



Emerging Challenges to the Public Capacity in the Era of Evolving Public Administration: Toward Collaborative Public Management

Pan Suk Kim

To cite this article: Pan Suk Kim (2007) Emerging Challenges to the Public Capacity in the Era of Evolving Public Administration: Toward Collaborative Public Management, Asian Journal of Political Science, 15:3, 282-302, DOI: [10.1080/02185370701731028](https://doi.org/10.1080/02185370701731028)

To link to this article: <https://doi.org/10.1080/02185370701731028>



Published online: 28 Nov 2007.



Submit your article to this journal [↗](#)



Article views: 191



View related articles [↗](#)

Emerging Challenges to the Public Capacity in the Era of Evolving Public Administration: Toward Collaborative Public Management

Pan Suk Kim

New paradigms of public administration have been introduced in government in order to cure administrative ills around the world. Various trajectories of public sector reforms have been actively introduced in many countries and the benefit of shifting to new paradigms of public administration has been well documented. However, the cost or the consequence of public sector reforms remains understudied. Accordingly, the purpose of this article is to deal with the consequences of the paradigm change of public administration and government reform because the author sees that the public capacity has declined or at least not improved in recent years while a wide range of innovations have been carried out by many governments under the New Public Management and governance perspectives. This article first looks at the evolution of public administration and its implication, followed by a discussion on government reform and its unintended consequences, and governance change in South Korea. Then various issues on new challenges such as the lack of the public capacity, and new tasks such as capacity building and calls for curriculum development, will be elaborated, followed by conclusions.

Keywords: Public Capacity; Paradigm Shift; Hollow State; Public Sector Reform

Introduction

Traditional public administration has been under attack for many years. The so-called ‘bureaucratic or administrative paradigm’ seems to be eroded substantially and has been challenged by ‘a managerial or entrepreneurial paradigm’ in many countries,

Pan Suk Kim, PhD, is Associate Dean and Professor of Public Administration, Graduate School of Government and Business, Yonsei University, South Korea. Correspondence to: Pan Suk Kim, Graduate School of Government and Business, Yonsei University, Wonju Campus, Wonju 220-710, South Korea. Email: pankim@yonsei.ac.kr

particularly in Anglo-American and some Asia Pacific countries.¹ Particularly after the publication of Christopher Hood's article (1991) on the nature of the New Public Management (NPM) quoted in a lot of literature, the debate on the NPM paradigm has prevailed around the world. Some scholars support such claims, but some reject them. Nonetheless, such debates still continue: there are both advocates and critics of the NPM.² Currently, the criticism on NPM is growing in many countries. Recently, Osborne (2006) claims that the time of NPM has been a relatively brief and 'transitory' one between the bureaucratic tradition of public administration (PA) and the pluralist tradition of the New Public Governance (NPG).³

Osborne (2006) proposed three dominant modes of public administration: (1) a longer, pre-eminent one of PA, from the late 19th century through to the late 1970s or early 1980s; (2) a second mode: the NPM, through to the start of the 21st century; and (3) an emergent third one: the New Public Governance (NPG), since then. Whether or not many experts agree with these claims, one thing is clear: the NPM movement made a significant impact, whether it is positive or negative, to the field of public administration, public policy and government reform.⁴ Currently, however, it seems that the NPM movement is generally declining over time while a new perspective arises under the name of 'governance' around the world. The title of the newly emerging paradigm varies depending on its advocates,⁵ but the common element among the new perspectives is 'governance'.

What do all these changes mean to us? There might be a number of implications and impacts on the field of public administration and public policy in terms of theoretical development, management practice, policy formulation, and education and training. Such changes brought us a new perspective, but at the same time it escalated a lot of confusion and imposed on us new challenges to cope with in the field.

In South Korea, the paradigm shift is not clear. Perhaps all three perspectives (PA, NPM and governance) coexist to a certain degree rather than a distinct paradigmatic transformation in theory and practice. Nonetheless, the reality might be: the dominant role of traditional PA is declining; as well, scepticism against the NPM ideas is growing over time, while more favourable attention to governance is mounting gradually.

In South Korea, the NPM-based government reform was substantially introduced after the financial crisis in the late 1990s. Government reform in South Korea was a direct consequence of the foreign exchange crisis in 1997 set off by a huge current account deficit resulting from the downfall of global competitiveness in various areas. Korea received a bailout from the IMF. After that, the South Korean government implemented a bold reform in the public sector. A number of major NPM ideas have been utilized in South Korea: a great use of market mechanisms (open competition, contracts, and tight management of resources), extensive performance management (performance measurement, monitoring, evaluation and auditing), and entrepreneurial leadership and management (Kim, 2000, 2003, 2004; Kim and Kim, 2001).

In recent years, the governance perspectives were also significantly diffused in South Korea as happened internationally. Accordingly, major characteristics of good governance have been strongly emphasized in the public sector: participation, transparency, responsiveness, accountability, inclusion, consensus building, in addition to the rule of law and three Es (efficiency, effectiveness and equity). More stakeholders are increasingly participating in the public policy process and better access to government information has been established.⁶

Consequently, the winds of reformatory movements have broadly hit the South Korean public sector in recent years. Both the NPM and the governance tides moved into the country almost at the same time. As mentioned earlier, for example, performance management and evaluation became the core elements of reform measures in government and business. At the same time, government is trying to promote participatory and transparent governance. Likewise, various kinds of innovation have taken place in the public sector.

However, the purpose of this article is neither investigating the paradigm shift in public administration nor evaluating Korean public sector reform. Instead, this article is interested in reviewing the consequences of the paradigm change of public administration and government reform because the author sees that the public capacity has declined, or at least not improved, while a wide range of innovations have been carried out in government under the NPM and governance perspectives.

The benefit of shifting to new paradigms has been relatively well documented in a lot of public administration literature, but the cost of reform is not well considered in the process of public sector reform and paradigm shifts of public administration. Therefore, this article first looks at the evolution of public administration, followed by discussion of government reform and its consequences, and governance change in South Korea. Then various issues on new challenges such as the lack of the public capacity, and new tasks such as capacity building and calls for new curriculum development will be elaborated for further discussion, followed by conclusions.

The Evolution of Public Administration and Its Implication

Trends of public administration are evolving around the world. In Table 1, there are three models of public administration: first, public administration, second, public management or NPM, and third, 'Responsive Governance'. The second NPM mode is now widely recognized around the world, but there is no consensus on the name of the third mode. The United Nations report (UN/DESA, 2005: 7) labelled it as 'Responsive Governance', while others call it differently.⁷ It might take some time to get a consensus on how to label the newly emergent mode of public administration.

