Management and Computers

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2. Teach computer skills that are applicable in their professional environments, not unnecessary subjects taught because of the professor's area of expertise, such as highly sophisticated social science statistical techniques used only in academic (not applied) research.
3. Choose software that effectively and efficiently performs tasks, is available on a wide variety of computers, is menu driven, and is relatively low cost to increase the likelihood that students can use it in most public service agencies.
4. Make microcomputers as accessable to students as possible. This involves geographic location as well as hours of availability. Although there are agencies particularly interested in funding hardware acquisition for universities, it usually comes from the central university or college administration. Fortunately, most central administrators have begun to recognize these needs and are investing in computer labs, teaching facilities, etc. In many schools, undergraduates are even required to buy micros as freshmen, or the university provides them with micros which they pay for over time.

Finally, the most difficult aspect of implementation: Who will teach the use of computers? Public management programs may have to hire new faculty and/or retrain existing faculty.

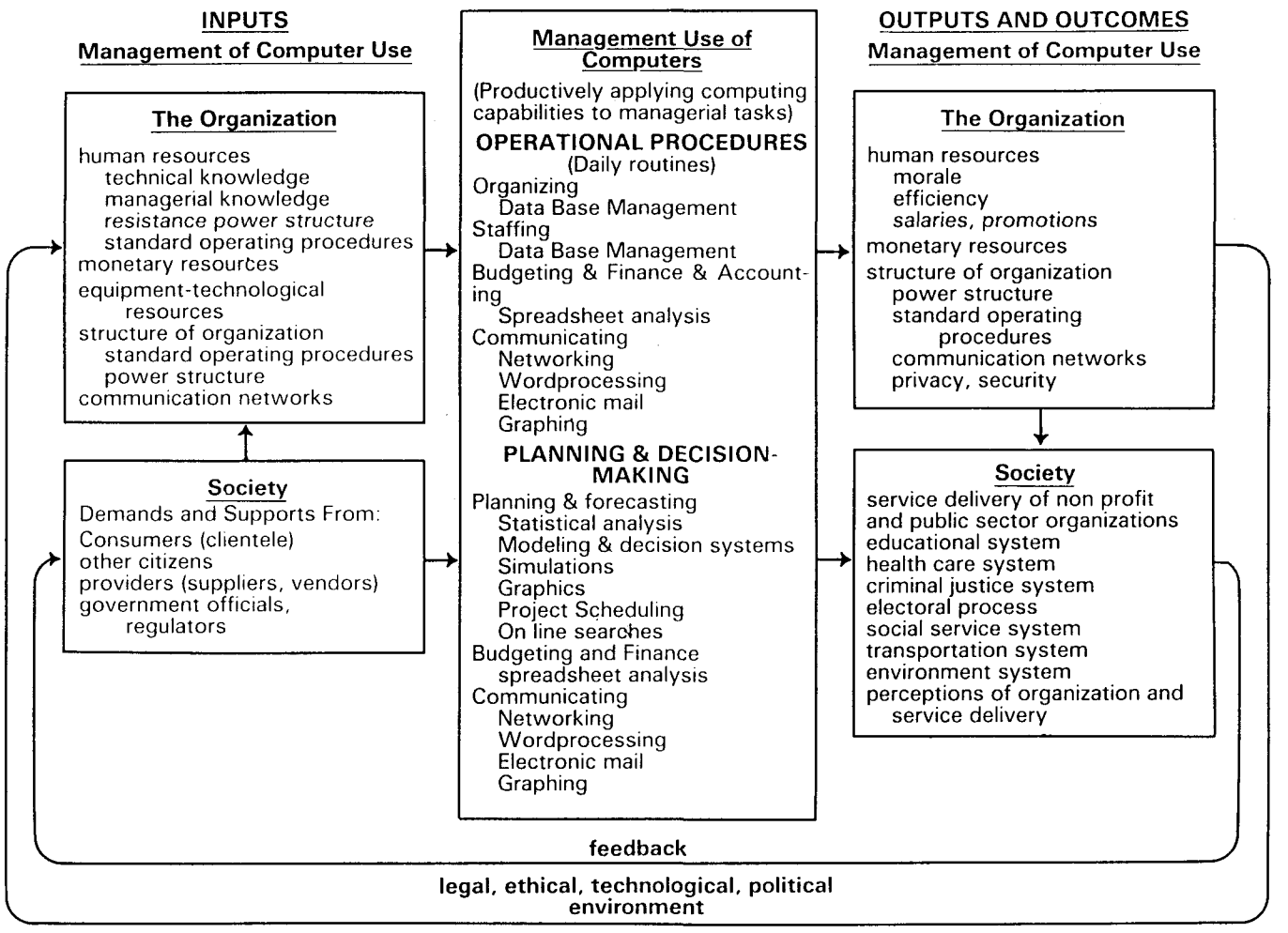
Obtaining new faculty in public sector MIS will be difficult, even if public management programs decide to allocate faculty positions to this area. Neither graduate business or public administration programs are producing enough graduates for faculty expertise. Recent AACSB statistics indicate that 19.1 faculty openings in MIS existed during the 1982-83 academic year for every new doctorate produced by business schools in the field (Kraemer and Northrop, 1984:23). Hiring faculty who are knowledgeable about public sector MIS is even more problematic, since there are only one or two public management schools just beginning to offer MIS as a doctoral field of study. As recently as 1982, King wrote, "Not a single major public administration program offers a strong concentration in computing and data processing for executives" (1982:33).

