

**RESEARCH AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AT
NATIONAL SCHOOLS OF GOVERNMENT**

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Executive Summary

Background

The Canada School of Public Service (the School) is the Government of Canada's equivalent of a national school of government. The School provides a wide range of training and development services including language training, orientation training, specific skills training for functional communities, management training and executive development. Since 2006, the School's services have been open to competition from outside providers. This competition, combined with an overall climate of fiscal restraint, has led to changes in the way the School develops and delivers its programs. Whereas in the past many of the School's products were developed and/or delivered by external consultants serving as subject-matter experts (SMEs), the School has begun to have more of its curriculum developed in-house.

The Innovations and Best Practices (IBP) Division is a research group located in the School's Strategic Directions, Program Development and Marketing Branch. IBP conducts research into public management and public administration, partnering and collaborating with organizations both within and outside of the Government of Canada. Although some of its research products have been integrated into the School's curriculum, curriculum development has never been the main purpose of IBP research. However, as the School develops more content in-house, IBP is being asked to be more involved in the process. IBP wishes to examine the role of research and research groups in other national schools of government. This report addresses the following question:

What is the relationship between in-house research and in-house curriculum development in national schools of government?

Literature review

A broad-ranging literature review of public servant training and of the roles of national schools of government over the last 30 years was undertaken as part of the report. Training trends in Western, post-communist and in less-developed countries (LDCs) have been influenced by the reforms and modernization efforts that have occurred in these countries, and are most obvious at the more senior levels of the public service. Public servant training is a means of increasing efficiency, of boosting employee morale, of increasing innovation, and of helping governments to advance their agenda. Administrative and political transitions, including European Union (EU) integration and the collapse of communism, have also been major reasons for training. Modernizations starting in the 1980s known as New Public Management (NPM) attempted to instill private sector management techniques and efficiency into the public service. As a result management training therefore became an important training need in this era. Nearer the millennium, training emphasis has been on leadership development, with increased emphasis on values training and policy development. There are however marked differences between Western countries in the details of training trends, which reflect major changes in the sociopolitical landscapes. In the current era of austerity, training budgets are being reduced.

The literature shows that defining public service training providers is conceptually challenging. Few patterns can be discerned other than some relationship between a country's population and

the diversity of institutional arrangements. Despite the variation identified, many governments have some form of institution that can be described as a national school of government. The most obvious trend that has occurred over the past three decades has been an increase in the use of in-service training and a consequent decrease in pre-entry training as well as a reduction in the role of national schools of government. Changes in training have often placed these schools in competition with outside providers.

Curriculum development in the context of public servants comprises three steps: needs analysis; design and delivery; evaluation, a process that does not differ substantially from curriculum development in other sectors. Needs analysis is commonly identified through consultation with senior management and with government departments. Many national schools of government rely on external contractors including professors, consultants or practitioners to deliver their courses. Of all the areas of curriculum development, evaluation has received the most attention but the evaluation of the return of investment remains a difficult outcome to measure.

Little attention has been paid to the role of research at national schools of government, and details of the research done at the national schools of government in support of curriculum are difficult to obtain. There are however interesting examples of research in support of curriculum in some jurisdictions. Larger government priorities often shape the research agendas of national schools of government.

Methodology

The methodology used for this study was interviews. Thirteen interviews were conducted between March and June of 2011. Eight of these were with School officials and five were with representatives from international national schools of government or similar organizations involved in public servant training organizations. These were: The Australia and New Zealand School of Government (ANZSOG); the Civil Service College (Singapore); The National School of Government (United Kingdom); the Nederlandse School voor Openbaar Bestuur (NSOB) (The Netherlands); the Bureau Algemene Bestuursdiens (ABD) (The Netherlands). The interviews were based on a standard set of questions agreed upon in consultation with IBP. Interviews were semi-structured, allowing for the interviewer to stick to the questions while also having the flexibility to follow up interesting information mentioned during the interviews. All interviews were recorded by digital recorder – with the interviewee’s permission – and were transcribed by the interviewer. Transcripts were returned to interviewees within a week of the interview date. Interviewees were asked to clarify anything in the transcripts at their leisure.

The questions used for the School interviews were similar to those used for international interviews. The only major difference related to questions on curriculum development. Whereas international interviewees were asked two questions related to curriculum development, School interviewees were given one question that was supplemented by a diagram that attempted to map out the existing process prior to the 2011 reorganization. It was meant to be a starting point to get interviewees thinking about how curriculum is developed at the School. Interview transcripts were cut and pasted into an Excel spreadsheet. They were then organized along themes and answers.

Interview findings

The Innovations and Best Practices (IBP) Division was identified as a source of research within the School, but the Programs and Operations Branch was the most commonly identified source. IBP was generally seen as a source of in-depth research and of case studies. Most interviewees were unsure of the exact mandate of IBP and indicated that it was disconnected from the School. It was not seen as the main source of in-house research for the School. Respondents were unclear how IBP's research priorities were developed, or thought that these were developed with little consultation with the School. Research products produced by IBP were generally regarded as supplementary content rather than as central to curriculum development by the School. One exception to the limited integration of IBP's products into the curriculum was the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards, with their success being attributed to their easy-to-use format. The majority of interviewees was dissatisfied with the current relationship between IBP's research and the School's curriculum, and thought that IBP should focus more on support of curriculum development for the School. A variety of different scenarios were suggested to better integrate IBP's research into the School's curriculum development needs, with the only common scenario being of loaning IBP researchers on an "as needs basis" to work with School members in the program area. Respondents recognized that the relationship between IBP's work and curriculum development had become stronger in the previous two years, attributing this to improved communication and self-promotion by IBP. The Matchmaking Project and the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards were given as examples.

The international National Schools of Government interviewed were characterized by considerable differences of organization, in context and in their dynamics; two had undergone organizational changes within the last decade, one of which (the UK's National School) was disbanded in March 2012. Programs varied from one-day seminars to Strategic Leadership Courses to a variety of Master's level programs. All presented interesting and important contrasts and comparisons with the School in how research was prioritized, planned and undertaken. Most described their curriculum development process as "informal". Research priorities were determined in a variety of ways, and involved multiple influences including both researchers' own interests and curriculum needs, such as the development of case studies. There was a conflict between the sometimes time-consuming and delayed nature of some types of research and the immediate needs to curriculum developers. The organization of, and attitudes apparent in, the different national schools of government represent important models for the School as it serves the ever-changing needs of government.

Discussion

National Schools of Government frequently undergo changes, often as the result of economic and political changes. These changes can influence training itself, organizational structure and even lead to the creation of the new organizations. The actual relationship between research and curriculum development may also change over time.

Curriculum development was described as "informal" or "ad-hoc" by the majority of experts at the School, as well as the majority of experts interviewed at other organizations. Interviewees at the School saw the diagram as overly formalized, especially when it came to the role of the Executive

Committee. At the international level all organizations except Singapore's Civil Service College described curriculum development as an informal process. Evidence from the interviews and the literature surveyed indicates the degree of formalization varies depending on the recipients of training. In particular, courses intended for senior management are more likely to go through more formal processes, at least in terms of needs analysis and evaluation. Differences in responses between organizations that offer degree-granting modular programs indicates that the type of program may also influence curriculum development. Outside of these areas, few points of comparison emerged relating curriculum development at the organizations profiled. This lack of commonalities may be more the result of methodological differences between curriculum development questions posed to international organizations and those at the School. One area was some correspondence between the interviewees and the literature was in regards to competency frameworks.

Interviews and the literature scanned revealed multiple understanding of research and multiple activities that could be considered research. Overall, there was no single common understanding of what is meant by research. The majority of those spoken with at the School and international organizations took broad views of research. These broader views considered non-traditional activities such as evaluation, needs analysis and scanning to be research. This broad view was not shared by everyone. Even among those who did take a broader view of research, there was an implicit recognition of more "practical" research such as evaluation and more "in-depth," "bigger picture," or "academic" research. Traditional research outputs – in particular publications – were often used to illustrate this difference.

The different understanding of research influenced responses regarding the relationship between research and curriculum development. Those who considered non-traditional research activities such as evaluation, needs analysis and scanning to be research, associated the activities readily and exclusively with curriculum development. The relationship was more complex when it came to "bigger picture" research. At the School "bigger picture" research was almost exclusively associated with IBP. Although most respondents could name at least one IBP research project that had been turned into curriculum, curriculum development was not seen as the main purpose of IBP. There were varying levels of satisfaction with the present relationship, as well as varying opinions on whether curriculum development should be the main purpose of IBP. At the international organizations profiled, curriculum development is usually a purpose of research, but the extent of the relationship varied. Moreover, research appears to have a purpose outside of curriculum development. The relationship was strongest at Singapore's Civil Service College. However, purposes other than curriculum development have become more important in recent years. The relationship was less direct at ANZSOG and the National School. NSOB's think tank provided a different example of how curriculum development and research can be related. Rather than creating research to be used in curriculum, the two processes were said to "feed each other."

Outside of multiple understanding of research, multiple ideas of in-house were also apparent. Some counting the outside work of academics, consultants and graduate students as in-house. It is clear from the interviews and from the literature that not all research lends itself directly to curriculum development. Some interviewees within the School suggested that some of the School's business

lines, especially experiential leadership courses, would have little use for IBP-type research, at least in its current form. At the same time, the apparent popularity of the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards, suggests that certain outputs, especially those designed as learning material, lend themselves to being readily incorporated.

Communication and timelines were the two most frequently mentioned challenges related to bridging research and curriculum development. Many School interviewees indicated that there was a disconnect between the work of the IBP and the needs of curriculum developers at the School. This was attributed partly to IBP's own priorities, but also to overall communication issues. Interviewees who were more aware than others of IBP's work tended to express greater satisfaction with what they did. Just as members of the School talked about the fiscal context, overall resources capacity was mentioned as a challenge by several organizations. Although resource constraints are arguably more of a challenge for overall research than integrating research into curriculum development.

Many of the answers regarding how the relationship between research and curriculum development could be improved related to the challenges identified, many by those who identified them. Increased communication generally was identified by several interviewees at the School, as well as by the interviewee from Singapore, as the means by which the relationship could be improved. Another suggestion that was identified at the School, as well as at ANZSOG and Civil Service College, relates to the timing of communications. Specifically, projects should not be publicized not just at their conclusion but also at intervals during development. That success of this process at Civil Service College and ANZSOG supports the value of the suggestion.

Recommendations

The results of the interviews indicate several practices that could be adopted or enhanced by Innovations and Best Practice (IBP) to improve this overall relationship with the school and increase the dissemination. Three recommendations have been made.

1. *Increase visibility within the school* using both formal communication and consultation methods, such as the weekly Notebook, while continuing to build relationships informally.
2. *Time communication and consultation efforts strategically*, with a particular emphasis on communicating results throughout the duration of a project. IBP should also promote previously completed project if deemed relevant to a contemporary issue.
3. *Content creation should not be the only purpose of IBP*. However, IBP should consider focusing on subjects that are likely to be of interest to course developers, as well as producing outputs that can be easily adopted.

Conclusion

The relationship between in-house research and in-house curriculum development in national schools of government is complex and reflects differing understanding of the nature of research, of the meaning of "in-house" research, and the widely differing organization of public servant training internationally. The description of the history and current workings of the national schools provide critically important models for understanding of the variety of ways in which public servant

curriculum can be developed, delivered and evaluated, and of how research can support such development. Ultimately, the relationship between in-house research and in-house curriculum development will be affected by the nature of the public servant development required and the resources of time and financial support that can be devote to it.

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1 Introduction

Employee training and development are often cited as essential elements of organizational effectiveness. This is true for both private and public sector organizations. Whether it is providing orientation to new employees, teaching new skills, or developing future leaders, training and development are often cited as "key elements in modernizing government" (Johnson & Malloy, n.d., p.1) worldwide. In addition, they are recognized as a "key component for institutional capacity building" (Johnson & Malloy, n.d., p.1) for less-developed countries.

Many governments, especially Western ones, provide some form of training for their employees. This can occur in the form of extensive training at the beginning of a public servant's career, but more often takes the form of shorter periods of in-service training throughout their career.

Although multiple organizations are usually involved in training, some governments also have organizations that can be described as 'national school of government.' The term 'national school of government' is shorthand to describe institutions, usually within government, that share certain characteristics. They are almost always involved in training management and senior leadership, and are often involved in training employee groups who have national or central functions. These institutions are usually involved in research and (closely related) consulting.

1.1 Client: Innovations and Best Practices Division, Canada School of Public Service

The Canada School of Public Service (the School) is the Government of Canada's equivalent of a national school of government. The School provides a wide range of training and development services including language training, orientation training, specific skills training for functional communities, management training and executive development. Since 2006, the School's services have been open to competition from outside providers. This competition, combined with an overall climate of fiscal restraint, has led to changes in the way the School develops and delivers its programs. Whereas in the past many of the School's products were developed and/or delivered by external consultants serving as subject-matter experts (SMEs), the School has now begun to have more of its curriculum developed in-house.

The Innovations and Best Practices (IBP) Division is a research group located in the School's Strategic Directions, Program Development and Marketing Branch. IBP conducts research into public management and public administration. It partners and collaborates with organizations both within and outside of the Government of Canada. Although some of its research products have been integrated into the School's curriculum, curriculum development has never been the main purpose of IBP research. As the School develops more content in-house, IBP is being asked to be more involved in the process. IBP therefore commissioned this paper to inform this process. This report examines research and research groups in other national schools of government. It is based on the following research question:

What is the relationship between in-house research and in-house curriculum development in national schools of government?

In addressing this question, this report has the following three objectives:

1. To review and analyze how other national schools of government develop their curriculum and learning content.
2. To analyze the relationship between in-house research and in-house curriculum development in these organizations.
3. To recommend possible future directions for IBP.

In addressing the research question, the report reviews and analyzes the history of the organization of federal public servant training in Canada, and the current functioning and role of IBP in curriculum development, how other national schools of government develop their curriculum and learning content, and the relationship between in-house research and in-house curriculum development in these organizations. The report is set within the broader context of a review of the literature on trends in public servant training in the last 30 years, the changing concept of national schools of government and how these institutions have changed, as well as of curriculum development and research at national schools of government. The report recommends possible future directions for IBP.

2 Background

Background information on the Canada School of Public Service (the School) is presented, followed by background information on the School's Innovations and Best Practices (IBP) group.

2.1 Canada School of Public Service

This section begins with an overview of the School's enabling legislation, the Canada School of Public Service Act. This is followed by a discussion of the types of services offered by the School, with an organizational history of the School's programs. Then an outline is given of the programs and activities of the School's founding organizations along with their location and organization following the School's creation, followed by a discussion of the School's move towards in-house curriculum development. The section concludes by discussing recent attempts to create a formal curriculum development process.

2.1.1 Mandate

The School operates as a departmental corporation and is part of the Treasury Board's portfolio. The School was created in 2004 as a result of the Public Service Modernization Act (PSMA) that overhauled human resource management within the Government of Canada. As part of this restructuring, the PSMA created the School to provide a more unified approach to learning. The PSMA made amendments to the Canadian Centre for Management Development Act (continued as the Canada School of Public Service Act). Under the Act, the Canadian Centre for Management Development (CCMD) was renamed the Canada School of Public Service. The Act incorporated two other learning organizations under the school: Training and Development Canada (TDC) and Language Training Canada (LTC).

Besides merging the CCMD, TDC and LTC, the Canada School of Public Service Act provides a broad mandate for the School. Specifically, it requires the School to perform a wide variety of tasks related to supporting learning in the Federal Public Service. As noted on the School's website, the Act mandates the School to:

- Encourage pride and excellence in the public service;
- Foster a common sense of purpose, values and traditions in the public service;
- Support the growth and development of public servants;
- Help ensure that public servants have the knowledge, skills and competencies they need to do their jobs effectively;
- Support deputy heads in meeting the learning needs of their organizations; and,
- Pursue excellence in public management and administration.

(Canada School of Public Service, 2013)

The School plays a key role in Treasury Board's 2006 Policy on Learning, Training and Development, which establishes the School's roles and responsibility in areas such as required training, leadership development and professional development (Treasury Board of Canada Secretariat, 2006).

2.1.2 Specific Programs and Activities

The School primarily achieves its mandate through its learning programs and activities, each year offering more than 500 learning products. These range from one-day events, such as seminars and lectures, to longer training courses and ongoing development programs. Products are usually targeted at one or more of its six learning communities: all public servants, supervisors, managers, senior managers, senior leaders, and functional specialists. Catalogue offerings can generally be classified into two types of training: foundational training and organizational leadership development. The School also offers tailored learning products through memoranda of understanding (MOUs) with other departments. In addition, the School engages in a broad range of other activities, often in collaboration with other organizations.

Foundational Learning

More than half of the School's offerings can be classified as foundational learning, which includes required training, professional development training and language training. Required training is that mandated by the Treasury Board. The most common form is orientation training for all public servants. The School also offers required training for supervisors, managers, senior managers, senior leaders and functional communities. Professional development includes courses geared towards all public servants, as well as specific development and certification courses for functional specialists. Language training includes both acquisition and maintenance and may be taken by all government of Canada employees.

Organizational Leadership

Organizational leadership offerings include leadership development programs for future leaders and professional development for existing leaders. The School runs several leadership programs designed for specific learning communities: iLeadership program for supervisors, Direction program for managers, Living Leadership program for managers, and Advanced Leadership Program for senior leaders. These programs usually take place over extended periods of time and include in-class, experiential and blended learning. The School also supports less formal leadership development activities, including networking activities within leadership communities.

Memoranda of Understanding Offerings

While any department may pay to send their employees for training listed in the School's catalogue, they may also purchase specific learning services through MOUs with the School. These may result in the School modifying a catalogue course specifically for the department. They may also result in further tailored training, such as customized language training. MOU courses are viewed by the School as a stable source of revenue, with the result that increasingly the number of MOU courses has become a priority.

Other Activities

In addition to foundational learning and organizational leadership activities, the School engages in other activities including consulting services and partnerships. Examples of consulting include its Strategic Change and Advisory Services, as well as its Coaching Services, which provide advice and facilitation for organizational and leadership development in departments. Partnerships can occur

both within and outside the government. Within the government, the School supports Learning Advisory Committees (LACs). These serve as forums for discussing learning and development requirements with Deputy and Associate-Deputy Ministers. The School also works with other learning networks such as the Network of Learning and Development Institutes (NLDI) and departmental training coordinators. Partnerships include the School's work with training institutions in other countries. Some include projects funded through the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA).

2.1.3 Organizational History of Programs and Activities

Most of the programs and activities included in the School's foundational learning category had their origins in Training and Development Canada (TDC) and Language Training Canada (LTC). Likewise, most programs and activities that fall under the organizational leadership category had their origins in the CCMD. This section therefore provides an overview of the School's three founding institutions and describes how the functions of these institutions are organized within the School, including the changes brought about by the January 2011 reorganization.