Table 1 was drawn from the *World Public Sector Report 2005* (UN/DESA, 2005). For instance, with regard to the citizen/state relationship, there is a move from obedience to entitlement, from entitlement towards empowerment. Also considering the type of interaction, a move from coerciveness to delegation, and from delegation to collaboration is shown. In the past, coercive methodology was simple and

Table 1 Three Models of Public Administration

	Public administration	Public management	Responsive governance
Citizen–state relationship	Obedience	Entitlement	Empowerment
Accountability of senior officials	Politicians	Customers	Citizens and stakeholders
Guiding principles	Compliance with rules	Efficiency and results	Accountability, transparency and participation
Criteria for success	Output	Outcome	Process
Key attribute	Impartiality	Professionalism	Responsiveness
Type of interaction	Coerciveness	Delegation	Collaboration
Nature of the state	Unitary	Disaggregated	Plural and pluralist
Focus	The policy system	Intra-organizational management	Inter-organizational governance
Theoretical roots	Political science and public policy	Rational/public choice theory and management studies	Organizational sociology and network theory

Source: Adapted from UN/DESA (2005: 7) and Osborne (2006: 383).

straightforward: officials ordered and citizens listened in terms of state–citizen relationship. However, nowadays, the central government has delegated a number of functions to local governments so that local governments now have their own autonomy and independence to a certain extent in many countries. In that regard, new or additional mechanisms for resolving conflicts should be developed for mutual collaboration in terms of inter-governmental relations.

New Public Management is found in many countries. In the United Kingdom, the spread of the NPM was noticeable during the Thatcher Administration. It also took the form of Reinventing Government during the Clinton Administration in the USA, and the New Steering Model (Neues Steuerungsmodell) in Germany and with various labels and forms in other leading countries. The main idea of NPM is economization or marketization of public administration, including managerialism, decentralization, de-layering of decision-making, performance indicators, output targeting, management by results, and use of new technology in government. In other words, an attempt to introduce markets and quasi-markets into the public sector has been salient around the world (Richards and Smith, 2002: 104). However, NPM increasingly receives criticism in many countries including South Korea.⁸

So, what does this all mean? Certainly we are gradually moving away from the traditional type of public administration (Ricucci, 2001), even though many doubt claims concerning a new paradigm (Lynn, 2001). Nonetheless, the boundaries between the public and private sectors are blurring. As well, there is more policy networking, governing at a distance; not direct governing, negotiated self-governance (Newman, 2001: 24); in fact new ideas are arising all around the world. For each, new stakeholders are also arising. Where does that leave the position of the central government? What is the position of the core executive? The role of the central

government is changing: from coercive command-and-control mechanisms to more collaborative public management (Bingham *et al.*, 2005; Kettl, 2006; Leach, 2006; McGuire, 2006; Thompson and Perry, 2006).⁹ The voices of other counter parts such as civil society and the private sector are becoming critical. The demands of multiple stakeholders are mounting more diverse and complex so that a single governmental agency may not absorb all those demands easily.

Consequently, existing governmental capacity may not take up all rising demands from diverse multiple stakeholders. Rising demands may 'overflow' the given public capacity so that such 'overflowing' could become a serious challenge to today's government. Multiple agencies instead of a single entity are working together to solve more complicated problems through collaborative partnership building or co-production arrangements. It is fair to say that a new way of doing business such as collaborative public management is arising while the influence of traditional public administration is declining. Based on the new development, it can be seen that there is a move from the Weberian State to the Post Modern State. The degree of change may vary from country to country, transformation can be observed in various areas: government to governance, hierarchy to heterarchy (such as networks), concentrated power to diffused power, unitary and/or centralized to fragmented and/or decentralized state, monolithic states to hollowed-out states, etc. (Richards and Smith, 2002: 36).

What are the implications of this kind of transformation? How can these kinds of transformations be interpreted? Without a doubt there is 'deep impact'. The role of government is now increasingly to facilitate cooperation, coordination, integration, and information exchange instead of command-and-control. The social change thesis argues that the world is characterized by extreme diversity where power is dispersed; and where society worldwide demands greater freedom and individualization (Agranoff and McGuire, 2003). Another perspective asserts that the types of problems that government faces today require different mechanisms that are more flexible, more inclusive and more adaptable (Alter and Hage, 1993; McGuire, 2006). Complex issues require collaborative public management (Schneider *et al.*, 2003; Kettl, 2006; Leach, 2006; McGuire, 2006; Thompson and Perry, 2006).¹⁰

It is evident that the public sector reform approaches are changing from coercive (forced evolution or dictatorial transformation) to directive; and from a directive to a consultative or collaborative style over time (Farnham *et al.*, 2005). All this transition sounds fine; these are very democratic ideas, but consider our capacity to deal with these ideas and changes. Are we ready to have a collaborative approach with more stakeholders? Are we ready to have a collaborative or consultative approach? Collaboration or consultation means more communication, more meetings, more cooperation and more integration. Are we capable; are we comfortable to do this? Are we really carrying out reforms in such a participatory manner? These are also critical questions to be answered. Otherwise, Huxham (2003: 421) warns that it is generally best, *if there is a choice*, to avoid collaboration unless the potential for real collaborative advantage is clear (McGuire, 2006: 40). A practical problem in the

field might be that collaborative public management is difficult to carry out and government organizations may not be adequately prepared for the movement toward partnerships and networked governing (Teisman and Klijn, 2002; McGuire, 2006). Teisman and Klijn (2002) found that governments do not naturally exchange information or look for mutual solutions, as is required for effective partnerships. Many participants in a collaborative endeavour cannot easily agree on common aims, the amount of power within the collaboration is unequal, and trust is difficult to build (Huxham, 2003; McGuire, 2006). Therefore, it should be noticed that the costs of collaborative public management is not negligible although collaboration is the new form of governance.

Government Reform and Its Unintended Consequences

Laurence Lynn (2001: 144) asserts that literature and discourse in the field of public administration often lack the recognition that reformers of institutions and civic philosophies must show: how the capacity to effect public purposes and accountability to the polity will be enhanced. Thus, it would be beneficial to discuss the question of innovations and the capacity of the public sector in the era of the reformative movement.

In various forums and academic venues, we frequently talk about public sector reforms. The purpose of public sector reforms is to make the public sector or governments more trustworthy, efficient, effective, responsive, watchful, transparent, participatory, reliable, dependable, accountable and fair. With this kind of ideal purpose in mind, many public sector reforms were put in place in most countries. As shown in Table 2, the major trajectories of reform are privatization, decentralization, downsizing, civil service reform, financial and budgetary reform, deregulation, public enterprise reform and e-government (Karmack, 2000: 244, Donahue and Nye, 2003: 95).

