

THE TRAINING OF LOCAL
PUBLIC SERVANTS
AND LOCAL ELECTED
REPRESENTATIVES
IN EUROPE

*Different perspectives
from 33 European states*





A WORD FROM FRANÇOIS DELUGA, PRESIDENT OF THE CNFPT

In general and whatever the fields, comparative politics is one of the best ways of thinking and reflecting on a system or an organisation. Comparative politics is far from the easy chauvinism which too often consists in thinking that we in France do everything better than everyone else, as well as from the other extreme which suggests that our system is the worst of all, since by allowing for nuance it enables determining the advantages of the different roads taken, stating formally that there is not just one good way, thereby determining the reform pathways that are desirable for the improvement of our public policies.

What applies in other areas applies also to the training of regional and elected officials. It is, consequently, fundamental to assess comparative modes of operation and thus aim at a better system in France.

Having a single, national, decentralised and above all, pooled public institution like the National Centre for Local Civil Service (CNFPT, Centre National de la Fonction Publique Territoriale) in terms of training local civil servants officials is a real advantage for local government in France since it allows for the homogeneous distribution of training throughout the whole territory, whatever the category of official or the size of their community, whilst remaining far from the costs of private training organisations. Of course, it is not immune to potential improvements and is perfectible like any system. This is the activity to which I have dedicated myself for the more than ten years that I have chaired this establishment.

Regarding the training of elected local representatives and faced with a local institutional ecosystem which continues to become increasingly complex after more than 35 years of decentralisation and at the whim of more and more variegated and complicated laws and regulations, elected officials, in particular those only having few regional officials in communities that are too small to allow for a substantial-sized public authority able to help them in their task, are often very low on resources whether this be in the daily management of their local authority or when facing a State machinery that always feels the pull of recentralisation.

The legislator has been poring over these problems for a long time, but has not yet found a satisfactory system allowing for fair, adequate and quality training, all at an acceptable cost to the community. It is really essential that we guarantee the means to pursue their mandate in the best conditions to all elected officials in France and to be able in this way to combat the desire to quit that afflicts too many of them. Devolution is pointless if it is not embodied by elected officials able to govern.



FOREWORD

FRANCE BURGY

GENERAL DIRECTOR OF CNFPT & VICE-PRESIDENT
OF THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOLS
AND INSTITUTES OF ADMINISTRATION

The study devoted to “the training of public officials and elected local representatives in Europe” conducted by the CNFPT with the support of the Observatory of Local Autonomy (OLA) and the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR) starts from a double observation: the difficulty of comparing different “local public services” in Europe and the imperative need to do so. Indeed, whether in Western or Central Europe, in federal or unitary states, public service is faced with a common set of problems: that of adapting its staff and its elected officials to a multitude of changes and a constantly changing regulatory framework, whilst meeting the needs of increasingly demanding citizens in the most effective way possible.

Faced with these challenges, it is clear that the level of training of elected and local public servants, their abilities to adapt and also their qualifications must progress in an era of digital transition, private sector expansion and the democratic crisis affecting Europe.

Although each country has its own training system a number of factors influence their implementation, such as the type of public service, the unitary or federal character of the country, the legal framework, recruitment culture, the strength of the associative network, funding, the political context... Comparing these countries allows us to better understand the degree to which they are anchored in a Europe which sees itself as more social and democratic, but above all enables observing some of their institutional singularities. Globally, two trends are emerging concerning types of training: the first is a university training system; the second is longer, at an applied postgraduate school which continues the training. Another observation, while it is possible to disentangle clearly identifiable typologies concerning the training of State of-

officials across Europe, it is more complicated to categorise officials and elected officials at local level, which suggests that decentralisation often remains a neglected strand of human resources and that there is little thought given to this subject at European level.

This study is therefore the first to shed light on the key elements of these different training systems, with their advantages and disadvantages, in order to understand how to improve skills and qualifications in order to shore up the effectiveness of public service. Above all, it offers the possibility of sounding out the level of progress of the various European regions in terms of local autonomy and democracy since the right of the civil servant to receive training is enshrined in the Constitution in some countries, while in others this same training is the official’s responsibility. Understanding the training needs of a country’s elected officials and agents requires studying the different administrative levels as well as their respective competences and the way local elections are held, to which the first part of the study is devoted, amongst other things. But, above all, it’s about capturing the managerial “traditions” and “habits” specific to the country since these will undeniably mark the very content of the experiential learning, and initial and continuous training intended for elected officials and local representatives.

This report is therefore part of long research aimed at gaining knowledge of specific numerical, factual and legal data in the most transparent and objective way possible and in the service of a better understanding of European local governance, all the more so since the current political climate seems to demonstrate a real need for such extension work on how the training system in Europe

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INTRO DUCTION TION

EUROPEAN COMPARISONS OF TRAINING POLICIES FOR PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND ELECTED LOCAL REPRESENTATIVES

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INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

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It is important to study how public servants and elected officials, the main actors in the management of local public services, are trained when they take up their posts or term of office and during the exercise of these latter. Indeed, the proper training of managers of local public activity is without doubt a guarantee of the productivity and quality of public service provision to users, as has emerged from every part of this study.

But how does a local elected representative or public servant get trained in Europe?

This is the big question, which is at the heart of this work: when (at the start or throughout their entire career, but depending on their “legal status”), by whom, how, about what, why or even with what objectives, using what financial resources and with what results are local public servants and elected local representatives trained in Europe?¹

It is to this multitude of questions that the gathering of statistical and numerical data from 33 States, as well as the in-depth articles brought together about certain European national examples (Germany, England, Belgium-Flanders, Belgium-Wallonia, Bulgaria, Denmark, Spain, Estonia, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Netherlands, Poland, Republic of Ireland, Czech Republic, Romania, Russia, Slovakia, Sweden and Turkey) will attempt to respond.

But, first, a brief presentation of the main themes that will be more broadly addressed in the rest of the study, namely the local public services of the States studied (I), separate analyses of the data gathering that relates to initial vocational training for local public servants (II) as well as to their continuous vocational training (III), and, finally, to the training of elected local representatives (IV) taken in a more consistently broad sense.

I - Presentation of the local public services in the States studied

Few States were able to respond to the quantification of the number of local public servants (LPOs) in initial training. Out of the 9 states whose teams answered this question (Bulgaria, Spain, Finland, Greece, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Republic of Moldova, Czech Republic and Slovakia), it is clear that the number of LPOs with initial training is fairly low, especially since the details provided by these

2. Croatia, Flanders (Belgium), France, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Moldova, Montenegro, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Czech Republic, Romania, United Kingdom, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia and Turkey

3. Germany, Bulgaria, Spain, Estonia, Ireland, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Malta, Netherlands, Sweden and Wallonia (Belgium).

teams in Annex No. 1 of the online questionnaire summary suggest that not only are the figures obtained not always reliable (for example, in Slovakia, the figure for LPOs in initial training incorporate some elected local representatives...), but also that not all newly recruited LPOs receive it. This is the case, for example, in certain European States for contract workers and non-managerial staff.

Incidentally, it is notable that the Scandinavian States (Finland, Norway and Sweden) are highly decentralised and equipped with local public authorities with numerous and extensive competences, have numerically big local public service positions in relation to their active national populations, just like Slovenia, for example.

In fine, it needs to be underlined that, with regard to the entire public service staff of each European State considered, the number of LPOs is a good indicator of the level of decentralisation of each State.

The data collected also enabled specifying the local public service posts with regard to gender equality, “statuses” (post holder or not) and the age pyramid.

Gender equality is far from being achieved in European local public service posts, but a few States have almost gotten there (Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Netherlands, Portugal, United Kingdom and Serbia); it remains to say that when the gender gap is observed, it is at least two-thirds or even three-quarters in favour of one of the two sexes, most often the female sex (Bulgaria, Spain, Estonia, Flanders, Poland, Romania, Russia, Sweden and Wallonia) and more rarely the male sex (Ireland, Malta and Slovakia). However, gender equality or inequality often conceals a more fundamental inequality about which we have obtained little information: the low representation of women in senior positions in the local public authority, and consequently, unequal pay negatively affecting women...

As for the statutory distinction between post holders and non-holders, it is much more marked depending on the State and the ones with an almost equal distribution between the two groups, such as Spain, Estonia and Moldova, are few. When one of the two groups is in the majority, it is most often very markedly so, at least two-thirds or even three-quarters, and sometimes even more. Thus, non-holders of posts are massively represented in local public service positions in Flanders, the Netherlands and Wallonia; which makes them employment systems. Whereas, ultimately, the local public service career system is predominant in Europe: Germany, Bulgaria, Finland, France, Italy, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Portugal, Romania, United Kingdom, Serbia, Slovakia and Turkey, even if it now comprises variants. Even if the recent or current reforms of European public services, and not just local ones, tend to “workify” employment systems without however abandoning them completely. It remains to be seen whether these developments will result in changes to or an adaptation of the original system... The results, depending on the States undergoing reforms, could be very variable from one European State to another...

II - Initial vocational training of local public servants in Europe

Foundations of the initial vocational training

Whilst 20 States² have a legal basis, or rather a basis of legislative origin generally speaking, to the requirement for initial vocational training of LPOs,

12 States³ apparently do not have any and a single one (Finland) refers it back to local authorities to decide.

We can therefore both observe and regret that from the outset of the LPO's career professional training is not a priority in a significant number of European States, the more so since the States concerned are not the poorest States across the board in Europe... However, it is important to underline, and the in-depth studies demonstrate this, that, for many European States not instituting initial training when the LPO takes up their duties, initial training relies heavily on the basic university course offering which is sometimes imposed and funded by future public employers, as for example in the case of Germany.

In addition, the great number of States having legally instituted this obligation leaves one askance at the small number of States able to provide figures on the number of LPOs receiving it... Consequently, and this might then explain it: the very great majority of States replying, i.e. 18 out of 31, concede that the initial training of LPOs is identical to that of national public servants, which may then explain the difficulty of obtaining clear and above all distinct statistics for these two categories of public servant in European States.

Type of initial vocational training

A great majority of European States, i.e. 18 out of the 31 replying to this question, have enshrined, most often in law, the individual LPO's right to training. This right is pursued by LPOs in all possible forms of education: the choices are apparently very diversified in Europe in terms of teaching methods with regard both to initial and also to continuous professional training.

Just as a very great majority of European States, i.e. 22 out of the 32 replying to this question, sanction the presence of LPOs generally by issuing certificates of aptitude and/or specialism, but very rarely university degrees.

III - Continuous vocational training of local public servants in Europe

Foundations of the continuous vocational training

Only a little more than half of the 29 States replying to this question, distributed in a geographically dispersed way across Europe, have enshrined in law, usually, the requirement for LPO continuous vocational training. This means that lifelong professional training for LPOs is not really happening in a large number of European states. This also suggests that in the 21st century, not only does an effort need to be made in this area as the expected deepening of decentralisation progresses, but also that a market for continuous LPO training is in the process of starting to evolve and develop in Europe because, apparently, some States have neither tradition nor expertise in this field.

This is echoed in Annex No. 1 of the online summary about Ireland, Lithuania, Montenegro or even Turkey, to the extent that some of these States are organising it on an "Unclear" legal basis... Thus, in Flanders, it is not a right for the LPO but an HRM tool at the discretion of the employing local authority. This proves that, with or without legal basis, whether or not it is enshrined as a "right", continuous training does indeed constitute an imperative need to upgrade LPO skills simultaneously with the acceleration of competence transfers from the State to local authorities.

But, more problematic and even a source of questions and debate, the very great majority of States which replied, i.e. 17 out of 28, so almost two thirds, concede that the continuous training provided to LPOs is identical to that of national public servants, which may then explain the difficulty of obtaining clear and above all distinct statistics for these two categories of public servant in European States, but also the risk of too general or technical continuous training activities, or even ones that are unsuited to the reality of local public action for LPOs.

Type of continuous vocational training

A great majority of European States, i.e. 18 out of the 28 replying to this question, have enshrined the individual LPO's right to training, most often in law. This right is pursued by LPOs in all possible forms of education: the choices are apparently very diversified in Europe in terms of teaching methods with regard to continuous professional training, which varies greatly depending on the training and programs.

An equally large majority of European States – 18 out of 28 having replied – use collective continuous training plans.

Just as a very great majority of European States, i.e. 26 out of the 29 replying to this question, sanction the presence of LPOs generally by issuing certificates of aptitude and/or specialism, but less rarely than in the area of initial training and, sometimes in addition to the certificate, by issuing university degrees depending on the level of training provided.

It appears, with some evidence, especially in Annex No. 2 of the online summary, that local authorities are often more involved in the sector of continuous training than in initial training, and that is true whether or not LPOs' right to continuous training is legally enshrined in their national system. This makes sense actually because the local authority, by supervising or even funding continuous training actions through its HRM policy, normally benefits from a “direct return on investment” in terms of the improving skills of the human resources who have been attached to it for some time or so that they remain attached.

IV - Continuous vocational training of elected local representatives in Europe

Even today, it is rare to find international data enabling comparisons of the different local spaces. Questionnaire No. 3, developed and distributed by the Observatory of Local Autonomy (OLA) with the support of the National Centre for Local Government (CNFPT) and the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR) on the training situation with regard to elected local representatives in Europe, therefore represents a valuable undertaking which opens up better understanding of the different ways local public authorities are run and of the actors who run them.

The results collected bring together the responses of 31 members of the European Union or countries neighbouring it and testify, primarily, to the difficulty of these latter to avail of reliable knowledge about their own public authorities. Indeed, it is interesting to note that Austria, the United Kingdom, Denmark and Cyprus did not feel able to respond positively to this survey when requested to do so, for lack of sufficient information.

This general lack of knowledge of elected local representatives was also il-

lustrated through the questionnaire itself by numerous “N/As”, in particular by there being no information of top importance.

The results which will be presented here, therefore, do not claim to capture the full and entire training “reality” of elected local representatives in Europe but, for purposes of the current knowledge on the subject, they constitute one of the rare attempts in existence, as far as we know.

This is why, beyond the various biases inherent in any questionnaire survey conducted on such a large scale, the data collected enable constructing a first global map of the different ways this question is handled which cut across some major issues for European democracies.

After a short presentation of the social origins of European elected local representatives, we will put forward a summary of the main results raised by this survey highlighting a very heterogeneous European situation. This situation underlines the strong disparity which persists between the various ways European countries are organised territorially which varies the roles devolved to the elected local representatives and their admissible needs. However, despite strong territorial contrasts marked overall by little interest in the issue, we will see that nevertheless modest changes do exist. Finally, we will analyse the training courses currently taking place in Europe for elected local representatives.

ANALYTICAL
AND
METHODO-
LOGICAL
PRESENT-
TATION
OF THE
STUDY

ANALYSIS

INITIAL AND CONTINUOUS VOCATIONAL TRAINING OF LOCAL PUBLIC SERVANTS (LPOS) AND THE TRAINING OF ELECTED LOCAL PUBLIC SERVANTS IN EUROPE

1. Germany, Croatia, Estonia, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Moldova, Czech Republic, United Kingdom, Turkey and Wallonia (Belgium)

2. Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Montenegro, Norway, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia and Slovakia

In fact, the first observation to emerge from this vast and triple study/research was that there is a kind lack of interest on the part of European States with regard to local public service (LPS).

Indeed, it is often much easier to find data on national public servants in a very large number of European states than on local public servants, although these two categories are usually mixed up.

This should be placed in parallel with working conditions and, above all, pay, often being less of a comfort to the latter by comparison with the former.

The field of initial and continuous vocational training of local public servants only reinforces this inequality of treatment.

This winds up at a second observation that a large number of European States are not convinced of the usefulness of decentralisation, since without well-trained public servants with decent salaries it will continue to be the Council of Europe's and even the European Union's "political pie in the sky" for a long time.

In a way, this double observation allows us to infer the following truth: "Tell me how you treat your local public servants, legally and socially, and I will tell you if you are a State that is genuinely convinced of the usefulness of decentralisation".

Initial vocational training of local public servants in europe

Presentation of the results of questionnaire number 1

Organisations that manage initial vocational training

Few European states entrust the management of their LPO initial vocational training to the private sector, although Spain, Flanders and Slovenia do this.

European States appeal equally either to exclusively public structures¹, amongst which figure overwhelmingly schools of public administration (they do not all have a public law status, but Table VI of the online summary draws up a complete list of them with all the useful contact details) and to universities for their initial LPO training; or they appeal as much to the public sector as the private sector² which explains why the States concerned use the public actors referred to above as much as local authority federations or private training organisations to do it. Therefore few States [Spain, Flanders (Belgium) and Slovenia] only use the private sector to provide initial LPO training.

Broad local autonomy left to each local authority in managing LPO's learning when they take up office fits in with the understanding of freed up local management of human resources and therefore falls perfectly within the scope of European notions of local self-government. However, it is still necessary to ensure funding according to the wealth levels of each local authority. In Turkey, then, in terms of initial and even continuous vocational training (see below), the organisation of LPO training is the administrative and financial responsibility of the employing local authority alone. All the more so as it is generally "internal training", a bit similar to inter-generational transmission of technical expertise with the risk, however, of not renewing the knowledge or the working methods, but of transmitting the existing departmental knowledge, habits and customs without any self-enquiry or learning to do things better.

Areas and categories of initial vocational training

The main areas of initial training presented correspond well to the central domains, as can be seen from the topics for the more specific training offered. Thus, the general domains of the initial training provided the most in Europe are mainly topics of public management (including HRM) and public finances, public policies and public law and IT, followed to a lesser extent by the organisational sociology, economics and geography.

It is interesting to note that the content of initial training programs provided by 8 States (Ireland, Lithuania, Czech Republic, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia and Turkey) – see Annex 5 of the summary posted online – is intended to be "interdisciplinary", essentially by using a mixture of managerial, financial and legal topics, including public service law with public ethics being given an important enough place in this respect.

Amongst the more specific topics, initial training courses concerning the environment, economic, health and social development and public safety were strongly highlighted. Finally, few States organise initial LPO training actions concerning communications, education, sport or even culture even including foreign languages.

Interest, timing and duration of initial vocational training

Almost all States recognise the almost generalised link between the obligation for LPOs to undergo initial vocational training and their tenure.

Initial LPO training varies considerably in duration and arrangements from one European State to another.