Canadian Centre for Management Development

Founded in 1989, CCMD's creation subsumed the facilities of the Touraine Centre for Executive Development, a training centre that provided orientation training for senior managers. A board of governors that reported directly to the Prime Minister's Office ran the CCMD. Originally, the organization was intended as a provider of compulsory curriculum for executive and senior managers and was focused on providing them with "common knowledge" (CCMD, 2001b, p.22). This mandate changed following a program review in 1994/95 when the budget and staff received significant cuts. Courses became voluntary and focused exclusively on executives. During this phase, leadership and executive development programs, including the Accelerated Executive Development Program (AEXDP), were major components of CCMD's offerings. Starting in 1999, the CCMD expanded its work to lower-level managers, becoming increasingly concerned with the development of future leaders. It was also during this time that CCMD became more focused on cost recovery.

Training and Development Canada

TDC was founded in 1990. The organization was located in the Public Service Commission and had served as a "centre of expertise for work-related training and career development" (Canada School of Public Service, 2007b, p.5). The majority of TDC's work was geared towards supporting the following functional communities: human resources; finance; policy; information management, communication and finance; communications; and, material management and real property (Canada School of Public Service, 2007b).

Language Training Canada

LTC was founded in the 1964. Prior to the creation of the School, LTC had served as the Government of Canada's centre of expertise on language training as well as its "delivery arm supporting the Official Languages Act" (Canada School of Public Service, 2007b, p.3). Whereas CCMD and TDC were targeted at specific groups (i.e. managers and functional communities), LTC's

services were available to any employee in a position for which bilingualism was required. In addition, departments could also purchase LTC's services.

Incorporation into the School

When the School was created in 2004, the programs and activities of its founding institutions were placed into two of the School's six branches. TDC and LTC programs and activities were placed in the School's Individual Learning Branch (ILB). The programs and activities associated with the CCMD were placed under the School's Organizational Leadership and Innovation (OLI) Branch.

Reorganization into Programs and Operations Branch

A major reorganization of the School was announced effective January 5th 2011. More than 20 executive positions were eliminated and the number of branches at the School was reduced from six to three. Most of the organizations under OLI and ILB were merged into the newly created Programs and Operations Branch.

2.1.4 Move Towards In-house Curriculum Development and the Faculty Strategy

Since 2008 the School has been moving away from using external consultants to develop curriculum towards developing curriculum internally. This section provides the reasons for the move towards in-house curriculum development and discusses the School's most prominent policy for in-house curriculum development, the 'Faculty Strategy'.

Reasons for In-House Curriculum Development

The focus away from external consultants is the result of fiscal restraint and external competition. The School's revenue comes from annual budget allocations and cost recovery from clients (i.e. other departments) who purchase learning services. Presently, over half of the School's revenue is generated through cost recovery. The School is under financial pressure from both these revenue sources. The School lost 18 percent (more than \$7 million) of its annual budget during the 2009/10 strategic review. Government-wide fiscal restraint means that other departments now spend less on training, which reduces the School's revenue from cost recovery. Competition adds further to the challenges of fiscal restraint, since the Treasury Board's 2006 Common Services Policy opened the School to competition. This policy made optional the purchase of services from many common service providers, including the School.

It is within this challenging financial context that the School has moved towards in-house curriculum development. The move has both a quality and cost component. Consultants hired as subject-matter experts (SMEs) to develop or deliver curriculum can cost up to \$2000 per day. Internal SMEs cost the School less and have the advantage of being available to continually update the School's curriculum. In doing so, they build the School's internal capacity. The School has also responded to the financial pressures by increasing its efforts to ensure both the continued relevance and quality of its offerings. For example, in 2010 the School retired 56 of the School's learning offerings deemed to be no longer relevant. In addition, the School has placed increased emphasis on continually updating its offerings. This emphasis can be seen in the Management

Agenda for 2010/2011 that emphasizes 'evergreen' (i.e. continuously updated) curriculum (Canada School of Public Service, 2010a).

The Faculty Strategy

The move towards in-house curriculum development has occurred in several areas. There is less hiring of consultants and more hiring by the Programs and Operations Branch (formerly OLI and ILB) of staff with relevant expertise. The most prominent example of the move to in-house curriculum development is the School's Faculty Strategy. Since 2008 the School has recruited highly experienced current or former public servants to develop and deliver curriculum. They are usually, although not necessarily, current or former Government of Canada executives. They may work on an ad-hoc, part-time or full-time basis. The School views the use of experienced faculty as bringing credibility to the curriculum. The School describes faculty as "experts in the "Craft of Government" because they serve or have served Canadians and know the challenges facing the Public Service of Canada" (Canada School of Public Service, 2010b, p.2).

Curriculum Development

Prior to the 2011 reorganization there was no formal curriculum development process at the School. However, curriculum development often had some common elements. For example, in-house curriculum was generally developed in OLI and ILB. Most offerings were subject to evaluation and annual curriculum review, but there was no formal process linking curriculum priorities or ideas to the School's governance structure.

As a result of the reorganization, efforts are underway within the School's Priorities and Performance Division (Strategic Directions, Innovations and Programs Development Directorate; Strategic Directions, Program Development and Marketing Branch) to bring a more integrated approach to curriculum development using the Priorities and Performance Division's Integrated Innovation and Curriculum Development Approach. A visual description of the first draft of the approach is available in Appendix A. The new process attempts to establish and link curriculum or service priorities to a business case for developing the new product or services. This business case in turn feeds into the implementation and oversight, curriculum review and the results of the review processes.

2.2 Innovations and Best Practices

IBP is located in the Strategic Directions, Innovations and Program Development Directorate of the School's Strategic Directions, Program Development and Marketing Branch. IBP's name and institutional location has changed over the years. The current form of IBP was created during reorganization when OLI's University Relations Division was merged into the School's Best Practices Division and renamed as IBP. While most of the OLI Branch was incorporated into the new Programs and Operations Branch, the reorganization moved IBP into the School's Strategic Directions, Program Development and Marketing Branch.

2.2.1 Mandate under the Canada School of Public Service Act

At the broadest level, the work of IBP supports several functions of the School which is mandated by the Canada School of Public Service Act “to study and conduct research into the theory and practice of public sector management and public administration” under Section 4(g) of the Act. In addition, IBP’s partnerships support the School’s mandate to:

Encourage a greater awareness in Canada of issues related to public sector management, public administration and the role and functions of government, and to involve a broad range of individuals and institutions in the School’s pursuit of excellence in public administration

(Canada School of Public Service Act, 2003, Section 4(h)).

2.2.2 Work by IBP

Current and recent projects by IBP have focused on leadership and management competencies, and on new and emerging issues in public administration. Through this, IBP often engages with organizations both within and outside of the Government of Canada. Research on leadership and management competencies is broadly based on the Treasury Board’s four key leadership competencies: values and ethics, strategic thinking, engagement, and management excellence. The product of this research takes different forms, which may include case studies, research reports or other learning products. For example, research on strategic thinking led to the creation of a series of Advanced Executive Judgment Cards. The cards are designed as a learning tool that allows managers to flag explore and flag judgment issues that they frequently face (Stoyko, 2010).

IBP research regarding new and emerging issues in public administration has often taken place in conjunction with organizations both within and outside of the Government of Canada. An example of collaboration within the Government of Canada occurred in 2009 when the former Best Practices Division was involved in the Government of Canada’s Web 2.0 project. As part of the project the Division helped to create and support a Web 2.0 Practitioners Community. IBP also engages with the Canadian public administration community. For example, IBP manages the Innovative Public Management Research Fund that supports the “development, management and dissemination of leading-edge knowledge relevant to the Canada School’s mandate” (Canada School of Public Service, 2007a, p.17). Monies from the fund have been used by organizations including the Institute of Public Administration Canada (IPAC), the University of Western Ontario, and Dalhousie University for the purpose of developing case studies. The Fund disbursed \$239 000 in 2010/11 and \$275 000 in 2011/12.

IBP is also involved in international research collaboration. For example, IBP was involved in coordinating the Canadian contribution to the New Synthesis International Research Project “an international partnership of institutions and individuals...dedicated to the advancement of public administration” (New Synthesis World, n.d.).

2.2.3 Previous Work by IBP

The focus and type of research produced by IBP has changed over the years, often alongside changes to the name and the organizational location. This section provides information on the organizational history of IBP and concludes by discussing the implications of the 2011 reorganization for IBP.

CCMD: The Research Branch (1989-1995)

IBP's original predecessor was the CCMD's Research Branch, one of the three founding branches at CCMD. From 1989 to 1995 it was a significant component of the overall CCMD. The original mandate of the Research Branch was fairly comprehensive. As noted by Stoyko (2008), the Branch was involved in creating case studies for CCMD learning programs, transmitting up-to-date knowledge of the CCMD's learning directors, and studying learning methodologies. It published a diverse series of research on topics that included organizational effectiveness, governance and leadership, releasing more than 60 publications in its first five years.

The Research Branch was also responsible for administering various funds that contributed to relevant public administration organizations and engaged with universities in Canada through its visiting fellows program, which brought academics from across Canada to the CCMD. The Branch was also responsible for running the School's library.

CCMD: The Research and Documentation Branch (1995-1997)

In 1995, following the Government-wide Program Review Initiative, the Research Branch received large personnel cuts and was renamed the Research and Documentation Branch. As noted by Stoyko (2008), research topics reflected the climate of fiscal austerity, and thus included program review, government reorganization and change management. During this era the Branch moved from publishing studies on its own to publishing in conjunction with other organizations, such as the Conference Board of Canada and the Institute of Public Administration.

CCMD: The Strategic Research and Planning Branch (1997-2000)

In 1997 the Branch was renamed the Strategic Research and Planning Branch. In 1999 its client base began to expand from senior managers to middle managers; this, as indicated by Stoyko (2008), resulted in a more results-oriented approach by the Branch. Activities were re-focused towards action research. In 1999 the Branch established its Action Research Roundtable (AART) process. The AART process studied pressing topics that were often identified by senior officials within the Government of Canada. One of the major achievements of this era was the award-winning study on citizen-centered service delivery, which led to the foundation of the Citizen Centered Service Network.

CCMD: The Research and University Relations Branch (2000-2004)

In 2000 the Branch was renamed the Research and University Relations (UR) Branch. Although the Branch had always been involved with universities in some form, the Branch incorporated the School's University Relations strategy. As observed by Stokyo (2008), the focus on universities resulted from the recognition within the School that more work was needed to foster the public

administration community within Canada. During this era, research areas broadened and began to cover a wider variety of public administration topics, such as governance. Research was often published through the School's publication program and disseminated among Canadian universities.

The School: The Research Division and the University Relations Divisions (2004-2007)

Following the creation of the School in 2004, the Branch was placed under OLI along with most of the former CCMD programs. The Branch was split into two divisions, the Research Division and the University Relations Division, under the Innovation in Public Management Directorate. Both Divisions continued to work on activities similar to those they had done under CCMD. Although the Research Division's formal publication program was wound down during the period, it continued to conduct research on administration topics. The University Relations Division continued to work on the School's University Relations strategy.

The School: The Best Practices Division and the University Relations Divisions (2007-2011)

Following the creation of the School, the Research Division became increasingly focused on 'best practices' type of research. The Research Division was renamed as the Best Practices Division in 2007 and, along with the University Relations Division, was placed under OLI's Partnerships and Best Practices Directorate. Much of IBP's current work was initiated during this era.

The School: Innovations and Best Practices (2011-Present)

Although IBP has continued with similar work that it undertook as the Best Practices Division, the reorganization has in fact marked a major change for IBP's location. Whereas IBP had previously been located under a Branch involved in programs delivery, it is now located under a branch involved in strategic directions. The exact implications of this are not clear, but it is likely that IBP will become more involved with strategic planning within the School.

2.2.4 Integration of IBP Research into the School's Curriculum

This report is being completed in the context of the move to in-house curriculum development, since the School will likely ask IBP to become more involved in curriculum development. IBP research (unless otherwise noted the term 'IBP research' is used to describe any research produced by IBP or its organizational predecessors) has previously been incorporated into the School's learning programs and, before that, the CCMD's programs. However, most of the research that has been incorporated into programs had not been undertaken for the specific purpose of developing curriculum.

There are five general ways in which IBP research has been incorporated into the School's curriculum:

1. Through one-off events such as seminars or roundtables. An example of this occurred in 2008 when IBP members who were working on its Integrated Planning Project co-organized the ADM Symposium on Integrated Planning.

2. Through IBP researchers actively providing research material to course developers, who then build a course around the research. Several of the Action Research Reports produced by the CCMD, including those on Risk Management and Innovation, were subsequently turned into courses.
3. When IBP products are actively given to course developers who are creating a new course or revising an existing course. Unlike the above example, the research material is integrated into a larger course and does not form the basis of the course itself. An example of this occurred in 2008 when material from IBP's Integrated Planning Project was used for the designing and subsequent revisions of an ILB course on integrated planning.
4. When course developers decide to use IBP research material in their courses. This differs from the second and third examples in that this integration is the initiative of the course developers themselves. A common example is when a course developer uses an IBP case study or research report as part of their course material (e.g. a reading). However, because this is the individual initiative of the course-developer, IBP does not have a way of tracking this.
5. When IBP researchers develop products intended to be used as course material but without a specific course in mind. The Advanced Executive Judgment Cards are an example. They were not designed with a specific course in mind, but are being marketed to course developers and will likely end up being used in several School offerings.

These examples illustrate five different ways in which IBP research can be incorporated into School products. What they have in common is that the research projects or products were not designed for the specific purpose of creating content for a specific course. Even, as in the first three examples, when IBP actively organizes a learning event or works with course designers, creating the event or course is not the primary purpose of the research project or product but the result of a larger research project, even if the product becomes an important addition to a course or learning event. The same can be said for the fourth example. However, this differs from the first three in that IBP does not work with course developers and may not even be aware that their research has been used. The final example differs in that the research project is undertaken to create a specific learning product. However, the learning product is not developed for a specific course.

Because IBP research is usually integrated into School curriculum as part of a larger project and is not created for a specific course, integration is fairly ad-hoc. No formal model or system is in place to facilitate this. This is not inherently a problem in itself since IBP research has often supported other key functions of the School. However, a more formal and clearer process may be required once the School asks IBP to become more involved in curriculum development.

2010 Matchmaking Project

One of the first steps towards formalizing the integration of IBP research into the School's curriculum was IBP's Matchmaking Project. The Project, which began in 2010, put almost every report written by the IBP since 1989 into a database accessible to course developers. This was the first time that all reports were available in one place; previously IBP's reports had mostly been

disseminated within academic circles and were inconsistently available within the School. The project was completed in 2011.

3 Literature Review and Jurisdictional Scan

This review of public servant training has three purposes: first, to provide an overview of the major trends and issues in public servant training; second, to examine the types of institutions used to provide training; and third, to examine what has been written in the scholarly and professional literature on curriculum development, in-house research, and the relationship between the two at national schools of government.

The review is divided into four major sections:

1. *Trends in Public Servant Training Since the 1980s*. This examines the overall trends in public servant training over the past 30 years, a time frame chosen because many governments placed increased emphasis on training beginning in the 1980s.
2. *Organizational Arrangements for Training*. This explores the general definitions of public servant training institutions, discusses the concept of a national school of government and explores how these institutions have changed.
3. *Curriculum Development*. This section describes the steps in curriculum development and provides examples of how curriculum is developed at each step.
4. *Research at National Schools of Government*. This section defines the diverse activities that can be considered research, examines the relationship between research and curriculum development, and concludes by considering other purposes of research.

3.1 Trends in Public Servant Training Since the 1980s

Public servant training is undertaken to achieve a specific purpose. This purpose can be influenced by a government's organizational culture and institutional arrangements, as well as by the challenges facing particular governments and the political and administrative agendas of the day. These influences are apparent in the public servant training trends that have occurred over the past three decades. Training trends in Western countries (i.e. North America, Western Europe, and parts of Australasia), in post-communist countries (i.e. Eastern Europe and former Soviet Republics in central Asia) and in less-developed countries (LDCs) have been influenced by differences in the reforms and modernization efforts that have occurred in these groups of countries.

This section begins by examining the importance of training in the context of reform. It then examines public servant training in the West during the New Public Management (NPM) era and during the post-NPM era, and includes a brief discussion of training in the current era of austerity. Next, training trends in Eastern Europe and LDCs are discussed.

Public Servant Training During Periods of Reform, Modernization and Transition

Public servant training has multiple purposes. The Organization for Economic Development and Cooperation (OECD, 1997b) cites it as a means of increasing efficiency. The United Kingdom's (UK) Cabinet Office (Cabinet Office, 1996) as a way to boost morale and increase innovation. The Commonwealth Association for Public Administration and Management (CAPAM, 2005) identifies it

as a means for governments to implement and support their overall agendas. However, the influence of NPM reform was a particularly prevalent driver of training in the 1980s and early-to-mid 1990s. Indeed, in the late-1990s, the OECD (1997b) cites reform as the most common reason for in-service training (the most common form of public servant training) among Western countries. Since then the term modernization, which has often replaced the term reform, has become the most commonly cited reason for training. In addition, administrative and political transitions and transformations, including European Union (EU) integration (Maor, 2000) and the post-communist transition (OECD, 1997a, p.16), have also been major reasons for public service training.

A well-trained public service provides governments with the capacity to govern and to properly and successfully implement reforms, as well as to create continuity, stability and predictability. While these reasons apply to all governments, the OECD (1997b) makes the point that a well-trained public service in post-communist countries strengthens the public domain, allowing them “to mitigate the disruptive effects of an all too expansionist and selfish form of free market” (p.17). Many of the reasons listed by the OECD (1997a) have also been identified by other authors in the context of post-communist governments (e.g. Jabes & Ziller, 1996) and governments in general (e.g. Johnson & Malloy, n.d.).

3.1.1 Public Servant Training in the West During New Public Management

The onset of neo-liberalism in the 1980s saw the implementation of extensive government-wide reforms among a number of Western governments. The ideological climate of the time saw the state as bloated and inefficient. Attempts were made to reduce the overall size and role of government, albeit with varying levels of success. It also had a strong private sector ethos. Various governments – most notably the UK and New Zealand– undertook reforms that attempted to instill private sector management techniques and efficiency into the public service. In addition, what had previously been public services were contracted out and bureaucracies were also decentralized, for example by turning departments into agencies. These reforms ultimately became known as New Public Management (NPM) (Pollitt, 2012).

Although one of many NPM reform tools, management training gained increasing importance in many countries (OECD, 1997a), during a time when many governments were experiences cutbacks (Hunter, 1994). The adoption of public management training has been attributed to the popularity of management training in the private sector at the time (Borins, 1999; Savoie, 1992). Since NPM reforms were mainly inspired by private sector practices, it was natural for the public sector to place more emphasis on management training. Management training was seen as a way to instill a cultural change. For example, Reichard (1998) argues that management training was a means to instill NPM and thus to turn public servants into “new public managers” (p.178). Savoie (1990a) also suggests that by implementing NPM, governments found it easier to “see that government programs are better administered and government operations better managed” (p.272) than to reduce the size of government itself.