Table 2 shows a cross-country study on public sector reforms. Sixty-three countries out of 99 countries attempted to privatize, followed by decentralization, downsizing, civil service reform and other strategies. Around the world, these trajectories have been utilized in the public sector of many countries although the degree of such reforms might be different from country to country. What have years of public sector

Table 2 Major Trajectories of Public Sector Reforms

Trajectories of reforms	Number of countries (total no. 99)
Privatization	63
Decentralization	39
Downsizing	31
Civil service reform	24
Financial and budgetary reform	22
Regulatory reform	20

Source: Karmack (2000: 244) and Donahue and Nye (2003: 95).

reforms achieved and what has it cost? Many reports usually publicize benefits and achievements of such reforms, but it is rare to see discussion on the cost of such reforms. One would think that reform is a cost free process from its pages, but the reality is that an enormous amount of cost has been expended on reforms (Talbot, 2006: 340).

In that regard, the question should be raised here on the consequences of such reforms in government because the cost of such reforms has been high in many cases. Some academics (Stoker, 1998; Milward and Provan, 2000; Richards and Smith, 2002) assert that the effects of NPM and bold contractualization of public services to the private sector, or large-scale decentralization of central services to local governments, have led to the so-called 'hollowing out' of the state (Rhodes, 1994).¹¹ Central government's authority and power have been reduced by being fragmented and dispersed by way of upwards to the supranational level (EU, UN, OECD, WTO, etc.) or outwards, through privatization and marketization, or downwards through the creation of agencies, the several species of parastatal bodies, and decentralization/devolution (Richards and Smith, 2002: 20–25). The state has been hollowed out from above by international interdependence and globalization. A number of functions of the public sector were cut and then transferred to the private sector. Also a number of functions of the central government were cut and then transferred to local government. In general, decentralization and privatization might be necessary, for instance, where the central government has an excessive degree of monopoly in service delivery and policy implementation.

Various trajectories of public sector reforms such privatization, contractualization, deregulation, decentralization and devolution have been broadly applied in the public sector. As a result, the central government became slim in both function and authority. This hollowing out of government is not only the British government's problem, but it is also a common problem in many countries, which brings great challenges to modern governments around the world. The key question here is 'What is the extent to which hollowing out has undermined the capacity of the core executive to control the policy process?' Order, uniformity and productivity have been challenged by complexity diversity and unpredictability. Public sector reforms have been widely promoted, but as things are changed, can all these new challenges be overcome?

While not criticizing decentralization or devolution, it has to be pointed out that when such an idea is promoted, the capacity for handling all the consequences of such trajectories of public sector reforms must be considered. When decentralization or devolution takes place, for example, more collaboration should be promoted. In reality, collaboration sounds great: a very democratic idea, but in order to apply or practice it, it is essential to build up capacity for more coordination or integration, not separation; a more holistic view. In addition, there needs to be a lot more assignments to carry out such new ideas. Preaching these ideas is not hard, but living with such ideas is really tough. Thus, it is necessary to review the consequences of

such trajectories of public sector reform. It is essential when introducing decentralization and privatization, to consider the costs.

For example, Cheung (2007) asserts that there had been a steady process of hollowing out (the system eroding such as institutional incompatibility) of executive power under the rule of former Hong Kong Chief Executive *Tung Chee-hwa*, resulting from growing political challenges, policy failure and internal fissures. What will result if the central government lacks the capacity to carry on various public programmes? What will result if a local government lacks the capacity to carry on devolved authorities and functions? What will result if a public corporation lacks the capacity to provide the privatized service delivery to its citizens? In that regard, the question of how to minimize the cost of public sector reforms is one of the key issues to be tackled while fulfilling the purpose of those reforms.

Governance Change: A Case of South Korea

On the government side, there can be seen a diminishing role of the head of state in many countries. This is clearly the case in Korea. It is true to say that the role of President in South Korea is certainly diminishing. The imperial presidency has been replaced by the institutional or managerial presidency. There is also a diminishing role of the state. The South Korean government used to be an administrative state, but lately it has been slimming down substantially. That is the current direction of South Korea whether it is appropriate or not. The role of traditionally powerful agencies (i.e. military and national intelligence service, etc.) is also diminishing, declining, or repositioning from the public setting. At the same time there is an increasing role of the private sector as well as an increasing role of the citizens and civil society, plus an increasing role for the judiciary and the legislative bodies. Where in the past, particularly in the 1970s, the legislative bodies were just like a rubber stamp for Executive policy, now they are quite provocative and an important part of policy making. Thus there is evidence of such governance change in South Korea as shown in Table 3.

The most influential organizations and their relative positions of influence and trust in Korean society have been studied by the East Asia Institute (EAI) since 2005. The national opinion survey was conducted by the EAI based on a random sample (1,543 men and women who are over 18 years old in Korea) in mid 2005 and mid 2006. The EAI first identified the most influential and trustworthy organizations and it came up with about 24 leading organizations including major companies, governmental agencies, political parties, courts and prosecutors, labour unions and civil society. After that, the EAI asked how much each respondent sees the degree of influence and trust of each organization in Korean society (East Asian Institute, 2005, 2006).

According to the EAI's report, it showed the most influential and trustworthy organizations in 2006 are Hyundai Automobile, Samsung and SK Company, followed by LG and the Constitutional Court. No government agency was included in the top

Table 3 Most Influential and Trustworthy Organizations in Korea

Rank	Influence in 2006	Influence in 2005	Trust in 2006	Trust in 2005
1	Hyundai Automobile	Samsung	Hyundai Automobile	Samsung
2	Samsung	Hyundai Automobile	Samsung	Hyundai Automobile
3	SK	Constitutional Court	SK	SK
4	Constitutional Court	SK	LG	Constitutional Court
5	LG	Supreme Court	Constitutional Court	LG
6	Police	LG	Supreme Court	Supreme Court
7	Prosecutors	Prosecutors	Police	Police
8	Supreme Court	Police	Federation of Korean Industries	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy (PSPD)
9	National Tax Service	Federation of Korean Industries	National Tax Service	Prosecutors Lawyers for a Democratic Society (Min-byun)
10	Federation of Korean Industries	National Tax Service	Prosecutors	

Source: East Asian Institute (2005, 2006).

three category of the most influential and trustworthy organizations in Korean society.¹² Typically in the 1970s–1990s, people thought the Office of the President was the most powerful and influential organization. However, as shown in Table 3, the Office of the President is not in the top ten list.¹³ Now the most influential or trustworthy organizations are in the private sector: Hyundai, Samsung, SK and LG, followed by the courts (the Constitutional Court and the Supreme Court) and a few law enforcement agencies (police and prosecutor). The Blue House (Office of the South Korean President) is nowhere on this table, while the Constitutional Court, the Supreme Court and a few law enforcement agencies are part of the top ten list. Particularly, the Constitutional Court received great attention in Korea's national politics.¹⁴ Another interesting development would be the rise of civil society. For example, the People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy (PSPD) was ranked as one of the top ten trustworthy organizations in 2005. This is quite an interesting phenomenon and it is fair to say that national governance is changing in South Korea.