Two points need to be underlined:

- on the one hand, its duration can vary according to the hierarchical level of the official (the higher the latter, the more prolonged the initial training may be);
- and on the other hand, the development of e-learning which enables officials who are not easily mobilised in terms of work time, especially at the start of their career, to consult a certain number of tools (courses or practical seminars) when they are free or even in their free time. In fact, more and more States are promoting initial training using paperless methods. However, this can pose another problem in terms of public service law, insofar as in principle initial training should be provided during LPO's working time... Moreover, paperless learning has its limitations vis-a-vis the need for explanations or even confronting ideas where complex, technical or notions or practices are involved, even ones that are subject to discussion.³

“Trainee civil servant” status and specific LPO cases in initial vocational training

The status of “trainee civil servant” only exists in 14⁴ of the 31 States replying to this question. Out of the 29 States that replied, only 9⁵ have established a specific initial training regime for LPOs recognised as disabled workers or suffering from chronic illness, in order to take these disabilities or disabling situations into account.

Out of the 30 States that replied, only 4 (Luxembourg, Montenegro, the Netherlands and Slovakia) set up initial training for illiterate LPOs or ones without many qualifications.

Out of these 30 States, 15 States⁶ consider that certain assumptions to do with taking up a post mean that initial training is not required or constitutes a “special case” of initial training. Three scenarios recur:

- when the newly recruited LPO has changed grade but had already received initial training; however, if this change of post is linked to going up in the hierarchy higher training could give them new managerial tools, for example, which does not seem needless to us except where the initial training offer is stereotyped for all LPOs, regardless of their hierarchical or responsibility level;
- when the newly recruited LPO has changed grade but had already received initial training; however, if this change of post is linked to going up in the hierarchy higher training could give them new managerial tools, for example, which does not seem needless to us except where the initial training offer is stereotyped for all LPOs, regardless of their hierarchical or responsibility level;
- when the LPO newly integrated into LPS does not occupy a management position, to the extent that some States reserve initial training for new LPOs recruited as regional managers only;
- when the LPO is not permanent, due to the fact that some States do not organise initial training for newly recruited contract workers, which ultimately accentuates the impression that those not holding posts are only passing through and therefore not truly integrated into the public authority, whatever the duration of their contract.

Remuneration and/or training leave

In 22 States⁷ of the 30 States that replied, it was indicated that the LPO in initial training is remunerated or compensated as if they were actively working but, conversely, this also means that in 8 States⁸ the LPO is not actively working when they are training and so they do not receive their salary nor even any compensation whatsoever.

However, out of these 22 states, only 16⁹ maintain the LPO’s normal level of remuneration, while 6¹⁰ pay a lower salary than they would receive if they were performing their duties at their workplace.

Consequently, taking even an initial vocational training course in some States is financially penalising for the LPO while, on the one hand, taking it is often compulsory and conditions the fact of holding the post or even advancement in it and, on the other hand, it helps to make the LPO more operational and more quickly so, with this training therefore being directly linked to the performance of duties.

In fine, in 17¹¹ of the 31 States replying, the LPO in initial training can receive training leave.

4. Germany, Croatia, Spain, Flanders (Belgium), France, Greece, Hungary, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Poland, United Kingdom and Wallonia (Belgium)

5. Germany, Spain, Flanders (Belgium), Greece, Ireland, Malta, Montenegro, Poland and United Kingdom

6. Germany, Croatia, Spain, Estonia, Finland, Flanders (Belgium), France, Ireland, Iceland, Netherlands, Czech Republic, United Kingdom, Serbia, Slovenia and Turkey

7. Germany, Croatia, Estonia, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Portugal, Czech Republic, Romania, United Kingdom, Serbia, Slovakia and Slovenia

8. Bulgaria, Spain, Flanders (Belgium), Greece, Netherlands, Poland, Russia and Turkey

9. Germany, Estonia, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Lithuania, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Czech Republic, Romania, United Kingdom, Slovakia and Slovenia

10. Croatia, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, Portugal and Serbia

11. Spain, Estonia, Finland, Flanders (Belgium), France, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Poland, United Kingdom, Slovakia and Sweden

12. Germany, Croatia, Finland, Flanders (Belgium), France, Hungary, Ireland, Netherlands, Poland, Czech Republic, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia and Turkey

13. Germany, Bulgaria, Croatia, Spain, Estonia, Finland, Flanders (Belgium), France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Portugal, Czech Republic, Romania, United Kingdom, Slovakia and Turkey

14. Germany, Bulgaria, Spain, Estonia, Flanders (Belgium), France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Czech Republic, Romania, United Kingdom and Turkey

15. Bulgaria, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Czech Republic, United Kingdom and Slovakia

16. Croatia, Spain, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Malta, Montenegro, Czech Republic and Romania

Cost of initial vocational training

The costs of initial vocational training naturally vary greatly from one European State to another depending on its level of wealth, but the data relating to these costs illustrate that the “market for initial vocational training, as for continuous vocational training, of LPOs in Europe” is a relatively lucrative business sector. The fact remains that in some states, such as Russia, the cost for the same initial training can vary considerably from € 1,670 to € 19,800, i.e. it can be 12 times more expensive depending on the “region” (federal state).

As for the funding of initial training, it is sometimes subject to co-financing between the State and the local authority in which the LPO doing it is recruited: this is the case of 5 States (Italy, Lithuania, Moldova, Montenegro and Slovenia) out of the 30 who responded. In 5 of these States [Bulgaria, Spain, Luxembourg, Malta and Wallonia (Belgium)], the national State bears the cost of the initial training of all LPOs on its own but, more conventionally, in 14¹² of them, it is the employing local authority which logically takes on this cost. In not many cases the European Union contributes up to 80% of the cost of the LPO initial training, as is happening currently in Greece. There are more astonishing scenarios where it is the LPO who either bears the cost of their training alone, as in Latvia, or pays for a part of it as in Estonia, Italy, Portugal or the United Kingdom.

Assessment of initial vocational training

The assessment of initial vocational training is generalised in European States since 24¹³ of the 31 States replying practice it. The assessment may be done in a paperless way, as accepted by 16¹⁴ of the 28 States which replied on this matter.

The fact remains that in the European States concerned, that is to say the 24 mentioned above, there are often many people involved in assessing initial training who are operating simultaneously.

It is very rare or even exceptional for the State to evaluate it; most often it is the training organization itself and/or the local employing authority and, more rarely, the trainee themselves.

This explains why the assessment methods are as likely to be anonymous as nominative; moreover, in 8¹⁵ of the 24 States replying collective surveying of trainees is prioritised, but certainly after the training has taken place. Assessment mainly takes place right after the end of the training in 13 of the 23 States replying to this question, and is more rarely done in the week (5), month (3) or year (2) after its end.

Continuous vocational training of local public servants in europe

Presentation of the results of questionnaire number 2

Organisations that manage continuous vocational training

There are few European States that entrust management of the continuous vocational training of their LPOs solely to the private sector, such as Flanders.

A minority of the other 32 European States concerned (11¹⁶ out of 32) use exclusively public structures, amongst which figure overwhelmingly schools of public administration (they do not all have a public law status, but Table IV

of the online summary draws up a complete list of them with all the useful contact details) and universities for their continuous LPO training; but the majority (19¹⁷ out of 32) use as much public sector as private sector which explains why the States concerned use the public actors referred to above as much as local authority federations or private training organisations in the form of associations or NGOs to do it.

In Turkey, then, in terms of both initial and continuous vocational training (see above), the organisation of LPO training is mainly the administrative and financial responsibility solely of the employing local authority. All the more so as it is generally “internal training”, a bit similar to inter-generational transmission of technical expertise with the risk, however, of not renewing the knowledge or the working methods. However, some associations of local authorities and some NGOs offer different continuous training programs for Turkish LPOs.

Organisations that manage continuous vocational training

In terms of continuous vocational training, as elsewhere in initial vocational training, the main areas of continuous vocational training presented correspond well to the main fields, as can be seen from the topics of the more specific training offered.

Thus, the general fields of continuous vocational training provided the most in Europe are mainly topics of public management (including HRM) (all of the 28 responding States provide continuous training actions on this topic), public finances, IT, public law and public policy; then to a lesser extent economics, organisational sociology and geography.

With regard to initial training, it is evident that LPOs in Europe feel the need for continuous training in strategic and managerial matters very strongly once they are operative, increasing at the same time their requests for training in financial and legal subject matter and also very much for IT, to the detriment of other areas.

In the content of continuous vocational training programs in 8 States¹⁸, there is in addition and in essence a mixture of managerial, IT, financial and legal topics, including public service law and public ethics.

Amongst the more specific topics, continuous training courses concerning economic development, European questions, the environment, health and social issues or again public safety were strongly highlighted.

Finally, few States organise continuous LPO training actions concerning communications, education, sport or even culture even including foreign languages.

Compared to initial training, specific continuous training needs increase above all on questions of economic development as well as on European questions; which accentuates the vocational and legitimately utilitarian nature of continuous training by comparison with initial training, the latter in some respects being still a “time of discovery and adaptation”.

Interest, timing and duration of continuous vocational training

The majority of States which replied – i.e. 27¹⁹ out of the 32 – indicate almost in equal measure but each time with a majority, that the interest of continuous

17. Germany, Bulgaria, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Norway, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Czech Republic, Russia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Turkey and Wallonia (Belgium)

18. Germany, Ireland, Lithuania, Moldova, Czech Republic, Romania, Russia and Slovakia

19. Germany, Bulgaria, Croatia, Spain, Estonia, Flanders (Belgium), France, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Turkey and Wallonia (Belgium)

20. Germany, Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Flanders (Belgium), France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Moldova, Montenegro, Norway, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Czech Republic, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia and Wallonia (Belgium)

21. Spain, Greece and Malta

22. Croatia, Estonia, Flanders (Belgium), France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Montenegro, Norway, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia and Wallonia (Belgium)

23. Spain, Moldavia, Montenegro, Serbia, Slovakia and Wallonia (Belgium)

24. Germany, Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Finland, Flanders (Belgium), France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Czech Republic, Romania, Russia, Slovenia and Turkey

training is just as much to advance professionally or even “to be better paid, but also to remain operational or even to guarantee keeping one’s job.

This illustrates that even in career systems having a strong majority in Europe, post-holder status protects public servants less and less if they do not demonstrate that they are still professionally effective. This emerges very clearly from the replies in Table VII as well as from Annex No. 5 of the online summary.

As a result and despite currently restricted budgetary contexts, local authorities are making significant financial efforts to ensure regular monitoring for continuous training and this for a very large number of LPOs, ultimately.

This is why local authorities are very interventionist in terms of continuous training, and the dialogue between them and their LPOs seems to be very developed with regard to continuous training, even in States which are not known for being progressive in social negotiation matters.

The fact remains that the organisation of continuous LPO training varies considerably in duration and arrangements from one European State to another.

Remuneration and/or training leave

In 25 States²⁰ of the 29 States that replied, it was indicated that the LPO in continuous training is remunerated or compensated as if they were actively working but, *conversely*, this also means that in 3²¹ European States the LPO is not in active work when they are training and so they only receive their basic salary, but no additional bonuses because these are linked to the performance of their duties. Therefore, in 4 European States (Spain, Greece, Malta and Turkey), the LPO who wants to do continuous training is financially penalised, even though this contributes to making them more competent and operational, and this training is normally directly linked with the performance of their duties...

In fine, in 21²² of the 28 States replying, the LPO in continuous training can get training leave according to very variable terms and conditions from one European State to another, as illustrated in Annex No. 8 of the online summary.

Cost of continuous vocational training

As for the funding of continuous vocational training, it is sometimes subject to co-financing between the State and the local authority, where the LPO doing it has their position: this is the case of 6²³ States out of the 29 who responded. In 2 of these States (Luxembourg and Malta), the national State bears the cost of the continuous training of all LPOs on its own but, more conventionally, in 20²⁴ of them, it is the employing local authority which logically takes on this cost. In not many cases the European Union contributes up to 80% of the cost of the LPO continuous training, as is the case currently in Greece.

There are still more astonishing scenarios where it is the LPO that sometimes bears the cost of their training alone depending on its purpose, as in Slovakia, or even a significant part, as in Latvia (70% at their own expense depending on the type of continuous training), in Estonia and Poland (50%, with the specification in Estonia that this only concerns training provided in a foreign language!), in Germany and Portugal (a variable part remaining at the LPO’s expense according to the type of training; in Germany this sometimes leads to a training contract between the official and their local public employer to be signed).

Assessment of continuous vocational training

The assessment of continuous vocational training is generalised in European States since 26²⁵ of the 31 States replying practice it.

The evaluation may be done electronically, as accepted by only 13²⁶ of the 27 States which replied on this matter. This is a lower result than for initial training. Is this related to the average age of trainees with regard to these two types of professional training?

The fact remains that in the European States concerned there are often many people involved in assessing continuous training who are operating simultaneously. The State assesses continuous training less rarely than it does initial training; it is also more often the trainee themselves and the training organisation itself who do it but, here again, it can more rarely be the local employing authority or even an independent private organisation outside the training organisation. In terms of continuous training, the experience of LPOs has led them to be more actively involved in assessing their continuous training than they may have been at the start of their careers during initial training.

This explains why the assessment methods are as likely to be anonymous (12²⁷ out of 22 States having replied) as nominative (7²⁸ out of 22); moreover, in 10²⁹ of the 22 States replying collective surveying of trainees is prioritised, but certainly after the training has taken place.

Assessment mainly takes place right after the end of the training. It is, therefore, very rare that it takes place a week or a month afterwards, and a fortiori in the following year.

Continuous vocational training of elected local representatives in Europe

Presentation of the results of questionnaire number 3

Social origins of European elected local representatives

The information collected by questionnaire No. 3 makes it possible to sketch out the general features of the elected officials who oversee the different European local spaces³⁰. Three quarters of the population of elected officials is male and relatively old; 65% of elected local representatives are in an age group between 40 and 59 years old. Also, the better off social classes are over-represented compared to the working class; 38% of European elected local representatives say they belong to the higher intellectual professional classes against 3.7 for the workers. Thus, even if the local representatives seem to be more or less qualified, it should be noted that 10% of them declare that they took up their duties without having any academic recognition. In addition, half of the elected officials declared that they were on their first term of office during completion of this questionnaire. These few elements which could call into question the relevance of training for elected local representatives who are socially and professionally predisposed to exercise local functions, however, underline needs that may exist; a large number of beginners as well as a not insignificant number of elected officials, graduates or not, come from working-class or poorer social classes. However, European elected local representatives, members of a shared political entity, do not have the same opportunities to get training during their term of office.

25. Germany, Bulgaria, Croatia, Spain, Estonia, Flanders (Belgium), France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Montenegro, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Republic Czech, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Turkey and Wallonia (Belgium)

26.

27.

28.

29.

30. The data collected relate only to the information provided by the countries participating in the survey. Given the presence of numerous «N/As» these results cannot be taken as «representative» of reality, but should rather be seen as «perfectible indications» of the social identity of elected local representatives.

Disconnected national situations for poor recognition

The responses provided by the 31 countries that took part in the survey indeed show that the recognition of training for elected local representatives in Europe takes very unequal forms.

First of all, only 5 countries³¹ state that they recognise training as constituting a right for their elected officials. In other words, 84% of the countries replying indicate that they are not putting legal conditions in place that allow their elected officials to access specific training during the exercise of their term.

Without falling into a binary view of it, it seems more correct to distinguish three “ideal-typical” postures adopted by States. Between legislative framework and “non-interest”, some States recognise the existence of training organised by local actors (associations, local authorities) that they leave free to take action and that they may even encourage. If the low level of State involvement in legal regulation of the market for training elected officials suggests that the latter has little control over the organisations that are invested in it or the training they dispense, it should perhaps be emphasised that the existence of training in a territory does not, however, seem to be mechanically correlated with the existence of laws to regulate them.

That being said, this European “triple posture” remains however marked by an over-representation (52%) of countries declaring that they do not organise or recognise the existence of training. This relative “indifference” is materially illustrated by the low compensation that States provide to their elected officials. In fact, there is currently a real inequality of access to training since only a third of the countries replying stated that they compensate their elected officials to get such training. Such compensation is most often provided to the elected officials by the local authorities that they represent and sometimes supplemented by State or local association interventions. As far as the financial participation of unions or political parties goes, it seems to be residual. In addition, all elected local representatives employed by the public authority, a private company or an association do not have an equivalent right to absence for training during their term of office. Only half of the countries oblige employers to grant a right of absence “freely” to employee elected officials.

Continuing this poor commitment to training accessible to the greatest number logically, only seven of the thirty-one countries that replied have stated that they centralise information relating to the reality of training demands in their country, and in particular to the number of elected officials getting training each year. Even if this information remains scarce, it tends to go in the direction of an already widespread idea: elected local representatives receive little training since the annual rates vary between 0.83% for Bulgaria and 7% for Poland.

Through these different elements, the training of elected local representatives does not seem to represent a crucial issue in the political agendas of Europe or of the countries that make it up. It only truly constitutes a right for elected officials in a minority of cases and for the most part remains ignored or left to actors for whom investment serves their interests.

Behind this apparent lethargy, we can add finer detail to this state of affairs somewhat by focusing on the work currently being conducted by States on this issue.

In fact, looking at changes that are currently underway in the countries replying, we observe that five countries state that they are making changes to the

way in which training of elected local representatives is taken into account and organised, including the Czech Republic and Malta which are both among the countries initially adopting a posture not very conducive to training, as well as Slovenia, France and Greece. For example, the Czech Republic is currently conducting a Europe-initiated project which has encouraged cooperation between associations in the country to develop shared methodology for training programs. Also, countries such as Germany, Iceland, the Netherlands or even Romania, which declared not to have organised or recognised training for elected officials attest, however, to the particular attention given to new elected local representatives who take up office for the first time and who can receive training.

So even if the training market in Europe may seem largely ignored, notable initiatives are under way and training is nevertheless provided.

Training of elected local representatives in Europe

Further to their low level of European recognition, questionnaire No. 3 enables existing training courses to be updated, dealing in particular with subject matter relating to powers devolved to the State, elected officials, local authorities and also the legal functioning of the centralised or decentralised public authority.

Using the topics cited most, it seems that elected officials prioritise training enabling them to be initiated into “basic” knowledge about their role and the place they occupy as authorised representatives in the administrative architecture of their country. This finding is confirmed with regard to the motives expressed by elected officials for attendance at one or more training sessions, stating that the training is primarily to give themselves the means to fulfil the democratic mandate they have received. Then, the training is perceived by the elected officials as the “professionalisation” of their electoral commitments and, in third position, the training is requested to tackle questions relating to legal protection or the technical control of case files.

The training courses recommended by elected officials, therefore, seem above all to focus on practical issues linked to the local mandate or is about initiation into the fundamentals of the administrative and legal functioning of public institutions. This training which could be described as “civic” seems to take place mainly in the first year of the investiture. The responding States stated that half of the training courses provided take place either upon investiture, i.e. between the first six months and the first year. The other half of the course provision during the term of office is as desired by the elected officials.