Expansion of Management Training in Some Countries

Because management training was a tool for NPM reforms, the 1980s saw the expansion of management training programs, especially for senior management, in several countries (OECD, 1996). At the individual government level, this trend has been documented in the UK (Duggett, 2000; Maor & Stevens, 1997) and the Netherlands (van der Meer, 2004) as well as in Savoie's (1990b) comparative study of management development in North America, Scandinavia, the UK and France. With the exception of France, the countries examined either created new, or significantly revamped management development programs. Although most of these countries – including Denmark (National School of Public Administration), Finland (State Training Center), the US (Senior Executive Service) and the UK (Civil Service College) – hosted and developed their programs within existing institutions, Canada (Canadian Center for Management Development) and Norway (School of Administration and Management for Senior Public Servants) developed such programs within new institutions. The new programs shared several common features. They tended to be longer in duration than previous management development programs and placed greater emphasis on teaching private sector style management. The programs were created by high-level political support and/or recommended by high-level commissions undertaken to examine management training.

However, the expansion of management training was not universal. For example, despite some NPM-type reforms in France, the approach of its *École Nationale d'Administration* (ENA) remained largely unchanged at the time of Savoie's (1990b) study. This is not surprising, given that both France and its ENA are well known for their unique model of public servant training. Reichard (1998) noted that management training expansion had relatively little influence in France, Italy and Austria. The author attributes these differences to the administrative cultures and education traditions of these countries.

3.1.2 Public Servant Training in the West after the NPM Era

The years leading up to the millennium saw a new wave of reform in some Western countries. Most notably, countries most often associated with NPM reforms – New Zealand and the UK – moved away from NPM (Lodge & Gill, 2010). In New Zealand, the strength of NPM reforms had slowed by the early 1990s (Dunleavy & Margetts, 2000). In the UK, the Labour Government's 1999 *Modernizing Government* white paper marked a departure from NPM. Several new training trends have been seen since the mid-1990s. These trends often reflect post-NPM reforms and ideas, as well as overall contemporary challenges (Dunleavy et al., 2006; Osborne, 2006; Pollitt, 2012; Stoker, 2006).

Leadership development was one area that received substantial attention. Although the increased focus on leadership was seen at all levels of government, the new efforts tended to be focused on senior levels of government (OECD, 2001). This period saw some existing management development programs change to increasingly focus on leadership, as well as the creation of new leadership development programs (OECD, 2001). These programs were focused both on developing existing leaders and on identifying and developing future leaders (OECD, 2001). Although the terms leadership and management are often used interchangeably and arguably overlap, the focus on leadership was a substantial shift from earlier training. The OECD (2001)

argues that the new focus on leadership differed from the “formal systems, processes and incentives” (p.15) often associated with management. The focus on leadership development emphasized different skills than prevalent in NPM, including those such as interpersonal skills, adaptability and flexibility (CAPAM, 2009; Ling, 2002; OECD, 2001).

The new focus on leadership was partially a response to the organizational effects of NPM. It has been argued that NPM’s organizational changes such as decentralization and the creation of agencies, led to fragmented government by producing “complex and diverse patterns of governance” (Lodge & Kalitowski, 2007, p.7). At the same time changes such as globalization, an increasing recognition of the importance of non-government actors in public policy (e.g. “pluralism,” Osborne, 2006), and information technology (IT) advances (Dunleavy et al., 2006) led to a more complex environment in which governments operate. In response to these challenges, the UK’s Modernizing Government agenda, which was an attempt to develop evidence-based rather than ideologically-based public policy, called for “joined-up government” (Cabinet Office, 1999a, p.2), a policy to make government departments work together. Although the UK’s Modernizing Government agenda was the clearest example of the call for joined-up government, the concept spread to other countries including Australia, Canada, the Netherlands, Sweden and the US (Ling, 2002).

NPM’s organizational fragmentation was also criticized for diluting organizational values (Evans, 2009; Lodge & Kalitowski, 2007). In addition, the idea that governments operate, or should operate, with values different from those of business led to increased questioning of the business-like philosophy of NPM (e.g. Stoker, 2006). Leadership training was seen not only as a way of decreasing organizational fragmentation (Lodge & Kalitowski, 2007; OECD, 2001) but also as a way of creating common organizational values (OECD, 2001). While building stronger leadership through training was a strategy to build common organizational values, many leadership programs increasingly adopted values as part of their overall focus (Pollitt & Op de Beeck, 2010).

Other Types of Training

While leadership training has partially focused on building organizational values and ethics, this type of training has also increased outside of leadership training. Many governments have placed increased focus on values and ethics training for all employees (Evans, 2009; OECD, 1996). While such training is part of the overall increase in the importance of public sector values, other factors have also had an effect. For example, the Government of Canada increased its ethics training following recommendations from the Gomery Commission into the sponsorship scandal (Axworthy & Burch, 2010).

As part of the overall focus on joined-up government, the UK’s Modernizing Government white paper called for an increased focus on joined-up policy, since policy development and implementation were often separated under NPM. A key recommendation of the report was that senior policy makers, including junior ministers, receive joint policy training (Cabinet Office, 1999a). The UK’s Civil Service College was reorganized into the Centre of Management and Policy Studies (CMPS) and placed in the Cabinet Office. In the years that followed, policy making was a major focus of the CMPS and later the National School of Government. Outside of formal training,

the UK's CMPS was also involved in overall facilitation of policy development through knowledge management and evaluation (Cabinet Office, 1999a).

While the UK's focus on policy making and policy training clearly came out of its post-NPM reforms, the picture elsewhere is less clear. Although many governments have increased a training focus on policy in the post-NPM era, this has had other beneficial effects. Thus, the need to improve policy capacity had less to do with instilling analytical, policy-building, skills than with breaking down organizational barriers. Knowledge management played a key role in promoting policy capacity (Aguilar et al., 2004). Although the training of policy makers appears to have been strongest in the UK, it has also increased elsewhere. For example, the Meloni (2010) documents that training for policy regulators has increased in recent years among OECD member countries.

3.1.3 Training in the Current Era of Austerity

Although public servant training has often served as a tool for reform, training will likely face challenges if the current era of austerity persists. From a budgetary perspective, public servant training is often an easy target for cuts (OECD, 1996; Pollitt & Op de Beeck, 2010). For example, the Canada School of Public Service handed responsibility for language training over to departments and cancelled one of its leadership programs following the 2012 budget (Department of Finance Canada, 2012). However, reductions have been more dramatic in the UK. In 2010 it replaced its National School of Government with Civil Service Learning, a cross-departmental shared service which provides training, primarily through contracting out most of its services, including its leadership development programs (HM Government, 2012). In addition, two new institutions are being created to give public servants skills in areas that will help the government achieve further cost savings. The UK government has proposed to create the Major Projects Leadership Academy in 2014 to provide mandatory training for senior leaders responsible for major projects and is planning a Commissioning Academy in 2013 designed to give public servants "skills in managing markets, negotiating and agreeing contracts, and contract management" (HM Government, 2012, p. 23).

3.1.4 Public Servant Training Outside the West

The late 1980s and early 1990s witnessed Eastern Europe and Central Asia's transition from communism and were accompanied by large-scale and fundamental reforms. Not only was the size of the state reduced with the introduction of free markets, but bureaucracies – which had often been the source of Party patronage – had to be reoriented towards the requirements of multi-party governance. Public servant training was seen as a means to help the transition. Interest in public servant training led to the OECD's 1989 Meeting on Management Development for the Higher Civil Service (Savoie, 1990b) which focused partially on training senior civil servants in the countries going through this transition. The OECD has continued to support public servant training in these countries as part of its Support for Improvement in Governance and Management in Central and Eastern European Countries (SIGMA) project.

As documented by Savoie (1990b), NPM-inspired managerialism and management training influenced some post-communist countries. However, the challenges of transition required more basic training to build the capacity and the legitimacy of the newly created or significantly reformed

bureaucracies, including the capacity to deliver basic public services (OECD, 1997a). Many of these countries, especially former Soviet Republics, had to create new institutions. Although specific training needs reflected the varied political and economic circumstances, there have been some commonalities. One common theme has been ethics training focused on instilling democratic values (Whitesman & Wise, 2009) or on anti-corruption training (Borkowska & Urbaniak, 2005; OECD, 1997a). Ethics training has been a high priority of international donor agencies that have funded the training (Whitesman & Wise, 2009). At a more fundamental level, greater emphasis on acquiring specific skills can be seen in post-communist public servant training. More recently for example, European Union (EU) integration has been a focus (Wise, 2007).

Public servant training in less developed countries (LDCs) has reflected many similar themes to that in post-communist countries, including capacity building, democratization and anti-corruption training (Whitton, 2009). One of the major differences has been the timeline of change and reforms. Whereas post-communist countries developed public servant training in the late 1980s and early 1990s, many LDCs experienced these challenges earlier. For example, countries that had previously been colonized found it necessary to develop new institutions and training regimes during the era of decolonization in the 1960s and 1970s (Vyas & Luk, 2010). Nonetheless, the structural reforms that were often experienced during the 1980s also impacted public servant training (Pacheo, 2000). For example, one area that received focus during structural adjustment was training in economics (Cherhabil, 2000).

3.2 Organizational Arrangements for Training

Defining public service training providers is conceptually challenging. If all types of institutions that are used to train all types of public servants are considered, the sheer number of arrangements – both internal and external – makes it impossible. Few patterns can be discerned other than that some relationship exists between a country's population and the diversity of institutional arrangements. Attempts to define institutional types are usually a reflection of the context in which authors are writing.

There is some consensus on the concept of a central training institute or national school of government. Although there is no agreed upon terminology, this type of institution can be defined by its core functions and to a lesser extent by the recipients of its training. However, it is impossible to use organizational arrangements to define this type of institution. Although organizational arrangements have always reflected the government in which they operate, they have changed significantly over time. Traditional definitions used to attempt to classify national schools of government have become less relevant in recent years as their organizational arrangements for have become more diverse.

3.2.1 Training Providers for All Levels of Public Servants

The majority of research that looks at public servant training is focused on senior management and leadership development (OECD, 1997b). The OECD (1997b) attributes this to the fact that more information is available for these groups, partially because lower level training often occurs and/or is funded at the department level. It also suggests that academics have more interest in senior level

employees. However, when compared to public servants at all levels, senior management and executive training account for a relatively small amount of total government training, albeit being the most expensive per capita (Savoie, 1992; OECD, 1997b).

If training for all types of public servants is considered, a wide variety of institutional arrangements can be recognized. These can include both centrally organized institutes and those at the departmental level. Training is more likely to occur at the departmental level if the departments is involved in specific technical tasks, such as tax collection or finance (OECD, 1997b; Kolisnichenko, 2005).

If the multiple levels of government (i.e. sub-national, local, etc) are examined, then the picture becomes more complex. For example, local police academies could be considered a form of public service training institute (Kolisnichenko, 2005). Although this report focuses on training for public servants at the national level, a country's constitutional division of powers does not always allow for such distinction (OECD, 1997b). For example, France, a country known for its highly centralized government, operates national training institutes that exclusively train local government employees (Kolisnichenko, 2005).

Public servant training is not always the exclusive domain of governments. Training may be contracted out to private or non-profit sector providers. In the case of LDCs and post-communist countries, donor-funded non-government organizations (NGOs) may be involved (Huque & Vyas, 2004; Kolisnichenko, 2005). While universities are often involved in the education (i.e. undergraduate or graduate) of future public servants, they may also be contracted to provide training for existing public servants (Borins, 1990; Reichard, 1998).

The use of external providers varies depending on the country. Some countries, such as the Netherlands, have a long history of using external providers for both executives and lower-level employees. Others, such as the US federal government, have a history of using both external and internal providers. On the whole, the use of external training providers has increased in recent years, especially among governments that adopted NPM reforms. Just as NPM tended to favour competition among service providers, training was often one of the services subject to competition (Borins, 1999; Maor & Stevens, 1997; Vyas & Luk, 2010).

There is no clear pattern of a government's use of institutional providers. A comprehensive study conducted by Kolisnichenko (2005), which looked at worldwide educational and training arrangements for public administration, illustrated a wide variety of institutional arrangements globally. Kolisnichenko (2005) concluded that the only trend that could be identified was that governments in countries with larger populations tend to use a greater diversity of arrangements.

Although the distinction between Civil Service Colleges and École Nationale has been used to classify types of national schools of government, few authors have attempted to classify all types of public servant training institutions. The only definitions that have been developed come from authors writing in the context of Asian governments. For example, in a comparison of training institutes in India and Hong Kong, Huque and Vyas (2004) list a "typology of training institutes" (p.43) as comprising seven institutions: Civil Service Training Academies, École Nationale

d'Administration, University Departments of Public Administration, Autonomous Institutes of Public Administration, Administrative Staff Colleges, Management Training Institutes, and Sectoral Training Institutes. Schiavo-Campo and Sundaram (2000) offer similar definitions in the context of Asian economic development. Although the first three types listed by Huque and Vyas (2004) have more universal applicability, the remainder refers specifically to types of institutions that are common in the region but not seen elsewhere.

3.2.2 National Schools of Government

Despite the variation identified many governments have some form of institution that can be described as a national school of government. Although differing terminology is used to describe the institution, there is general agreement around its core functions. Three common functions are associated with this type of institution: teaching/training and development; research; and consulting (Huque & Vyas, 2004; CAPAM, 2005; Lodge & Kalitowski, 2007; Pacheo, 2000; Schiavo-Campo & Sundaram, 2000).

Despite a fairly strong consensus on function, a wide variety of terms are used to refer to national schools. Terminology sometimes refers to the institution's national or central scope. For example, Huque and Vyas (2004) use the term "central training institute" (p.51) and Schiavo-Campo and Sundaram (2000) use "national training institution" (p.484). Terminology sometimes reflects the context in which the author is writing. For example the former Canadian Centre for Management Development (CCMD) – an institution focused on management development – used the term "management development institutes" (CCMD 2001a, p.3) to describe this type of institution. Although CAPAM (2005) originally used the term "management development institutes" (p.9), in 2005 it suggested that the more inclusive term "training and development institutes" (p.9) be used instead. Others simply use the name of prominent examples, such as "civil service colleges" (Borins 1999, p.301). For purposes of this paper, the term national schools of government will be used. The choice partially reflects the recurrence of the term schools of government in the literature (Lodge & Kalitowski, 2007; Pacheo, 2000). The term national is inserted to reflect their central scope.

A common link among these institutions is that they are involved in training senior management. They also tend to be involved in training employee groups with government-wide implications such as human resource management, (Kolisnichenko, 2005; OECD, 1997b). However, the exact type of employee groups varies. This variation can be seen in a 2001 study by that was undertaken by the Canadian Center for Management Development (CCMD, 2001a), which benchmarked the following institutions:

- Institut de Formation de l'Administration Fédérale (IFA), Belgium
- Institute of Public Administration (HAUS), Finland
- Federal Academy of Public Administration (BAkÖV), Germany
- Civil Service Training and Development Institute (CSTDI), Hong Kong
- National Institute of Public Administration (INTAN), Malaysia
- Civil Service College (CSC), Singapore
- Escola Nacional de Administração (ENAP), Brazil
- Centre for Management and Policy Studies (CMPS), UK

While all of these institutions trained management, most also trained other groups of personnel. For example, the IFA, the CSC, the CSTDI and INTAN were responsible for training all public servants. Others such as ENAP and HAUS were primarily focused on management, but also trained other groups of employees. ENAP occasionally trained senior officials from the state government, while HAUS experimented with training a limited number of private sector officials. Others, such as the CMPS and BAKöV, while not responsible for training all public servants, trained other groups of employees in addition to management. The CMPS, created as part of the UK's Modernizing Government agenda, trained specialists, professionals, policy makers and to a more limited extent, junior ministers.

3.2.3 In-Service and Pre-Entry Training

Many authors who have written on public servant training have classified institutions based on whether they use in-service training or pre-entry training (e.g. Borins, 1999; Duggett, 2001; Huque & Vyas, 2004; OECD, 1997b).

Pre-entry training (pre-service training) occurs at the beginning of a public servant's career, usually immediately following recruitment and tends to be relatively long, usually more than six months (Huque & Vyas, 2004; Lucking, 2003). The focus of this form of training is fairly broad, concentrating on inducting participants into service by providing a comprehensive overview of subjects necessary to function within the civil service (Huque & Vyas, 2004; Schiavo-Campo & Sundaram, 2000). Because of its broad focus, some refer to it as a form of education (Reichard, 1998). Kolisnichenko (2005) argues that advanced graduate degrees such as Masters in Public Administration (MPAs) perform similar functions to pre-entry training. While there may be some similarities, the two differ in that recipients of pre-entry training are already employed by the public service.

In-service training such as post-entry or adaptation training, is distinguished from pre-entry training in that it can occur any time – or multiple times - during a public servant's career. It tends to be short in duration and is usually focused on acquiring specific skills or competencies (OECD, 1997b; Lucking, 2003).

These types of training have been associated with a government's recruitment philosophy. Pre-entry training has commonly been associated with governments that view the public service as a specialist profession (Huque & Vyas, 2004). In such systems, public servants must acquire this specialty either through a specific educational background and/or intensive pre-entry training which equips them with necessary skills, thus reducing the need for in-service training at least within the first few years (OECD, 1997b). This system is largely associated with France, which has roughly 70 institutes that provide training to various personnel groups at the beginning of their career. The most well known of these is the ENA, which provides pre-entry training to public servants recruited for positions at the highest levels of administration (Duggett, 2001; Kolisnichenko, 2005).

Generalist systems recruit on the basis of "the level, but not the content" (OECD 1997b, p.7) of a candidate's education. This has been associated with British or Anglo-Saxon systems (Duggett,

2001; OECD, 1997b). While generalist systems may attract highly educated and talented public servants (i.e. those with both advanced degrees and high standing in these degrees), their diversity of backgrounds makes periodic in-service training more important.

These systems are also linked to whether public servants are recruited with the expectation that they will spend their career in the service (i.e. career systems) or whether they are recruited for a particular position (i.e. post systems) (OECD, 1997b; Lucking, 2003). In-service and pre-entry training is less important under post-systems since candidates usually possess the necessary qualifications for their position (OECD, 1996). Pre-entry training is unnecessary as these public servants are usually recruited based on their specific expertise (Lucking, 2003). However, a hybrid approach to training is also evident; for example, France has largely used the career system but has recently begun to use in-service training for promotion (Lucking, 2003).

Increased Use of In-Service Training

Compared to pre-entry training, which has a much longer history, in-service training is more recent in origin, emerging in the late 1960s (OECD, 1997b). In-service training gained prominence in Western countries during the New Public Management (NPM) era. The training that was used as part of these reforms was largely, though not exclusively, in-service training (Duggett, 2001; OECD, 1997b). In-service training has also increased in countries traditionally associated with the French approach. For example, by the millennium, in-service training was the main focus at Belgium's IFA, an institution originally focused on pre-entry training (CCMD, 2001a). France's ENA has developed more short-courses alongside its famous pre-entry programs (Maor, 2000; Pacheo, 2000).

