal career success: How well does the MPA stack up? *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 14 (3): 463–474.

Liou, Kuotsai Tom. 2001. *Handbook of Public Management Practice and Reform.* New York: Marcel Dekker.

Marini, Frank. 1971. The Minnowbrook perspective and the future of public administration education. In *Toward a New Public Administration,* ed. Frank Marini, 346–367. Scranton, PA: Chandler Publishing.

Mau, Tim. 2009. Is public sector leadership distinct? A comparative analysis of core competencies in the senior executive service. In *Public Sector Leadership: International Challenges and Perspectives,* ed. Jeffrey A. Raffel, Peter Leisink, and Anthony E. Middlebrooks, 313–339. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Merget, Astrid. 2003. Times of turbulence. *Public Administration Review* 63 (4): 390–395.

Milward, H. Brinton, and Keith Provan. 2006. *A Manager's Guide to Choosing and Using Collaborative Networks.* Washington, DC: IBM Center for the Business of Government.

Mintrom, Michael. 2003. *People Skills for Policy Analysts.* Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Morse, Ricardo S., Larkin S. Dudley, James P. Armstrong, and Dong Won-Kim. 2005. Learning and teaching about deliberative democracy on campus and in the field. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 11 (4): 325–336.

National Academy of Public Administration (NAPA). 2005. *Managing Federal Missions with a Multisectoral Workforce: Leadership of the 21st Century.* Washington, DC: National Academy of Public Administration.

National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). 2004. Internationalizing the public affairs core curriculum. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 10 (3): 259–262.

———. 2005. Should leadership be in the core curriculum? *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 11 (3): 207–210.

———. 2006a. General information and standards for professional masters degree programs. January (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.naspaa.org/accreditation/document/OFFICIAL_DOCUMENTS_2008_standards_only.pdf).

———. 2006b. Guidelines for graduate professional education in nonprofit organizations, management and leadership. October (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.naspaa.org/accreditation/document/NASPAA GuidelinesforNP%20Fina12006.doc).

———. 2006c. Sector survey of executive education programs for public service professionals. October (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.naspaa.org/execMPA/doc/2006ExecEduSurveyReport.pdf).

———. 2006d. The future of the public sector. NASPAA Annual Conference, Minneapolis, MN, October 19–21.

———. 2006e. The future of the public sector. NASPAA Executive Council Retreat, Tucson, AZ, March 30–31.

———. 2007. Surveys (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.naspaa.org/naspaa_surveys/main.asp).

———. 2008. Standards: 2008 (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.naspaa.org/accreditation/seeking/reference/standards.asp).

Nelson, Barbara. 2002. Education for the public interest. Plenary address at NASPAA Annual Conference, Los Angeles, CA, October 17 (accessed July 21, 2010 from unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/ASPA/UNPAN006959.pdf).

Newcomer, Kathryn E., and Heather Allen. 2008. Adding value in the public interest. White paper (accessed July 21, 2010 from naspaa.org/accreditation/standard2009/docs/AddingValueinthePublicInterest.pdf).

Nonprofit Academic Centers Council. 2003. *Curricular Guidelines for Graduate Study in Philanthropy, the Nonprofit Sector, and Nonprofit Leadership.* 2d ed. Cleveland, OH: Nonprofit Academic Centers Council (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.naccouncil.org/pdf/NACC_Guidelines.pdf).

Piskulich, Michelle, and Marvin Mandell. 2007. Curricular competencies. NASPAA White paper. October (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.naspaa.org/accreditation/document/WhitePaperCompetencies.pdf).

Poister, Theodore H., and Patricia Ingraham. 1991. Assessing MPA program outcomes: Current practice and policy alternatives. *American Review of Public Administration* 21 (3): 169–181.

Radin, Beryl. 2008. Discussion report: Process, politics, and management in the curriculum. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management* 27 (3): 635–640.

Raffel, Jeffrey A. 2007. The uniqueness of NASPAA-accredited programs: The role of public service in accreditation. White paper. September 26. www.naspaa.org/accreditation/document/WhitePaperPublic-ServiceRequirementRaffe110.2007.pdf.

———. 2009. Looking forward: A response to the ASPA task force report on educating for excellence in the MPA. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 15 (2): 135–144.

Raffel, Jeffrey A., Steven Maser, and Laurel McFarland. 2007. NASPAA standards 2009: Public service values, mission-based accreditation. White paper. Washington, DC: NASPAA (accessed July 21, 2010 from www.naspaa.org/accreditation/document/NASPAAStandardsPhilosophy09.12.2007.pdf).

Riccucci, Norma M. 2007. Public administration pedagogy: What is it? In *Handbook of Public Administration.* 3d ed., ed. Jack Rabin, W. Bartley Hildreth, and Gerald J. Miller, 757–765. Boca Raton, FL: Taylor and Francis.

Rice, Mitchell F. 2007. Promoting cultural competency in public administration delivery: Utilizing self-assessment tools and performance measures. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 13 (1): 41–57.

———. 2008. A primer for developing a public service agency ethos of cultural competency in public services programming and public services delivery. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 14 (1): 21–38.

Roberts, Robert. 2008. Teaching law in public administration programs. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 14 (3): 361–381.

Salamon, Lester M. 2005. Training professional citizens: Getting beyond the right answer to the wrong question in public affairs education. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 11 (1): 7–19.

Straussman, Jeffrey D. 2008. Public management, politics, and the policy process in the public affairs curriculum. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management* 27 (3): 624–635.

Svara, James, and James Brunet. 2005. Social equity is a pillar of public administration. *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 11 (3): 253–258.

Yeager, Samuel, W. Bartley Hildreth, Gerald Miller, and Jack Rabin. 2007. What difference does having an MPA make? *Journal of Public Affairs Education* 13 (2): 147–167.