Regardless of the period, 62% of the training sessions are managed by organisations that host elected officials in their own premises, the elected official’s workplace being suitable for only a third of cases. The questioning of the different types of organisations providing training to elected officials in particular shows that all countries have declared recognition of one or more organisations providing training to their local elected representatives, regardless of their initially adopted position on this issue.

All European local elected representatives therefore seem to be able to have access to an organisation offering to train them. Only the legal nature of the available organisations change from country to country. Public and private structures share national training markets for the most part. Otherwise, States are distinguished by having a single type of organisation: countries

32. However, it seems difficult to imagine that training markets not regulated by States are only invested in one type of organisation. This may be a lack of knowledge of market reality

33. Only 6 countries reported scarce data on the subject

34. In France, initiatives by religious groups in the field of training elected officials have been identified several times by Ministry of the Interior departments

such as Iceland, Croatia, Slovakia, Bulgaria or even Moldova stated that they only have public bodies, unlike countries such as Belgium, the Netherlands, Serbia, Norway, or even Finland and Estonia which stated that they have recourse exclusively to private structures³².

One of the unknowns that persists is the amount of expenditure generated by these training courses. Indeed, the vast majority of countries which participated in this survey seem to not have sufficient information to calculate the total financial sum created by elected officials participating in the training provided. The smattering of data provided³³ tends to indicate that the average cost of training for an elected official during a term of office reaches about € 1,460. The paucity of response, however, requires putting this figure into perspective.

Once completed, the training appears to be preceded by an assessment for 18 countries. Intended to measure the usefulness of training for elected officials on the issues they encounter on a daily basis, it seems nevertheless to be carried out in 48% of cases by the training organisations themselves. Elected local representatives could be considered as the actors best placed to judge the relevance of the training followed, however, their services are only called upon in 30% of cases. Otherwise, the local authority they are affiliated to or the State is responsible for this assessment. The latter seems to be done mainly on paper, just after the training session. Only 29% of countries offer electronic versions. However, use of such assessment cannot be seen from the questionnaire. It is therefore impossible to fulfil its exact role in improving training, nor the importance they have for the various institutions involved in the subject.

Thus, the various elements provided by questionnaire No. 3 of the Observatory of Local Autonomy makes it possible first and foremost to measure to what extent the elected local representatives' knowledge remains difficult to mobilise for many countries. Thinking this way, it is not surprising to find that their training needs and practices suffer the same fate. It emerges that the majority of States replying really abandon organisation and are ignorant of the reality of training given on their territory. The ability to train in parallel with one's term of office does not find favour in the eyes of all European States and manifests itself in many aspects: recognition as a right, compensation, right of absence etc. The result is a poorly regulated European training market for which it is theoretically impossible to grasp the exact picture. By not defining or poorly defining legal and binding scopes, the European States abandon elected officials' access to training to the vagaries of social and material inequalities at the same time as providing almost total freedom of investment to training organisations for which they know little about both their nature³⁴ and the training programs which they are proposing.

Therefore, given the levels of knowledge on the subject, it is difficult to draw the "European face" of the training of elected officials as more and more issues are being played out at international level and elected local representatives are faced with increasingly similar issues, but there is still no community consensus on the question and national positions that are favourable or not to the training of elected officials seem disconnected from each other. Faced with the historical peculiarities and institutional diversity of each country, this finding is nothing new but reminds us of a sometimes forgotten reality in Europe: that the term "local elected representative" is a multi-layer phrase which encompasses many situations in which the actual exercise of mandates coupled with the representation of the needs that this exercise requires are not equivalent.

However, despite the great diversity of national situations and the low levels of recognition of the need for elected local representatives to have training, we have also shown that there are some real changes. It really seems that the issue of local executives' training is of interest to certain countries which are designing or reinforcing training systems for their elected local representatives. The challenge for the European Union may then be to encourage these local initiatives and to be a source of proposals for the rest of the "not interested" member countries.

35. There are 1.1 million public servants in Belgium and 0.2 in Flanders (autonomous region, federal State). For reasons of economy (remuneration and retirement), 2/3 are contract workers. Initial training is basic initial training, i.e. university training (university degrees obtained), so there is no specific initial training for entering the workplace within Flemish local public service. However, if their basic training has not enabled them to know and thereby become proficient in the world of local authorities and local public action this can pose problems for supervisors...

36. There is no initial vocational training for local public servants, apart from their basic training. Which does not pose a problem for technical professions, even specialised ones (gardener, electrician, cook, director of logical or technical services...). But, this can pose a problem, again at supervisor, intermediary or superior level!

CONTINUOUS AND INITIAL VOCATIONAL TRAINING OF LOCAL PUBLIC SERVANTS IN EUROPE

Findings, reviews, proposals, taking stock and looking to the future

From this presentation and from previous individual comparative studies of the States below, to which it is worth referring, several European lines of questioning on the usefulness of “initial vocational training” (I) and on the interest of the national or local nature of “free” vocational training (II) come up.

I. The usefulness of initial vocational training

For several European states, initial vocational training must above all be basic university training, as in Germany, in particular, but also for Spain, Estonia, Flanders (Belgium)³⁵, Greece, Ireland, Romania, Russia or Wallonia (Belgium)³⁶. In fact, when a painter or an electrician is recruited to work in the public sector they must be previously trained in this profession, except for recruitment as an apprentice. Consequently, even for intermediate or higher administrative posts, these same States seem to prioritise compulsory university and vocational training directly related to the exercise of such functions. Therefore, what is the point of training when taking up a post in order to learn about a professional environment which is supposed to already be known?

To this end the German example is very interesting since this state is not only the champion of vocational training, even in the public sector, but also of the requirement for candidates wishing to pass competitive administrative, intermediate or higher level examinations to hold a “vocational” (intermediate level) degree or (higher level) master’s linked directly to the local public authority and to the latter’s missions, resources, tools, methods and procedures; in short, any candidate for a local administrative post in Germany must have graduated from vocational training directly related to the Public Authority and for the purposes of a future job to be done after passing the competitive examination (A).

Whilst France, for its part, has been able to impose an open vision of public service on part of Europe in the name of republican equality by taking the view, in virtue of Article 6 of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen of 26 August 1789, that “*All Citizens being equal (...), they are equally admissible to all public positions, posts and jobs, according to their ability, and without any distinction other than that of their virtues and their talents*”. However, over time, equality has sometimes turned into egalitarianism and the requirement for “ability” has been forgotten. Can you, actually, perform public duties of a highly legal and technical nature when you are a historian or philosopher by training, even to master’s level, under the sole pretext of

having a degree (minimum) to take a higher category competitive examination (called “category A” in France) and to pass it? The French civil service is divided into a number of general civil servant job classes or structures, both supervisory and executive which enable the people integrating them, once they have passed their entrance examination, to engage in an infinite number of public service jobs sometimes requiring the possession of skills including technical ones that are very different from those they originally had... Continuous vocational training can and even should help in mastering these jobs, even without adequate basic training, but at the same time cannot substitute the years of study required for absorbing particular knowledge or even know-how. Admittedly, there are public servant job classes or structures which have become as technical as the job performance they facilitate, but they are more limited in number. Thus, to work as an engineer, doctor or nurse in the public authority it is necessary to have a degree that matches the job to be done.

Therefore, induction or even vocational training at the start of the post tries to make the newly recruited local public servants more operational, but these trainings cannot offset in terms of time and volume a basic training that is inadequate for the posts occupied. This can explain or even justify the gradual development of the job interview for a public job that is today imposed on a successful candidate before being admitted to any public service in France, even on leaving a school as prestigious as the National School of Administration... It ultimately calls into question this “generalist” model for selecting candidates together with initial vocational training aimed at correcting their most flagrant defects and, incidentally, brings us back to the issue of the interest specifically of recruitment by public post or job categories rather than by obtaining a grade that opens onto a multitude of jobs (B).

A. Basic training as initial vocational training or the logic of the “vocational degree”

In Germany, the training of local government staff differs from one Land (federal state) to another and therefore there is as much local law as there are Länder – 16! In 2014, Germany employed around 4.65 million people at the federal, Länder and local government levels. Public service therefore represented up to 7% of the total working population in Germany, which is slightly up on the EU average of 6.9%. Public sector staff are divided into two groups with different statuses: civil servants and public sector employees.

While public sector employees are hired on the basis of a private law contract, as in the Netherlands also, civil servants are governed by a public law statute [guarantees of job, special pay systems and bonuses, health insurance and pension accompanied by fewer social contributions (which implies a higher net salary than that of the employees)].

The tasks and scope of activity of these two groups are different. In addition, civil servants are recruited for a specific category of service, i.e. a particular career or career path, while public sector employees are recruited to specific posts.

To be able to work in German local public administration, an applicant must be qualified in a specific field, having followed the appropriate vocational training or university course. For typical administrative tasks, there is usually training that specifically prepares the employee for work in the public sector – preparatory service. Training for preparatory service is both theoretical and practical,

37. Out of a little over 1.3 million inhabitants, the active population amounts to 691,400 people of whom 132,900 are public officials, including 5,634 local public servants who are made up of 55% permanent staff and 45% contract workers. Still, nearly 37% of the local public service works for 4 (Tallinn, the political capital, Tartu, the jurisdictional capital, Narva and Pärnu) of the 213 municipalities; the other 209 have an average of 17 public servants. In 2013, the Estonian civil service experienced a significant reduction in its staff, especially the number of civil servants, with the passage of new legislation governing it. Henceforth, there will be more and more contract workers and they have private law contracts. The 2013 reform of the civil service marks the abandonment of the career system in favour of employment accompanied by «workification» as well as a more privatised civil service

and usually accompanied by career examination. The legal regime of the preparatory service is determined by order of the parliaments of the Länder. These orders regulate admission standards, recruitment procedures, the content of training courses and career examinations.

In short, German local public servants are more selected upstream through apprenticeship, especially for lower posts (ordinary service and intermediate service) but, nevertheless, nearly 81% of those recruited to these positions are on a private law contract (public sector employees).

Otherwise, they are selected by the university route by doing a bachelor's degree (upper intermediate service) or master's (higher service) program in local administration and public management. At the end of their exams during which they are paid as "student-civil servants" (their employers are the universities but it is the Land that funds their salaries) they will be recruited only by interview, however, this university training gives them the entire useful and necessary arsenal for recruitment by any employer regardless on leaving.

On average, almost 90% are already hired before graduating; all that remains is the question of regulating the number of registrations, decided (and therefore fixed) by the "Land funding this university training", for these graduates with regard to professional opportunities.

Once recruited by a local authority, these graduates do a two-year professional internship before becoming post-holders in order to be as operational as possible at their post within the local employing authority. Consequently, there is no point in initial vocational training at the start of their career because they have graduated from vocational training (federal and local administration, local law, local taxation and public finances, regional planning and urban planning, local public management, human resources management, local public policies, public economy, public communications, IT and languages) lasting 3 (bachelor) or 5 (master) years and exclusively directed at the administration and management of local public activity.

Whereas there is no initial induction training in Germany that is distinct from initial university and vocational training, there is a continuous training policy provided by public administration schools depending on each Land or local authority association; they provide refresher courses in law, management and finance, mainly, as well as in IT and languages. They are essential for local public servants wishing to move up the administrative ladder, by internal routes.

As in Germany, Romania's initial vocational training is based on the basic university training of the new recruits. There are therefore specialist bachelor's degrees and master's in administration and public management handed out by the universities, the National School of Political and Administrative Sciences (ENSPA, Ecole nationale des sciences politiques et administratives).

Likewise, in Estonia³⁷, in terms of the initial vocational training of local public servants (LPOs), there is nothing provided! Public officials basically have to be graduates and their initial training is based on their university knowledge, without operational preparation and/or support for their integration. Moreover, 76% of university graduates are concentrated in the Estonian public service sector compared to 40% in the rest of the working population.

In Latvia³⁸ initial vocational training³⁹ comprising a basic university education for the new public official prevails, a new requirement since 2001 meaning that a public official must now have a university degree. A Latvian must therefore have completed higher education to enter the civil service.

Moreover, possession of a university degree influences public official pay and impacts their professional development. As a result, since 2009 many public servants are resuming their studies as part of continuous education, this time to train, update their knowledge and boost their professional development and remuneration.

Since 1994, the public sector training schools for both initial and continuous vocational training have been the Latvian School of Public Administration for all public servants and the Local Authority Training Centre, specifically for local public servants. The first delivers more or less general training about administration, public law, public management, public policies, IT, communications and languages, whereas the second is more targeted and operational in municipal public service management, but with the same areas of specialisation as those mentioned above.

However, since the economic crisis of 2008 the School of Public Administration has been putting up for tender with other training organisations, especially private ones, and must prove that it is the best in terms of continuous training actions to survive since it is now not subsidised much by the Latvian state.

In fine, initial vocational training in Russia is again first and foremost basic university training because there are State-funded bachelor's and master's degrees specialising in State and/or local public administration provided in higher education institutions throughout federal Russia.

The fact remains that actually or nearly generalised training obtained by bachelor's and master's degrees in public administration, for example, can run the risk of not very heterogeneous or even stereotyped or "pre-formatted" profiles amongst applicants and hence, also, winners of competitive administrative examinations. The basic knowledge, however, even to be a public manager is always a bit samey, as is quite well illustrated by the German bachelor's or master's programs mentioned above.

But, the applicant must acquire know-how that only professional induction training can enable them to acquire once it becomes reasonably suitable to their first post in the local public authority.

B. Initial vocational training where there is (sometimes) no basic training or the logic of learning the "trade" first

In France⁴⁰, initial vocational training for local public servants is split into two stages: induction training for the winners of competitive administrative examinations then probationary vocational training in their first job.

The first of these two training courses therefore aims to provide the "new civil servant" with knowledge of the regional environment, especially on the organisation and functioning of local authorities, but also on public service law.

Since 1st January 2016, it has been provided over 10 days for trainee category A (senior management) and B (middle management) civil servants and over

38. When the political regime changed at the start of the 1990s, under the influence of the *New public management* and the international community (the EU and IMF in particular), Latvia abolished the career system in favour of employment. In addition, civil servant status has only been set aside for State administrators, so there are only contract workers in Latvian municipalities under the Civil Service Act passed in 1994 and amended in 2001

39. However, there is no legislative provision in the legal status of Latvian public servants giving them an inalienable right to training nor in the statutes for initial or continuous vocational training

40. In France, there are 1.889 million local public servants - i.e. 1.713 «full-time equivalent» (FTE) or «full-time officials»: on 1st January 2016 out of a total of 5.451 million people working in the three French public service sectors [in addition to local government grouping together local public servants, there is the State public service or «SPS» (2.398 million people) and hospital public service or «HPS» (1.163 million people)], representing nearly 20% of the total French working population on 31 December 2015. Local government is made up of 10% senior management grouped together in «category A», 14% middle management as «category B» and 76% operational staff included in category C, and in years to come, supervisory management will be bolstered and the operational staff will decrease in step with outsourcing through concession contracts of the management of a large number of basic local public services. This should automatically result in increased and heavier local government costs even though the State is reducing its budgetary allocations...

41. The Greek public service represents 6% of the total active population, bearing in mind that the number of contract workers there has increased at the same time as the total number of public servants decreases in line with retirements: 91% civil servants in 2012 compared to 85% in 2016, while the number of contract workers has gone from 9% (2012) to 15% (2016). As a result, the Greek State and local civil service is increasingly ageing and feminised. Accelerated contracting out has direct consequences in terms of the quality of public service: lack of monitoring, less and less efficient performance, disinvestment and demotivation, especially when the duration of contracts is short (between 6 months and two years) and this contracting is accompanied by no prospect of salary or status progression. Greek contractual public servants therefore consider themselves more and more to be «passing through», which has an impact on their investment and the collective culture of general interest, normal for public service. Which recalls the pernicious changes to the French post office

5 days for those in category C (operational staff) (see Decree No. 2015-1385 of 29 October 2015 on the duration of induction training for certain job structures within local government). It takes place during officials' working hours and in the year of their appointment. As a result, they are paid when they do it, especially as it meets a legal obligation both for the local public servant concerned and for their public employer.

The CNFPT sends a certificate of attendance to any public employer, insofar as validation of this integration training is a condition for the trainee civil servant holding their post, amongst other things. This certificate is placed in the individual file of each local public official who has done the integration training.

The usefulness of induction training is appreciated by category C officials, but strongly criticised either by those in category A as an “unnecessary waste of time given their basic training”, or partially and unequally by those in category B in depending on their previous degree-level education and/or background.

As for the probationary year training, arrangements vary according to the particular status for each job structure within which the local public official is located.

This training then is in principle always provided by the CNFPT and is adapted in terms of content and duration to the duties performed by the local government official concerned in order to make them even better at doing their job (Dec. 29 May 2008, Arts. 3 and 11, in particular).

As a general rule, it takes place within two years of the official's appointment and lasts for at least 5 days for category A and B officials, and 3 days for those in category C. But, this training can be extended to 10 days maximum by mutual agreement between the civil servant and their employer.

The official is normally paid by their public employer during probationary vocational training, this employer likewise bearing all the related costs.

The CNFPT sends a certificate of attendance to any public employer and this certificate is placed in the individual file of each local public official who has taken the induction training.

This second form of initial training seems to correspond better to all categories of local public servants.

The initial vocational training system in Greece⁴¹ is quite close to the German system, in its “philosophy”, but differs from it by its “moment” and thus comes close to the French system, at least for probationary training! The initial training is actually intended for acquiring knowledge and know-how but, instead of being totally based on university training with a winner-based competitive administrative examination, it is organised in the form of so-called preliminary and preparatory training which takes place in the two years following taking up office, after selection by competition.

This initial training is provided by INEP, the (Greek) training institute, in order to give the public officials selected some knowledge and operational know-how about administration, its law, its practices and procedures, as well as e-administration and drafting administrative acts. It is real training aimed

at adaptation once in the job and which implicitly starts from the principle that subject knowledge has already been validated by the university degrees previously obtained by the candidates.

This incidentally raises the question of how well these degrees match the positions held by the candidates.

This links back to the German example of initial training with degree done in university and prior to taking up a post, but totally matching the necessary and useful knowledge for future vocational integration.

However, each post is specific especially at middle and senior management levels, unlike subordinate administrative or technical jobs; this may justify additional initial training that is operational this time around, once duties are taken up, and is therefore matched to useful or even essential know-how and interpersonal skills (often forgotten, moreover, in all both initial and continuous training programs).

This can then totally justify in-house training, like apprenticeship for example, which is a good mixture of academic and operational training. Especially since, originally devoted to technical professions, apprenticeship today tends to be more and more used for access to administrative or even supervisory duties in certain European public authorities.

There is also initial vocational training in the Nordic states, except in Denmark, although they start from the idea that any public servants recruited must have a basic education (at least the baccalaureate). But in Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden it exists in order to train new public servants recruited into public management and to make them more operationally effective as quickly as possible with regard to their posts. It is sometimes certified at the end by an examination, as in Sweden, for example.