Outside of the West, the type of pre-entry training exemplified by the ENA was identified as having advantages for governments undergoing major transitions. It was cited as building a strong "*esprit du corps*" (OECD 1997b, p.21) which is advantageous to governments going through transition, especially when the tradition of an independent public service is weak (Pacheo, 2000). Some called for governments transitioning from communism to adopt this mode (e.g. Jabes & Ziller, 1996). Pacheo (2000) documents that similar reasons led many Latin American countries to adopt ENA-modeled institutions during the structural reforms of the 1980s. Pre-entry training and the ENA model were frequently used by former French colonies (Huque & Vyas, 2004; Schiavo-Campo & Sundaram, 2000).

Despite their purported advantages, pre-service training and the ENA model have declined. Pacheo (2000) notes that by the mid-1990s most ENA-modeled Latin American institutions have moved away from pre-entry training. Cherhabil (2000) documents similar developments in the former French colony of Algeria. Both authors attribute the changes to the inability of pre-service training to give public servants the necessary skills to adapt to the rapidly changing environment that resulted from the reforms. Similar observations can be seen in post-communist countries. Despite calls for ENA-type institutions, in-service training has been the most frequently used type of training in these countries (OECD, 1997a).

More recently the underpinnings of the in-service and pre-entry training distinctions been questioned (Gally, 2009). The UK's 2012 Civil Service Reform Plan also stated that the concept of a

“generalist” has been replaced by civil servants with “the right combination of professionalism, expert skills and subject matter expertise” (HM Government, 2012, p.23).

3.2.4 Diverse and Changing Organizational Arrangements

National schools of government are traditionally recognized as government-owned institutions. Savoie’s (1990b) comparative study of management development in North America, Scandinavia, the UK and France noted that the management development programs and institutions at the time were primarily in-house. Savoie (1990b) attributes the use of in-house training to several interrelated factors including perceived and the desire to renew pride and strengthen corporate culture in an era of “bureaucrat bashing” (p.42).

However, overall decentralization of training policy and funding has led to changes to in-house institutions. Although some governments have centralized training policy through the development of competency frameworks (Bhatta, 2001; Horton, 2000), many other aspects of training policy, including leadership development, have been decentralized (Borins, 1999; Lucking, 2003). Governments have increasingly moved away from providing full funding to these institutions, usually preferring mixed funding where operations costs are covered but costs of courses are not (OECD, 1997b ; Lucking, 2003). Although national schools of government have sometimes retained procurement advantages even when operating in competition (National School of Government, 2007), the result has been a more competitive environment for these institutions. These competitive environments have sometimes led to organizational changes. For example, Belgium’s IFA was reorganized in 1999 as part of the government’s complete restructuring of the public service, known as Copernicus, and became a demand-driven organization, with account managers assigned to specific departments (CCMD, 2001a). Denmark’s National School of Public Administration and Finland’s State Training Center were reorganized into state-owned companies in the late 1990s, while Sweden’s SIPU (Statens Institut för Personalutbildning, State Institute for Personnel Training) was privatized in the early 1990s (Temmes, 2006).

Although in-house national schools sometimes have become privatized or semi-autonomous, others countries, such as Ireland, have a long history of using independent providers. Ireland’s main training provider – the Institute of Public Administration – was created in the late 1950s as an independent organization (Kelly, 1999). In the Netherlands, the Nederlandse School voor Openbaar Bestuur (NSOB) was created by two universities in 1988 and serves as a major training provider for senior executives in the Dutch national and municipal governments (Pollitt & Op de Beeck, 2010). The Australia and New Zealand National School of Government (ANZSOG) was created by a consortium of universities and of national and state governments in 2001 (ANZOG, 2004).

Although some authors associate ownership by government with this type of institution (e.g. Huque & Vyas, 2004; Schiavo-Campo & Sundaram, 2000), others do not. For example, Lodge and Kalitowski (2007) and Pollitt and Op de Beeck (2010) make no distinction between training programs provided by government, universities or independent institutions. Pacheo (2000) provides a balance between these two points of view by stating that whereas university departments may be used for training public servants, in-house institutions and independent institutions represent a different type of school of government than university departments.

Pacheo's explanation is that in-house institutions and independent institutions differ from universities in that their funding comes almost entirely from government and they are focused almost entirely on training public servants.

Although the general trend has been towards decentralization, sometimes resulting in non-in-house institutions, there are exceptions. Singapore's Civil Service College was created in 1996 by the merger of its Institute of Public Administration and Management and its Institute of Policy Development (Civil Service College, 2013a). Likewise the Canada School of Public Service was created through a merger of three institutions.

The United Kingdom as a Case Study

The UK provides an example of how national schools of government can change within government. Its Civil Service College was created in 1970 based on the Fulton Report and was initially designed to offer courses on social science and economics (Grebenik, 1972). It remained under the succession of departments responsible for the civil service (i.e. the Civil Service Department, Management and Personnel Office, Office of the Minister for the Civil Service) until it became an executive agency in 1989 (Duggett, 2001). Duggett (2001) notes that its creation into an executive agency was a deliberate attempt to play a leading role in the reform process. The influence of training competition and decentralized funding also had an impact on the Civil Service College. By 1996 it had moved completely to cost recovery and was increasingly performing customized training activities for departments and agencies (Duggett, 2001).

The UK's Modernizing Government agenda led to the Civil Service College being reorganized into the Centre for Management and Policy Studies (CMPS) in 1999. The importance that government placed on its functions can be shown by the fact that it was moved directly into the Cabinet Office (Draper, 2003). The CMPS was transformed into the National School of Government in 2005. In 2007 it was removed from the Cabinet Office and turned into a non-ministerial department. In 2011 it was disbanded and replaced by Civil Service Learning, a government-wide learning provider that contracts out most of its training activities, including leadership development programs (HM Government, 2012).

3.3 Curriculum Development

This section reviews curriculum development at national schools of government, as well as public servant training in general. The literature did not appear to include work exclusively devoted to curriculum development for public servant training. Therefore, the material included in this section is based on studies that have examined public servant training in general.

3.3.1 Curriculum Development as a Process

Savoie (1992) and Schiavo-Campo and Sundaram (2000) describe curriculum development for public servants as a three-step process: needs analysis, design and delivery, and, evaluation. Huque and Vyas (2004) propose an additional step of anticipating future needs. Although needs assessment is identified as a separate phase from evaluation, it is often described as interrelated (OECD, 1997a). As a process, curriculum development for public servants does not differ

substantially from curriculum development in other sectors such as the private sector, universities and schools.

3.3.2 Needs Analysis

Several authors have identified consultation as part of needs analysis. For management and leadership development programs, such consultation occurs with senior management (Savoie, 1992). Wise (2007) notes that the UK's National School of Government used a "strategic management team" (p. 104) composed of senior executives to liaise on issues related to senior management development. For lower-level employees, consultation can occur at the departmental or agency level (OECD, 1997b). Wise's (2007) profile of national schools of government in Canada, Hungary, Germany, Poland, and the UK, noted that consultation with departments and agencies was common at all the organizations profiled, except for Poland's national school of government.

Wise (2007) further notes that needs assessment can also occur independently at the department or agency level, especially when institutions operate in a fully competitive or semi-competitive environment. In such cases departments may conduct their own needs analysis or initiate a needs analysis in conjunction with a training provider. The author identifies additional sources of needs analysis at specific institutions. For example, the UK's National School received direct input from central government, which sometimes led to new courses, especially when training was required to achieve a major government priority. Teaching staff at the UK's National School of Government sometimes used a "bottom-up" (Wise 2007, p.104) form of needs assessment by developing courses in response to unmet training needs observed in the classroom. Existing competency frameworks influenced needs analysis in Germany.

3.3.3 Design and Delivery

Just one source on the design of curriculum for public service training was identified. Wise (2007) notes that training programs at UK's National School of Government were assigned a program director responsible for the development of courses in the program area. The director would develop the course in consultation with other teachers, and would also teach the course or part of the course. At the Canada School of Public Service, a variety of in-house and external personnel are used to develop curriculum, with delivery generally separate from development.

More sources are available on the delivery of curriculum. National schools of government rely on external contractors including professors, consultants or practitioners to deliver their courses (OECD, 1997b). However, some institutions make greater use than others of in-house instructors. For example, of the nine institutions benchmarked by the CCMD (2001a), six relied primarily on contracted teachers. Only Singapore's Civil Service College, Hong Kong's Civil Service Training and Development Institute and Malaysia's National Institute of Public Administration rely primarily on in-house teaching staff. Of the relevant institutions examined by Pollitt and Op de Beeck (2010), including ENA, NSOB and ANSZOG, most relied on contract staff. For example, the ENA only has two permanent instructors (Pollitt & Op de Beeck, 2010). Both the CCMD (2001a) and Wise (2007) indicate that Germany's BKaoV mostly uses external contractors. Wise (2007) indicates that the UK's National School of Government primarily uses contract staff.

Even among schools that use contract staff, there is variation in the background of the contractors. Pollitt and Op de Beeck (2010) note institutions with university affiliations (e.g., ANZSOG and NSOB) were more likely to use academic contractors, whereas those located within government such as ENA and UK's National School of Government were more likely to draw on current public servants. Variation in the backgrounds of contractors may also occur within an institution. France's ENA tended to use senior public servants to deliver its main program, but used a variety of consultants, academics, and government officials in programs targeted at lower-level employees.

Adult learning methodologies tend to be employed almost universally (Pacheo, 2000; Pollitt & Op de Beeck, 2010) although, as noted by Borins (1999), this is not unique to public servant training. Less formal training methodologies such as mentoring and job placements are used as well (Pollitt & Op de Beeck, 2010; Schiavo-Campo & Sundaram, 2000). Training can also include other learning events such as seminars and workshops (OECD, 1997b). Pollitt and Op de Beeck (2010) note that the type of teaching methodology used may vary depending on the target group.

3.3.4 Evaluation

Of all the areas of curriculum development, evaluation has probably received the most attention. All national schools of government evaluate their programs at some level. Senior management and leadership development programs, which are often very expensive, receive particular attention (Savoie, 1992).

Interest in evaluation can be traced to the overall expansion of management development that began in the late 1980s (Savoie, 1992; Sims, 1993). Savoie (1992) documents efforts by UK, Canada, Australia and Ireland to evaluate the effectiveness of their management development programs and showed that it was common for evaluation to occur at the individual and the organizational levels. He further notes that individual level evaluation can include both informal feedback and formal measures of participant satisfaction. While various methods were used to evaluate at the organizational level, this type of evaluation is difficult because changes produced by training may not materialize for some time.

Of the organizations profiled in the CCMD's (2001a) study, the majority used Kirkpatrick's (1996) learning evaluation model, particularly the first level (i.e. reaction or satisfaction with the course) and the third level (i.e. behavioral change). However, many organizations used different methods as well, many of which were organization-specific. Outside of attempts to evaluate specific courses, some of these organizations were subject to annual performance reviews against agreed-upon government service standards. The study showed that evaluation varied within organizations.

The CCMD's (2001a) study also indicates that evaluation methods change over time. Some of the institutions profiled had only recently adopted evaluation methods whereas others were in the process of adopting new revised evaluation models. The shift in evaluation methods is not unique to the public sector. As documented by Horton's (2007) study on leadership evaluation in the UK, evaluation models go in and out of fashion.

Less traditional forms of evaluation have also been identified. For example, Pollitt and Op de Beeck (2010) note that alumni associations are sometimes involved in evaluation efforts. In addition,

Wise (2007) note that, in cases where training prepares public servants for an examination, the examination results are a form of performance measurement.

One factor that may drive changes in evaluation is the search for a best way to demonstrate return on investment (ROI). The challenge of demonstrating ROI is a longstanding issue in evaluation of training (Savoie, 1992). In a review of training and development programs for high fliers and senior management, Pollitt and Op de Beeck (2010) conclude that most organizations use participant satisfaction as their main measure of evaluation. These authors express some surprise that more efforts are not made to demonstrate ROI, given that these programs are expensive. Their conclusion may partially be a reflection of data since the authors relied mostly on the organization websites for much of the study. In a study of leadership evaluation in the UK, Horton (2007) concludes that despite decades of changes in leadership evaluation “return on learning (ROL) is the search for the real Holy Grail” (p.14).

3.4 Research at National Schools of Government

National schools of government engage in a broad group of activities that can be considered research. Curriculum development is one reason behind these activities, but research at these institutions serves other purposes, including contributing to the knowledge base of public administration, public policy and public management, as well as supporting government priorities. Although there tends to be general agreement that training and development, research, and consulting, are core functions of national schools of government, there are no studies focused exclusively on the relationship between research and curriculum development.

3.4.1 Definitions of Research

Research ranges from traditional academic to non-traditional activities. Lambert (2012) lists a broad range of activities that can be considered research in the context of education; a multifaceted activity that encompasses many aspects of investigation that advance understanding and practice. It includes action or practitioner research, case studies, comparative research, curriculum and educational practice research, ethnographic research, evaluative research, experimental research, exploratory research, grounded theory research, learning research, systematic review, and theoretical research. Within the context of public servant training, ANZSOG (2007) identifies case studies as a type of research. Hartely and Tranfield (2011) suggest that evaluation – including the evaluation of leadership development programs – is a form of research. ANZSOG (2007) also include non-traditional outputs such as roundtables, knowledge management and facilitation as forms of research.

Curriculum Development as a Purpose of Research

Huque and Vyas (2004) describe research as an essential underpinning for curriculum in that “any subject worthy of being taught must be firmly grounded in research” (p.51). Others describe the two as interrelated (Paul, 1983; Schiavo-Campo and Sundaram, 2000). These authors also indicate that research has purposes, such as publication, other than curriculum development.

Websites and publications by various national schools of government also indicate that curriculum

development and research are related. However, few specific examples are cited. The Center for Public Economics, one of five research groups at Singapore's Civil Service College, lists producing "material and curricula for teaching economics for the public sector" (Civil Service College, 2012, para. 5) as one of its stated objectives. At France's *École Nationale d'Administration* (ENA, 2012) research is undertaken by the *Centre d'expertise et de recherche administrative* (CERA). The group collaborates with various domestic and international research networks. CERA participates in various conferences and publishes the *Revue française d'administration publique*. The ENA (2012) states that the purpose of CERA is the "diffusion of knowledge in the domains of public policy and administration" (p.12, translation mine), but notes that these activities are equally related to informing its courses. Holland's NSOB produces research through a think-tank created in 2006. Pollitt and Op de Beeck (2010) interviewed a member of NSOB, who claimed that "the research programme and the training programme support and 'feed' each other" (p.22).

An ANZOG 2004 strategy document states the intent to link research to the "current needs of governments and to the teaching program" (ANZOG, 2004, p.1). A 2007 strategy document reaffirms the importance of using research in ANZOG's teaching programs but notes that there was relatively little demand for ANZOG researchers to discuss their findings in the teaching programs. The evaluation criteria that ANZOG uses when deciding to fund research projects suggest the relative value that its research program places on curriculum development. A project's potential to be used in the teaching program is assigned a maximum of 35 points out of 100 (ANZOG, 2013).

Examples of Research in Curriculum Development

Case studies are the most common type of research used for curriculum at national schools of government. Internally-produced case studies have been used at the UK's former Civil Service College (Duggett, 1989; Grebenik, 1972), the CCMD (Pullen, 1991) and Singapore's Civil Service College (Civil Service College, 2008; Gwee, 2012).

Research can be part of the learning process itself. Some national schools of government have used experiential action research in their programs. The CCMD held several high profile Action Research Roundtables that resulted in publications (e.g. Hill & Dinsdale, 2001). More recently, the Canada School of Public Service, the UK's National School of Government and ANZOG collaborated in the Leadership across Borders program, an executive development program that used action research (Ryde, 2009). Students in ANZOG's Executive Masters in Public Administration Program (EMPA) must prepare capstone projects to receive their degree. ANZOG (2007) counts these projects among their research outputs, albeit noting that they may be difficult to disseminate more widely.

3.4.2 Research Outside of Curriculum Development

The ability of national schools of government to contribute knowledge to the fields of public administration, public management or public policy has been used as the reason for the importance of these institutions (e.g. CAPAM, 2005; Lodge & Kalitowski, 2007; Huque & Vyas, 2004), and cited as a purpose of research by ANZOG, ENA and Singapore's Civil Service College. Larger government priorities often shape the research agendas. One reason is that researchers at national schools of

government have access to information and contacts unavailable to other researchers (Gammons & Duggett, 1989; Grebenik, 1972).

The influence that government priorities have over research agendas lead some to characterize their research as different from traditional academic work. For example, Borins (1999) reviewed the research efforts of Canada's CCMD and the UK's CMPS and while he notes that many of their outputs were similar to those of traditional universities, he feels that:

While the traditional university seeks to distance itself from power so that the faculty may speak truth to power, the CCMD and CMPS are attempting to get closer to power by affiliating themselves with central agencies and the strategic priorities of the day (p.303).

Because of this close affiliation with government, some think that the integrity of the research could be challenged, especially when findings conflict with government agendas or deal with sensitive topics (ANZSOG, 2007; Gammons & Duggett, 1989; Grebenik, 1972). As such, some argue that these organizations' research should have a degree of independence from government (Lodge & Kalitowski, 2007; Huque & Vyas, 2004).

In ANZSOG's (2007) review of its research program it expressed a strong desire to support government. In addressing how to improve the program, the review addressed several challenges that ANZSOG faced in disseminating its research. One was the so-called "fragile relationships" (ANZSOG, 2007, p.7) between researchers and public servants. Public servants and academics work in different cultures, which can lead to misunderstandings. For example, the report notes that the longer timelines of academic research were a common "frustration of many public officials" (ANZSOG, 2007, p.7). ANZSOG associated many of these challenges with those identified in the larger literature on the research-policy nexus. Other challenges include overall capacity constraints in the face of conflicting demands as well as overall lack of understanding about ANZSOG's research. ANZSOG's recommendations included increasing communication and enhanced electronic access to ANZSOG's work. It also undertook efforts to increase the number of roundtables and its facilitation efforts.

The UK as a Case Study of Changing Research Priorities

The United Kingdom's CMPS has received the most academic attention because of the high-profile role that the CMPS had in supporting the Labour government's Modernizing Government agenda. As the 1968 Fulton report had emphasized the need to professionalize civil servants – especially in the areas of sociology and economics – research in those areas was part of the Civil Service College's mandate when it was created (Grebenik, 1972). The College's actual research program was limited until it was transformed into the CMPS (Duggett, 2001).

Compared to its predecessor, the CMPS was more involved in research. It played a major role in supporting the government's Modernizing Government agenda, with a particular focus on evidence-informed policy. However, much of CMPS' work involved knowledge management and did not result in traditional research outputs. For example, it was responsible for managing an interdepartmental knowledge pool to help support access to best practices in evidence-based policymaking (Cabinet Office, 1999b).

When the CMPS was reorganized into the National School of Government, a virtual think-tank – the Sunningdale Institute – was created. Although the Institute’s projects varied, many of them were in support of government priorities. For example, it undertook a review of the government’s Departmental Capabilities program (Barwise et al., 2007). Since its replacement in 2011 by Civil Service Learning, the future of its research is unclear.