In the last three years, a handful of schools began providing these offerings. The necessity for retraining is obvious. This can be accomplished through campus-wide literacy efforts, departmental workshops and/or individual continuing education. Furthermore, at least two supports for retraining are available on the national level. A major step forward has already been taken by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). Two years ago, NASPAA's president, Gus Turnbull, formed the NASPAA Ad-Hoc Committee on Computers in Public Management Education to make recommendations for integrating computers into the public management curriculum. The Committee produced a document entitled "Curriculum Recommendations for Computers in Public Management Education." It was presented at the annual meeting of NASPAA in November, 1984 and was published in its entirety and in a summarized version in various public adminstration journals.

A second major step has been taken by the Social Science Research and Instructional Computing Laboratory of North Carolina State University. Its quarterly journal, *Social Science Microcomputer Review*, published by Duke University Press, includes articles on curricula, book reviews, software, hardware, teaching techniques, etc. Furthermoe, this year the same group formed Polinet and Socnet, electronic communications networks for political science-/public administration and sociology professors interested in exchanging ideas.

In a recent article in *Public Administration Review*, Griesemer, a noted expert on the use of micros in local government, stated, "In the near term, a major challenge facing virtually every local government employer is the need to expand employee computer literacy at all levels of the organization" (1984:58). This is true of all public service organizations, including hospitals, voluntary agencies, museums, charitable organizations, etc. As educators of public managers, we cannot afford to use valuable classroom time teaching only sophisticated, academically-oriented statistical techniques and interactive computing on the mainframe, just because that is what we learned in graduate school. Neither can we afford to teach only electronic spreadsheets and data base management programs. We must keep abreast of the ever changing computer needs of students who are or will be public service managers. Our task is to evaluate the total curricula in terms of the complete MIS system, retrain our faculty, and systematically integrate computer use into courses to clearly enhance the ability to use computers to manage and to manage the use of computers.

SYSTEMATIC FRAMEWORK FOR INTEGRATING COMPUTERS INTO PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION CURRICULA



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Letters

Microcomputers

Dear Editor:

I was so pleased to read Robert Rittle's "Training Administrators to Use Microcomputers" in the Winter 1985 edition of the *NEWS*. However, I strongly disagree with his contention that word processing should not be taught in a beginning microcomputer course.

Rittle argues that word processing should be excluded because it is hard to predict which package a student will eventually use and that a computer literate person can learn to use one on the job. Such an argument misses the entire thrust of beginning microcomputer education. In teaching beginners, the idea is as Rittle aptly states, to teach "...basic concepts which provide a general foundation in computerized information processing."

In building a general foundation, a course should not try to make students masters of any particular software package. Only the basics of the major types of application software should be covered. Give the students a foundation in each application to aid their learning the particular program they encounter. Anything more may be a waste of time if not a hinderance in learning another package. Rittle's argument implies that in order to teach word processing, there must be a detailed examination of a particular package. Such is not the case and should not be the case.

Rittle's second argument that a computer literate person can teach him or herself word processing may be true, but misses the point of microcomputer training. As much as possible, beginners should be shown how microcomputers can help their work. Word processing is a wonderful application for this purpose. Data base management and spreadsheet

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Microcomputer Training

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software cannot really be appreciated for individual purposes or without hours of training. Beginners can see a return quite quickly with word processing. Word processing can save time producing reports and term papers. Such a return encourages students to learn more about microcomputing as well as increasing their class enthusiasm.