Likewise in Spain⁴² at national level, initial training is organised mainly by the National Institute of Public Administration (INAP), but each autonomous community can conduct its own training policy, both for initial and continuous training, for local public servants in its territory. This makes the initial training of these officials difficult to understand in terms of results. The fact remains that following initial training for public servants at the start of their careers allows them to become post-holders. The training domains are very conventional: public law, public policies, public management, public finances, language and IT, for example. It is managed financially by the public employer, but during it the public official does not receive their salary.

Bachelor's and master's programs are less specifically oriented towards public administration professions in Bulgaria. It is often local authority associations that organise the initial vocational training of new recruits, without any specific legal obligation in this area.

In Poland there is an initial training system and a continuous training system. The initial training is called "preparatory service" and is a 3-month training course validated by an examination, when the public servant has just taken up duties, to ensure that they will become operational with regard to the administrative world and their post. Moreover, the terms and conditions of their training and examination are decided by their immediate supervisor.

42. In Spain, in 2017, there were 0.522 million State public officials as against 1.650 million local public servants of which 60% were civil servants.

43. Lithuania is divided into 60 municipalities with a population of 3 million inhabitants. The Law on Civil Servants of the Republic of Lithuania was passed in 2002. It applies to 35,200 people, of which 6,660 work in Lithuanian municipalities. It is an employment system with pay for public officials composed of 70% basic salary and 30% bonus conditional on an assessment, the achievement of results by the public authority, as well as the public official's real professional performance in the exercise of their duties. Moreover, a public official with inadequate results after their annual assessment can be demoted, just as in the United States of America. This, in actual fact, is quite rare in Europe...

44. The legal status of Turkish public servants was laid down by a law of 1926, replaced today by a law of 1965. It is therefore an old statute that was originally protective of public servants. This could unfortunately change soon since President Erdogan wishes to contract out the civil service to make it more adaptable or even "compliant" as well as to institute a results-based remuneration system... This adaptation of Turkish public service law could be of use to the Turkish political regime's new ideology, after a huge recent (2017) purge of about 100,000 public servants. This would be contrary to the original ones that werea priorifavourable to the status of civil servants, i.e. guaranteeing their independence, their impartiality as well as protecting them from any form of pressure (financial or political, in particular)... Turkey had a little over 3.5 million public servants in 2017, or 11.6% of the working population. But, only 1% of them were in local public service. Turkey, therefore, enjoys predominantly State-run public service which suggests a low or unambitious level of decentralisation that the authoritarian slew of the current political regime will surely not improve. On principle, any dictatorship is hostile to autonomy, democracy and local freedoms.

Slovakia and the Czech Republic were unified until 1993, so they have a broadly common training system. Their initial adaptation training system for newly recruited local public servants aims to help them understand the organisation and functioning of the public authority and this training takes place internally. It is followed by professional preparation for the performance of the official's duties, sanctioned by an examination and an interview with their immediate supervisor at the end of the probationary period. Tenure is conditioned, therefore, by this professional preparation.

In Hungary, the post-2010 recentralisation of administration has resulted in fairly strong supervision and control of training for local public servants. But, although no friend of local autonomy, the Hungarian central government promotes the training of all public officials because the quality of local public services and the satisfaction of the still highly rural population are at stake. The initial training of local Hungarian public servants determines their tenure; it can be done after recruitment in a paperless way, and its cost is borne by the public employer.

In Lithuania⁴³, in terms of initial training, the law on public service provides it for all new public officials by mixing subject knowledge and practical scenarios for operational purposes.

Since 1983 in Turkey⁴⁴, there has been a general training plan for civil servants, implemented as part of training actions by vocational schools and universities. In this respect, there is a double training: initial (pre-service training) and continuous (in-service training).

The pre-service training is similar to a probationary period combined with theoretical and practical training which is then validated by an examination and internal assessment by immediate supervisors. This finally allows the public official to be confirmed in their post.

This training is also mainly done in-house within the public authority in which the trainee public official performs their duties. This has advantages in terms of economy, but also a disadvantage: the risk that "in-house training" does not progress, does not adapt to new technological or managerial challenges or even isolates local public servants and makes them exclusively dependent of their single public employer at the risk of preventing any change in professional orientation or even any hint of transfer..

Turkish initial training is a bit ideological (training based on Kemalism), if not legal in the main (learning about the public authority, its law, as well as the law of public service and of the public code of ethics), but is also practical (analysis of the law and practice relating to the duties performed). This training aims above all to make the new public servant operational as quickly and as effectively as possible.

This initial training is an interesting formula which ultimately recalls the rationale of apprenticeship and avoids training that is externally sourced and often more theoretical.

In fine, it is interesting to emphasise that a very great number of university master's courses in Europe focus mainly on political science and learning about the public authority and how it is run via public policies. This is important and interesting. But, it also emerges from this finding that many

public servants, national or local and most especially administrative managers, then do not have the technical skills mentioned above once they are in post most often because of university training based on the single discipline of political science which turns out to be the main recruiting crucible for most of these managers.

The fact remains that an operational “plus” is a public official provided with knowledge that only a suitable degree can enable them to acquire (this, moreover, brings into question the usefulness of competitive examinations intended to assess knowledge supposedly validated by the degree, except if one considers that university teaching and exams are pointless or inappropriate), but it is also the know-how or even interpersonal skills directly related to their first public job and hence the interest of appropriate and operational initial training as in Greece, for example, which is echoed in a way by the Danish continuous training called “*Kommunom*”.

To summarise, depending on the categories of skills that will be engaged in with regard to the public posts to be filled, it behooves the public employer to ask itself whether “they have basic knowledge about administrative organisation and theoretical and/or technical knowledge that is useful for the exercise of their future public profession when recruiting public servants, and not just local ones. Consequently, in line with less generalist recruitment that is more favourable to public jobs or job categories, it seems obvious to push for the development and fine-tuning of job descriptions which must insist on the knowledge, interpersonal skills and know-how necessary or even essential to the exercise of such and such a public profession, taking prerequisites into account.

Stemming from this, a public servant applying for a public job should have at least training and/or a degree matching the basic knowledge of the public employment to be performed, except in the particular and promising case of apprenticeship. This is because it is dangerous in principle to recruit an electrician to work as a nurse and vice versa! The fact remains that recruitment should only do *minimal* evaluation of this knowledge in order to concentrate on the assessment of interpersonal skills and know-how, even if it means giving priority to scenarios, practical assessment and/or personality interviews.

All the more so as each public authority is a particular world, so having done basic training initial training can only be useful to you if it is not stereotyped but operationally appropriate for each public authority and especially to the public employment to be performed, as well as being part of a sort of “probationary vocational training”.

After having questioned the initial training of local public servants, it is now necessary to look at continuous training and its future.

45. See my article on the French situation in this publication.

46. www.wikiterritorial.cnfpt.fr/xwiki/bin/view/Main/WebHome

47. www.fun-mooc.fr/universities/CNFPT

II. Continuous vocational training in questions

Continuous vocational training is becoming increasingly important in European States where basic training is extremely limited. But, it is just as useful in the others insofar as passing a competitive examination and good initial vocational training does not protect against knowledge and know-how becoming old or even obsolete due to modifications, modernisations or even innovations that are, moreover, not just technological.

In addition, the career of a public official, even during its performance, presupposes adaptation to a modernising and changing public authority and not the opposite, without taking into consideration that they may also want to evolve professionally in terms of skills and/or responsibilities as well as changing public employment during their career.

Consequently, for all these multiple reasons professional training “throughout the whole professional life” of a public official has become essential and must mobilise public employers, public funding whether for national public servants or, above all, for local public servants. European fund-raising, the subject of this work, unfortunately shows that we are far from it in a large number of European States, even developed ones.

To such an extent that a question arises: whether such so-called continuous vocational training should be managed and conducted exclusively at local level within the employing local authority, or at a national level. It seems that the truth lies somewhere in between.

In fact, the “localism” of continuous training can condemn training actions to be conducted repetitively with programs that risk becoming less and less suited to modernisation issues over time; as a result, the local dimension of training is very interesting at the start of a career, i.e. for initial training, but it is much less so during the course of a career.

The unanimous fascination of the 34 (other than French) European States studied with the French system⁴⁵ of national coordination of continuous training programs, designed and co-produced between the training specialists of the National Centre for Local Government (CNFPT), elected local representatives and representatives of employee unions, is to this end very innovative in Europe, even for the Scandinavian States.

This, moreover, does not prevent French local public employers from supplementing this National Plan for Continuous Training Actions with “local” continuous training programs. All the more so as these actions are conducted within the CNFPT regional branch system and can thus be totally adapted to the needs of the local authorities of each regional territory in terms of updating, modernising and/or developing the knowledge and know-how of local public servants. The “CNFPT system” can naturally be improved, but with the development of its e-learning tool (wikiterritorial⁴⁶) and its online courses in the form of MOOCs⁴⁷, it is in all respects innovative and high-performance. Consequently and at the risk of repeating ourselves, this explains the very great interest of the States consulted in the CNFPT, its continuous training resources and tools which are handy for preparing for internal competitions.

Especially since we must not be blind to the financial difficulties of local authorities which, despite a genuine desire to promote the continuous training

of their public servants, sometimes no longer have the financial means for it. Consequently, by bringing together the aforementioned resources at the national level even if it means sometimes prioritising e-learning and despite reservations about how this type of training could possibly be nourishing, it enables offering officials interesting activities and that is always better than nothing, in the worst case scenario.

Therefore, if many European States now favour “local or even in-house training” (A), it should be admitted that the “nationalisation” – which is not the “centralisation”! – of continuous training activities based on a decentralised system of performance is a recognised “system” for which France is appreciated and even envied and seems to be one of the rare European States to have it along with Romania so much and so well developed for the benefit of local public servants (B).

It is because this system gets around the obstacle of training “throughout the professional life of the public official” being funded by local authorities and promotes, amongst other things, e-learning while usefully combining it with face-to-face training with professional trainers, and most often vocational ones. Likewise, it enables efficiency in terms of evaluation and control of continuous training actions, especially since the data thus collected is centralised, sent out and studied to better enrich the development of continuous training actions as a result.

A. Training that is localised and limited by that

In England, the training of LPOs is devolved to each local authority, but this presents risks. First of all, in a period of very strong budgetary restrictions, the training of LPOs is not a priority. Secondly, the constant decline in the number of the local public service workforce leads to the recurrent impossibility of the LPOs being able to take time off to attend training. And thirdly, the development of e-learning is therefore favoured but poses the problem of monitoring these training courses during their personal time, whereas in principle continuous training should take place during working time.

In the Republic of Ireland, despite a recent and teeter-totter attempt to set up regional training centres for public servants, there is no nationally coordinated system for continuous training, especially for programs and provision of training based on trades and skills.

In fact, each local authority is the master of its own continuous training policy, which it also totally subsidises; as a result, and as in Spain, it is very difficult to have a precise idea of the dominant areas of the training or of the durations and methods of training for local public servants.

Still, the areas of training seem as conventional as in all the other European States (knowledge of the administrative system, public law, public management, public finances and/or public contracts, IT and languages).

In Flanders (Belgium), continuous training is institutionalised and much better developed. It is the municipal legislative body which determines the program and the budget for continuous education. This latter is provided by government bodies (over a day and on a specific theme), by the Association of Flemish Cities and Municipalities (VVSG: www.vvsg.be), by higher education establishments specialising in local public policies or local public

management, or even by private publishers (*Vanden Broele editions, Politeia* and *Die Keure*). Similarly in Wallonia (Belgium), there is a continuous education obligation which is managed by the local authority but must be approved by the Regional Training Council (CRF, Conseil régional de la formation).

In Spain, training local public service employees and keeping their level up by continuous training as well as professional development are crucial factors in the reforms to improve public authorities. Within the framework of the administrative reforms that Spain has initiated since 2012-2013, initial and continuous training policies have taken on a considerable importance; it is considered by the political class as having to play a driving and essential role in State modernisation because improving the quality of public services requires better trained and more motivated public human resources.

The right to continuous training is also enshrined in Article 40(2) of the Constitution as well as by the Civil Service Statute. It is provided in the same way as initial training, therefore mainly by the autonomous communities and in comparable fields which therefore makes it far from easy to establish a global diagnosis of continuous training actions intended for local public servants, in particular. Follow-up then leads to issuing a certificate to the agents concerned. Training costs are borne by the public employer, but its cost is deducted from the public official's pay during the time of their training! This makes it a system with little incentive for local public servants.

Continuous training is regulated by individual Estonian municipalities, which are also responsible for their staff. These municipalities finance and organise continuous training actions in which they invest a lot of money (1.3 million Euros in 2016, for example, for a poorly developed local public service). In addition, during continuous training which is fully funded by the local authority, the local public official continues to receive their full salary.

However, if the local public official wishes to do expensive training in money (the cost of which exceeds more than 5 times their pay) and in time (more than 90 days of training), it's possible but they must then enter into a contract with their public authority by which they undertake to continue working for the latter for at least three years after doing their training.

In Poland, continuous training is proclaimed but its practice is uncertain depending on the financial means of the employing local authority.

Likewise in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, continuous training is compulsory and common to public and private sector employees and depends on each local authority, which funds it. It can therefore take place internally.

In Italy, local public employers bear the costs of training. This is currently a problem in a period of reduction in public expenditure which started in 2006, since this has directly affected the continuous training budget which was halved in 70% of public authorities, especially local Italian ones. Only compulsory legal training, including initial training, is holding its own...

As a result many Italian local authorities prioritise internal training in the form of transmission between the different generations of public officials, similar to what is being done in Turkey. But, alas, this mode of training escapes any serious national evaluation as much in its period of implementation (with regard to the number of public officials thus trained or its cost, for example) as in its results...

In addition, many local authorities have eliminated or extended departments dedicated to training and therefore few local authorities have a real continuous training policy or do any planning for the latter in the medium or long term.

Continuous training has also grown considerably in recent years, under the impetus of universities, which are much less expensive than that provided by private training companies. Likewise, local authorities have pooled their training activities.

All these new practices were certainly instigated for reasons of economy, but these training courses are seemingly more adapted to demand and have a much more operational and indirect scope; continuous education therefore becomes more utilitarian. But, on the other hand, this has put paid to most of the more innovative and forward-looking training activities in continuous education offers in order to prepare for the future and future reforms.

Moreover, e-learning is very little developed, as well as discussion on the issues and challenges of the future with regard to possible new training needs.

However, the public servant participating in the courses at the request of their public authority is remunerated for the hours spent training and, if transfer and a stay away from head office are necessary, travel expenses are reimbursed. Training generally also involves the purchase and supply of books (magazines and publications, the purchase of tools and online access to the websites of sector organisations), in order to enable updating the individual and skills acquired.

Globally, and this is recurrent for initial or continuous training actions provided in Italian local authorities, there is no national institution for coordinating and planning local and national public official training activities nor is there sharing of best practice, pooling of databases and also no reliable assessment data.

There are big training needs in terms of updates and/or legal training, as well as IT, code of ethics and the fight against corruption.

The main training negatives are therefore: no medium and long term planning; too much training about recent reforms for immediate implementation, and no training about innovative and forward-looking tools (the continuous training policy is therefore short-sighted), a shortage of training action assessments and no national study and effective, coordinated system for making a proper inventory of training needs and offers.

The main problem with the continuous training of local public servants in Latvia is their funding! In fact, in most cases where the training offer exists and is relatively diverse, local public servants must “sort themselves out” in order to do training that interests them and, what is more, training that would be useful to them professionally, as much for an update to restore knowledge levels as for professional development.

Especially since municipalities are already having huge difficulties in financing basic local public services (education, health, public transport, etc.) in the surrounding areas. Consequently, even for a municipal administrative officer paying for training sometimes counts as a “luxury”! Many local public servants wishing to follow continuous professional training must therefore pay for it themselves,

partially or even in full! Therefore some give up, especially since doing such training will often have no impact on their future advancement and/or remuneration...

In 2018, the salaries of Latvian local public servants increased by € 50, or approximately 1/9th of the average basic salary of such officials; this considerable financial effort imposed on especially surrounding municipalities will surely lead to redundancies and/or restructuring which will make the working time of those remaining in office harder, and in the short term will reduce the possibilities for local public servants to do continuous training by the same amount plus a bit more for lack of time and money.

In the Netherlands, there are no schools for public officials and no organised initial training; this is why the municipalities have embarked on an experiment with the two-year internship or apprenticeship formula during recruitment.

Municipalities are currently identifying and developing skills more than knowledge repositories in order to conduct regular and effective assessments of their public officials.

They experiment a lot with human resources management and cooperate with each other; thereby jointly organising continuous training actions for their public officials. Otherwise, they use universities or private training organisations.

It is the municipalities that determine and therefore fund continuous training actions for their officials.

However, and this is very interesting, the Dutch public official is an actor and therefore a partner in their individual training plan which they must regularly update and implement: training is therefore a priority or even a professional obligation which has an impact on the public official's assessment process. They are also granted a € 500 per year budget for training and can lock this sum (€ 1,500) for three years in a row in order to do expensive training; moreover, the municipalities spend, on average and annually, much more than € 500 per official since they commit nearly € 1080 per year and per officer.

In Russia, Article 11 of federal law No. 25-FZ of 02 March 2007 gives an important place to continuous training which is funded out of local authority budgets: the latter's legislative body determines the regulations for such training, while the local executive sets out its program.

However, only 5% of local public servants receive it annually in order to improve their professional knowledge and know-how and/or enable them to acquire new skills.

The main areas of continuous education are: management, law, public finance and accounting, IT, land use planning and town planning, as well as local development.

Thanks to validated continuous training, the local public official can hope for a pay rise, bonuses or even promotion. There is therefore interest in doing such training in terms of career development.

In fine, continuous training is managed by universities, but its assessment varies according to each federal state as well as its cost (from 1 to 5 times the price for the same training).

In Turkey, the overriding intention of “in-service or continuous training” is to oblige the public official to update their knowledge on the one hand and, on the other hand, to enable them to acquire new knowledge and know-how to become more and more efficient, or even to support them in their rise through the profession.

This continuous vocational training looks ambitious in the 1983 General and National Training Plan for Civil Servants, but suffers from not having enough financial resources devoted to it and being ultimately mainly internal and generally not very innovative.

Elsewhere, the continuous vocational training of local public servants is largely decentralised and therefore the responsibility of the employing local authorities, and not having any centralised national data makes its implementation and experimentation largely unknown as well as illegible and invisible.

In principle, it must be validated by an examination leading to a certificate being issued in order ultimately to assess the duration of the training rather than the latter’s added value. In-service training is therefore apparently less profitable than initial training.