3.5 Summary

Training trends in Western, post-communist and in less-developed countries (LDCs) have been influenced by the reforms and modernization efforts that have occurred in these countries, and are most obvious at the more senior levels of the public service. Public servant training is a means of increasing efficiency, of boosting employee morale, of increasing innovation, and of helping governments to advance their agenda.

Administrative and political transitions, including European Union (EU) integration and the collapse of communism, have also been major reasons for training. Modernizations starting in the 1980s known as New Public Management (NPM) attempted to instill private sector management techniques and efficiency into the public service. As a result management training became an important training need in this era. Nearer to the millennium, training emphasis has been on leadership development, with an increased emphasis on values training and policy development. There are however marked differences between Western countries in the details of training trends, which reflect major changes in the sociopolitical landscapes. In the current era of austerity, the training trend is focused on ways to reduce the cost of government.

The literature shows that defining public service training providers is conceptually challenging. Few patterns can be discerned other than some relationship between a country’s population and the diversity of institutional arrangement, as well as a pattern of institutional change in organization related to public servant training. Despite the variation identified, many governments have some form of institution that can be described as a national school of government. The most obvious trend that has occurred over the past three decades has been an increase in the use of in-service training and a consequent decrease in pre-entry training as well as a reduction in the role of national schools of government. Changes in training have often placed these schools in competition with outside providers.

Curriculum development in the context of public servants comprises three steps: needs analysis; design and delivery; evaluation, a process that does not differ substantially from curriculum development in other sectors. Needs analysis is commonly identified through consultation with senior management and with government departments. Many national schools of government rely on external contractors including professors, consultants or practitioners to deliver their courses. Of all the areas of curriculum development, evaluation has received the most attention but the evaluation of the return of investment remains a difficult outcome to measure.

Research is a multifaceted activity that encompasses many aspects of investigation that advance understanding and practice. Research thus includes action or practitioner research, case studies, comparative research, curriculum and educational practice research, ethnographic research,

evaluative research, experimental research, exploratory research, grounded theory research, learning research, systematic review, and theoretical research, many elements of which appear to have been used in advancing public servant training. However, little attention has been paid in a systematic way to the role of research at national schools of government, and details of the research done at the national schools of government in support of curriculum are difficult to obtain. Curriculum development appears to be one purpose of research at these institutions but other research is often undertaken for other purposes, including supporting government priorities.

4 Methodology

The methodology used for this study was qualitative. Thirteen interviews were conducted between March and June of 2011. Eight of these interviews were conducted with experts at the School, six of whom worked in the Programs and Operations Branch. The other interviews were conducted with individual experts from five organizations: the Australian-New Zealand School of Government, Bureau Algemene Bestuursdienst (Netherlands), Civil Service College (Singapore), the Nederlandse School voor Openbaar Bestuur (Netherlands), and, the National School of Government (U.K.).

4.1 Interview Questions

The interviews were based on questions that were agreed upon through consultation with Innovations and Best Practices and the researcher's academic supervisor. Questions were organized into three sections: Curriculum Development, Research, and, Relationship between the Two. The section on Curriculum Development explored how curriculum was developed. It consisted of two questions for the international organizations, and of one question, supplemented by a visual aid (Appendix B) for the expert interviews at the School. The second part, Research, consisted of five questions designed to discover the role and the nature of research at the organization. The third part, Relationship between the Two, was designed to build upon the answers to the questions in the first two sections and to probe the relationship between curriculum development and research. Other than using organization-appropriate phrasing, the second and third sections contained identical questions for School and international experts.

4.1.1 Differences in Curriculum Development Questions

The first section of questions given to interviewees from international organizations consisted of two questions on curriculum development (See Appendix D). The first section of questions for experts at the School consisted of one question that was supplemented by the diagram. The diagram was created in consultation with IBP to map out the existing process prior to the 2011 reorganization. The map was meant to be a starting point to get interviewees thinking about how curriculum is developed at the School. Care was taken to emphasize its unofficial nature during interviews to avoid confusion on the part of interviewees.

Key Features of the Diagram:

The diagram shows the following features

1. *Executive Committee as a Central Decision Maker:* The diagram portrays the School's Executive Committee as a central decision maker within the curriculum development process.
2. *Curriculum Review and the Programs and Operations Branch are inputs for the Executive Committee:* The diagram shows the Programs and Operations Branch, as well as Curriculum Review, as major inputs for the Executive Committee. Both require decisions on the part of the Committee.

3. *Curriculum Review Decisions for Existing Curriculum:* Under the diagram, Curriculum Review requires the Executive Committee to make a decision regarding existing offerings as to whether they are retired or continued (modified or in their present form).
4. *Two-way relationship between the Executive Committee and the Programs and Operations Branch:* In the diagram, the Programs and Operations Branch also has a similar role to Curriculum Review in that it comes to the Executive Committee with a proposal requiring a decision. There is however a two-way relationship between the Executive Committee and the Programs and Operations Branch.
5. *Operations Branch as a key input for Executive Committee: the Executive Committee is an input for the Programs and Operations Branch:* Specifically, the diagram shows the Executive Committee referring offerings needing review to the Programs and Operations Branch.
6. *Numerous Sources of Ideas for the Programs and Operations Branch:* The diagram presents sources of ideas for new content that influence the Programs and Operations Branch. These ideas were not intended to be exhaustive. They include high-level documents such as the Speech from the Throne and the Clerk's Report.

4.2 Data Collection and Analysis

Interviews were semi-structured, allowing the researcher to stick to the questions while having the flexibility to follow up interesting information mentioned during the interviews. To maximize the quality of the interview, interviewees were given their questions via email several days in advance. This was designed to allow them time to reflect upon their answers. Although the researcher did not ask interviewees whether they had pre-read the question, it was clear that not all had done so.

With the exception of one over the phone interview, all School interviews were conducted in person. International interviews were conducted over the phone. The length of interview times varied. It was suggested that participants book off an hour for the interview. The average time taken to complete an interview was fifty-one minutes. The shortest interview lasted twenty-eight minutes, while the longest lasted one hour and five minutes. The latter went past the allotted time with the explicit permission of the interviewee.

All interviews were recorded by digital recorder – with the interviewee's permission – and were transcribed by the interviewer. Transcripts were returned to interviewees within a week of the interview date. Interviewees were given the opportunity to review the transcripts for accuracy and clarify anything they wished. Only four interviewees returned edited transcripts. Three made minor clarifications and additions, one corrected grammar and spelling.

The audio recordings were transcribed by the researcher. Following this, answers were grouped together by question in an Excel spreadsheet. Two groups were created: School results and international results. The researcher then looked for themes within the answers, with a particular focus on where there was similarity in response and differences in responses. Once analysis of the School results and the international result groups was completed, the two groups of answers were compared so as to look at similarities and differences in responses.

4.3 Limitations

One limitation is the researcher's potential bias at both the interview and analysis phases. The researcher may enter the interviews with pre-conceived notions and may pose leading questions or remember answers in a way that confirms these conceptions. Likewise, since the interviews took place over a period of two months, a researcher may develop conclusions based on answers in previous interviews and interpret answers from subsequent interviews in a way that confirms their bias. Several steps were taken to avoid these potential limitations. Firstly, the researcher made efforts to stick to the interview questions so as to avoid asking leading questions. Audio records were used and the interviews were fully transcribed so as to avoid any discrepancies between the researcher's memory and the actual answers. Finally, to avoid analysis bias, no analysis was undertaken until all interviews were completed.

Finally, the sample size poses challenges to the generalization of findings. Although eight experts at the School were interviewed and some common themes emerged within their answers, since the interviewees mostly came from the Programs and Operations branch, their opinions may not represent those of the rest of the School. Sample size is also a problem when it comes to the interviews done internationally, since these involved only one representative each. Since the interviews at the School often resulted in diverse and sometimes conflicting responses, interviews with multiple individuals at the international organizations might also have yielded varying and conflicting replies. To overcome this challenge the researcher attempted to gather as much supplemental material on these organizations as possible.

5 Findings

The findings section is divided in two parts: the results of the interviews with eight respondents from the Canada School of Public Service, and the results of the interviews with five respondents from National Schools of Government in other countries. Interviewees were asked to respond to a series of questions, which were similar for both the School and the international interviewees, relate to curriculum research, and to the relation between the two.

5.1 Findings from Canada School of Public Service Interviews

This section reports the findings of interviews with members of the Canada School of Public Service. The length of the responses to the questions indicates the time that respondents spent on discussing these questions.

5.1.1 Curriculum Development

Can you please describe your impressions of the diagram and how it relates to curriculum development (as you perceive it) at the School?

None of the eight respondents saw the executive committee as formally involved in curriculum development. Moreover, they felt that senior management's (i.e. Deputy-Minister, Assist-Deputy-Minister, and, Director Generals) role in curriculum development was limited. Three of the eight interviewees cited examples of new courses, as well as large-scale changes to offerings that had gone into the School's catalogue without going through approval from senior management. Although senior management was not seen as routinely involved in curriculum development, they were more likely to be involved in the development of programs, such as the Advanced Leadership Program, that targeted senior leaders. Their involvement was attributed to the status and to the cost of these programs. In addition to involvement in the development of leadership programs, these interviewees noted that some programs had been initiated by senior management.

Six respondents commented on the Curriculum Review Committee. Four indicated they were unclear as to whether there was an actual Curriculum Review Committee. Similar comments were made as to the overall curriculum review processes. Four were unsure whether there was a formal review process. Two indicated that there was, but believed that it was only used when a program was undergoing a major change or was reserved for programs that were performing poorly.

Although the role of a formal Curriculum Review Committee or process was unclear, six interviewees emphasized that informal revision of offerings occurred regularly. This revision usually occurred within the program itself and was most often done by the person who develops and/or delivers the course such as Faculty and Subject Matter Experts. Changes might be small, but could sometimes be large. For example, three interviewees indicated that they had been involved in major revisions (one as high as 30 percent new content) within the last year. As a follow-up, these interviewees who had been involved in major revisions were asked what had precipitated the need for such changes. Answers indicated that the revisions were intended to ensure the continued quality and relevance of the courses. As one interviewee put it, regular revision was a way of

“adapting before the requirement”. One interviewee added that many of the sources of ideas for new content that were listed in the diagram also influenced the review process.

Three interviewees suggested that the curriculum development process, especially the degree of formalization, differed depending on the business line under which the learning product fell. The School has three business lines: *Savoir* (i.e. knowing factual information, such as regulations), *Savoir faire* (i.e. learning how to do a specific task) and *Savoir être* (i.e. knowing oneself). Courses in the *Savoir* and *Savoir faire* categories may be more straightforward in that they teach specific facts or tasks. As such, the development of these courses was less likely to involve senior management and might involve different sources of ideas. Likewise, they would only really require revision if certain requirements change (e.g. new regulations). Courses in the *Savoir être* business line, on the other hand, were more likely to go through a complex development processes, to involve senior management and to be more likely to be revised on an ongoing basis.

Six interviewees agreed with the diagram’s presentation of the Programs and Operations Branch. No one disputed that it was responsible for the initiation of most new content. However, exceptions were noted. Two interviewees said that some courses had been initiated by senior management without input from the Programs and Operations Branch. Another interviewee mentioned that some courses had been developed in regional branches without the Programs and Operations branch. In addition, one interviewee suggested that instead of it being a filter of ideas, as portrayed in the diagram, the Programs and Operations branch should simply be seen as a source of ideas on par with the others listed.

In terms of the sources of ideas that influence the Programs and Operations Branch, there were no objections to the ideas listed. However, many interviewees added ideas. The most commonly added sources of ideas were the processes of client consultation and needs assessment. According to four interviewees these processes occur continually within the Programs and Operations branch, and serve as the main source of information on clients’ needs. Sources of ideas listed on the diagram were identified as important inputs for needs analysis. These included the Network of Learning and Development Institute (NLDI), Learning Advisor Committees (LACs), and the Heads of Learning Forum (HOF). Additional sources identified included Functional Communities, HR Council, other Departments, and the National Managers Community. Three interviewees identified ongoing environmental scanning as a further source of ideas. According to these interviewees, scanning, both inside and outside the public service, allows Programs and Operations Branch to identify emerging issues and gaps. Several sources of scanning were identified including international networks, international organizations similar to the School, the School’s board of governors, and the Speech From the Throne (SFT). Regarding the latter, several interviewees identified the STF and the Clerk’s report as the two of the most important sources of ideas for new content. Several respondents noted that senior management and course deliverers were further sources of ideas for course development and content.

5.1.2 Research

Can you describe to me how research is planned and undertaken within the School?

The majority (six of eight) of interviewees indicated that, broadly defined, research can include many activities including those that would not traditionally be considered research in the academic sense. This distinction often shaped responses to the questions below.

Who within the School is involved in research activities?

All interviewees identified Innovations and Best Practices (IBP) as a source of research within the School. However, other sources of research were identified in six interviews.

The Programs and Operations Branch was the most commonly identified source of research outside of IBP. Many of the processes identified as part of curriculum development, such as environmental scanning, needs analysis and client consultation, were identified as forms of research. Ongoing and upfront scoping by program developers was also identified as a form of research. In addition to these processes, two interviewees identified activities by the School's faculty and course deliverers as forms of research. One interviewee noted that some work by the faculty had resulted in publications. Likewise, two interviewees identified various professional development activities by course deliverers including Faculty, such as reading the latest literature in their field, as forms of research.

To a more limited extent, research produced in areas external to the Programs and Operations Branch was also identified. This included market research, evaluation activities, and research on learning methodology conducted by adult learning specialists. Interviewees who identified sources of research outside of IBP recognized that not everyone would consider these activities to be research. For example, one interviewee stated that such activities are not "pure research" but rather "research, broadly defined."

Although most examples of research cited by interviewees were undertaken by employees of the School, two interviewees included activities by persons contracted by the School as in-house research. Using a historical example, one interviewee cited the research by visiting faculty who had been active during the Canadian Center for Management Development (CCMD) era. One interviewee suggested that whenever a consultant is hired by the School, research previously performed by that consultant should be considered a form of in-house research, even though that research had occurred prior to their contract.

Where do you think the work of Innovations and Best Practices fits into the overall research picture at your organization?

Six interviewees contrasted IBP's research with the other forms of research identified within the School. Interviewees varied in their awareness and knowledge of the IBP, the group most commonly identified with research. There was consensus among these participants that IBP was not involved in delivering courses.

The six interviewees who identified forms of research that occur external to IBP identified as a source of more in-depth research. Phrases such as "more substantive," "more academic," "research at the 3000 foot level" and "higher-level research" were all used to contrast IBP's research with the more practical forms of research that occur elsewhere in the School. With the exception of publication by faculty members, the fact that IBP research is sometimes published was frequently

cited by four interviewees as a major difference between its research and the other research that occurs within the School.

IBP was most often associated with producing case studies. Seven interviewees identified at least one recent IBP project (i.e. within the preceding two years) and were aware of the NS6 and Matchmaking projects as well as the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards.

Although IBP was associated with research, six interviewees were unsure of its exact mandate. A variety of mandates were attributed to IBP including “codifying knowledge for civil servants,” “serving the public service and supporting innovation,” and “to be leading edge and up-to-date with the latest developments in the field.” Two respondents indicated that they were unable to answer the question and three were uncertain whether content creation was part of IBP’s mandate.

Discussion about IBP’s mandate often led to a discussion about IBP’s role within the School itself. Six respondents indicated that there was a disconnect between IBP and the School, with four interviewees describing IBP as “siloeed.” This sentiment was expressed particularly by interviewees unable to identify IBP’s mandate.

Although some interviewees were critical of IBP’s communication efforts with the rest of the School, comments regarding the apparent disconnect were not entirely negative. Four attributed this disconnect to IBP’s pre-2011 organizational location and/or to frequent changes in senior management. In addition, four interviewees indicated that, because of more intensive outreach efforts by IBP, the relationship had been improving in the six months prior to the reorganization

Would you say that Innovations and Best Practices is the main source of in-house research?

Responses to this question were influenced by the interviewees’ views on what type of activities could be considered research. Of the two who did not identify other forms of research outside both stated that IBP was the main source of research.

Among the six respondents who identified multiple sources of research within the School, there was agreement that in terms of combined overall research activity, the volume of non-IBP research exceeded that of IBP. Given its size, IBP’s overall activity was identified as smaller compared to all of the research (e.g. scoping, scanning) that occurs in the School. However, three of these interviewees conceded that the output of this non-IBP research activity might not be considered traditional research as it does not result in publications.

How do you think research priorities are determined within the School?

Answers to this question were also influenced by interviewees’ definitions of research. Priorities for non-IBP research activities were identified as different from those associated with IBP. Most often (six interviewees) these forms of research priorities were associated with the immediate needs of those undertaking them, usually for purposes of curriculum development.

The impetus for activities such as needs analysis, client consultation, and scoping was directly associated with curriculum development, either through the creation of a new learning product, such as a course or through the revision of an existing one. One interviewee from the Programs and

Operations Branch noted that most teams have at least one person in charge of scoping or scanning for the purposes of content revision and the development of new content, stating that “if we are doing research, it is because six months from now we will be producing or changing an offering.”

Interviewees who identified activities such as market research, pilot projects, research on adult learning methodology and evaluation also saw these activities as contributing to curriculum development. However, these activities were seen to contribute to curriculum more indirectly. Specifically, they were recognized as serving functions such as supporting existing courses such as evaluation or providing information to inform the initiation or design of new courses such as market research and research on adult learning methodology.

While most non-IBP research was associated with curriculum development, either directly or indirectly, research conducted by faculty was identified by two interviewees as a possible exception. Although faculty research might be indirectly related to curriculum development in that faculty use this information in their courses, two interviewees also stated that some faculty members go beyond curriculum development by publishing in their field.

There was no consensus on how IBP’s research priorities were determined. Seven respondents indicated that they were unclear on how IBP’s research priorities were chosen. Of these, three initially stated that they were unable to provide an answer, although they offered tentative answers after further probing questions. Five informants cited sources of IBP research priorities were high-level documents such as the Clerk’s Report and the Speech from the Throne as well as senior management. Four respondents noted that the CCMD’s Action Research Roundtable Process was the result of senior management interest and initiative. One interviewee commented that over time different executives have influenced IBP’s priorities in different ways. Three interviewees identified research consultation, intra-branch consultation, and the interest of IBP researchers as sources of priorities but tended to be critical of this, indicating that IBP was undertaking its own research with little consultation.

5.1.3 The Relationship Between Curriculum Development and Research

Although the questions below focus on in-house research in general, most of the discussion that followed from the questions focused on the role of IBP within the School.

From your perspective, what is the relationship today between in-house research and curriculum development?

In answering this question, interviewees often cited examples of IBP research that has been used in curriculum. Six interviewees also provided answers to follow up questions.

All interviewees were able to identify at least one example of an IBP research product being integrated into curriculum. The most commonly cited type of integration involved IBP research being used as supplementary content. Specifically, interviewees provided instances when an IBP research product, usually a case study, had been used as a background reading or as discussion material in a course.