In recent years, the South Korean government experienced hardships. A number of government actions turned out to be unconstitutional.¹⁵ Such a phenomenon is a new development in South Korea, but it is the consequences of the development of society as a whole, as well as the maturation of Korea's legal community and civil society, not simply because of current regime's failures. Citizens and civil society are likely to increasingly bring various disputes with government actions to the courts for

final legal interpretation instead of relying on or complying with public policy or administrative rules. In doing so, the influence and trust of government agencies has declined while the courts and law enforcement agencies have gained more trust over time.

Emerging Challenges and the Lack of the Public Capacity

As we are moving into a new era, serious new challenges are arising, which need to be faced. Major characteristics of such challenges are more complex, more diverse, more fragmented, more interdependent, more time-consuming, more participatory, more transparent, more blurring/overlapping, more decentralized, add to these more stakeholders, more conflicts, more dilemmas, more trilemmas, etc. The voice of citizens and civil society becomes provocative and critical and government itself alone cannot simply solve such complex problems in a relatively short term.

Here is an example. Several years ago in Korea the transportation authority tried to build a new highway in southern Korea, in *Gyeong-nam* Province. One day, a (Buddhist) nun demonstrated in order to save the salamanders (small lizard-like creatures) on the *Chunsung* Mountain. Later the environmental protection organizations, together with a *Naewon* Buddhist temple, where the Buddhist nun was affiliated, sued against a tunnel construction, which was a core part of the highway building. The salamanders also became part of the lawsuit plaintiff, and this case was thus known as the 'salamanders' lawsuit'. In the 1960–1970s this kind of happening was unthinkable in Korean society. In the middle of the proceedings, the nun demonstrated in an extreme manner (hunger demonstration) and almost tried to kill herself to protect the salamanders. Consequently, many environmental groups supported her initiative; not just for a few months but nearly three years. So for approximately three years the central government was helpless to do anything. Finally it went to the Supreme Court who made a decision (i.e. dismissed the case), solving the problem on 2 June 2006 (*Joong-Ang Daily*, 3 June 2006). This was not an isolated incident. Another time it was a toad that caused a problem. A local government in central Korea, in *Chung-buk* province, tried to build an apartment complex but local residents were similarly worried that the site was home to a lot of toads. This problem is still ongoing. Local government has not solved the problem and so the conflict continues.

The emerging governance paradigm brings to many stakeholders more opportunities of engagement, inclusion, decision-making, and access to information. At the same time, however, its cost is also not negligible: increasing diversity and complexity with multiple stakeholders, more conflicts or disagreements, time-consuming processes, fragmentation, and overlapping responsibilities. These costs are daunting challenges to governments of many developing countries (Weigel, 2003). Thus there is a possibility that many developing countries might face chaos before they achieve the full blossom of democratic governance in practice.

There are a number of new problems that cannot be solved solely by the action of the government itself. Conflicts between governmental actions and citizens are arising as shown in the case mentioned above. So, the question here is, 'Are we able to deal with these kinds of various new challenges?' We have public sector reforms, privatization, decentralization and more, but what about the government's capacity to deal with these new phenomena? Are government agencies comfortable with their ability to meet these new challenges? Public sector reforms have been widely promoted, but what about the public capacity? Does government have appropriate institutions (systems, rules, structures, and processes), administrative tools, manpower, and resources in government?

In fact, public sector capacity has not been improved. With the shrinking role of the State, there are more complex problems, lack of resources, together with an overload and reform fatigue, which all lead to a reduction in the capacity of the public sector to cope with the demands of reform. The capacity of the public sector has declined while the requirements of reform and citizens' expectations have grown exponentially, thus creating an overload or deep gap between new demands of critical citizens and the public capacity (personal and institutional capacities). The public capacity or government's capacity have declined over time, but the new challenges to government have grown significantly. So this is the problem; the so-called 'capacity deficit'. How can we deal with this capacity deficit problem? This would seem to be a big issue. Certainly, international organizations including the United Nations found this issue to be critical. They promoted this issue with a global forum, but there needs to be more attention paid to the public capacity problem. Of course there is a need for discussion about public sector reforms (innovation measures, more tools, more techniques, more strategies), but equally we have to deal with this capacity deficit.

This would seem to be a great challenge, especially to governments in developing countries. Governments have promoted public service reforms and innovation, again and again.¹⁶ However, governments are seeking to restrain increases in public expenditure, and are reluctant to take on new responsibilities. The trend towards the 'hollowing out' of the state and the dismantling of the administrative state is observed in many governments. In order to enhance the efficiency of governmental operation, the degree of reform becomes very high around the world. However, the question to be answered here is: 'Is the degree of the public capacity high?' The answer would appear to be in the negative in many cases. Thus we end up with a high degree of reform and a low degree of the public capacity to fulfil it. As a result, there is a hollowing out of the state. Obviously, it is necessary to re-direct the direction of government reforms.

Hollowing out is not restricted to Western Europe. In many countries around the world, central and local governments are losing functions to other organizations and alternative service delivery systems proliferate. The role of government employees is more and more restrained by new management systems and political controls. Korea is not an exception from such trends. The Korean central government is being eroded

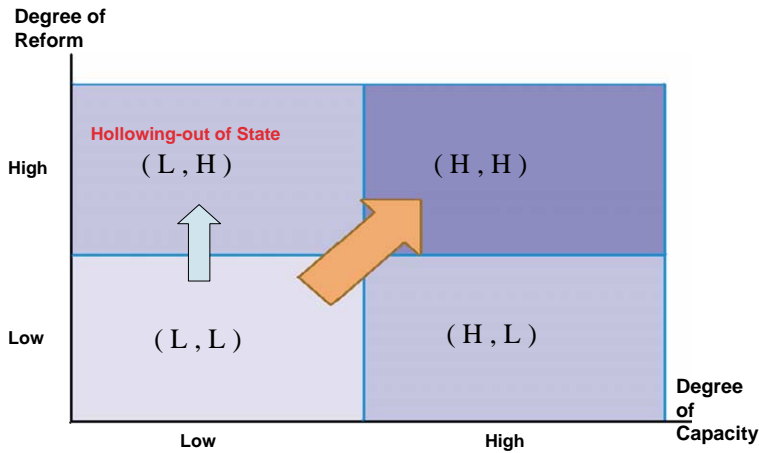


Figure 1 Searching for the Right Direction: Government Reform and the Public Capacity.

with limited central capability. Therefore, it is necessary to strengthen the public capacity to steer the government system effectively.