In the 5 Nordic states (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden), “lifelong learning” is essential in civil society; in fact, they have a long tradition of continuous training. This is because the training question is closely linked to the very idea of the welfare state, in which the main danger to be avoided is not having suitable work qualifications. Especially since equal opportunities in access to lifelong training is a fundamental value in Nordic societies. If this approach makes sense in the private sector for these open economies playing games of globalisation broadly speaking, the question arises as to the relevance of continuous training in the public sector since it is quite often associated with job security. Yet the solution is the same in the public sector as in the private sector.

In their understanding of the world of work the Nordic States promote the empowerment of the “worker” (both private and public): they must be autonomous and improve throughout their life, both for themselves and for the local authority they are affiliated to. Consequently the unions, which play a very important role both in the field of continuous training and globally with regard to the negotiation and development of collective agreements, are partners with the State in establishing continuous training programs piloted by the State and funded by the State (2/3 of the cost), public employers or the public officials receiving it (1/3); thus, in Iceland, the participation of public officials in the remaining costs of their training is compulsory. But, public officials receive their full pay. These programs are done in public (including State universities) or private institutions, but the latter must be authorised to do this; there is therefore fewer of them than the public training organisations organised and controlled by the State.

In all the Nordic States, there is an individual right to training enshrined in collective agreements and even a longer or shorter training leave depending on the States considered (3 year maximum duration in Norway, for example). E-learning and the use of the Internet are increasingly promoted in the Nordic States, since the distances can be long between municipalities and training centres...

However, continuous training in the Nordic States, except Denmark, is sometimes left a bit too much to the discretion of public employers and there is not always good visibility at national level for training programs and the number of public officials who receive it, especially as they only very rarely result in validation/certification.

In fact, it is only in Denmark where continuous training has a complete 2 to 3 year program costing € 10,000 per public official and including a learning about the public authority module, another on psychology and communication, and a third on management and human resources. It is validated by an exam. This training program is called the “*Kommunom*”⁴⁸. It is therefore an example of national continuous education such as that of the States studied below and illustrating a “national” system of continuous education. However, it lacks flexibility somewhat in its programs enabling LPOs to design their own training program throughout their whole professional life.

B. National or even decentralised training: an example to follow

The training systems for local public servants and elected local representatives in Romania and Bulgaria are in principle based on similar legal rules. However, neither of these two training systems analysed appears to have functional mandatory training provisions for integration into the public authority. Supervisory regulatory frameworks regulate the conditions under which this type of training proceeds more minutely with regard to continuous training.

Romania is, moreover, one of the first European States to have created a national training school for State civil servants under Article 378 of law No. 95 of 14 June 1925: the Institute of Administrative Sciences, created by Professor Paul Negulescu. Likewise, the very principle of the obligation for Romanian State officials to do both initial and continuous professional training was established by Article 237 of law No. 569 of 26 March 1936. These principles were taken up again in the 1940 Code of Conduct, which replaced the 1923 Romanian Civil Servants’ Statute, and was itself replaced by a new Statute in 1946. If Romanian Communist State civil servants were, like all workers, subject to the Labour Code, Article 159 of this Code ordained the obligation for State ministries to train their civil servants, especially at the start of their careers. It was law No. 2 of 18 March 1971 which in turn enshrined the right to continuous training for such workers.

The continuous training of Romanian local public servants is provided by the 7 regional centres of the National Agency of Public Officials (ANFP, Agence nationale des fonctionnaires publics), which centralises financial resources (7.3 million Euros in 2016), which national and local public employers dedicate to it. Continuous training is paid for by the public employer but, in exchange, the public official in receipt of it undertakes to continue working in the Public Authority thereafter for at least two to five years, depending on the number days of training. Otherwise, they will have to reimburse the cost of the training or even any pay received during the training period.

In Bulgaria too, Article 35 of the Staff Regulations of 27 July 1999 enshrines the obligation for the Public Authority to provide continuous training for its public officials for 2/3 of civil servants and 1/3 of contract workers (figures for 2011). The continuous education programs are established by the Institute of Public Administration (IAP, Institut d’Administration Publique) created in 2000, a Bulgarian State institution. Part of this training determines the pro-

motion of civil servants and it is managed by the Bulgarian State. The national association of regional authorities (of Bulgaria) also organises continuous training activities.

In these two legal systems, the statutory provisions indicate the institution responsible for the management, coordination and implementation of continuous education programs, the National Agency of Public Officials and the National Institute of Administration in Romania, and the Institute of Public Administration in Bulgaria. To this end, please note the transitional situation that the Romanian system is facing through the recreation of the National Institute of Administration which, after six years of absence from Romanian public life and via its merger with the ANFP at the beginning of the 2010s, is supposed to gradually resume all its initial and continuous training responsibilities for Romanian public officials and elected officials. It is uncertain, however, when the INA will become fully functional again. It was legally recreated by emergency order No. 23 of 24 August 2016.

Significantly, the two systems suggest diversifying training services for local public servants and elected officials, amongst others, through the progressive development of electronic training, e-learning, and real collaboration with various national and international training organisations.

In fine, a shared question to be asked of both training systems concerns evaluation not only of the training content, but also of the trainers, and even of what it contributes to public officials in terms of skills acquired during training. This is taking the current evaluation system based, in both States, on often too formal evaluation in the form of a questionnaire concerning the official's degree of satisfaction into account.

In Greece, as Ms. Stella Kyrelou⁴⁹ explained so well, *“By persisting, the crisis has required the implementation of a series of additional measures posing serious obstacles to the success of local governance. The number of local employees has fallen sharply and continuously (non-renewal of contracts, reduction of employment contracts, and employees with civil servant status have even been forced to leave their posts, in particular municipal police officers) and this has been accompanied by a big drop in public sector wages⁵⁰, a drop in subsidies to local governments which found themselves with new responsibilities and without the staff or the funds to provide them”*. Continuous education has been coordinated since its creation in 1983 by the National Centre for Public Administration and Government (EKDDA). Its program is chosen by public officials, so it varies according to their professional needs. Funding for this program is mainly European (80%) and secondarily national (20%).

In Hungary, continuous training is either internal to the local public authority or provided by the University of the Civil Service. However, the latter provides the same training programs to local or national public officials; which results in a fairly theoretical program of continuous education that is more focused on knowledge than know-how. Since it is located only in Bucharest (there are no local colleges), its continuous education programs are also broadly paperless. Continuous education is validated by taking and passing exams.

In Lithuania, the continuous training requirements of local public employers in terms of annual assessment oblige them to help public officials to perform well, as well as remain efficient and also become even more so. Therefore, all Lithuanian public employers fully fund the continuous training of their pub-

49. Cite her article in the publication

50. Wages, especially public sector wages and pensions, have been cut dramatically, sometimes by up to 50%. The Greek government abolished the 13th and 14th month paid each year

lic officials which they encourage with regard to the results and conclusions of the annual assessments of these officials, as well as keeping their pay at 100% during 30 days of training and at 50% beyond 30 days. A Lithuanian public official can even get a year's training leave, without pay, but with the assurance of finding their post again at the end of that year. The continuous training programs and the organisations providing them are all controlled, approved (for the training organisations) or validated (for the programs) by the Minister of the Interior or under their control by the (ministerial) Civil Service Department, the central directorate playing the role of a "National Department of Public Human Resources" in Lithuania. There are many advantages to a national management of continuous training, endowed with the twin forces of central coordination and regional delegation together with funding from local sources but which is collected at the central level and managed at the same level.

Firstly, in terms of financing continuous training, it prevents local public servants from being totally dependent not only on the political investment priorities of elected local representatives, but also on the level of wealth or even debt of their local public employer. As has been emphasised, it is clear that when the local authorities are the only decision makers for continuous training actions in the local continuous training systems mentioned above, local public servants are in a highly dependent and even random situation not only with regard to receiving it, but also with regard to following strategically planned updates to their knowledge and know-how development.

Then, the "national" management of continuous training is never "centralised" management, insofar as it requires debate and negotiations between the representatives of the local public servants and those of local public employers, resorting where necessary, but not systematically, to arbitration by central State representatives. The latter, moreover, may not be completely ignorant of the funding of training for local public servants, although it prefers to let local public employers support it in order to better concentrate on financing its own public servants... The fact remains that this "national" management, even when it is partial, enables a national plan for continuous training actions to emerge, and thereby its updating, usually after evaluations in relation and subsequent to the actions actually conducted. Moreover, in the very many States where continuous training is provided mainly at the discretion of local public employers without any coordination for the most part, not only do the activities conducted for continuous training or even for their relevance and/or topicality have no visibility, but they also have few controls and/or any evaluation of their performance, their interest and their impact for local public servants... This avoids the upkeep and/or the recurrence of "internal training courses" that sometimes are neither scalable, modern nor adaptable... All the more so since to confine oneself to the systematic output of local public servants from generation to generation, to playing back the same internal knowledge without opening up to the world or changing training programs or methods means risking becoming ossified, never questioning oneself, not adapting, innovating or evolving, even if lower expenditure is often the obvious interest of "internal training".

To the extent that the development of e-learning *in fine* has its limits with regard to the investment of public officials including local ones, given the difficulties of online training and self-motivation in the absence of face-to-face lessons and appropriate explanations. It is especially important that working public servants who give up their professional working time and even, more

and more, their personal time to update their knowledge, acquire mainly new skill-sets or know-how, as well as interpersonal skills, can be supported and encouraged. Therefore, online knowledge can provide additional knowledge, but perhaps not all the tools or teaching methods useful for better mastery of this knowledge. Training is a form of education which, whether we like it or not, is based on a human, interpersonal relationships.

Therefore, e-learning is a “added value” in the trajectory of continuous education but, despite the savings that it could generate for costs of continuous education actions and trainers, it cannot replace these latter; at best, it can only complement them.

II – The 16 reflexive/in-depth studies | A. Examples of federal states

**INITIAL AND CONTINUOUS
TRAINING OF LOCAL PUBLIC
SERVANTS AND TRAINING
OF LOCAL ELECTED
REPRESENTATIVES
IN GERMANY**

Vinzenz Huzel
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The following paper concentrates on an overview of the initial and continuous training of the local government staff in Germany (Section 1) because local elected representatives are selected either from this group of public sector employees or other people – mainly members of the local councils – not specifically trained for acting as local elected representatives. As members of the local councils are beside local public servants a core groups of those who are elected as local public servants in Germany the professional background and further training of local councillors are considered in the second part (Section 2) of this paper.

Finally, it has to be mentioned that local government consists of two tiers in Germany – municipalities and *Landkreise* (comparable with provinces or counties in other countries; see Egner and Heinelt 2011). Beside this two-tier system bigger cities (*kreisfreie Städte*/county-exempt cities) combine the functions of both tiers of local government.

1. Initial and continuous training of local public servants

Regarding the staff of local authorities in Germany, it is necessary to distinguish between two groups working in the public section - the civil servants and the public employees. Furthermore it has to be considered that education and training of the staff of local government differs in Germany from federal state to federal state. In this paper the federal state of Baden-Wuerttemberg is used as an example to show how the training of local government staff is structured and which kind of further training is offered to them.

1.1 The public service in Germany in general

In Germany about 4.65 million people were employed by the federal level, the federal states and local government, in 2014. In proportion to the total working population, the public service makes up 7% in Germany, slightly above the EU average of 6.9 % (dbb 2016: 11).

In principle, the staff in Germany's public sector can be divided into two status groups: the civil servants and the public employees. These two groups have different tasks and fields of activity. Furthermore, civil servants are recruited for a particular service class, i.e. a particular job ladder/career path, whereas public employees are recruited for specific positions (this will be further elaborated in Section 1.3).

Civil servants are according to Article 33(4) of the German Constitution – the Basic Law – entrusted with the execution of state power intervening in the private sphere of citizens. Besides these classical remits for German civil servants, activities are coming to the fore today which should guarantee the functioning of state institutions and everyday life. The Federal Constitutional Court of Germany describes the function of the civil servants as follows:

‘The professional civil service is an institution that, based on expertise, professional ability and loyal fulfilment of duties ensures a stable administration, and thus should constitute a balancing factor against the political forces which mould the life of the state’ (BVerfGE 7: 162).

The basic idea behind the particular status of German civil servants is closely linked to the administrative modernization of the Prussian state in the late

18th century – namely the execution of government tasks by impartial, loyal and knowledgeable professionals.

Public employees perform tasks that are outside of these core (sovereign) responsibilities of public administration. Their tasks includes for example childcare, road clearing services, janitorial work, artistic and culture-oriented activities as well as technical activities in the fields of construction, planning and waste management. However, the distinction between these two groups has become more and more fluid. Of example, it is discussed if teachers and professors are really exercising state power and have to be employed as civil servants. Beside core parts of the public administration – like the judiciary, the police etc. – it can more or less autonomously be decide whether civil servants or salaried employees are recruit. Whereas public employees are hired on the basis of a contract under private law, the employment of civil servants is governed by public law. This allows German civil servants for instance not to go on strike or to express their political option in official activities.

A crucial and controversially discussed issue is the payment of civil servants and public employees. As the former are employed for lifetime (i.e. they cannot become unemployed) and special pension and health schemes exist for them only funded by public authorities, they do not have to pay – in contrast to public employees – social contributions for public unemployment, old-age pension and health insurance schemes. Therefore, the net income of civil servants is usually higher than those of public employees doing the same job.

A special form of the civil service is the group of elected government officials which includes the mayors and other local administrative leaders. Through an election by the people or a local representative body, such as a municipal council, they are appointed with a set tenure. At the same time they are the supreme supervisors of the municipal personnel and heads of administrations. The legal position of the elected local government officials is mixed, characterized by both, the ideas of the civil service and of a political mandate. Thus they differ from pure civil servants. Fundamental to the legal status as well as the appointment, position and tasks of the elected local government officials are the laws of the federal states.

1.2 The municipal administration in Germany and their staff

There are about 11,000 cities and towns in the Federal Republic of Germany. The smallest have fewer than 100 inhabitants; some cities have over one million. Furthermore, there are about 300 *Landkreise* and about 100 county-exempt municipalities (usually big cities; see Egner and Heinelt 2011: 107). According to the Basic Law, all of them possess a constitutional guarantee of self-government (Article 28 Basic Law). This means they are, in principle, responsible for all local public affairs. And indeed, most administrative tasks are assigned to municipalities.

These extensive responsibilities include construction management, urban planning, road construction, housing, social services and public facilities such as swimming pools, libraries, archives, kindergartens and sports facilities. Furthermore, the municipalities are responsible for local public transport, waste management and supplying the population with water, gas, electricity and district heating. The organization of the fire department, the regulatory authority and the register office are also responsibilities of municipalities. The

local self-government guarantees the cities and towns, inter alia, the right to organize themselves (organisational autonomy), to dispose of their own finances (financial autonomy) and to decide independently on the selection and deployment of staff (personnel autonomy). The variety of local responsibilities requires the employment of well-trained and specialized staff from diverse professional fields. In addition to typical administration professions such as law and administration there are also trained lifeguards, engineers, nursery, IT specialists, bricklayers, carpenters, conductors, violinists and archivists to be found among the approximately 1.4 million people employed by municipals in Germany (Bundesministerium des Innern 2014: 22).

However, since local government is part of the federal states, local government is subject to their supervision. It is the responsibility of the federal states to regulate the general structure of the administration of local government by state law. This includes regulations for the training and recruitment of staff. Each of the 16 federal states determines legal requirements for the selection and qualification of staff as well as regulations for payments of civil servants. Furthermore, federal states have to negotiate wage agreements with the unions of public employees. In this respect, it is difficult to make general statements about education and training of the staff of local government administration in Germany. Therefore, we will concentrate on main regulations which apply generally to the administration of local government in Germany. Following this, there are examples of training and further training of local staff in the federal state of Baden-Wuerttemberg.

Table 1: Staff of the local government administration in Germany by tasks, status groups and female employees (30 June 2014)

Tasks	total	percentage of women	civil servants	civil servants in percent of total staff	female civil servants in percent of employed women	public employees	public employees in percent of total staff	female public employees in percent of employed women
Total	1 427 985	60,7	186 135	13,0	9,0	1 241 845	87,0	91,0
central administration	412 280	56,1	113 600	27,6	17,2	298 680	72,4	82,8
internal administration	283 595	60,4	63 555	22,4	16,7	220 040	77,6	83,3
public safety and order	128 685	46,7	50 045	38,9	18,6	78 640	61,1	81,4
school und culture	178 365	69,4	13 230	7,4	5,7	165 135	92,6	94,3
school authorities tasks	109 480	73,9	10 675	9,8	7,0	98 805	90,2	93,0
culture and science	68 885	62,3	2 555	3,7	3,3	66 330	96,3	96,7
social and youth	358 695	85,9	30 950	8,6	6,5	327 745	91,4	93,5
social welfares	108 930	74,3	22 925	21,0	17,8	86 005	79,0	82,2
assistance for children and families	249 765	91,0	8 025	3,2	2,5	241 740	96,8	97,5
th.o. day-care centre	187 315	96,1	975	0,5	0,4	186 340	99,5	99,6
health and sports	156 530	70,6	3 510	2,2	1,6	153 020	97,8	98,4
health service	136 590	73,9	2 920	2,1	1,5	133 670	97,9	98,5
th.o.: hospitals	113 440	74,1	990	0,9	0,5	112 450	99,1	99,5
sports promotion	19 935	47,7	585	2,9	2,4	19 350	97,1	97,6
environmental tasks	322 115	28,7	24 850	7,7	10,0	297 270	92,3	90,0
spatial planning and development	30 240	47,1	6 275	20,8	14,7	23 965	79,2	85,3
building and living	36 930	50,0	6 565	17,8	15,7	30 365	82,2	84,3
supply and disposal	88 230	21,7	2 250	2,6	4,0	85 980	97,4	96,0
traffic and public transportation	40 405	14,8	2 140	5,3	12,3	38 265	94,7	87,7
nature and landscape maintenance	50 100	25,4	3 695	7,4	8,9	46 405	92,6	91,2
other	76 210	28,5	3 920	5,1	7,4	72 290	94,9	92,6

Table 1 shows the distribution of the staff of municipals by tasks, broken down by civil servants, public employees and by sex. These figures show that civil servants represent only 13.0 per cent of the municipal staff and that they are concentrated in the central administration – and particularly for fulfilling tasks in public safety and order. Furthermore, there are a relatively high percentage of civil servants employed in providing social services as well as in fulfilling tasks in ‘spatial planning and development’ and ‘building and living’. Whereas social services are connected to grant welfare benefits, spatial planning etc. is for instance related to regulate land use and to grant building permits. Clearly, these tasks are examples for the execution of state power definitely intervening in the private sphere of citizens.