Four respondents listed examples of School offerings being designed around IBP products. Some examples were historical. For example, two interviewees indicated that several of the CCMD's Action Research Roundtables reports were turned into courses, which included the reports on Innovation, Risk Management and Responsible Government. One interviewee stated that the courses which resulted from the Action Research Roundtables reports marked the first time that the CCMD had created in-house learning content. Another interviewee remembered that research conducted by visiting fellows at the CCMD's Research Branch had been turned into courses. More recent IBP products were also mentioned. For example, one interviewee remembered a course that had been created from an IBP product two years previously and another interviewee mentioned a seminar on the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards. Two respondents also noted that a workshop that IBP had given about the use of case studies influenced some of the content in the School.

To what extent is the School's research actively integrated into its curriculum?

Although all respondents were able to name examples of IBP products which had been turned into School offerings, six interviewees agreed that the extent of integration was limited, with most IBP products not leading to integration in the School curriculum. Even when specific components of IBP research were turned into learning products, the perception of these respondents was that the original research had not been undertaken with the purpose of creating a specific course or content for courses in mind. This trend was identified both for historical projects as well as recent IBP work. The only exception was the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards. While it was recognized that the cards were not produced with a specific course in mind, it was recognized that they were designed to be a learning product.

As a follow-up question, interviewees who had identified examples of integration were asked whether they thought there was a reason that the examples they had given were used as curriculum. Relevance and format were the most frequent answers. For example, one interviewee attributed the programs that had resulted from the Action Research Roundtables publications to the fact that they dealt with emerging topics of high priority within government, as well as their easy-to-read format. The success of the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards was also attributed both to their format and marketing efforts by IBP. Three interviewees indicated that IBP had been more active in marketing in the past year, leading to greater awareness of their products and the subsequent use in School programs.

Would you say that the overall purpose of in-house research is curriculum development? If so, in what way?

Whereas the non-IBP research activities identified by most interviewees were almost always associated with curriculum development, it was not seen as the main purpose of IBP research. This opinion was shared by those who saw IBP as the main source of research in the School, as well as those who identified other forms of research. Although there was consensus that the main purpose of IBP's research was not curriculum development, there were divergent opinions regarding the current relationship between IBP's work and curriculum development as well as to what the role of IBP should be.

Six interviewees expressed a degree of dissatisfaction with the current relationship between IBP's research and School's curriculum because they believed that IBP was too often involved in what was described as "research for the sake of research" which, given the fiscal challenges facing the School, was difficult to justify. Although expressing a strong desire to see IBP focus more on integrating its work with the School's curriculum, four of these interviewees recognized that any changes should still leave IBP with some independence to pursue its own research agenda. In stating that IBP should have some independence, the ability of independent research to enhance the School's reputation and tackle emerging issues were most often cited. The remaining two interviewees who expressed dissatisfaction with IBP's current relationship with the School indicated that IBP's entire focus should be on curriculum development because of the fiscal difficulties facing the School.

The six interviewees who wanted to see IBP research better integrated into the School's curriculum including those who felt IBP should maintain some degree of independence, suggested a number of different scenarios of what the relationship might look like. The suggestions ranged widely, with few commonalities. One suggested that IBP focus entirely on creating content, another that IBP take over the scanning function for the programs area, and another that IBP should support the programs area in conducting needs analysis. One interviewee suggested that IBP become a centre of excellence in leadership development, serving as a clearing-house for the latest developments in the field that could be used by programmers. The only common scenario suggested by three interviewees was to have IBP researchers available on loan to work for members in the programs area, to help with research when they are developing a new product.

Two interviewees expressed satisfaction with the current relationship between IBP research and curriculum development. They emphasized that even though not all IBP research results in curriculum at the School, having an independent research capacity was important in its own right. For these interviewees IBP research enhanced the image and credibility of the School within the Government of Canada and contributed to the broader fields of public administration and public management. One interviewee noted that many IBP publications – particularly those done in the CCMD era – have been used as course material by universities across Canada. Interviewees did not see the integration of IBP's research into curriculum as a negative outcome, but rather as "value added" or a "bonus." They expressed concerns that IBP's innovation and independence would be compromised if it were to shift more towards curriculum development, especially if that became the entire focus of IBP.

From your perspective, has the relationship between in-house research and curriculum development changed over time?

Two interviewees indicated that they could not answer this question. Four respondents indicated that the relationship had become stronger in the year or two preceding the interviews because of improved communication on the part of IBP. These interviewees thought that IBP had greatly stepped up its efforts to communicate about its work and to market its products. Initiatives such as the Matchmakings Project and the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards were cited examples of strong self-promotion efforts by IBP that appear to have paid off. Two other interviewees stated

that research had been more frequently turned into curriculum during the CCMD era, with the relationship weakening following the creation of the School.

Do you see or have you experienced any challenges associated with integrating research into curriculum? If so, what are these challenges?

Four interviewees cited timelines as the most significant challenge. Whereas IBP was seen as involved with in-depth longer-term timelines, program developers work under stringent timelines. This makes coordinating the type of research done by IBP with the often-changing needs of program developers difficult. A related challenge identified by two interviewees was the intensive nature of program development. As one interviewee put it, “people in our area work with their heads down.” Because of this, if IBP projects are not communicated properly, they will probably go unnoticed.

A final challenge noted by two interviewees relates to the business line of the programs itself. Just as the type of content varies depending on the particular business-line, so too can the practicality of integrating IBP content. For example, *Savoir être* programs often have individual sessions that are tailored to meet the needs of the individuals participating. Although IBP research could be used to update the instructors’ own knowledge, they would not be used as content.

In your opinion, how could the relationship between in-house research and curriculum development be improved?

All interviewees, including those who were satisfied with the relationship, offered suggestions on how the relationship between IBP research and curriculum development could be improved.

Generally there was a sense that that aligning IBP’s research priorities with those of the Programs and Operations Branch would improve the relationship. Three respondents suggested that IBP should consult regularly with program developers, one suggested that individual members of IBP be appointed as contact persons or ambassadors to the programs area, and another that IBP hold an annual formal consultation with the programs area to determine curriculum priorities. It was also suggested that larger projects should be subject to formal approval and formal consultation with senior management.

Communication was also seen as a way of overcoming other barriers to integration. Specifically, the six interviewees who had perceived a disconnect between IBP and the School indicated that it was partially the result of communication barriers. Although many lauded IBP’s recent communication efforts, especially those around the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards which four respondents identified as an exemplar of IBP outreach, the majority thought that dissemination of IBP research had not always been effective. Four interviewees complained that IBP would only announce a project after its completion. In such cases, even if a project could be used in curriculum, if the programmer found out about it too late their time constraints would prevent them from using it. Moreover, one interviewee suggested that unless communication efforts directly target programmers, they are liable to miss it owing to their tight deadlines.

Six interviewees suggested that IBP increase its promotional efforts within the School. The commonly suggested way of doing this was announcing its projects in the weekly Notebook

bulletin. Regular brown bag lunches were also suggested. In addition, one informant suggested IBP resume doing the “trunk-shows” of the CCMD era. A key theme that emerged was that communication should be ongoing throughout the life of a research project. One common suggestion was that IBP could make announcements, hold seminars and inform senior management every time a project had reached a major milestone. This would allow program developers wishing to use the project to plan better.

In addition, three interviewees suggested that IBP’s communication efforts should focus beyond current projects. Two interviewees noted that while of IBP’s past research projects are too focused on the issues of the day to be useful, others may still be relevant. In such cases, IBP should also promote such projects to programmers by, for example, by mentioning it in the Notebook. IBP’s Matchmaking project was suggested by two interviewees as an example of how to do this.

The two interviewees who had earlier expressed dissatisfaction with the current relationship stated that IBP should be reorganized into a group that focuses exclusively on creating content or supporting program developers with research. However, the majority thought that IBP should continue to undertake independent research but should focus on areas of priority to curriculum developers, thus better ensuring that the product is integrated into curriculum.

5.2 International Interviews

This section describes the interview results of those engaged with National Schools of Government outside of Canada and their answers to a range of similar questions to the School with the exception that none related to the organizational diagram. One person from each National School was interviewed. The section opens with a brief description of the International Organizations included in the study. Two of these organizations – the Civil Service College (Singapore) and the (former) National School of Government (United Kingdom) - have gone through major organizational changes over the years. Interview results are reported in the second part of the section.

Australia and New Zealand School of Government (ANZSOG)

Founded in 2002, ANZSOG is a not-for-profit consortium of Australian (i.e. national, state and territorial) governments, the New Zealand government, and of 16 universities located in Australia and New Zealand. ANZSOG provides more than 40 different programs each year, ranging from one-day seminars to longer-term programs, generally targeted at senior and/or emerging leaders in various levels of government. It has three signature programs: The Executive Fellows Program, The Executive Masters in Public Administration, and The Strategic Leadership Program.

Civil Service College Singapore

Singapore’s Civil Service College is a Statutory Board under the Public Service Division of the Prime Minister’s Office created in 1996 through the amalgamation of the Institute for Public Administration and Management (IPAM) and the Institute for Policy Development (IPD). Although other ministries within the Singapore Government have their own specialized training institutes, Civil Service College is both the largest and the main training provider within the Singapore Government. At the time that these interviews were conducted the College had three training arms: IPAM, IPD, and Civil Service College International (created in 2003). IPAM ran specialized

skill-based training programs (e.g. communications) that tend to be short-term. IPD ran more “specialized” programs, most notably the College’s Milestone programs, intensive courses for officers at key stages of their careers” (Civil Service College, 2013b). Programs are usually two weeks in length and occur at important stages in a public officer’s career, ranging from entry-level up to the Deputy-Secretary level. Research at Civil Service College is located within five specialized Centers of Expertise: The Center for Governance and Leadership; The Center for Leadership Development; The Center for Organizational Development; The Center for Public Economics; and, The Center for Public Communications. These Centers provide various services including research and consulting services.

National School of Government (“National School”) United Kingdom

Created in 2005, the National School functions as a non-ministerial department. It was derived from the Centre for Management Studies, which was a successor to the Civil Service College that provided senior leadership programs and custom courses, as well as other skills-based short- and long-term programs. In 2006, the National School created the Sunningdale Institute, a virtual think-tank and research centre. As discussed in the literature review, fiscal constraint led to the disbandment of the National School in March 2012. A new organization, Civil Service Learning, has been created. The exact implications of the new organizational arrangements were unclear when the interview was conducted.

Nederlandse School voor Openbaar Bestuur (NSOB) The Netherlands

NSOB (Dutch School of Public Administration) was jointly founded in 1989 by Leiden University and the Erasmus University Rotterdam. Although it maintains affiliation with its founding universities and other Dutch universities, the NSOB functions as an independent institution. It has an agreement with the Netherland’s School of Public Administration, which allows their professors to teach NSOB courses. NSOB has four Masters programs aimed at senior national or municipal government officials: Master of Strategic Urban Studies (MSUS); Master of Public Administration (MPA) Strategic Leadership Course (SLL); Metropool. Both MPA and SLL are accredited by the European Association of Public Administration Accreditation (EAPAA). NSOB also offers other courses and certificates, most notably its Interdepartmental Management Course. The cost is almost always covered by the participant’s employer. In addition to its enrolment courses, NSOB also offers numerous in-company, custom-made courses, mostly for national and municipal governments. In 2006, NSOB created a think-tank that runs several research programs.

Bureau Algemene Bestuursdienst (ABD) The Netherlands

ABD (Senior Public Office) is located within the Netherland’s Ministry of the Interior and Royal Relations (BZK). Although it is officially part of the BZK, the organization considers itself a “concern unit” responsible for all of the management development programs for the senior civil service (i.e. the top 400 employees) in the Dutch Rijkdienst (national government). Unlike the other organizations in this study, ABD is not primarily a training organization; rather it performs numerous functions related to the selection, recruitment and development of the top managers within the national government. As part of this function, ABD oversees the development of several executive and management training programs. Its main program is its Candidates Programs, a four-

year (two years in-class and two years on-the-job) program that selects two or three high-achievers from each ministry annually. It is currently in the process of developing a leadership academy. Although ABD oversees these programs, the actual programs themselves are almost always contracted out, often to NSOB. ABD was interviewed for this study to obtain a more complete picture of research and curriculum development in the Netherlands since it has a relatively diffuse system of civil servant training.

5.2.1 Questions asked of International Interviewees

5.2.2 Curriculum Development

Can you describe the curriculum development process at your institution, as you perceive it? Can you tell me about which groups within your institution you identify as being involved in the process?

Overall the responses to the curriculum development questions were less structured, varied in terms of specificity, and overlapped between the two questions and responses to later questions. With the exception of the Civil Service College, all interviewees described their curriculum development process as “informal” or “ad-hoc.”

The steps in developing ANZSOG’s Executive MPA program were used as an example of how ANZSOG develops curriculum. During the formative phase, ANZSOG conducts two levels of needs analysis. The first level consults relevant governments to gauge the interest in such a program. The second level assesses the learning needs of potential students and attempts to uncover what students taking an Executive MPA need to know. During the development phase, ANZSOG consults with leading academics to detail the curriculum. In addition, the program is updated when new information emerges through research or when new ANZSOG case studies are developed. Curriculum development at ANZSOG generally employs both academics and practitioners. Practitioners are involved in the process more at the formative stage when they specify knowledge domains that are to be included. Academics are involved in the development phase and develop what is taught. Most ANZSOG programs are delivered by “leading” academics. These academics may be employed by ANZSOG or by the 16 universities that partially participate in ANZSOG. ANZSOG strives to “tap into ...the best teachers in the world” and works with alumni to continually improve the quality of their programs.

The training arms of the Singapore Civil Service College each have units in charge of curriculum development. These units were identified as the groups primarily involved in curriculum development. However, other groups may also be involved. These groups include: Centers of Expertise (research groups); the College’s Board; and, Senior Government officials. All Civil Service College programs are delivered by practitioners. Within the IPD, content is taught by practitioners from government. Within the IPAM, the content is taught by practitioners from either government or the private sector. The way curriculum priorities are determined for Milestone programs was characterized as both “top-down” and “bottom-up” since it depends on the seniority of the target group. More senior programs go through a more formalized process, which includes input and direction from senior officials within Singapore’s Civil Service. The process for more junior or

entry-level programs is less likely to involve senior input. Proposals for what is to be included in the curriculum often originate from the curriculum unit within the IPD and/or the research team within the Centers of Expertise.

The curriculum development process at the UK's National School of Government was described as "not overly formalized or prescribed," and was not written down. However, there was an implicit process regarding how curriculum is developed. Despite having an overall informal and implicit curriculum development process, curriculum development was more formalized in certain areas, especially leadership development. This was attributed to the fact that over the past 10 years there had been major interest in leadership development from key stakeholders, such as the Cabinet Secretary and department heads. Curriculum development process for junior programs is less formal than that for senior programs and was described as "a flow between bottom-up and top-down process". Curriculum development in this area usually involved formal consultation with these stakeholders. There is a three-step initial development framework of important considerations in curriculum development: identification of the overall aims and expectations of the learning process, or – as described by the interviewee – the 'big picture'; identification of overall learning approaches; alignment with a government-wide framework known as the Professional Skills of Government that outlines the skills for each individual within the civil service.

The U.K. National School's Senior Leadership team and Heads of Practice have responsibility for and interest in curriculum development. However, with relevance to curriculum development, the School's subject matter experts (SMEs) and program developers (roughly 50) were the most important contributors. Their areas of expertise include leadership, management, policy development and other professional skills. SMEs and program developers contract out certain parts of curriculum development. There were two key external stakeholders. The first group is the civil service's HR leaders, some of whom have been involved with the management of civil servant development. The second group consists of members at the Permanent Secretary and Director General level who meet regularly to discuss development and other HR issues on a regular basis.

NSOB programs in the Netherlands can be divided into two types: those that it develops on its own initiative and those developed upon request. The former are developed in response to perceived gaps in the curricula of both NSOB and other universities. Curriculum development is "not very formalized". The process highlighted by the interviewee included: assigning a "Dean" who is in charge of running a program and can come from within the organization or be external; writing the program: this is where the specific content for the program is determined. Literature is consulted, and interviews are conducted with stakeholders from both academia and practice. Since most course delivery is by academics or practitioners from outside NSOB, the primary role of NSOB in curriculum development is the creation of the organization of the programs and sessions.

Overall, although the creation of its major programs has involved considerable effort, on the whole curriculum development at the Dutch ABD is done on a fairly ad-hoc basis. Three groups within ABD are involved with curriculum development: the personnel development team, the management consultant team, and the strategy team. The personnel development team is composed mostly of learning coaches. The management consultant team functions as an interface between ABD and the senior civil service. The strategy team focuses on overall political and strategic considerations.

ABD personnel have two functions within curriculum development. The first is overall needs analysis although, since ABD manages the vacancies in the senior civil service, it has a good grasp of the overall training needs. The second role is designing or co-designing the courses, usually in collaboration with the contracted delivery organization. ABD curriculum delivery is always contracted out.

5.2.3 Research

Can you describe how research is planned and undertaken within your organization?

Since its inception, ANZSOG has created more than 100 case studies that are “at the core of their teaching”. ANZSOG regularly develops new case studies and also regularly updates existing cases to reflect changes in focus, relevance or emphasis in delivery. ANZSOG spends roughly AUD \$400,000 each year to fund longer-term and extensive research projects by its permanent and contract staff. The most common forms of research produced by Singapore Civil Service College are case studies and/or reports. The most common form of research produced by the UK National School were reports.

Research at the NSOB research results in products such as dissertations, reports, books and booklets. NSOB engages in three types of research: academic research, contract research and its own research programs. It employs several PhD students, paying for up to four years of their PhD. These students work as “learning managers” for NSOB and spend 50 percent of their time working on their dissertation. These dissertations are the main form of academic research at NSOB. NSOB also engages in occasional contract research for various organizations, usually Ministries within the Dutch Government. When NSOB undertakes contract research, it ensures that it has considerable autonomy in the project. NSOB has its own research programs which include research on how to build adaptive, robust and resilient government, on “networked government” (which focuses on how government can co-create with other actors in society), and on “foresight” within government.

Research at Netherlands ABD is confined to the organization’s strategy group. Given ABD’s small size, its research capacity is limited. ABD engages in three types of research: larger research ad-hoc projects, evaluation activities and ongoing “monitoring” of the field of public administration. While the latter two are listed as forms of research, they can be considered research “broadly defined.” Larger research projects occur infrequently and on an ad-hoc basis. These projects are often undertaken in collaboration with the BZK’s research group or other universities within the Netherlands. ABD’s most recent large-scale research project was a project on diversity within the senior ranks of the Dutch civil service, conducted in collaboration with the University of Groningen. Every two years, ABD’s strategy group conducts major evaluations of customers (e.g. the top 400 civil servants) satisfaction with its work. The strategy group monitors the overall field of public administration within the Netherlands on an ongoing basis.

Who within your organization is involved in research activities?