Capacity Building and Calls for Curriculum Development

Scholars of the new governance have argued that sustained governmental capacity is required to effectively manage public affairs and other forms of indirect government such as contracting and volunteer programmes (Rainey, 1997; Bingham *et al.*, 2005; Gazley and Brudney, 2005). Generally speaking, capacity building refers to assistance to develop a certain KSAs (knowledge, skills, and abilities) or behavioural competence, or system development. The United Nations sees capacity building or capacity reinforcement as the need coefficient of three interrelated and complementary pursuits: (1) institution building, (2) human resources development, and (3) technological adequacy (UN/DESA, 2005: 12).¹⁷ However, capacity building does not mean ‘re-bureaucratization’ or ‘reinforcing government employees’ authority or power’. Instead, capacity building refers to an attempt to make the public sector, particularly in developing countries, including government, more capable or competent to successfully fulfil its tasks and responsibilities.

First of all, building institutional capacity to make effective choices in policy development and administrative change represents a top priority in the task of capacity building, which governments must undertake with support from the domestic and international policy communities. Fortunately, the UN/DESA (2005) highlights generic skills in the preparation, design, formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes.¹⁸

Basically, it is necessary to improve institutional capacity (infrastructure, organizational structures, rules, systems, processes and policies) as well as individual capacity (knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviour). However, this article focuses on

individual capacity because it cannot extensively deal with both issues in a limited space.

It would be better to make a commitment for capacity building or capacity reinforcement in order to make government function effectively on the national, sub-national, and international levels in the era of globalization and informatization. The point is, the world is seriously changing, but serious efforts and appropriate levels of resources were not invested into developing the public capacity. When a problem such as a serious capacity deficit is recognized, more can be done to alleviate and solve it.

Although variations exist from country to country, transformation from the Weberian state to the postmodern state is taking place around the world. The world of public administration has changed: technological innovations such as the Internet, globalism, devolution, and new ideas from organizational sociology and network theory have changed the business of government (Powell, 1990; Haveri, 2006); and public managers find themselves facilitating, mediating and collaborating across boundaries (O'Leary *et al.*, 2006). Collaboration and coordination becomes a critical emerging trend around the world. Although working together is not necessarily new, doing so in an organized and strategic manner is really important. Since the September 11 incident and Hurricane Katrina, for example, the American emergency management and new homeland security organizations have been struggling to create the systems and coordination methods to engage with the public and interdisciplinary stakeholders (Gazley and Brudney, 2005) so that many American public organizations are now taking aggressive steps to employ the elements of 'collaborative problem-solving' to accomplish vital public service goals (Sutkus, 2007).

As shown in Table 4, major features of such transformation are quite clear as mentioned earlier. Accordingly, new transformation of public administration calls for new curriculum development. Practice in public affairs is ahead of research and theory. Public organizations are now hiring corporate consultants to teach them how to put governance into effect. Public officials need to think creatively about how to engage the public in deliberative democracy and collaborate decision-making. Schools of public administration and public policy owe it to future public managers to provide better education and training in these processes. These skills are essential to effective functioning in the new governance structures (Bingham *et al.*, 2005: 555).

The (American) National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) provides instructive guidelines for the professional degree programmes in the United States.¹⁹ The NASPAA provides a variety of coursework for both the Masters of Public Administration (MPA) and the Masters of Public Policy (MPP) programmes.²⁰ In addition to such courses, new subject areas are highly demanded in the new era. Some of the most newly demanding courses are, for example, government reform, change management, and governance. In recent years, government invited more corporate consultants and experts from business management. If we don't provide an appropriate level of service with regard to teaching, research, and consultation, on such areas as government reform, change management

Table 4 Changing Features of the Paradigm Shift and Newly Demanding Competencies

Changing features*	Newly demanding competencies
Government → governance	Coexistence of multiple stakeholders, protecting rights of minor stakeholders, cooperation, external awareness, conflict resolution
Hierarchy → heterarchy	Network management, more inter-organizational structures and processes, communication
Concentrated power → diffuse power	Collaborative leadership, check and balance, political savvy
Elitist → pluralist	Competition, coordination, coexistence (equilibrium), stability
Unitary and centralized → fragmented and decentralized	Cooperation, coordination, autonomy, tolerance for difference, communication, trust building
Strong and central state → segmented executive	Integration, co-management, leadership
Clear lines of accountability → blurred/fuzzy lines of accountability	Partnership, co-management, communication, responsiveness, tolerance for ambiguity
State central control → state central steering	Strategic planning, vision and strategy
Homogeneous service culture → Heterogeneous service cultures	Cultural diversity (multiculturalism), diversity management

*This part is partially adapted from Richards and Smith (2002: 36).

and governance, we might significantly lose our customers in such areas. Particularly in the era of governance, the following competencies are highly required in government: coordination/collaboration, integration, conflict resolution, tolerance for diversity and ambiguity, persuasive leadership, external awareness and political savvy. That's why several new graduate courses in collaboration, negotiation, facilitation and mediation were newly launched at the Syracuse University's Maxwell School in the fall of 2006 (O'Leary *et al.*, 2006).

Other areas for further development may include: public integrity (ethics, anti-corruption and public values), civil society and non-profit management, e-government (application of ICT in the public service delivery), social issues (gender, disability and cultural diversity issues), globalization and comparative administration, conflict resolution, collective bargaining and arbitration,²¹ policy marketing and public customer relationship management (PCRM), and strategic planning.

Furthermore, in-service training should be improved. Simple knowledge transfer based on a one-way lecture method is no longer effective. Curriculum, teaching method, and Human Resource Development (HRD) framework in government should be innovated. HRD is not just for mid- or lower-level government employees. HRD is for everyone so that it is also necessary for higher-level government executives. Does every government have a good training programme for Ministers, Deputy Ministers and Assistant Ministers? There are various training programmes in the South Korean government,²² but there is no adequate training for this important group.²³ On 1 July 2006 the Senior Civil Service was implemented. This resulted in training programmes for the position of Director General and above. In general, however, regular HRD programmes for the top levels are almost non-existent.

Compare this with the private sector. In the private sector, CEOs usually have well-designed executive development courses, particularly in leading multinational companies (MNCs).

Overall, this article focuses exclusively on building capacity of the public sector to promote continuous improvements and reforms. However, it should be noted that factors outside the public sector such as civic capacity of the society are also a critical factor for further development and success of reforms, because the same reform project may succeed in one country but fail in another even though these two countries have similar levels of public sector capacity in the first place.²⁴ Civic capacity refers to the ability to build and maintain a broad social and political coalition across all sectors in pursuit of a common goal; it will be defined as including ability to engage with the public domain, capacity to influence the social agenda, and capacity to influence the social and physical environment (Saegert *et al.*, 2001; Sirianni and Friedland, 2001; Stone *et al.*, 2001). Accordingly, further studies on building civic capacity should be complemented to effectively manage external factors.