Word processing is easily the most common application of the microcomputer. I do not believe Rittle's arguments can withstand the importance of political science students being introduced to this essential administrative tool.

David Coursey
University of Alabama at Birmingham

Model U.N.

Dear Editor:

As a former skeptic of model UN simulations, and now a convert to them, I feel that there are some statements by Paul Diehl and Michael Montgomery ("An Assessment of Simulations on an International Organization," *NEWS,* Fall, 1985) which need some clarification. A classroom simulation on the United Nations for students at small colleges won't work very well if one only has 12 students. Similarly, model UN simulations that try to duplicate exactly every major committee/commission/bloc of the UN often fail because they try to do too much. Students find themselves so busy trying to meet schedules that there is little time for meaningful caucusing with other delegates, let alone with members of their own delegation.

The quality of performance by students in model UN programs is directly related, for the most part, to the amount of work they and their faculty advisor/instructor are willing to put in. For example, students at my college have a great portion of their model UN experience devoted to the study of international organizations, the history and evolution of the United Nations, etc., plus a detailed study of the country which they represent, including such features as the political, economic, and social structure of the country. Hence, the statement that "After a school applies, is accepted, and assigned a particular national role, little remains for the instructor to do," can not be put in such broad terms.

To say that "the education goals and objectives (if any) of the conference are unlikely to be precisely those of the instructor" is not a fair statement. I don't expect my students to learn the structure and operation of the UN at the simulation; I expect them to learn some things about how international diplomacy and negotiations work. I want them to broaden their horizons; I don't want them to think like Americans, I want them to learn that there are numerous international issues that go beyond the front-page items in the newspapers. In sum, I want them to learn about issues and ways of thinking that are direct challenges to their American socialization.

The authors cited their experience with a Byelorussian delegate who failed to follow the lead of the Soviet Union. Yet, I can also point to an instance when, during Security Council debate, the delegates were about to pass an inane resolution attacking the Soviet Union. The Soviet delegate said firmly and clearly that if that resolution passed, he would exercise the veto on every remaining issue under discussion. Suddenly, things returned to normal.

Granted the cost of model UN participation may be high. But, for many colleges, there are few, if any, opportunities for intercollegiate academic activity. Compared to the cost of fielding a football team or having a competitive basketball program, model UN is well worth it. Non-athletic students have the right to engage in intercollegiate activities, too. In fact, the extent of support that I receive from the college administration and colleagues is overwhelming. They see North Central students in model UN as just as important to the image of the college as they do the athletic teams.

Model UN is not only for political science students. Over the years, I have had students from such diverse disciplines as history, foreign languages, economics, international business, etc. These students clearly understood how their model UN experience enhanced their majors and their future professional life. Furthermore, the students gained an appreciation for the need to understand information beyond the normal scope of their study, i.e., economics students had to wrestle with the political devices that determine economic outcomes in international arenas.

I would conclude that there are ways for model UN delegates to make the simulation experience the best that it can be. Just like other classes, it involves hard work and some teamwork. For example, researching UN topics is not always easy, and not everyone has a UN depository library within easy access. But students learn that contact with missions in New York, consulates around the country, and the UN itself can provide the necessary information to give them the expertise they need to role play a country. They learn that a resolution has to go through many drafts, that persuasive arguments and not showmanship gain results, and, in the last analysis, they do learn an important lesson about the UN: it may not be perfect, but it happens to be one very important arena within which international relations is conducted, warts and all.

David A. Frolick
North Central College

A Laboratory of Democracy

by Charles L. Kennedy, Pennsylvania State University, York

And so in the Libyan fable, it is told
That once an eagle, stricken with a dart
Said when he saw the fashion of the staff
With our own feathers, not by other hands
Are we now stricken!

AESCHYLUS

My father operates a funeral home in a small town in the mountains of western Pennsylvania. The letters on the sign outside the funeral home were 2¾". According to the state inspector, the letters were supposed to be 3" high. Because they were ¼" short, a new sign had to be bought — costing $200,000.

Introduction

A crisis of confidence has gradually evolved in our governmental institutions. People no longer look on government as a glorious and shining Camelot, capable of handling all problems; people now perceive government as a great grey maze of bureaucratic indifference, where all actions are suspect. I believe that a major part of this malaise is directly attributable to the twin debilitations of over-regulation and the application of unwise regulations.