Although the proportion of women in the public sector lies at about 60 per cent, it emerges that the distribution of the single areas of responsibility is very different. The areas ‘school and culture’, ‘social and youth’ as well as ‘health and sports’ are still female domains with shares above 70 per cent. In the area of central administration, however, the gender ratio is almost balanced. In the more technical area of environmental tasks, there are not even one-third of the positions held by women. Particularly evident is the gender gap in terms of the leadership positions. Only 12.6 per cent of the recipients of the highest salary grade in the municipal sector are women (see Statistisches Bundesamt 2015: Tabelle 2.2.1 B-Besoldung in den Kommunen, and Schimeta: 2012).

1.3 Employment relationships and careers in the civil service of municipalities in Germany

Local government administrations choose their staff according to aptitude, qualifications and professional achievements. Leading positions in administrative management are partially chosen by the local council, but normally jobs are awarded by the personnel department. Acceptance into the public service requires either a subject-specific qualification in the form of vocational training or an academic degree. For typical administration tasks there is often training which specifically prepares for work in the public sector, called the preparatory service. The training within the preparatory service is both, practical and theoretical and is usually completed with a career examination. The content requirements are defined by training and examination regulations that are enacted as ordinances by the state parliaments. Therein the admission standards, selection process, contents of the training and career examination are regulated.

To pass the preparatory service is obligatory for civil servants because it prepares for a particular services class, i.e. a particular job ladder/career path. Although the passing of the preparatory service is not required for being hired for a specific position as a public employee it can help.

The career paths for civil servants are divided into ordinary service (*einfacher Dienst*), intermediate service (*mittlerer Dienst*), higher intermediate service (*gehobener Dienst*) and higher service (*höherer Dienst*). Entering the public service with a particular preparatory service related to one of these four services classes means that civil servants are bound to the job ladder linked with each service class. Or in other words and more precisely: When one has entered one of these services classes it is hard to be promoted to a higher one – without further education (see Section 1.4).

Although these services classes do not apply formally for public employees because they are recruited for a specific position instead of a particular service

class. But the job ladders linked to the four services classes of civil servants are relevant for civil employees too, because the position for which public employees are recruited are defined in respect to tasks and responsibilities as well as payment (without considering that the later have to pay social contribution for becoming eligible unemployment benefits, health services and old-age pension; see above) are defined with reference to the four services classes of civil servants.

The recruitment requirement in the *ordinary service* is, in addition to the successful visit of the secondary school (*Hauptschule*), a vocational qualification. Among the civil servants, this group is almost no longer existent since the simple activities of this career path, such as being a doorman or official messenger, are becoming increasingly rare or are now carried out by public employees.

The *intermediate service* also requires a secondary school degree (*Haupt- or Realschule*) and a vocational qualification. The tasks are mainly in the field of a preparatory or executing officer. The preparatory service for the average career usually lasts between two and three years.

The prerequisite for the *higher intermediate service* is an academic bachelor's degree. This enables them to do activities ranging from executive officer's tasks through to tasks at the management level. The preparatory service takes three years to complete and is provided by most federal states in the form of studying at a university of applied sciences in administration.

For the *higher service* a university degree like a masters or an equivalent degree such as a university diploma is demanded. The higher service is concerned with management responsibilities. The preparatory service, often in the form of professional internship (*Referendariat*), takes usually two years.

Most of the *civil servants* are members of the intermediate service (with approximately 20.6% of employees) and the higher intermediate service (with 63.4%). Also most of the *public employees* are equivalents to the intermediate service (with 66.5%). These figures are considered in detail in Table 2 which shows the career paths, fields of activity, gross monthly income and proportion of local governmental staff.

Table 2: Staff of local government administration by tasks, income and proportion (full time equivalent on 30 June 2014)

	civil service		public employees	
career path	designation	percentage	designation	percentage
tasks, qualifications	approximately gross income	(basis of calculation)	approximately gross income	(basis of calculation)
ordinary service	A2 to A6	0.03%	E1 to E4	14.2%
simple tasks	ca. 1 990 -2 560 EUR	(here A2 to A5)	ca. 1 710 -2 670 EUR	(here E1 to E 4)
trained and untrained	gross per month		gross per month	
intermediate service	A6 to A9	20.6%	E5 to E9	66.5%
executive officer tasks	ca. 2 030 -3 140 EUR	(here A6 to A8)	ca. 2 200 -4 025 EUR	(here E5 to E9)
at least 3 years vocational training	gross per month		gross per month	
higher intermediate service	A9 to A13	63.4%	E10 to E12	9.1%
middle management	ca. 2 390 -4 820 EUR	(here A9 to A13)	ca. 2 990 - 5 300 EUR	(here E10 to E12)
bachelor degree	gross per month		gross per month	
higher service	A13 to A16 and B-Besoldung	11.9%	E13 to E15 and non-tariff and others	6.4%
managerial functions, master degree	ca. 3 900 - 6 720 EUR and ca. 6 030 - 12 640 EUR	(here A14 to A16 and B-Besoldung)	ca. 3 570 -7 070 EUR	(here E13 to E 15, non- tariff and others)
	gross per month		gross per month	
in training	divers groups	4.1%	divers groups	3.8%
total	170 355 persons	100.0%	1 041 945 persons	100.0%

Own calculation based on Statistisches Bundesamt (Destatis): 2015; Tabelle 2.2.4, b) Beamtenbesoldungstabelle Baden-Württemberg 2015a 2016 and c) Endgeldtabelle Tarifvertrag für den Öffentlichen Dienst 2016a - Prognose für den Bereich VKA.

The ordinary service will not be considered in the following due to the fact that it is not very relevant today now. The higher service will also not be considered in detail because there are too many different entrances to the public service (for example lawyers, engineers, geographers, architects, etc.). Moreover, they represent only a relatively small proportion of the staff in the local government.

1.3.1 The vocational trainings in the intermediate service

In the area of internal administration mainly “Skilled Administrative Assistants” (*Verwaltungsfachangestellte*) and “Management Assistants for Office Communications” (*Kaufmann/-frau fuer Bueromanagement*) are trained and hired. Both are recognised occupations requiring formal training under the German Vocational Training Act. While the training for Skilled Administrative Assistants is specifically designed for the public sector, the Management Assistants for Office Communications are also trained for the private sector. The vocational training qualifies a person to work as a clerk. While emphasis in the activities of the Management Assistants for Office Communications is given more in communications and in the adaption of complex office and business processes, Skilled Administrative Assistants are also qualified to adopt simple administrative acts independently by virtue of the higher proportion of legal content during their training.

The training takes place in the dual vocational training system, which is used widely in Germany for most non-academic professions. This means that the training takes place in a workplace – for example, a municipal administration – and an administrative school. In general, the duration of the initial training is three years. Subjects of training for the Skilled Administrative Assistants are, for example, management business administration, human resources, administrative law and procedures, economic and social studies as well as case-related law. The initial training of Management Assistants includes, among other things, information management and processing, coordination and organizational tasks, customer relationship, order processing, procurement and external services as well as with commercial control. The training ends with several days of final exams which consist of written and practical tests. The training for Management Assistants for Office Communications is currently the most popular in Germany. In 2015, 28 959 training contracts were concluded. In contrast, 5 874 contracts were concluded for Skilled Administrative Assistants (BIBB - Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung: 2016). The proportion of female apprentices in both occupations is nearly 75%.

There is also a third vocational training in the public sector called “*Verwaltungswirt - mittlerer nichttechnischer Dienst*”. Unlike the training courses mentioned above, the training depends on the civil service law of the respective federal states and not on the Vocational Training Act (Berufsbildungsgesetz - BBiG). The trainees are already in the status of civil servants during training. However, the proportion of trainees as “*Verwaltungswirt - mittlerer Dienst*” within the local government is relatively low. They are found primarily in larger organizational units such as *Landkreise* and *kreisfreien Städte*. The content of the training corresponds in large parts to the Skilled Administrative Assistants with greater emphasis on administrative law.

1.3.2 Studies in the higher intermediate service for local government administration

The higher intermediate service in Germany is often called the backbone of local government (see Figure 2). In Baden-Wuerttemberg, as well as in most federal states of the Federal Republic of Germany, the preparatory service works within a framework of studies with high practical elements in which theoretical and practical sections alternate. The students are often already employed and receive a monthly salary of around €1 000 EUR.

In Baden-Wuerttemberg there are two universities of applied science for public administration located in Ludwigsburg and Kehl. The history of both universities and its predecessor institutions, where local public servants were trained, dates back to the early 18th century. The requirement for studying is a general admission into the university. In addition, candidates will be admitted who have passed the state examination for the intermediate service with above-average grades. Another requirement for applying to the study programme is German citizenship or a nationality of another member state of the European Union. In order to study at one of the universities, applicants must pass a job interview in a training centre, as well as the selection process at the universities. These procedures vary from state to state. In Baden-Wuerttemberg 3, 050 people applied for 530 study places in 2013 (Landtag von Baden-Württemberg 15/2539, 2012: 5).

Applicants are selected by the municipal apprenticeship training councils based on the personal interview. Candidates who can procure a training place in a municipality and have passed the selection test of the university will receive a final approval for study.

The nomenclature of the study program, which qualifies for higher intermediate service, can differ between the federal states. (After the Bologna Reform, Baden-Wuerttemberg, for example, changed the name to “Public Management - Bachelor of Arts”. In some federal states the old name “Diplomverwaltungswirt (FH)” is still in use. In Baden-Wuerttemberg training takes three and a half years.) The core study has a relatively wide range of general study subjects that are mandatory for all students. These include various legal subjects such as municipal law, civil law, social law, regulatory and administrative law and constitutional law. There are also subjects on finance such as public finance, business administration and municipal tax law. This subject-specific content is supplemented with basics in economics, sociology, computer science, personnel management and psychology. During the last semester, in-depth specialisation occurs. Topics include ‘social service administration’, ‘cultural, sports and educational administration’, ‘environmental administration’, ‘planning and building administration’, ‘immigration and integration tasks’, ‘administration in the European Union’, ‘economy and finance’, ‘local politics and leadership in the public sector’, ‘municipal companies and investments’, ‘information technology and management’, ‘personnel management’ as well as ‘organization and communication tasks’.

For the period of study, students in Baden-Wuerttemberg are already given the status of a civil servant. The public employers are the universities for administration. In other German federal states, this can be the municipality in which the practical training is taking place.

After studying, the graduates in Baden-Wuerttemberg are not taken on automatically. They must reapply for free vacancies. However, almost 90% of students from 2015 reported that they had a job prospect in place before graduating from university. Here it is decided whether to join the public service as civil servants or public employees. Due to the extent of the content and the generalist approach to the studies, graduates are qualified to work in many different areas of public administration. This applies both on entering the job as well as for their future career.

Since the Bologna Reform, which has replaced the diploma degree with the bachelor and master in many German states, it is possible to study Public Management as a master’s programme. This can provide access to the career path of the higher service. But it is also possible to acquire a master’s degree in other areas.

1.4 Further Education and Continuous Training Opportunities in the Public Service

Working in the public sector in general and in the administration of local government in particular is hard to imagine today without continuous training. Not only the legal framework is rapidly changing, the technical conditions are changing as well.

Not only the employing organisation has an interest in further education and continuous training to ensure and develop the quality of public service. Employees can also have an interest to increase their chances of promotion through further education and training because career advancement in the public sector in Germany is relatively strictly regulated by the law, which often requires training or education.

There are many offers of measures for further education and continuous training which vary from federal state to federal state. This includes all professions, the core administration as well as the technical, educational, social and cultural occupations. Basically, it is possible to distinguish between public and private education providers.

The classical offers in the field of further education are consecutive and non-consecutive master programmes which can be studied in full-time or part-time.

Similar offers for upskilling are made by public and private management schools, municipal study institutes and academies (*kommunale Studieninstitute und Akademien*). In Baden-Wuerttemberg master courses in the fields of Public Management, Cluster Management and European Administrative Management are offered by the two universities for administration (mentioned in section 1.3.2). These study programmes are designed specifically for the public sector and allow employees to rise from the higher intermediate to the higher service. Prerequisites are at least a bachelor's degree and proven work experience of two years. In addition, the universities offer refresher courses as training opportunities for staff of public administration, coming from other professional fields.

Similarly to the universities, the public administration schools offer higher qualifications in the field of apprenticeships. The Skilled Administrative Assistants have, for example, the opportunity to be trained as Administrative Officers (*Verwaltungsfachwirt*) and thus be promoted to a higher grade.

Vocational further education and training is also performed by a number of non-profit and commercial providers. In Baden-Wuerttemberg the Association of Municipalities (*Gemeindetag Baden-Wuerttemberg*) operates a school with the task of training and continuing the education of the staff (*Verwaltungsschule des Gemeindetags Baden-Wuerttembergs*). According to the school, between 6, 500 and 15, 000 participants per year are trained there. Similarly organized is the *Wuerttembergische Verwaltungs- und Wirtschafts-Akademie e.V. (VWA)*. The members of this non-profit organization are mostly public and former public employers, as well as local government associations (*Staedtetag, Gemeidetag, Landkreistag of Baden-Wuerttemberg*), chambers of commerce, unions, and single municipalities. The object of the VWA lies in further vocational education and the training of specialists in administration and business. In addition to specialized training programs and refresher courses in the fields of law, administration and finance, training programmes on general abilities such as social skills, IT or languages are offered. These subjects are also provided by commercial providers.

1.5 Summary

Many municipalities in Germany endeavour to operate sustainable human resource management, which includes ongoing refinements and developments of the employees. Structured and strategic personnel development can be afforded mainly in larger organizational units where human resources are available. Sustainable personnel development will be a major challenge for the provision of public services at the local level in the future.

The municipalities are popular for employees for many reasons. In particular, the high degree of job security, the clear rules on public service law, the

1. At the second tier of German local government, i.e. the Landkreise, the Landrat as the equivalent to the mayor is not directly elected in every federal states (see for details Egner and Heinelt 2011: 110 and Egner and Heinelt 2016: 30 and 41ff.).

2. See for these boards and their different function in the individual federal states Egner 2007: 89; Egner and Heinelt 2011: 110 and Egner and Heinelt 2016: 31 and 58f.

3. See www.cost.eu/COST_Actions/isch/IS1207; results of this European-wide survey on mayors will be published in Heinelt et al. 2017.

4. For the countries covered by these surveys see Bäck et al. 2005 and Heinelt et al. 2017. Unfortunately, questions on the main profession of the mayors before starting their current mandate and on the sector of the profession were not included in the survey carried out in 2002-03.

5. 77.8 per cent of the Landräte, i.e. the equivalents of a mayor at the second tier of local government in Germany, have a university degree (Egner and Heinelt 2016: 77). Questions on their university degrees, their former profession were not included in the European survey on actors at the second tier of local government (see Bertrana et al. 2016).

6. In the 2015 survey a different categorization of professions were used than in the 2002-03 survey.

family-friendliness and the opportunities for advancement makes it attractive. The reconciliation of work and family demands a high degree of flexibility. Nearly 60% of staff of the municipalities are female (see Table 1) and more than a quarter of all employees work part time. The challenge will be, in times of skills shortages and demographic change, to continue in attracting committed and qualified employees, especially in competition with the private sector. So, not only in terms of the gender equality it is necessary to burst the glass ceiling concerning higher position in public administration for female employees.

2. Training of local elected representatives

As since the 1990s directly elected mayors were introduced in all federal states (except the special cases of the city states Berlin, Bremen and Hamburg whose mayors have a status similar to the prime ministers of the other federal states). There are two categories of elected representatives at the local level in Germany – namely mayors and councillors.¹ Furthermore, in some German federal state there are executive boards (Magistrate, Hauptausschuss, Verwaltungsausschuss, and Kreisausschuss) whose members are either elected among the councillors or appointed high ranging members of staff.² In the following we will look at the professional background of mayors and local councillors. Furthermore, we will briefly reflect on further training offered to councillors. Members of the mentioned executive boards will not be considered because they are either councillors – usually those who are perceived by their follow councillors as quite qualified for fulfilling the function of a board member – and high ranking members of staff.

2.1 The professional background of the directly elected mayors

Studies of the directly elected mayors in Germany have shown (see Bogumil and Heinelt 2005; Egner 2007: 121ff.) that they are by no means layperson: Most of them have a university degree (or a degree from a similar institutions) and a lot of them have a degree in law.

These have been confirmed by a recent survey carried out in 2015 in the context of the COST Action on ‘Local Public Sector Reforms: An International Comparison’.³ Furthermore, there have been changes in the professional background of German mayors since 2002-2003 when a similar survey was conducted (see Bäck et al. 2005 on this survey):⁴

- In 2015 73.3 per cent of German mayors had completed their highest education at a university or an equivalent institution.⁵ That was less than the average among European mayors, but the percentage of German mayors with a university degree had increase since the beginning of the 2000s by more than 10 percentage points.
- Far more German mayors than their colleagues in other European countries have got a university degree in law. However, over the last decade mayors with a degree in law decreased slightly in Germany (from 38.7 in 2002-03 to 32.4 in 2015) while in the same time mayors with a university degree in political and social sciences or in economy increased substantially (from 17.7 in 2002-03 to 39.1 in 2015)
- Nearly half (46.2 per cent) of the German mayors had worked as chief executives, senior officials and legislators before they came into office– in contrast to just 27.8 per cent of all European mayors.⁶
- Finally, it has to be emphasised that 71.9 per cent of the German mayors were employed in the public sector before they started their current mandate. This applies for only 57.4 per cent of all European mayors.

Table 3: Highest completed education, university degrees and former main profession of German mayors – in comparison with the average European mayor (2002-03 and 2015)

	Germany		Europe in total	
	2002-03	2015	2002-03	2015
Highest completed education				
elementary school	9,2	14,6	3,8	4,2
secondary school or equivalent	30,7	12,1	24,7	15,9
university or equivalent	60,1	73,3	71,5	79,9
Discipline in which an education at a university (or equivalent) was completed				
law	38,7	32,4	21,4	22,5
political and social sciences, economy	17,7	39,1	22,3	33,5
architect-engineering	7,0	12,6	13,2	15,6
humanistic area (philosophy, literature, foreign languages)	12,0	8,5	15,1	11,6
medicine	0,3	0,3	7,4	5,6
natural sciences, physics, mathematics area	11,4	7,1	10,0	11,2
not specified	13,6	-/-	10,6	-/-
main profession before starting the current mandate as a mayor (your major source of income)				
Chief executives, senior officials and legislators		46,2		27,8
Other managers		11,2		13,1
Science and engineering professionals		4,6		7,0
Health professionals		0,7		3,8
Teaching professionals		6,6		11,3
Business and administration professionals		4,2		7,6
Legal, social and cultural professionals		13,8		9,4
Other professionals		3,5		5,5
Technicians and associate professionals		2,0		3,4
Clerical support workers		2,8		2,3
Services and sales worker		2,8		2,9
Other workers		0,4		3,0
Elective/executive function in a political party organization		1,1		2,8
Sector in which the former main profession was located				
Public sector		71,9		57,4
Private sector		28,1		42,6

These figures mean that in general German mayors are not only well educated for their job but have usually gained also experiences to work in a public authority. One may summaries that they are well qualified to exercise the role of an ‘executive mayor’ (Heinelt and Hlepas 2005), i.e. a mayor not only performing the role of a local political leader but also of the head of the municipal administration.