ANZSOG’s full-time research chair, academic staff (both full-time staff, contract researchers and contract teachers) and case writers are involved in research activities. ANZSOG’s research chair, the *Sir John Bucking Chair in Public Administration*, is a full-time position at the Australian National

University in Canberra. This chair oversees ANZSOG's "quite extensive" post-graduate research program, publishing widely and serving as the underpinning of its research program. All ANZSOG research is performed by academics, although the academic's actual relationship with ANZSOG varies. For example, research is performed by ANZSOG's full-time academic staff. Research projects and case studies are also performed by outside academics (i.e. not employed full-time at ANZSOG), either through funding or contracting. In addition, ANZSOG requires its contract teaching staff to be "firmly grounded in theory and practice." As such, ANZSOG considers the research undertaken by contract-teachers within their own careers (i.e. not funded by ANZSOG) to be part of ANZSOG's overall research. The two case writers employed by ANZSOG – one in Australia and one in New Zealand - work with researchers to turn their research into "teachable case studies".

The five Centers of Expertise of the Singapore Civil Service College are involved in research activities. Each center focuses on specific areas of expertise and employs specialists in that area.

At the UK National School, three groups were involved in producing research: classroom subject matter experts (SMEs), program developers, and the Sunningdale Institute. There was some overlap between research by the first two groups and the Sunningdale Institute. SMEs and program developers engaged in their own research. Research by these groups was sometimes published, but more often did not result in a publication; instead it supported the immediate development needs. The National School had originally intended to have each SME publish one piece of formal research per year, but had fallen below this annual target. The Sunningdale Institute employed both a core research team, as well as "virtual professors" (i.e. professors employed at universities throughout the UK) who collaborated with the Sunningdale Institute.

Research at Dutch NSOB is produced by its think-tank. NSOB has roughly ten employees working on research; some work exclusively on research and others, such as NSOB's Deans, work on it as only part of their responsibilities. The think-tank also contracts out some research to a network of freelancers. While these freelancers do not work formally for NSOB and may also be contracted by other organizations, they are often quite extensively involved in NSOB research projects. Research at ABD is done by its strategy team. Because ABD's strategy team is fairly small, they sometimes hire consultants when engaging in larger research projects.

Where do you think the work of your research group(s) fits into the overall research picture at your organization?

ANZSOG's overall work is "inextricably grounded in practice". Its research is a core part of "practice" and focuses on both understanding "what is the underlying knowledge required to improve practice" and on "what makes good public sector management and good public sector policy making". At the Singapore Civil Service College, the activities of the Centers of Expertise are the overall focus of research at the College. Centers engage in activities in addition to research, such as consulting and psychometrics testing.

The Sunningdale Institute was the most visible area where research took place at the UK National School. Its relationship with the National School and the National School's overall research varied. Sunningdale would sometimes be involved in the formal research projects coming from the School

(e.g. by the SMEs or program developers) depending on the subject. Research, especially research done by specific request, was not always credited to the National School.

At the Netherlands NSOB, the think-tank's main contribution to NSOB's overall research is its own research programs. ABD's strategy team accounts for all of the research activity within ABD. However, within the Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations (BZK), there is a larger research group consisting of about 25 people. If the overall research at the Ministry is taken into account, ABD's strategy team is a relatively small part of the organization's overall research.

Would you say that your research group(s) is (are) the main source of in-house research?

ANSZOG does not have a formal research group. The Centers of Expertise are the main sources of in-house research at the Singapore Civil Service College; however, while the training institutes engage in activities such as reading or needs analysis type work, they are "not involved in research per se".

While not the only source of in-house research, the Sunningdale Institute was the main source at the U.K. National School. Formal research done within the National School and that by the Sunningdale Institute often "complemented each other," but the overall output was roughly 70:30 in favour of the Sunningdale Institute. The predominance of the Sunningdale Institute was attributed to the fact that the Institute had more resources for research than the SMEs and program developers in the National School.

In the Netherlands, the NSOB think-tank is the main source of research within NSOB. ABD's strategy team accounts for all of the research activity within ABD.

How do you think research priorities are determined within your organization?

ANSZOG's research priorities are determined by staff interest and teaching interest. The two are largely inter-related. The "overriding priority" of ANZSOG research is its teaching content. This is particularly important for its case studies. Although not all of ANZSOG's case studies end up in the curriculum, they do not generally commission a case study if it is not "clear in theory where it would be useful for teaching".

At the Civil Service College in Singapore, multiple players and processes are involved in determining research priorities, which is done in a manner similar to curriculum development in that both involve "top-down" and "bottom-up" influences. Within the College, research priorities are generally incorporated into a three-year research agenda. Curriculum development is a highly important driver for the Centers of Expertise; consequently, a major focus of the research agenda is the capabilities on which they wish to build. In terms of "bottom-up" sources, researcher interest and analysis shape research priorities. Within the Centers, researchers engage in ongoing analysis of trends (e.g. within Singapore, internationally, etc.) and priorities (i.e. those of the head of the civil service) relevant to each Center's own area of expertise. While this analysis informs the work of researchers, their individual interests also shape research priorities. From this combination of individual interest and analysis, each Center picks three annual priorities to address. The Centers then submit their priorities to the training institutes. Although sometimes priorities of the researchers and the curriculum developers conflict, they are similar most of the time. Individual

Ministries often have specific requests for research. This occurs on an ongoing and informal basis. On the more formal level, the Dean of the College asks government Ministries each year how the college can better serve them, as well as their overall training and research needs. Senior leaders play a role in suggesting research priorities as well as specific projects. The Prime Minister's Office occasionally requests specific projects.

At the U.K. National School, research priorities varied depending on who was involved. Research by SMEs and program developers tended to be related to their own areas of expertise and the curriculum needs. The interests of individual researchers as well as the overall priorities of the civil service determined the research priorities at the Sunningdale Institute. Commissioned research included original reports, but might also include critiques and evaluation. For example, the Sunningdale Institute had been commissioned to review and critique the results of a capability exercise done by other departments.

Research priorities at the Netherlands NSOB vary depending on the type of research being produced. The academic research priorities are largely determined by individual researcher interest, although contract research priorities are determined by the contracting party. However, NSOB's own interests are involved as well since – as noted above – NSOB is selective as to which projects they choose. The priorities of NSOB's own research programs are largely determined by the overall interests of NSOB, as well as by its individual researchers who choose the research topics and set their own research agenda. However, NSOB's research interests “do not occur in a vacuum”. There is ongoing dialogue with prominent practitioners and academics within the field, and the ideas of these individuals influence its research priorities.

The Dutch ABD engages in three types of research activities, with two (i.e. evaluation and monitoring activities) being research in the broadest sense. Because these activities are routine, they do not have priorities *per se*. Larger research projects are usually undertaken when the strategy team believes there is a gap in research surrounding an important Government priority.

5.2.4 The Relationship between Research and Curriculum Development

From your perspective, what is the relationship today between in-house research and curriculum development?

ANZSOG's research is fundamentally related to curriculum development. However, the overall extent of the research that is integrated into the curriculum varies, with case studies more likely to be directly integrated into ANZSOG's programs. At the Singapore Civil Service College, curriculum development is the main purpose of all research. However, the Centers of Expertise are becoming increasingly focused on research for other purposes as well.

At the U.K. National School, in theory, any research had to fit with curriculum requirements. However, the Sunningdale Institute also carried out “reputation” and/or “wider-public interest” research. Even with such broader research, the National School was supposed to derive some curriculum development benefit. The relationship of research to curriculum development was described as “patchy and inconsistent.”

At Netherlands NSOB, some of its research is used in its programs although the extent of integration varies and integration is a secondary purpose. At ABD, the relationship between research and curriculum development varies depending on the type of research being done. Evaluation activities have some relationship to curriculum development. Research is not actually turned into content but rather serves as a basis for the revision of curriculum or for the creation of new curriculum.

To what extent is your organization's overall research actively integrated into its curriculum?

The extent to which ANZSOG's research is actively integrated into its curriculum varies and is partially related to the type of learning product. Specifically, ANZSOG's case studies are designed for use in ANZSOG courses and are usually developed with a specific course in mind. For reasons of efficiency they may be used in multiple courses and programs. As noted, case studies are the "core underpinning" of ANZSOG teaching. Not all case studies produced by ANZSOG are used in its courses; some may be used for many years, whereas others, for example those based on current events, may only be used for a shorter periods. Larger research projects are usually not undertaken with a specific course in mind and are less likely to be actively integrated into ANZSOG curriculum. Their findings may however be referred to in a course. Even if not used directly, they still serve to deepen ANZSOG's understanding of public administration, which in turn increases the knowledge upon which their programs are based.

At the Civil Service College's research is integrated into its curriculum. Almost all of the Centers of Expertise's research is integrated into its programs; this includes research that has been commissioned by various Ministries.

The amount of active integration at the National School varied. Research produced by SMEs and program developers was more likely to be integrated into curriculum than that of the Sunningdale Institute.

The level of active integration varies at NSOB. The relationship between research and curriculum development is interwoven. NSOB research is sometimes used extensively within the programs and has even inspired the creation of the programs. It may be incorporated into lectures or used as course materials (e.g. booklets, books, etc). Research is used quite extensively in some programs and/or sessions, most often where an NSOB Dean or researcher is lecturing. In addition, some of NSOB's programs, including its Strategic Leadership Program, have been inspired by its research and thus heavily rely on it. However, the purpose of creating such programs was not to use NSOB research in courses; rather, the program was created because NSOB research uncovered a gap in a specific area and then decided to create a program. Some of NSOB's research is of little relevance to some of the programs it delivers. The nature of the participants and form of NSOB programs themselves often generate ideas that inspire NSOB's own research. The adult learning format of most NSOB programs is "quite interactive." allowing for considerable discussion and debate among participants about "what they encounter in their organization, how they tackle particular dilemmas, what they do in particular situations [or] how they deal with all sorts of complexities". Since ABD's research does not generate content, there is no active integration at ABD.

Would you say that the overall purpose of in-house research is curriculum development? If so, in what way?

Broadly, curriculum development is the main purpose of ANZSOG's research but is not the only purpose of the research. ANZSOG is also interested in improving overall knowledge in the field of public administration.

At the Civil Service College, curriculum development is the main purpose of research. However, in recent years Civil Service College has been expanding its research beyond curriculum development.

At the National School, curriculum development could be described as the overall purpose of research, but has had a reputational component. Specifically, the research allowed the National School to be recognized for its own research program.

NSOB's ambitions regarding integrating its research in its education programs are "very limited". The organization views the integration of its research into curriculum as a positive occurrence but it is not seen as a necessary research outcome. The goal of NSOB is to use the highest quality available research. If this research happens to be done by NSOB, they will use it; if not, they will use other relevant research.

At ABD, the overall purpose of two of the research activities of the strategy groups – ongoing monitoring of the central civil service management and larger ad-hoc projects – is curriculum development. However, as noted, these activities do not create content. Rather, they relate to curriculum in that their findings may lead to revisions of existing programs or the creation of new programs. For example, findings from the diversity project led to the creation of a program designed specifically for senior management who had come into the civil service later in their careers. ABD's evaluation activities may also lead to changes in curriculum. However, because the evaluations examine more than just curriculum, the main purpose of the activity cannot be said to be curriculum development.

From your perspective, has the relationship between in-house research and curriculum development changed over time?

The relationship has remained relatively stable at ANZSOG, although over time certain subjects have become more important or the focus of certain areas has changed. For example, there have recently been "major breakthroughs" in public sector financing that have led to new programs.

The relationship between research and curriculum development at the Civil Service College has undergone significant changes in recent years. The Centers of Expertise had originally been part of the College's training arms. The research units were largely focused on curriculum development. However, over time a sense emerged that the research units needed not only to enhance the College's curriculum, but also to spend more time focusing on "research for research's sake" as well as on documentation. While curriculum development is still the primary purpose of research, the Centers of Expertise have become increasingly focused on "multiplying the value of the research" (i.e. disseminating research findings). This process has slowly evolved over the past few years and has done so at least partially due to internal and external demand for research. The College has

consequently become increasingly involved in publication of research. For example, in 2004 it created its journal *Ethos*. The College's participation in the New Synthesis (NS6) project – which included the publication of several of the Milestone program case studies – marked the first time that the College had published program materials. A book of its own case studies, which came out in 2011, marked the first time that the College's work appeared in a book on its own.

At the National School, the relationship between research and curriculum development had received a major “shot in the arm” and improved at the time of the creation of the Sunningdale Institute. Prior to this, both in-house research and its integration into the curriculum had been limited. This improvement was not attributed to the Sunningdale Institute itself, but rather to an overall “organizational climate” which recognized the importance that in-house research had in “creating a world class organization” and that research had for improving learning and development. It was this “climate” which itself had led to the creation of the Sunningdale Institute. The integration of research and curriculum eventually declined as the National School went into “survival” and “fire-fighting” modes.

At NSOB, staff had often been involved in ad-hoc research projects prior to the creation of the think-tank; however, NSOB had not previously produced any formal research and, as such, had not integrated research into its curriculum. The creation of the think-tank marked the “formalization” or “institutionalization” of NSOB research. While NSOB is still primarily a training organization, since 2006 research has become increasingly part of what NSOB does and is now considered a “genuine part of [NSOB's] portfolio as a whole”. Demand by students and a perceived gap between research and practice were the two broad impetuses behind the creation of the think-tank. Another reason was that many of NSOB's stakeholders and advisers felt that research being conducted at universities did not address their needs. NSOB has a strong reputation in the Netherlands, with many senior managers having taken one or more of its programs. Many like its approach to public sector governance and want to further engage with it through reading research produced by NSOB.

The relationship between research and curriculum development has remained fairly stable since the ABD was created in 1995. The only caveat to this is that the organization engaged in more research during the five years following its creation since ABD needed to “give a face” to their office. The only other change that may be occurring is outside ABD, since the BZK's research group has received significant funding and staffing cuts. ABD may therefore end up working more closely with its Ministry as a result of funding pressures.

Do you see or have you experienced any challenges associated with integrating research into curriculum? If so, what are these challenges?

ANZSOG did not identify any challenges associated with integrating research into curriculum, since the ANZSOG curriculum relies heavily on theory and practice. Accordingly, whenever ANZSOG research deals with either theory or practice it is viewed as valuable to curriculum, even if it is not used in ANZSOG's actual courses.

For the Civil Service College, the biggest challenge associated with turning research into curriculum is timelines. Specifically, curriculum needs tend to be quite immediate, with curriculum developers

wanting current issues addressed in their programs. Research, on the other hand, takes longer to develop. To overcome this delay, when developers want to include part of current (e.g. being conducted at the time) research project in a course, the researchers may “break up” the project into smaller pieces and put forward a “test piece” or “think piece” in the class. While this piece may not be the actual project in full, it is usually sufficient to start discussion. This tactic has the added advantage that researchers get feedback on the project.

Getting high-level support and sponsorship was a challenge for the National School.

ABD and NSOB did not identify any challenges.

In your opinion, how could the relationship between in-house research and curriculum development be improved?

At ANZSOG, timelines were identified as a major issue regarding integrating ANZSOG’s research and curriculum.

At the Civil Service College more communication is needed between the researchers and the training arms of the Civil Service College, given how often curriculum needs change.

The National School identified two areas where improvement was needed. The first – a continuation of its response to the previous question – was the need for overall commitment by senior leaders. This applied to both the relationship between research and curriculum development, as well as research on the whole. The second, which applied more to research, was that senior leaders needed to accept the results of research, even when they are not flattering. Several examples were cited where research results which were “unflattering” to either the National School or to the civil service as a whole had not been published.

At NSOB, the only potential improvement identified regarded the size and resources of NSOB. The organization is content to remain small. The organization views its small size as an advantage as being small allows it to respond more rapidly to changes.

At ABD the relationship would improve if it had more time and resources to conduct formal research would likely lead to increased research being integrated into curriculum.

6 Discussion

This section jointly discusses the findings of the literature review and interviews. The discussion is grouped into common themes, often highlighting common areas in the literature reviewed, as well as responses by experts interviewed at the Canada School of Public Service and organizations outside Canada.

6.1 Constant Changes

The histories of organizations profiled, including the School, in combination with the literature reviewed and interview results, demonstrate that change is a constant feature of these organizations. Several types of changes have been documented in this project. The literature reviewed documented changes in training trends, themselves often in response to economic and political changes. While such changes obviously influence the content taught by national schools of government, they can also influence their organizational structure. The School, as well as the (now former) National School of Government, and, to a lesser extent the Civil Service College, have all gone through significant reorganizations. Similarly, changing priorities can at least partially be credited for the creation of ABD, NSOB and ANZSOG. Interview results also indicate that research agendas change over time as well. In addition, as will be discussed, the actual relationship between research and curriculum development may also change over time.

6.2 Curriculum Development at National Schools of Government

The majority of interviewees at the School and other organizations described curriculum development as “informal” or “ad-hoc.” The majority of interviewees at the School indicated that the diagram was an overly formalized version of how curriculum development works, especially when it comes to the Executive Committee. Examples were cited of programs that were initiated without any involvement from senior management, let alone the Executive Committee. Of the international interviewees, all but the Singapore Civil Service College described curriculum development as an informal process. Although Civil Service College did not use the term informal, the interviewee did not describe a uniform process, focusing instead on the personnel involved.

Although often described as informal, evidence from the School and international interviewees, as well as from the literature surveyed, indicates the degree of formalization varies depending on the recipients of training. Just was Wise (2007) indicated that senior level programs were often put through more rigorous evaluation processes, interviewees at the School, the U.K. National School of Government and the Singapore Civil Service College indicated that programs designed for more senior employee groups were more likely to go through a more formal consultations processes, such as receiving input, and in some cases, originating from the ideas of senior management. In the case of the School, high-level government priorities – such as the Clerk’s Report or the Speech from the Throne in Canada – often served as a source of needs analysis. Although interviewees contrasted these “formal” consultations with the more “ad hoc” processes, formality in this context refers more to the position of individuals involved rather than to a process. Senior management may be “formally” involved at various parts of the process such as needs analysis (i.e. initiating a course) or through evaluation. The varying degrees of formality apply to curriculum development

generally, as well as to specific parts of the process. For example, interviewees at the School indicated that while some courses do go through specific evaluations, informal evaluation is also common.

Curriculum development may also be influenced by the type of program. For example, the answers by ANZSOG and NSOB, both of which offer degree-granting modular programs, differed from the responses by the other institutions profiled. Outside of overall formalization, few points of comparison emerged when it came to curriculum development. The diagram used in the School interviews provided a starting point for describing the process. In addition, eight interviews were conducted at the School, providing a much richer perspective than those given by any one respondent. Without the benefit of the diagram or multiple perspectives, international interviews focused on different aspects of curriculum development, leading to few commonalities in responses. It is conceivable that organizational structure influenced answers. Specifically, the non-Government-run institutions (ANZSOG, NSOB) focused on the process of creating their programs, whereas the Government-run institutions (ABD, National School, Civil Service College) focused on needs analysis and on the personnel involved.