Conclusions

In sum, public administration is evolving through three dominant modes: traditional public administration, the New Public Management, and the governance perspective (UN/DESA, 2005; Andresani and Ferlie, 2006; Osborne, 2006). Perhaps the NPM may continue toward a more market management in some developing countries for a while because there is a time lag, path dependence, and differences of the knowledge transfer among countries. Here traditional public administration and its contrasting system NPM may unify to become a new system in the future (Christensen and Lægreid, 2001). For the time being, the NPM is likely to decline over time, while the governance perspective gains more attention than the NPM around the world. Such evolution of public administration made a significant impact on the function and the role of government. For example, the role of government is diminishing or repositioning while the role of other sectors and non-governmental stakeholders is increasing.

Furthermore, many governments initiated various trajectories of public sector reforms including privatization, decentralization, civil service reform, and financial and budgetary reform, deregulation, e-government, and public enterprise reform. Such a broad range of reforms also significantly affected the public capacity. In particular, the function of the central government, which has been substantially fragmented, has been restricted, while citizens did not change their expectations about responsibilities of the central government. In such circumstances, public dissatisfaction with the effects of all these changes will continue to grow over time.

Therefore, government needs to rebuild the public capacity. Capacity building does not necessarily mean 'bureaucracy reinforcement'. Instead, it is something to do with upgrading the competence levels of the public institutions and government officials.

‘Doing-more-with-less’ or, more precisely speaking, ‘coordinating-more-with-less’ or ‘doing-better-with-less’ requires additional competence or system development to fulfil government’s role and to regain public trust. Therefore, capacity building is highly demanded at the time of the hollowing out of the state in the NPM era as well as in the emerging paradigm of governance.²⁵

The role of citizens is changing, as is the role of government. The citizen’s role in the past was compliance without much interference, but it is now moving to engagement, entitlement, or empowerment. The role of government is also changing, from representing citizens’ interests or to express the public will, to promoting citizenship and public discussion, and to articulate the public interest (Bourgon, 2006). Eran Vigoda (2002: 531) also asserts that the role of citizens is changing from citizens as subjects to voters, voters to customers, customers to partners, while the role of government is changing from rulers to trustees, trustees to managers, and managers to partners. Consequently, the type of interaction between government and citizens is changing from coerciveness to delegation, delegation to responsiveness, responsiveness to collaboration (Vigoda, 2002: 531). Therefore, government departments and agencies as well as public officials need to realize all these changes and must upgrade their capacities. Otherwise, they will lose public trust continuously.

In the road to enhance the public capacity, there might be no one best way.²⁶ One size does not fit all and what size fits a country best is the government’s prerogative and duty to decide (UN/DESA, 2005: 13). In other words, a prescription for developed countries may not be feasible for some developing countries.²⁷ Foreign expertise and/or external consultants may render advice on this matter; this is one decision that cannot be outsourced. In other words, institutional reforms must be home-grown, demand- and government-driven, carefully thought out and mutually consistent. Of course, reform and innovation must be promoted, but on the other hand, gradually, or altogether, or simultaneously, capacity must be improved. In other words, ‘indigenization’ must take place in its own soil. These things go together. Without the development of both areas, there cannot be sustainable innovation for recovering public trust.

Recovering public trust is a common goal for all governments.²⁸ However, trust is like a pinnacle by-product (Goodsell, 2006: 633) in that it is not possible to directly improve trust. Like a billiard ball game, we can enhance public trust in an indirect manner. Basically we have to improve foothill goals such as good governance values (legality, integrity, efficiency, effectiveness, involvement, dependability, transparency and fairness). In so doing, a high level of trust can be engendered. However, all these important goals are based on our public sector capacity to fulfil its perceived mission. There is a need to build up trust, and in order to do so, all of these important goals need to be built up; these goals are based on public sector capacity. The public sector capacity is in danger; therefore, it must be strengthened or the problem cannot be solved.

Over the years, public administration has been somewhat derogated by various new movements including the NPM and the governance perspectives, but the author

is optimistic about such debate. As many experts (Lynn, 2001; Riccucci, 2001) asserted, the author believes that the field of public administration will continue to sustain critical challenges on its heritage and such struggle will strengthen public administration in a turbulent era, both as a field of inquiry and as a profession.

Notes

- [1] There was a time lag in the diffusion of the NPM movement: in Western countries, the NPM was salient in 1980s, while, in Asian countries, it was spread in the 1990s.
- [2] There are several criticisms against the NPM (Osborne, 2006): the NPM is not one phenomenon or paradigm, but a cluster of several (Ferlie *et al.*, 1996); the NPM is a failed paradigm (Farnham and Horton, 1996); the NPM is faddish or content free (Lynn, 1997); and the NPM is simply a sub-school of public administration that has been limited in its impact due to the lack of any real theoretical base and conceptual rigor (Frederickson and Smith, 2003).
- [3] Osborne (2006: 377) asserts that the NPM has actually been a transitory stage in the evolution from a traditional PA to the new paradigm called 'New Public Governance (NPG)'.
- [4] NPM has its positive and negative sides; for instance, in countries without any good performance evaluation system NPM makes a good contribution in establishing performance management or performance indicators and good evaluation systems. There is positive impact from NPM. At the same time we get negative, or side effects, as well. Through the economization of public management we lost some degree of public values and the spirit of public administration (Frederickson, 1997).
- [5] There are several different labels: 'New Public Governance' by Osborne (2006), 'Network Governance' by Andresani and Ferlie (2006), and 'Responsive Governance' by the United Nations (UN/DESA, 2005).
- [6] The rhetoric of shareholder value has also become prominent in the corporate governance debates in many advanced and newly industrialized countries (Lazonick and O'Sullivan, 2000).
- [7] *Ibid.* (see note 4).
- [8] If NPM is over-preached then the result tends to be micro-management. We need holistic, macro-management. In South Korea, for instance, there are good ITC systems, so in the game industry there was a compartmentalized revolution. In a small way ITC is good. It was applied to develop the game systems, etc. As a result, in the last couple of years, several companies built up the digitized gaming industry. The consequences were not foreseen; the bigger picture was not considered. Now after a couple of years, it has become a big monster; digital gambling has suddenly become a serious problem in Korea. Compartmentalized innovation in the last couple of years did not take into account the moral values. The common public interest has been seriously challenged by private interests and there was a monitoring problem.
- [9] Collaborative public management is a concept that describes the process of facilitating and operating in multi-organizational arrangements in order to remedy problems that cannot be solved, or solved easily, by single organizations (McGuire, 2006: 33).
- [10] The role of government has been transformed to different functions other than traditional control mechanisms. The author is indebted to the comments made by an anonymous reviewer of this article. Also, the author believes that it is shrinking in many developing countries which have the administrative state.
- [11] Rod Rhodes (1994: 138–139) used the phrase 'the hollowing out of the state' to cover the interrelated trends using the British example: (1) privatization and limiting the scope and

forms of public intervention; (2) the loss of functions by central and local government departments to alternative service delivery systems (such as agencies); (3) the loss of functions by British government to European Union institutions; and (4) limiting the discretion of public servants through the New Public Management system, with its emphasis on managerial accountability, and clearer political control through a sharper distinction between politics and administration.