2.2 Educational and professional background of councillors and offers of further training for them

2.2.1 Educational and professional background of councillors

For the selection of local councillors the ‘3M-mantra’ seems to be characteristic as there is a dominance of ‘male, middle-aged and middle-class’ people in the councils (see Egner et al. 2013: 57ff. for German and Verhelst et al. 2013 for European municipal councillors in general as well as Egner and Heinelt 2016: 64ff. for Kreistagsmitglieder [second-tier councillors]).

Table 4: Highest completed education, occupation before the first mandate and current occupation as well as occupational status German municipal councillors – in comparison with the average European municipal councillors (2007-08)

	Germany	Europe in total	Germany	Europe in total
Highest completed education				
elementary school	32.5	8.5		
secondary school or equivalent	13.5	32.7		
university or equivalent	54.0	58.7		
	Occupation before the first mandate as a councillor		Occupation now (at the time when the survey was conducted)	
Professional politician	0.3	1.0	1.3	4.1
Civil servant	19.1	16.7	15.6	14.1
Business manager	11.0	10.6	8.8	8.4
Teacher	3.7	11.0	7.4	7.9
Liberal profession (e.g. lawyer, doctor)	16.3	9.9	11.5	9.5
Engineer (or the like, e.g. computer specialist, technician)	7.3	7.9	5.1	5.2
Clerk	5.9	11.7	5.4	9.1
Shopkeeper (or the like, e.g. salesman)	9.1	4.3	4.9	3.4
Labourer	4.9	5.9	1.7	3.4
Farmer or fisher	2.4	2.6	2.3	2.0
Student	5.4	5.0	2.0	2.1
Retired	0.8	1.6	18.9	17.8
Housewife/-man	5.6	1.6	3.1	1.9
Other	7.8	10.1	12.0	10.9
Employee or self-employed councillors				
employee	65.7	72.0		
– employed in the public sector	59.0	52.3		
self-employed	34.3	28.0		

In respect to their education and professional background basic information are given in Table 4 (based on a European-wide survey carried out in 2007-08; see Egner et al. 2013; Egner and Heinelt 2016; Egner et al. 2013; Bertrana et al. 2016):

- More than half (54.0 per cent) of the German municipal councillors have a university degree. This is slightly less than the average (i.e. 58.7 per cent) of municipal councillors in Europe in general. However, much more than their European colleagues have just passed an elementary school (32.5 in contrast to 8.5 per cent). This may indicate some deficiencies in respect to formal qualification.
- More German municipal councillors than their European colleagues started their career as a council member as a civil servant, which may indicate some experiences in politics in general as well as in public administration. Furthermore, much more German municipal councillors were working as a lawyer or (medical) doctor when they started acting as an elected political representative at the local level. This may also indicate some substantial knowledge needed for exercising the function of a local councillor. However, quite a number (9.1 per cent) of German municipal councillors started their mandate when they are working as a shopkeeper or the like. The same is true regarding the occupation of councillors when the survey was carried out – however with a lower percentage.
- There has been a shift in the occupation between the point in time when councillors started acting as local political representatives and the time when the survey was conducted. This shift is obviously a

result of the fact, that much more councillors were retired when they were asked as active political representative than at the point in time when they took over the mandate. The fact that 18.9 per cent of the German municipal councillors were retired (and 17.8 per cent of the European municipal councillors) shows that there is a quite big group of local political representatives who have time to fulfil and to prepare themselves for their responsibilities.

- That there is a bigger group of local political representatives in Germany than in other European countries who are more flexible to fulfil and to prepare themselves for their responsibilities is shown by the fact that there are more self-employed among the German municipal councillors than in the European average (34.3 compared to 28.0). The same holds true for employees among the German municipal councillors who are employed in the public sector.

To summarise, there may be in Germany less municipal councillors than in other European countries with a university degree but the group of councillors is bigger in Germany than in their neighbouring countries that started their career with practical professional experiences relevant for fulfilling their responsibilities as elected representatives. And finally, in Germany the group of councillors who are self-employed or employees of the public sector is bigger than in other countries, which makes them more flexible in preparing themselves for fulfilling their responsibilities.

2.2.2 Offers of further training for councillors

Offers of training courses are rare made by the three German local government associations at the federal level – namely of the *Deutsche Landkreistag*, i.e. the association of the Landkreise (equivalents to provinces, counties etc.), the *Deutsche Städtetag*, i.e. the association of bigger cities, and the *Deutsche Städte- und Gemeindebund*, i.e. the association of smaller municipalities. Only the branches of these associations in the individual federal state are making offers – depending on local demand (based on oral information collected by the authors of this paper after a letter were send to the offices of the three German local government associations at the federal level). So, for example the University for applied Sciences in Administration in Kehl and the *Verwaltungsschule des Gemeindetags Baden-Wuerttemberg* (mention in Section 1.4) offer courses for new elected councillors to give a brief introduction to the mandate. Councillors are also invited to participate on the further training offers addressed to the staff of public service. Around 170 subject-specific seminars are provided by the *Verwaltungsschule* every year in the federal state of Baden Wuerttemberg. The seminars cover a wide range of topics concerning the local administration and give basic as well as specific information.

To prepare through further training for properly exercising their mandate as elected local representative councillors in Germany have to rely mainly on offers made by foundations or other organisations related to the different political parties. These foundations and organisations get funds from different ministries at the federal and federal state levels. Training courses offered by them for local councillors are mainly financially supported by the ministries for the interior. The relevance of these party-related foundations and organisations in this field is an expression of the importance of national political parties in local politics in Germany (see Egner et al. 2013: 60ff.; Egner and Heinelt 2016: 83ff.). In the following examples of the offers of these foundations and similar organisations will be given.

One of these organisations is the ‚Sozialdemokratische Kommunal-Akademie‘.

7. Every party in the German Bundestag has a related Foundation for political education and similar purposes. These Foundations are not part of the parties' organisation but support their political principles and goals.

It was founded in 2001 by the governing board of the Social Democratic Party of Germany (SPD) at the federal level and the 'Sozialdemokratische Gemeinschaft für Kommunalpolitik in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland e.V./ Bundes-SGK'. The Bundes-SGK is an association of Social Democratic politicians acting at the local level. It was founded in 1978. Training courses offered currently by this organisation are for example thematically focused on:

- 'Spheres of activities and self-conception of voluntary local politics' (incl. a workshops on 'Challenges and spheres of activities in a big city as well as in rural areas'),
- 'How to handle local political challenges' (incl. workshops on 'Municipal finance' and 'Municipal enterprises'),
- 'Planning and strategic development at the municipal level',
- 'Social justice and social cohesion at the municipal level'.

Offers for individual councillors include for instance:

- 'Time management',
- 'Planning campaigns and winning voters',
- 'Planning and organising events',
- 'Moderation',
- 'Better collaboration in the local party organisation and the party group in the council',
- 'Motivation und engagement',
- 'Active press relations',
- 'Leadership and responsibility'.

At the level of individual federal states there are e.g. offers of the 'Kommunal Akademie in Baden-Wuerttemberg' organised by the Friedrich-Ebert-Foundation, the party-related foundation of the Social democrats. Its offer consists of different modules - namely

1. 'Designing local politics',
2. 'Norms and ethical standards',
3. 'Guiding yourself - leading others',
4. 'Leadership in politics',
5. 'Persisting in the democratic competition'.

The Konrad-Adenauer-Foundation is the foundation related to the Christian Democratic Party (CDU). It operates a 'Kommunal Akademie' which is currently offering for example the following courses for local councilors:

- 'Basic principle of local politics',
- 'The municipal budget and new financial management',
- 'Planning and building - tasks of municipalities',
- 'Communicating successfully - communication in local politics',
- 'Management of the party group in the council I: Guiding and leading strategically',
- 'Management of the party group in the council II: Qualification and personal development',
- 'Supervisory board of municipal enterprises'.

As can be seen from this overview, training offers for local councillors are thematically focused on topics relevant for the day-to-day activities of elected local representatives, but nevertheless there are also offers addressing basic challenges as well as strategic orientation of local politics. Particularly the last point explains why further training for councillors is mainly offered in Germany by party-related organisations⁷ - and not by the local government associations which have to be political neutral in respect to party politics.

3. Conclusion

Looking at their educational and professional background local councillors as well as training offers for them, it is debatable if German councillors are well-prepared to fulfil their responsibilities as local elected representatives (see Reisser 2006 for the debate in Germany and Ryšavý and Čermák 2016 for an overview about the international debate about this issue and a [necessary] professionalization of local councillors). However, local councillors are not alone! As argued by Mouritzen and Svava the 'structural features of municipal government in any specific country reflect a balance or compromise among [...] three organizing principles: layman rule, political leadership, and professionalism' (Mouritzen and Svava 2002: 50-51). Whereas 'the layman rule means that citizens elected for political office should be involved effectively and intensively in the making of decisions' (Mouritzen and Svava 2002: 51), the notion of political leadership implies the concept of politicians 'promoting value choices and feeding energy and passion into policy systems' (Mouritzen and Svava 2002: 52); finally, professionalism rests on the crucial distinction that 'As politicians respond to demands, professionals respond to and seek to address needs' (Mouritzen and Svava 2002: 53). This means that it is a challenge of institutional design to create a balance (or compromise) between (a) the abilities of councillors to ensure as representatives of the local electorate 'citizen effectiveness' (Dahl 1994; Dahl and Tufte 1973), (b) the aspiration of political leadership and (c) of professionalism of the employees of the local administration to reach 'system effectiveness' (ibid.). For Germany there are good reasons to argue that such a balance have been reached in the 1990s by the reforms which introduced the direct election of mayors (Heinelt 2010: 67ff.)

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THE TRAINING OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL AGENTS AND LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES IN RUSSIA

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Since the collapse of the USSR and the re-emergence of local self-government after 84 years of the Soviet “interval”, there have been a large number of reforms in regional and local authorities. From the start of the reformation of local autonomy, the state of Russia quickly became aware of the need for sufficiently trained individuals to ensure the proper functioning of municipal services. As such, legal acts on a federal, regional (in federal states) and local level feature provisions relating to the initial and continuous training of regional and local agents. However, despite the increased importance of local democracy, legal sources remain near-silent on the training (both initial and continuous) of municipal elected representatives, despite their need to have the sufficient knowledge and ability to protect the interests of their local inhabitants. Consequently, the principal objective of this study will be to introduce a broad audience to the legal regulations and to investigate the situation and current problems surrounding the initial and continuous training of elected representatives and municipal agents in Russia. The subject is under-explored in Russian doctrine and almost unknown internationally. Before performing an analysis, it would appear necessary to position the subject within a retrospective context in order to unpack the origins of training for the principal stakeholders in Russian local autonomy.

LOCAL AUTONOMY AND THE TRAINING OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL AGENTS AND ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES UNDER THE SOVIET REGIME

Not long after the Great October Revolution of 1917, the Russian Constitution of 10 July 1918 established the legal foundations for the new system of local echelons in place of the imperial model of *zemstva*, in other words unions without the distinction of social class, limited to a certain size and carrying out the local governance of their territory. The first Soviet Constitution distinguished between rural and urban regional and local authorities. According to article 57, the lowest level of Soviet local government (comparable to the municipal level in France) was the local soviets made up of elected deputies in cities and rural municipalities (villages, small towns, hamlets, etc.), who would deliberate at least once a week in cities and twice a week in rural areas (art. 59). The soviet would elect an executive committee for the day-to-day management of municipal matters (art. 58). Small, rural municipalities were governed directly by the electorate general assembly in the village in question, Articles 53, 54 and 55 established the same structure for the second level of local government (in the countryside only), similar to the old French *cantons*: districts or *raions*. These same provisions established the local autonomy of the intermediary level between French municipalities and departments (in the countryside only): district congresses would feature representatives of the village soviets, would be held on a quarterly basis and would always be attended by the executive committees. Under articles 49 and 53, Soviet power rose from local deputy-led soviets in rural towns and municipalities up to the pan-Russian Congress of Soviets, via local echelons such as the Congress of governors (*oukrug*), similar to French departments, and regional Congress (*oblast* or *kraj*), comparable to French regions post-1982. The Congress of governors were formed by the representatives of town soviets and those from the *volost* congresses, which deliberated quarterly, while the regular functioning of the administration of governors was managed by the executive committee. Authorities on a regional level functioned in the same way, except that representatives of town soviets and those of district congresses met twice a year.

1. Available at www.libussr.ru/doc_ussr/usr_5726.htm

2. All the statistical data relating to this example is cited (in French) in *Histoire de la naissance et du développement des organes représentatifs du territoire de Samara*. Museum of the History of the Samara Region and Municipalities in the Samara Region. Available at museum.samgd.ru/region/history/79173/

The so-called Stalin Constitution of 1936 (art. 94) completed the administrative-territorial reform by establishing local authorities with state power (and no longer local autonomy) on a municipal level (towns and villages). This article explicitly considered the soviets of workers' deputies (old local soviets) as the state authorities *in-situ*, but nevertheless elected by the local population (an intermediary solution between devolution and decentralisation). This system was upheld by the so-called Brezhnev Constitution of 1977 and persisted until 1990, when the 9 April 1990 Law on General Principles of Local Self-Government and Local Economy in the USSR re-introduced the notion of local self-government as an independent system that co-existed in parallel with state bodies, without being part of them.

Consequently, members of soviets of worker's deputies on a municipal, district and regional level were the local elected representatives in the USSR, while the members of these bodies' executive committees corresponded to what are now known as regional and local agents. Although Soviet legislation did not establish any requirement in terms of the training of local elected representatives (almost in the same way as today), the training (continuous only) of regional and local agents was mentioned in rulings from the soviets (councils) of ministers from each Soviet republic. For example, the soviet ruling of ministers from the RSFSR of 30 September 1961¹ ordered that the executive committees of soviets of worker's deputies in rural and urban municipalities, districts and regions provide programmes for the improvement of their members' professional qualifications. The following example² demonstrates the distribution of Soviet regional and local agents according to sex, age and, above all, training.

On 15 June 1975, local elections were held throughout the region of Kuybyshev (now known as Samara). The elections were for members of the soviet of the region of Kuybyshev, 25 district soviets, 10 city soviets, 11 soviets of districts within cities, 19 rural municipal soviets and 279 village soviets. Of 16,743 local deputies, women represented 49.1% and men 50.9%; 43.3% were members of the Communist party while 56.6% had no political affiliation; 11% were aged under 24, 17.4% between 25 and 29, 30.2% between 30 and 39, 29.2% between 40 and 49 and 12.2% over 50. As such, rules of gender equality, the representation of current political parties and different age groups, appear to have been well-respected. As for the level of initial education or training, 21% of local elected representatives had higher education degrees, 45.6% had obtained their baccalaureate (Bac in France), 26.7% had the equivalent of the French junior high school certificate (DNB) and 6.7% had finished primary school. Of the 2,477 municipal agents, meaning those who had to implement local policy, 69.1% were men and 30.9% women; 72.6% members of the political party and 27.4% with no political affiliation; 4% aged under 24, 11.3% between 25 to 29, 30.1% between 30 and 39, 34.9% between 40 and 49, and 19.7% over 50. By making a comparison with the same characteristics as those used for local elected representatives, we notice that municipal agents were older, less politically neutral and male in the majority. They were also more qualified: 33.7% of them had higher education degrees, 47.5% had their baccalaureate, 15.2% had their DNB equivalent and 3.6% had finished primary school.

As mentioned previously, the law of 9 April 1990 marked a turning point in the history of Russian local echelons. From then on, the expression "local self-government" entered into common parlance. Given the absence of this term in Francophone countries, it would appear necessary to make a few terminological clarifications.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT AND ITS STAKEHOLDERS IN CONTEMPORARY RUSSIA

In the context of this study, we will use the term “local self-government” as the synonym for “regional and local authorities”. This notion is specified in federal law n° 131-FZ of 16 September 2003 on the general principles of organisation in local authorities in the Russian Federation. According to article 1 of this law, local self-government represents a form of the achievement of power by the people, within the limits prescribed by the constitution, federal laws and the laws of federal entities, in order to resolve issues of local importance directly and/or by the bodies of local self-government in the interest of a population and taking account of historic and other local traditions. Issue of local importance encompass all those listed by the constitution and federal law of 2003 regarding the vital needs of the population of a local authority [a municipal entity according to the exact translation of the Russian expression “муниципальное образование” (pronounced “mounitzipal’noe obrazovanije”)]. The categories of local authorities in Russia should also be mentioned. According to article 2 of the 2003 federal law, there are six types of municipal entities: urban and rural units (municipalities) (1), municipal districts (2), urban districts (3), intra-urban territories in a city of federal importance (4), urban districts with an intra-urban division (5), and intra-urban districts (6).

The first category includes one or several villages or a town whose population exercises local powers directly or via representative and executive bodies. The second category encompasses several urban or rural units that come together within a common territory in order to directly resolve local issues of an inter-municipal nature or via representative or executive bodies, as well as exercising certain state powers transferred under federal and regional legislation (similar to French conurbation authorities). The third category is represented by an urban unit, with the exception of the municipal district, the bodies of which act on local and inter-municipal levels (meaning those of a municipal district and prescribed by the 2003 federal law), as well as that of the state in the case of a transfer of powers under federal and regional legislation. The fourth category is limited to a part of the territory of a city of federal importance, where local self-government is exercised directly by its inhabitants or via representative and executive bodies. To make local self-government more accessible to the population (the objective specified by President Vladimir Putin in his message to the Federal Assembly [Parliament] on 12 December 2013³), in 2014 urban districts with an intra-urban division and intra-urban districts were added to the list of Russian local authorities⁴. Consequently, the fifth category refers to an urban district (equivalent to the French *arrondissement*) in which intra-urban districts as intra-urban municipalities were created according to the law on the subject of the Federation. The final category represents a municipal entity located on part of the territory of an urban district with an intra-urban division, where local self-government is exercised directly by inhabitants and/or by representative or executive bodies.