One area where there was some correspondence between the interviewees and the literature was in regards to competency frameworks. Just as competency frameworks have been listed as influencing evaluation (Wise, 2007), both the National School of Government and the Civil Service College identified competency frameworks as influential on the curriculum development process.

6.3 The Relationship between Research and Curriculum Development

At its core, this project investigated the relationship between research and curriculum development. Individual perceptions of what constitutes research, as well as the varied research activities, influenced the answers received. These perceptions were most evident at the School, but also influenced answers at the international level.

6.3.1 Perceptions of Research

Interviews revealed differing perceptions of research. These varying perceptions are most evident at the School, but also appeared in the responses from other organizations. There was no single common understanding of what can be meant by research.

These perceptions of research included very broad definitions of research. For example, many – but not all – of the experts interviewed at the School considered activities such as evaluation, needs analysis and scanning to be research. Likewise, ABD and the National School of Government identified scanning, needs analysis and evaluation as forms of research. Evaluation has also been included in the non-traditional forms of research identified in the literature (e.g. ANZSOG, 2007; Hartely and Tranfield, 2011).

These broad definitions of research are in contrast to narrower perceptions of research. Specifically, there were the two interviewees at the School who stated that IBP was the only organization involved in research. In addition, the representative of Singapore's Civil Service College identified the teaching wing's activities as not including research.

Even among those who held a broader understanding of research, there was an implicit understanding that activities such as evaluation and needs-analysis were more “practical” in nature and differed from more “in-depth,” “bigger picture,” or “academic” research. Traditional research outputs – in particular publications – were often used to illustrate this difference.

6.3.2 Perceptions of Research and the Relationship to Curriculum Development

Many of the answers regarding the relationship between research and curriculum development were influenced by the interviewee’s own understanding of research. This was particularly evident regarding non-traditional research activities such as evaluation, needs analysis and scanning. At the School, such activities were readily associated with curriculum development. They were also exclusively associated with curriculum development. Similar responses came from the U.K. National School and The Netherlands ABD.

The relationship between research and curriculum development was more complex when it came to the “bigger picture” research projects associated with IBP. For example, interviewees identified instances where IBP’s work had been integrated into the School’s curriculum, and sometimes (e.g., Advanced Executive Judgment Cards) even created with the specific purpose of making learning material, but they also recognized that creating learning material was not currently the main purpose of IBP. Although most respondents could name at least one IBP research project that had been turned into curriculum, curriculum development was not seen as the main purpose of IBP. There were varying levels of satisfaction with the present relationship, as well as varying opinions on whether curriculum development should be the main purpose of IBP.

The relationship between bigger picture research projects and curriculum development also varied at the international level. While curriculum development is usually a purpose of research, the extent of the relationship varied. Moreover, research appears to have a purpose outside of curriculum development. The relationship was strongest at Singapore’s Civil Service College where curriculum development was considered the main purpose of research. However, purposes other than curriculum development have become more important in recent years. This relationship was less direct at ANZSOG and the National School. Although curriculum development was described as the main purpose of research at ANZSOG, the interviewee also indicated that ANZSOG was satisfied if material was not used in coursework but contributed to the broader field. Similarly, the National School described curriculum development as not the only purpose of its research done by its bigger picture Sunningdale Institute. Moreover, while a goal, curriculum development was not strongly linked to projects coming from Sunningdale. NSOB’s think tank also provided a different example of how curriculum development and research can be related. Rather than creating research to be used in curriculum, the two processes were said to “feed each other.”

In addition to different ideas of the nature of research, there were also different views of what could be considered in-house research. For example, some interviewees at the School, as well as the interviewee from ANZSOG, identified the broader work of academics and consultants as a form of in-house research. Likewise, ANZSOG and NSOB identified work by graduate students as an in-house research output. Curriculum development was cited as the main purpose of research at

Singapore's Centres of Expertise but, again, as not the only purpose. Civil Service College's efforts to multiply the "value" of the research show that its research has broader relevance outside of curriculum development.

It is clear from the interviews and from the literature (ANZSOG, 2007) that not all research lends itself directly to curriculum development. Moreover, some interviewees within the School suggested that some of the School's business lines, especially experiential leadership courses, would have little use for IBP-type research, at least in its current form. At the same time, the apparent popularity of the Advanced Executive Judgment Cards, suggests that certain outputs, especially those designed as learning material, lend themselves to being readily incorporated.

6.4 Challenges in Relating Research to Curriculum Development

Communication and timelines were the two most frequently mentioned challenges related to bridging research and curriculum development. These issues were mentioned frequently by experts at the School, as well as the interviewee at Civil Service College.

Many School interviewees indicated that there was a disconnect between the work of the IBP and the needs of curriculum developers at the School. This was attributed partly to IBP's own priorities, but also to overall communication issues. Interviewees who were more aware than others of IBP's work tended to express greater satisfaction with what they did. The critical comments were generally related to the more "in-depth" research of IBP, rather than the day-to-day research identified by some interviewees for their own work in curriculum development. The time-consuming nature of in-depth research is recognized in the broader research-to-practice literature.

Another challenge identified at several organizations (i.e. ABD, National School, and NSOB) was overall resource availability. Comments at the School about the need to demonstrate value in the current climate of fiscal restraint also touched on the resource issue. However, the nature of the comments at the international level, such as by the interviewee at the National School, appeared to be more about research in general rather than the immediate application of research to curriculum development. Resources constrain research budgets, so that less research is produced and thus fewer research outputs can be integrated into curriculum. Not all international interviewees identified challenges. For example, interviewees at ANZSOG and NSOB, who saw research produced as beneficial regardless of whether it was actually integrated into curriculum, did not identify any challenges.

6.5 How the Relationship between Research to Curriculum Development can be improved

Many of the answers regarding how the relationship between research and curriculum development could be improved related to the challenges identified, many by those who identified them.

Increased communication generally was identified by several interviewees at the School, as well as by the interviewee from Singapore, as the means by which the relationship could be improved. Within the School, some specific examples were also mentioned. Many interviewees suggested that

IBP make increased use of the Notebook, for both future and current projects. Other individual suggestions included appointing “ambassadors” to represent IBP to the rest of the School and having “brown-bag” lunches. Increased communication efforts to make the rest of the School aware of IBP projects would also help. The most common suggestion was to “loan” IBP researchers to assist members in the programs area in their development of new “product”, although some respondents thought that this might impair IBP’s independence and innovation, as well as reducing the credibility or image of the School.

Another suggestion that was identified at the School, as well as at ANZSOG and Civil Service College, relates to the timing of communications. Several School interviewees suggested that projects be publicized not just at their conclusion but also at intervals during development. That success of this process at Civil Service College and ANZSOG supports the value of the suggestion.

7 Recommendations and Conclusions

The investigation in this project was intended to determine the relationship between research and curriculum development at national schools of government. To answer that question the research examined the relationship through interviews at five similar international institutions, as well as eight interviews with experts within the School. The results of the interviews indicate several practices that could be adopted or enhanced by Innovations and Best Practice (IBP) to improve this overall relationship with the school and increase the dissemination. Three recommendations have been made.

7.1 Increase Visibility within the School

It is recommended that IBP undertake efforts to increase its visibility within the School. This can be accomplished by using some of the suggestions proposed by experts within the School. Efforts should be both formal communication and relationship building, as well as more informal relationship building.

Formal Communication and Consultation

Formal communication and consultation will help increase IBP's profile within the School. Formal consultation efforts should include expanded use of the weekly Notebook. It could also include "trunk shows" and brownbag lunches. Formal consultation efforts should include increased consultation on research priorities, such as annual consultations on research topics.

Informal Relationship Building

While formal communication efforts are important, IBP should build on its existing efforts in building relationships with program developers and other groups within the School. Such arrangements need not be formalized. It could also explore the possibility of making its employees available to other groups, at least on an informal basis.

7.2 Strategic Timing of Communication and Consultation Efforts

In addition to increasing visibility through consultation and communication efforts, the timing of any communication and consultation efforts should be strategic. This includes communication and consultation throughout project development and can be extended to previous projects.

Ongoing Communication

Whenever possible IBP projects should be communicated to the School throughout their development. As the most important aspect is to get projects on the radar of course developers, this could include a variety of forms such as the release of preliminary results or simple status updates.

Previous Work

While majority of communication efforts should be focused on current work, IBP could also build on the success of its Matchmaking project and promote or communicate projects that have previously been undertaken, especially when such projects deal with a contemporary issue. As some subjects tend to have longer shelf lives than others, this will have to occur at the discretion of researchers.

7.3 Content Creation Priorities

While content creation should not be the only purpose of IBP. IBP may wish to undertake projects for the specific purpose of creating content, whether for a specific offering or in general, while continuing to undertake more research-only projects. However, when undertaking a project IBP should at least consider focusing on content and using formats that are more likely to be adopted as learning material. Consultation with the School should be used to discover which subject areas are most in need of research or content that could be provided by IBP. Projects such as the Advanced Executive Judgement cards, provide one possible example of research outputs that lend themselves to being turned into curriculum.

8 Conclusion

The relationship between in-house research and in-house curriculum development in national schools of government is complex and reflects differing understanding of the nature of research and of the meaning of “in-house” research, as well as the widely differing organization of public servant training internationally. The description of the history and current workings of the national schools provide critically important models for understanding of the variety of ways in which public servant curriculum can be developed, delivered and evaluated, and of how research can support such development. Ultimately, the relationship between in-house research and in-house curriculum development will be affected by the nature of the public servant development required and the resources of time and financial support that can be devote to it.

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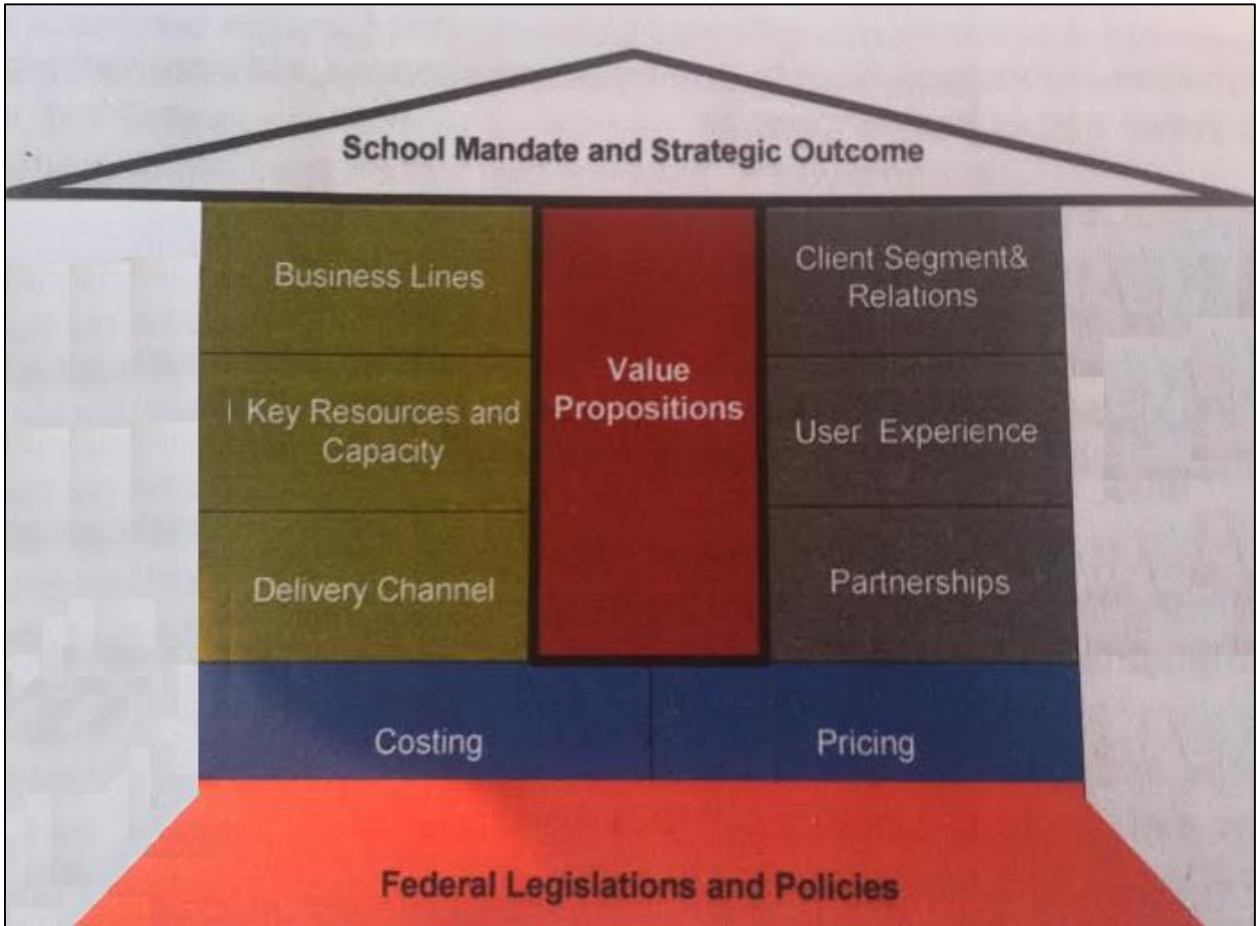
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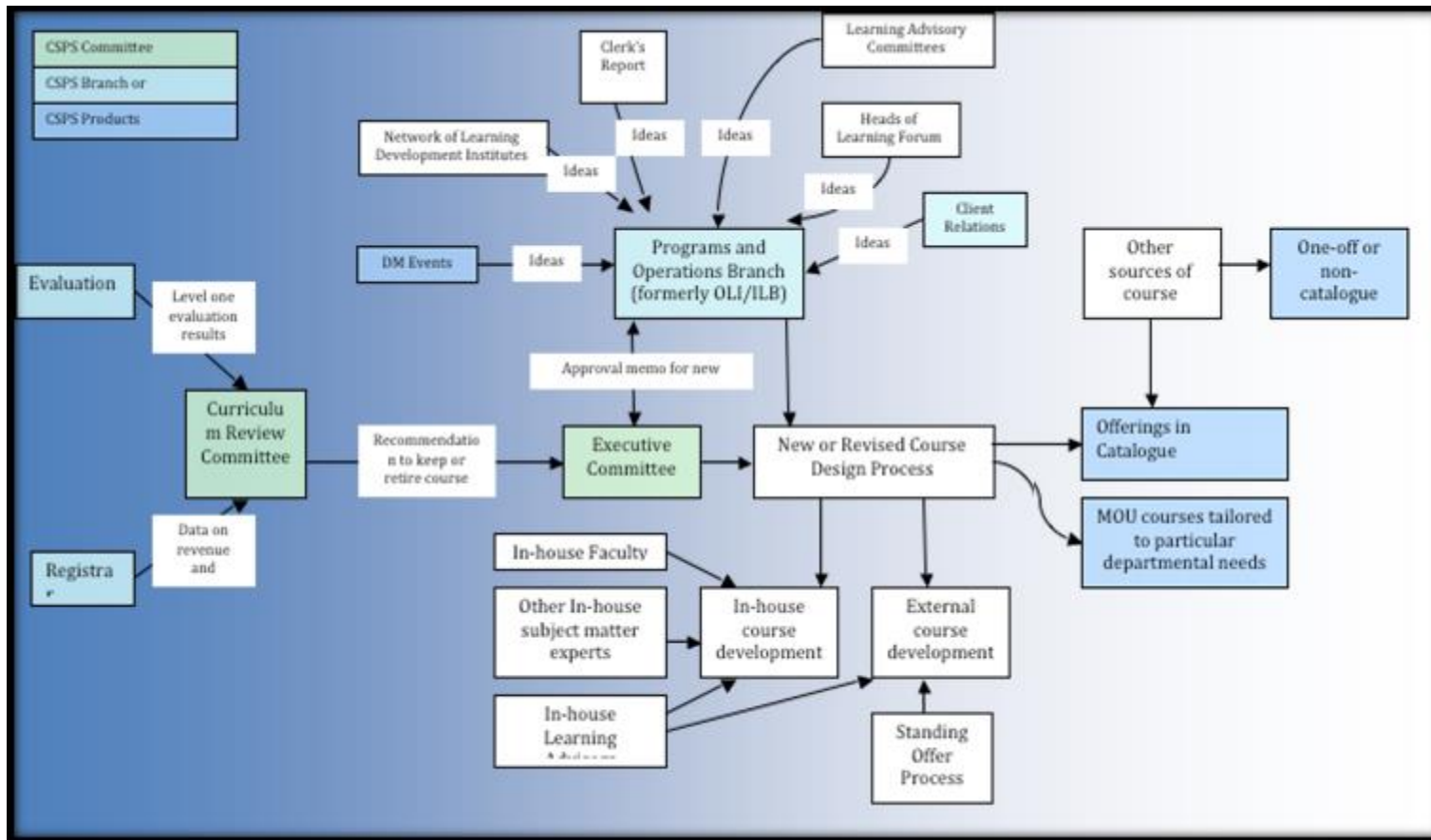
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10 Appendix A: Draft Innovation and Curriculum Development Framework



Source: Canada School of Public Service (2011)

11 Appendix B: Diagram for School Questions



12 Appendix C: School Questions

Part 1: Curriculum Development

1. Can you please describe your impressions of the diagram and how it relates to curriculum development (as you perceive it) at the School?

Part 2: Research

1. Can you describe to me how research is planned and undertaken within the School?
2. Who within the School is involved in research activities?
3. Where do you think the work of Innovations and Best Practices fits into the overall research picture at your organization?
4. Would you say that IBP is the main source of in-house research?
5. How do you think research priorities are determined within the School?

Part 3: The Relationship between the Two

1. From your perspective, what is the relationship today between in-house research and curriculum development?
2. To what extent is the School's research actively integrated into its curriculum?
3. Would you say that the overall purpose of in-house research is curriculum development? If so, in what way?
4. Do you see or have you experienced any challenges associated with integrating research into curriculum? If so, what are these challenges?
5. From your perspective, has the relationship between in-house research and curriculum development changed over time?
6. In your opinion, how could the relationship between in-house research and curriculum development be improved?

13 Appendix D: International Questions

Part 1: Curriculum Development

1. Can you please describe the curriculum development process at your institution as you perceive it?
2. Can you tell me about which groups within your institution you identify as being involved in the process?

Part 2: Research

1. Can you describe to me how research is planned and undertaken within your organization?
2. Who within your organization is involved in research activities?
3. Where do you think the work of your research group(s) fits into the overall research picture at your organization?
4. Would you say that your research group(s) is (are) the main source of in-house research?
5. How do you think research priorities are determined within your organization?

Part 3: The Relationship between the Two

1. From your perspective, what is the relationship today between in-house research and curriculum development?
2. To what extent is your organization's overall research actively integrated into its curriculum?
3. Would you say that the overall purpose of in-house research is curriculum development? If so, in what way?
4. Do you see or have you experienced any challenges associated with integrating research into curriculum? If so, what are these challenges?
5. From your perspective, has the relationship between in-house research and curriculum development changed over time?
6. In your opinion, how could the relationship between in-house research and curriculum development be improved?