- [12] *The Joong-Ang Daily*, one of the leading Korean newspapers, reported it on its front page on 15 August 2006.
- [13] The influence of the Office of the President (known as the 'Blue House') was ranked as 13th in 2006 and 11th in 2005, while the trust of the Office of the President was marked as 21st in 2006 and 19th in 2005 (East Asian Institute, 2006; *Joong-Ang Daily*, 2006).
- [14] The framers of the Constitution adopted, in addition to the Supreme Court, an independently specialized court established in 1988, based on the European model, in order to fully protect the people's fundamental rights and effectively check governmental powers. The functions of the Constitutional Court include deciding on the constitutionality of laws, ruling on competence disputes between governmental entities, adjudicating constitutional complaints filed by individuals, giving final decisions on Impeachments, and making judgments on the dissolution of political parties. Its homepage in English is: <http://www.court.go.kr/english/index.htm>.
- [15] As of December 2004, the Constitutional Court has declared 418 articles of laws (statutes, presidential decrees, etc.) unconstitutional and revoked about 214 governmental actions. On 14 May 2004, the Constitutional Court dismissed the National Assembly's presidential impeachment request and ruled that President Roh's powers be restored so that President Roh Moo-hyun resumed his presidential duties, which had been suspended for 63 days. For more information, visit the Constitutional Court's homepage at <http://www.court.go.kr/english/index.htm>.
- [16] Now government reform is not just a domestic issue but a global one. There is competition, to a certain extent, among countries as well as between various governments for better innovation.
- [17] Although capacity building is not limited to international aid work (these international organizations, often of the UN family, usually provide much capacity building as a part of their general work), but also by bilaterally funded entities or by private sector consulting firms or non-governmental organizations.
- [18] They are: (1) leadership capacity; (2) strategic capacity; and (3) diagnostic capacity. In line with recommendations embodied in recent documents of the United Nations, the *World Public Sector Report* (UN/DESA, 2005: 14) underscores certain other related requirements: (1) competence in public policy planning and development; (2) competence in policy and programme implementation; (3) competence in human resources management and development; (4) competence in the management of money, materials, information and technology; and (5) competence in performance measurement, monitoring and evaluation.
- [19] The mission of the (American) National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA) is to ensure excellence in education and training for public service and to promote the ideal of public service. Its homepage is <http://www.naspaa.org>.
- [20] According to the NASPAA, coursework for MPA or MPP candidates typically includes required core courses and a concentration or specialization. MPA core courses often include human resources, budgeting and financial processes, information systems, policy and programme formulation, implementation and evaluation, decision-making and problem-solving, political and legal institutions and processes, economic and social institutions and processes, organization and management concepts and behaviour, and ethics. Coursework for MPP candidates typically includes required core courses and a concentration or specialization. Core courses often include statistics and data analysis, public finance,

- microeconomics and macroeconomics, research design, programme evaluation, public policy, organization and management concepts and behaviour, and ethics.
- [21] A course on collective bargaining is reasonably well developed in Western countries so that it may not be a critical issue. In South Korea, however, industrial democracy in the private sector and management–labour relationship in government became a tough issue. Public unions have been restricted in South Korea for a long time, but it is now growing fast. The voice of public unions is critical, so the management–labour relationship and arbitration has become a vital issue in government.
 - [22] Even for low- and middle-level employees, an average training time per year is approximately 35 hours which is far less than Singapore and many other multinational companies.
 - [23] There are many training programmes for the lower and middle levels, but there are almost no HRD programmes for higher-level executives, except for director-general-level officials (SCS members).
 - [24] The author is indebted to the comments made by an anonymous reviewer of this article.
 - [25] Although specific needs and contents for capacity building might be different from country to country, international organizations such as the United Nations, the World Bank, and other leading international organizations should continuously promote opportunities for capacity building, particularly for institutional and leadership capacity in developing countries.
 - [26] It is hard to adapt best practice immediately to our own situation. For example, developing nations cannot introduce the New Zealand model for several reasons. During the past decade New Zealand has introduced far-reaching reforms in the structure and operation of government departments and agencies. After that, the New Zealand model has attracted interest in developing countries because it promises significant gains in operational efficiency. But Allen Schick (1998: 123) suggests that basic reforms should be undertaken first to strengthen rule-based government and pave the way for robust markets in developing countries. Schick warns that most developing countries should not try the New Zealand reforms. There should be a different path of reforms for developing countries.
 - [27] Even Korea, after independence in 1945 adopted a Western political system; it was an almost perfectly designed system, but a few years later it failed. A perfect system sounds good, but there was no guarantee of implementation in our situation.
 - [28] Trust is declining over time around the world. If we take an example of trust in government in America from the 1960s until today, except in periods of crisis when we can see a rise in trust such as the Vietnam War, the Iran–Contra crisis and 9/11, the degree of trust in government is declining over time. During these periods of crisis there was a periodic rise in trust whereas in peacetime there is a steady decline in trust (National Election Studies on Trust-in-Government Index: http://www.umich.edu/~nes/nesguide/toptable/tab5a_5.htm). This trend would appear to be similar around the world. The question, therefore, is, ‘How can we build up trust in our government?’ Needless to say, this has many implications of strategy for further development.

References

- Agranoff, R. and McGuire, M. (2003). *Collaborative Public Management: New Strategies for Local Government*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Alter, C. and Hage, J. (1993). *Organizations Working Together*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Andresani, G. and Ferlie, E. (2006). ‘Studying Governance within the British Public Sector and Without’, *Public Management Review*, 8 (3): 415–431.
- Bingham, L., Nabatchi, T. and O’Leary, R. (2005). ‘The New Governance: Practices and Processes for Stakeholder and Citizen Participation in the Work of government’, *Public Administration Review*, 65 (5): 547–558.