John T. Dunlop, Secretary of Labor under President Carter, identified several problems with the traditional regulatory process in an unpublished paper, "Regulatory Analysis and Reform": 1) It encourages simplistic thinking about complicated issues. 2) Policies that appear straightforward often have unintended consequences creating problems as severe as those the regulations were originally intended to deal with. 3) The rule-making and adjudicatory procedures of regulatory agencies tend to be very slow, creating conflicts between the different groups involved, and leading to weak and ineffective remedies for the people the programs aimed to help. 4). The rule-making and adjudicatory procedures do not include a mechanism for the mutual accommodation among the conflicting interests. 5) A further problem is what is called 'regulatory overlap,' where a number of different agencies share some of the same responsibilities. 6) Regulatory efforts are rarely abandoned even after their purpose has been served.

The problems of the regulatory system have imposed an immense burden on business and industry in the U.S. These problems include: higher costs, misallocation of resources, slower technological advances, lagging productivity, conflicting regulations, delays, obsolete regulations, and higher prices.

Frustration with the regulatory process peaked in 1980. The following statistics have been witness to this frustration: 1) There were 7704 federal forms approved by the Office of Management and Budget (4400 did not apply to taxes and banking). 2) It took an estimated 143 million man hours (71,500 man/years) to complete these forms. 3) The paperwork cost alone amounted to $32 billion per year. 4) It cost $120 billion per year to comply with all governmental regulations. 5) Spending by all federal, state, and local regulatory agencies increased from $95.4 billion in 1970 to $152.6 billion in 1980. 6) In 1980, there were 80,000 pages of regulations in the *Federal Register*.

William Simon, former Secretary of Treasury, best stated the frustration of the business community, "the government has been massively strong where it should be restrained, pathetically weak where is should be strong. We have a federal government that has told us how our toilet seats should be shaped but could not prevent our embassies from being sacked or our citizens taken hostage."

There has been enormous impetus over the past several years to introduce and adopt various regulatory reform measures. Generally these recommendations for reform include the following items, as put forth by John T. Dunlop: 1) The parties who will be affected by a set of regulations should be involved to a greater extent in the development of those regulations. 2) Anachronistic and unnecessary regulations should be repealed and, in the future, rules should be promulgated with greater reluctance. 3) Greater emphasis should be placed on helping regulatees achieve compliance, especially through consultation. 4) The activities of the various regulatory agencies need to be coordinated better. 5) Regulations must be made to reflect differences between industries, sectors, and geographic regions. 6) The actions of the various regulatory agencies need to be brought into greater harmony with collective bargaining.

Dr. C. Lloyd Brown-John classified the various regulatory reform proposals in his excellent article, "Consultative Regulation" in *Policy Options Politiques*. He classified the proposals according to two areas — alternatives to traditional modes of regulations and alternate modes of developing regulations. Under the first heading, alternatives to traditional regulation, he examined three concepts: a system known as the Frequency of Inspection Levels (FOIL), Self-Regulation, and Regulatory Negotiation. Under the heading alternate modes of developing regulations he classified three alternative techniques: the Consensus Approach, Regulatory Agendas, and Regulatory Budgets.

The Fox Model

Of all of these proposals, the most practical and workable would seem to be the Consensus Approach, especially since it encompasses all of the recommendations for reform, as previously summarized by John T. Dunlop.

It should be emphasized that the consensus proposal is primarily applicable to social regulation affecting conditions of work such as health, safety, and discrimination, as distinguished from economic regulation of prices, rates, fees, and market entry. The consensus approach offers an excellent opportunity to policymakers to develop creative problem-solving and innovative approaches to regulatory reform. This consensus approach was strongly advocated by Dr. J. Ronald Fox of the Harvard Business School in his article, "Breaking the Regulatory Deadlock," in the *Harvard Business Review,* September-October, 1981.

Fox deplored the present regulatory process based on conflict and adversarial relationships. He wrote:

> Our regulatory procedures encourage conflict among the parties at interest.... Where highly technical issues are involved, as in energy regulation, consumer product safety, occupational health and safety, and environmental pollution, reasonable and effective solutions to problems rarely result from the adversary process.

Fox advocated a *regulatory partnership* that can prevent extreme stands and provide solutions that satisfy all factions. In his partnership alternative, "representatives of business, government, labor, and other

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