- Bourgon, J. (2006). 'Responsive, Responsible and Respected: Towards a New Public Administration Theory', IIAS's Braibant Lecture, Brussels, Belgium.
- Cheung, A. (2007). 'Executive-Led Governance or Executive Power "Hollowed-Out": The Political quagmire of Hong Kong', *Asian Journal of Political Science*, 15 (1): 17–38.
- Christensen, T. and Lægreid, P. (eds) (2001). *New Public Management: The Transformation of Ideas and Practice*. Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Donahue, J. and Nye, J. (eds) (2003). *For the People: Can We Fix Public Service?* Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- East Asian Institute (2005). 'Governance Change: Influence and Trust'. Access to the Opinion Survey Date available at: <http://www.eai.or.kr> (in Korean).
- East Asian Institute (2006). 'Governance Change: Influence and Trust'. Access to the Opinion Survey Date available at: <http://www.eai.or.kr> (in Korean).
- Farnham, D. and Horton, S. (eds) (1996). *Managing the New Public Services*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Farnham, D. et al. (2005). *Staff Participation and Public Sector Reform*. New York: Palgrave.
- Ferlie, E., Ashburner, L., Fitzgerald, L. and Pettigrew, A. (1996). *The New Public Management in Action*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Frederickson, G. (1997). *The Spirit of Public Administration*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Frederickson, G. and Smith, K. (2003). *The Public Administration Primer*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Gazley, B. and Brudney, J. L. (2005). 'Volunteer Involvement in Local Government after September 11: The Continuing Question of Capacity', *Public Administration Review*, 65 (2): 131–142.
- Goodsell, C. T. (2006). 'A New Vision for Public Administration', *Public Administration Review*, 66 (5): 623–635.
- Haveri, A. (2006). 'Complexity in Local Government Change: Limits to Rational Reforming', *Public Management Review*, 8 (1): 31–46.
- Hood, C. (1991). 'A Public Management for All Seasons?', *Public Administration*, 69 (1): 3–19.
- Huxham, C. (2003). 'Theorizing Collaboration Practice', *Public Management Review*, 5 (3): 401–423.
- Joong-Ang Daily (2006). 'Influence and Trust in Korean Society', 15 August, p. 1. Available at: <http://www.joins.com> (in Korean).
- Karmack, E. (2000). 'Globalization and Public Administration Reforms', in J. Nye and J. Donahue (eds), *Governance in a Changing World*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Kettl, D. F. (2006). 'Managing Boundaries in American Administration: The Collaboration Imperative', *Public Administration Review*, 66 (special issue): 10–19.
- Kim, P. S. (2000). 'Administrative Reform in the Korean Central Government', *Public Performance and Management Review*, 24 (2): 145–160.
- Kim, P. S. (2003). 'Strengthening the Pay–Performance Link in Government: A Case Study of Korea', *Public Personnel Management*, 41 (4): 447–463.
- Kim, P. S. (2004). 'Management Innovation of Quasi-Governmental Agencies in Korea', *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 69 (4): 535–552.
- Kim, P. S. and Kim, K. (2001). 'Appraising the New Institutional Arrangements for Privatization of Korean SOEs', *International Journal of Public Administration*, 24 (5): 423–446.
- Lazonick, W. and O'Sullivan, M. (2000). 'Maximizing Shareholder Value: A New Ideology for Corporate Governance', *Economy and Society*, 29 (1): 13–35.
- Leach, W. (2006). 'Collaborative Public Management and Democracy: Evidence from Western Watershed Partnerships', *Public Administration Review*, 66 (special issue): 100–110.
- Lynn, L. E. (1997). 'The NPM as an International Phenomenon: A Skeptical View', *Advances in International Comparative Management*, 3: 105–112.
- Lynn, L. E. (2001). 'The Myth of the Bureaucratic Paradigm: What Traditional Public Administration Really Stood For', *Public Administration Review*, 61 (2): 144–160.

- McGuire, M. (2006). 'Collaborative Public Management: Assessing What We Know and How We Know It', *Public Administration Review*, 66 (special issue): 33–43.
- Milward, H. B. and Provan, K. G. (2000). 'Governing the Hollow State', *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 10 (2): 359–379.
- Newman, J. (2001). *Modernising Governance*. London: Sage.
- O'Leary, R., Gerard, C. and Bingham, L. B. (2006). 'Introduction to the Symposium on Collaborative Public Management', *Public Administration Review*, 66 (special issue): 6–9.
- Osborne, S. P. (2006). 'Editorial: The New Public Governance?', *Public Management Review*, 8 (3): 377–387.
- Powell, W. (1990). 'Neither Market nor Hierarchy: Network Forms of Organization', *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 12: 295–336.
- Rainey, H. G. (1997). *Understanding and Managing Public Organizations* 2nd edn. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Rhodes, R. A. W. (1994). 'The Hollowing Out of the State: The Changing Nature of the Public Service in Britain', *Political Quarterly*, 65 (2): 138–151.
- Riccucci, N. M. (2001). 'The "Old" Public Management Versus the "New" Public Management: Where Does Public Administration Fit In?', *Public Administration Review*, 61 (2): 172–175.
- Richards, D. and Smith, M. (2002). *Governance and Public Policy in the UK*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Saegert, S., Warren, M. R. and Thompson, J. P. (2001). *Social Capital and Poor Communities*. New York: Russell Sage.
- Schick, A. (1998). 'Why Most Developing Countries Should Not Try New Zealand's Reforms', *World Bank Research Observer*, 13 (1): 123–131.
- Schneider, M., Scholz, J., Lubell, M., Mindruta, D. and Edwardsen, M. (2003). 'Building Consensual Institutions: Networks and the National Estuary Program', *American Journal of Political Science*, 47 (1): 143–158.
- Sirianni, C. and Friedland, L. (2001). *Civic Innovation in America*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Stillman, R. (2004). *Public Administration: Concepts and Cases* 8th edn. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Stoker, G. (1998). 'Governance as Theory: Five Propositions', *International Social Science Journal*, 50 (155): 17–28.
- Stone, C. N., Henig, J. R., Jones, B. D. and Pierannunzi, C. (2001). *Building Civic Capacity*. Lawrence, KS: University Press of Kansas.
- Sutkus, A. (2007). 'Collaboration: A Critical Emerging Trend', *PA Times*, August, p. 4
- Talbot, C. (2006). 'Modernizing Government: The Way Forward—A Comment', *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 72 (3): 337–340.
- Teisman, G. and Klijn, E.-H. (2002). 'Partnership Arrangements: Governmental Rhetoric or Governance Scheme?', *Public Administration Review*, 62 (2): 197–205.
- Thompson, A. M. and Perry, J. (2006). 'Collaboration Processes: Inside the Black Box', *Public Administration Review*, 66 (special issue): 20–32.
- United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN/DESA) (2005). *World Public Sector Report: Globalization and the State—An Executive Summary (Part II)*. New York: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs.
- Vigoda, E. (2002). 'From Responsiveness to Collaboration: Governance, Citizens, and the Next Generation of Public Administration', *Public Administration Review*, 62 (5): 527–540.
- Weigel, W. (2003). 'The Cost of Governance: A Research Agenda', *German Working Papers in Law and Economics*, Volume 2003, Article 20. Available at: <http://www.bepress.com/gwp/default/vol2003/iss1/art20>.