As for regional and local agents, federal law N° 25-FZ of 2 March 2007 on municipal office offers the following definition of a municipal civil servant (exact term). This person is a Russian citizen performing municipal duties through municipal legal acts, according to federal and regional laws, for a salary paid from the local budget (art. 10, para.1). The following expressions are used as synonyms for the term “municipal civil servant”: local agent, regional or local agent, municipal agent. As of 1 October 2016, of the 328,511 local agents

3. President Vladimir Putin’s message to the Federal Assembly on 12 December 2013, available at kremlin.ru/events/president/news/19825

4. Federal law N°136-FZ of 27 May 2014.

5. *Annual monitoring report on the development of local self-government in the Russian Federation in 2011*, Ministry of Regional Development, available at 131fz.ranepa.ru/uploads/files/2016/05/ogv/minregion/2011.pdf

6. Official statistical data presented by the State Statistics Service. Available at www.gks.ru/wps/wcm/connect/rosstat_main/rosstat/ru/statistics/state/#

7. For example, the leader and their first substitute of the executive body on a municipal level.

8. For example, the head of a department or committee and their substitute in a deliberative or executive body on a municipal level.

9. For example, the vice-president of the municipal council (deliberative body) or the administration (executive body).

there is a strong predominance of women (76% to 24% men). There are relatively few regional and local agents aged 18 to 30, 13% to be exact, while 30% are aged between 30 and 39, 28% between 40 and 49, 25% between 50 and 59, and 4% over 60⁶.

Having provided a historical overview and defined the relevant terminology to this study, we now need to ask *how legal regulations and the current situation demonstrate the different approach to the education or training of regional and local agents and local elected representatives in Russia*. To answer this question, we will first analyse the initial training of agents and local elected representatives in the states **(I)**, followed by their continuous training **(II)**.

I. Initial training: a requirement versus a desire

Whereas a certain level of higher education is required to access most roles in regional and local public service, it turns out that Russian legislation is significantly more flexible with local elected representatives in terms of their initial training.

A. Initial training as a condition for accessing the role of regional or local agent

a) Complex legal regulations due to the federative nature of the Russian state and local self-government

Paragraph 1 of article 72 of the Constitution of the Russian Federation of 1993 entrusts general teaching-related issues to the joint jurisdiction of the Russian Federation and its subjects. At the same time, paragraph 1 of article 132 authorises local self-government bodies to manage issues of local importance, including municipal civil service, autonomously. Consequently, there are three levels to the legal management of the initial training of regional and local agents: the general framing under the aforementioned federal law (federal level), the most detailed development through laws on the subjects of the federation on municipal civil service (regional level), and the definitive formalisation according to the regulations of the municipal council of each regional or local authority on the qualifications required to hold roles in municipal civil service (local level). As such, federal law N° 25-FZ of 2 March 2007 on municipal civil service (draft of 1 May 2017) provides that, in order to hold a role in municipal civil service, one must meet the qualification requirements regarding the level and field of professional training, among other aspects (art. 9, para.1). Paragraph 2 of the same law relates to municipal legal acts that specify these conditions, based on standard qualification requirements established by the laws of the subjects (members) of the Russian Federation according to the classification of roles in municipal civil service and the category of regional or local authorities.

It would appear necessary to refer to some concrete examples in order to render a description of the legal system for the basic training of local agents.

Komi Republic law N° 133-RZ of 21 December 2007 on certain issues of municipal civil service in the Komi Republic (art. 4) requires a higher education degree of those applying for top⁷, principal⁸ and important⁹ roles in urban districts, municipal districts and urban municipalities, while in order to be recruited to these same roles in rural municipalities, a higher education

degree or advanced technician's diploma (BTS in France) are sufficient. As for senior¹⁰ roles in urban districts, municipal districts and urban municipalities, one must be able to show either a higher education degree or a BTS, or just the latter in rural municipalities. Finally, to access lower-end¹¹ roles in municipal civil service, candidates must have a BTS. For candidates for important roles who have attained their specialist or master's degree with distinction, there are privileges in terms of required years of experience (lower than for other candidates).

Udmurt Republic law N° 10-RZ of 20 March 2008 on municipal civil service (art. 4) provides for similar requirements in the initial training of regional and local agents, but specifies that, for top and principal roles, an undergraduate degree is required as a minimum, with no distinction between local authority categories.

Laws of the region of Tula N° 930-ZTO of 17 December (Appendix 1) and the Republic of Dagestan N° 9 of 11 March 2008 (art. 9) on municipal civil service in these federal states are laconic: they specify a higher education degree as a requirement, without any mention of level, for any role in any type of regional or local authority, except for lower-end roles for which a BTS is sufficient. There is a similar yet even more flexible approach in the Republic of Mordovia law N° 48-Z of 5 June 2007 on the regulation of relations in terms of municipal civil service (art. 4), which allows access to senior and lower-end regional and local agent roles for candidates with a BTS, which corresponds to the responsibilities within the department and reduces the years of experience required of candidates who have attained their undergraduate or master's degree with distinction.

Consequently 194 local authorities in Komi Republic, 345 in Udmurt Republic, 103 in the region of Tula, 757 in the Republic of Dagestan and 379 in Mordovia¹² (7.7% of the total number of Russian regional and local authorities) base their qualification requirements, including the level of initial education or training, for candidates for roles in municipal civil service on regional legislation. In other words, such definitive formalisation is more of a simply (but necessary) formality than a genuine normative framework for the initial education or training of regional and local agents.

As for specific categories of regional and local agents, such as trainee civil servants and local agents suffering from disability or illness, no Russian legal acts on any level feature specific rules on the initial education or training of these agents.

The only key difference between municipal civil servants and trainees – meaning the candidates selected through a competitive process and who will receive tenure after a probation period – is their salary. As a general rule, regional and local authority regulations specify that trainee civil servants cannot receive bonuses, bearing in mind that the average salary with bonuses in municipal civil service was only 480 euros in June 2016 (634 euros in Komi Republic¹³, 472 euros in the region of Tula¹⁴, 414 euros in Udmurtia¹⁵, 323 euros in Mordovia¹⁶ and 320 in Dagestan¹⁷).

For local public agents suffering from disability or illness, no special rules apply to their initial education or training. Indeed, no one has been issued with this basic condition of a BTS or higher education degree, which provides access to roles in municipal civil service. However, due to federal

10. For example, the head of a section in a department or committee of deliberative and executive bodies.

11. For example, specialists in the first and second categories or the specialist.

12. Figures valid as of 1st January 2015 according to the State Statistics Service www.gks.ru/dbscripts/munst/

13. Calculations based on figures available at komiinform.ru/news/136221/

14. Calculations based on figures available at www.tula.aif.ru/money/money/zarplata_chinovnikov_tulskoy_oblasti_prodolzhayut_rasti

15. Calculations based on figures available at udmurt.media/news/ekonomika-i-finansy/5641/

16. Ibid.

17. Calculations based on figures available at regnum.ru/news/polit/2144595.html

18. For example, Bauman Moscow State Technical University provides different forms of higher education for hard-of-hearing students, while the Russian State University for the Humanities allows students with various disabilities and illnesses to obtain the minimum 3-year undergraduate degree.

19. Elena Yarskaya-Smirnova, Pavel Romanov, "Problems faced by those with disabilities in accessing higher education" (Tr.), *Sociological research*, N°10, 2005, pp. 54-55.

20. Ibid.

21. As of 1 July 2012, 75.5% of municipal civil servants had higher education degrees, 9.8% of them in legal sciences, 21.1% in economic sciences, 21.1% in public and municipal administration and 39.3% in other subjects. See "Annual monitoring report on the development of local self-government in the Russian Federation in 2011".

22. According to the State Statistics Service.

23. Art. 91 and 92 of federal law N°273-FZ of 29 December 2012 on education in the Russian Federation.

23. For example, the Centre of Distance Education at the Far Eastern Federal University in Vladivostok, Bashkir State University in Bashkortostan, Kazan Federal University, etc.

law N° 181-FZ of 24 November 1995 on the social protection of people with disabilities in the Russian Federation and several recommendations from the Ministry of Education and Science, several higher education establishments¹⁸, both public and private, offer those with disabilities or illnesses the opportunity to obtain various degrees, including undergraduate, master's and postgraduate. Special measures are made available to the students in question, such as building modifications (lifts, ramps, etc.), personalised programmes, medical rehabilitation, social integration and adaptation, extra time for tests, distance learning, etc. There is no question that the achievement of disability and illness rights in higher education continues to be confronted with numerous obstacles, the largest of which is insufficient funding for the necessary infrastructure in most Russian universities¹⁹, and especially in the provinces. Nevertheless, higher education for this student category is developing, despite explicit or implicit societal rejection and discriminatory practices by higher education establishments²⁰. As a result, although everyone who wishes to become a regional or local agent is subject to the same qualification requirements, including education or training levels, candidates suffering from disability or illness do receive help in obtaining the essential degree.

b) Organic aspects of the initial training of local agents: the broad scope of teaching establishments

As with all Russian citizens, future regional and local agents have an individual right to initial training. Paragraph 3, article 43 of the 1993 constitution provides that "*everyone shall have the right to receive on a competitive basis a free higher education in a state or municipal educational establishment*". In most cases, municipal civil servants exercise this right by studying law, economics, public and municipal administration (public management), computing and other subjects²¹. The latest available figures show that in late 2013²², of 385,500 regional and local agents, 82% had higher education degrees, however, the ration of those who had studied public and municipal administration (management) has fallen. As such, 37.9% of municipal civil servants studied economics and management, 17.2% social sciences and medicine, 14.3% education, 12.6% legal sciences, 7.1% public and municipal administration, 6.7% agricultural sciences, 3.1% technical sciences and 1.1% other subjects. In other words, only 7.1% of regional and local agents underwent initial training that corresponded to their profession.

Both public- and private-sector higher education establishments (as long as they obtain a state licence and accreditation²³) can train future regional and local agents. These establishments can have different names (universities, institutes, administration schools, academies, colleges, etc.), with no impact on their ability to provide initial education or training to municipal civil servants.

Each establishment providing this type of training organises the educational process in its own way. As a general rule, an undergraduate degree lasts 48 months, and a master's degree 24 months. The "specialist degree" (equivalent to a 5-year degree or master's and lasting 60 months) has become almost obsolete through the implementation of the Bologna Process since 2000. Future regional and local agents can take "classic" courses with lectures and tutorials and/or practical work, or opt for distance learning²⁴, which is becoming increasingly widespread. Some higher education establishments allow students to complement their "classic" lectures and tutorials with online material (limited access, only for enrolled students).

The cost of such education is the key question. Each higher education establishment (for undergraduate and master's degrees) and college (for BTS-equivalents) has its own rates. Although the state sets the minimum threshold for these rates²⁵, it does not specify a maximum. It is therefore unsurprising that there is a great deal of disparity between prices. An undergraduate degree in public and municipal administration is around 2,420 euros²⁶ in one of the poorest regions of Russia (by salary level), Ivanovo, whereas in Moscow, the same course can reach 24,127 euros²⁷.

In a country where the average salary is barely 600 euros, the key question becomes “who pays?” for the education or training that provides access to municipal civil service, whose agents earn an average of 480 euros a month. If the future student has passed their “Bac” (standardised state examination) by accumulating a certain minimum number of points, which varies in line with the requirements of each public higher education establishment, their studies are fully funded by the state. If not, they are forced to pay for their studies in order to subsequently attain the role of regional or local agent. Nevertheless, reductions may be granted by the public higher education establishment depending on the student's results in their continuous and final assessment. This second option also applies to private higher education establishments.

Finally, before moving on to the issue of initial training for local elected representatives, it should be noted that there is no official initial education or training evaluation for regional and local agents. However, the quality of knowledge, the ability to adapt, etc. vary a great deal from one higher education establishment to the next. Consequently, the employer (regional or local authority) often unofficially takes the different rankings published annually by Russian media into account. Other such informal practices should also be remembered, despite their lack of legality, unlike those explored above. These include, above all, the recruitment of local agents due to relational links to the detriment of other candidates who better meet the criteria of education/training and experience²⁸.

B. Initial training presumed but not required of local elected representatives

a) The specific regime for some presidents of regional and local authorities

As part of the municipal that has recently taken place in Russia, the method for appointing presidents of municipalities has gone through numerous changes which, among other factors, have affected the subject of this study.

Since mid-2014, subjects of the Federation have been given the power to legislate on the election process for heads of regional and local authorities, who are now appointed either by direct and universal suffrage (by the population) or by the appointment of one of their members by municipal councils of from among the candidates pre-selected by the competition commission²⁹. As of 1 March 2015, only four regions (out of 85) had upheld the direct election of mayors and two federal states retained the choice between direct and indirect suffrage (depending on the municipality). Twenty-nine subjects of the Federation have opted for indirect election and the rest of the regions have chosen appointment by the municipal councils of from among the candidates pre-selected by the competition commission³⁰. In practice, the latter method for electing mayors is a complex and rather opaque mechanism, with a tripe

25. Every year, the Ministry of Education and Science adopts a ruling on standard basic costs of public services for the implementation of initial professional education or training programmes in higher education. The rates set by each higher education establishment cannot be lower than the standard basic costs, which include, among other aspects, the wage bill of teachers and administrative staff, building maintenance, the purchase of materials, etc.

26. 48-month course offered by the Ivanovo Fire and Rescue Academy, edufire37.ru/obuch/zaochnoe-obuchenie.php

27. 48-month course offered by the National Research University Higher School of Economics www.hse.ru/ba/gmu/admission/

28. Olga JURKOVA, “Reasons for the spread of informal practices in the municipal government system” (Tr.), University of Belgorod Scientific papers, N°1(0, 2016, p. 50.

29. §1, para.2, art. 36 of federal law N°131-FZ on the general principles of local self-government.

30. *Direct elections of mayors have become an anachronism* (Tr.), *Kommersant*. Ru on 10 April 2015, kommersant.ru/doc/2705448

31. Which represents a municipal normative act adopted by the municipal council.

32. Urban (towns and cities) and rural municipalities (villages) are therefore unaffected.

33. E.g. the mayor of the rural municipality of Kindalskoe (Tomsk region), Vladimir Volkov www.kindal.tomsk.ru/content/glava_poselenija

34. E.g. the mayor of the rural municipality of Lebedevskoe (Saratov region), Ionova Julia www.krasny-kut.ru/municipal_nye_obrazovaniya/lebedevskoe_municipal_noe_obrazovanie/glava_municipal_nogo_obrazovaniya2/

35. See *“Annual monitoring report on the development of local self-government in the Russian Federation in 2011”*.

36. Ibid.

37. See the municipal election results in Krasnoyarsk, available at www.dela.ru/news/deputatam-korochki/

38. See the municipality’s official page mo-pr.orb.ru/deputy-council/#

39. See the municipalities’ official page gorod.tynda.ru/index.php/tyndinskaya-gorodskaya-duma, <http://www.sovetgai.ru/history>

filtering that minimises the local population’s participation in the process. According to paragraph 2.1, article 36 of federal law N° 131-FZ, in a municipal district, an urban district, an urban district with an intra-urban division or an intra-urban municipal entity in a city of federal importance (Moscow, St. Petersburg, Sevastopol), half of the members of the competition commission are appointed by the representative body of the regional or local authority in question, and the other half by the governor (the president of the federal state). Initial attempts at appointing mayors through a competition commission have been mired in political scandal and discontent among the population (for example in the town of Sredneuralsk in August 2016 and the cities of Perm and Nefteyugansk in October 2016).

To make this procedure more transparent, paragraph 2.1 was added to article 36 of federal law N° 131-FZ (federal law of 2 June 2016) Under the new provision, the regulations³¹ of the competition for the position of mayor of a municipal district, an urban district or an urban district with an intra-urban division³² can (but are not obliged to) include training requirements that a candidate should ideally meet in order to be able to deal with issues of local importance once elected as mayor. The same paragraph stipulates that the legislation of members of the Federation can (but again are not obliged to) set out requirements regarding the level of training a candidate for the role of mayor (in a municipal district, an urban district or an urban district with an intra-urban division) should have in order to exercise the state powers transferred to them on a local level if elected. Searches of the databases of regional and local legal acts show that, as yet, federal states and regional and local authorities appear in no hurry to make use of this option, despite the practice of competitions as the method for appointing mayors.

b) Initial training not required as a general rule

As for other local elected representatives, meaning the members of municipal councils and the mayors elected directly by inhabitants or indirectly by local deputies, nowhere is there any requirement for initial training.

In practice, especially in the dense Russian countryside, there are mayors with no degree but just a Bac³³ or BTS equivalent³⁴. However, today these cases are more an exception than a rule. Five years ago (as of 1 July 2012), 68% of mayors already had higher education degrees in the following subjects: legal sciences (4.6% of mayors), technical sciences (25.4%), other subjects (38.8%)³⁵. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine a “company director” (i.e. the president of a regional or local authority), who could run a municipality – especially a city – without sufficiently broad and specific knowledge required for the role, which is a profession in itself.

With regard to the deputies of municipal councils, five years ago 50.8% of municipal councillors had higher education degrees: 3.5% in legal sciences, 6.6% in economic sciences, 2.5% in public and municipal administration and 38% in other subjects³⁶. Today, after the latest municipal elections of 2013, an increasing number of local deputies have a 4-year undergraduate degree as a minimum. For example – not just in cities such as Krasnoyarsk (over 1 million inhabitants, Krasnoyarsk territory)³⁷ but also deep in the countryside, such as the district of Perevolotsky (barely 10,000 inhabitants, Orenburg region)³⁸ –, 86% of municipal councillors have higher education degrees. In relatively small towns (around 36,000 inhabitants) such as Tynda (Amur region) or Gay (Orenburg), the proportion of local deputies with a 4-year undergraduate degree as a minimum was 90%³⁹.

The negative connotation used by the Russian media for the local (and regional) elected representatives who did not complete higher education allows us to conclude that society expects these representatives to have a higher education degree, despite the absence of any legal requirement for their initial training. At the same time, voters and the media do not question the quality of such training or education; simply having an undergraduate degree appears sufficient. However, it should be noted that between 1 January 2014 and 4 March 2016, the number of private higher education establishments decreased from 2,486 to 1,450, as almost half of them were stripped of their state licence and accreditation⁴⁰ for secretly “selling” degrees⁴¹.

We will conclude this section with the observation that, much as legislation requires future local agents to have a high level of initial training or education (a BTS equivalent as a minimum and a higher education degree for most roles with even the smallest amount of responsibility) to access municipal civil service, it also remains near-silent regarding candidates for elective roles in regional and local authorities.

II. Continuous training: *de jure* right or *de facto* obligation?

As in the case of the initial training of agents and local elected representatives, Russian legislation demonstrates their very different approach to continuous training. Regional and local agents are regularly obliged to invoke their right to continuous training, while local elected representatives only do so voluntarily.

A. Continuous training near-compulsory for regional and local agents

a) The large degree of latitude for regional and local authorities in legal regulations

Unlike the initial training of municipal civil servants, federal law N° 25-FZ of 2 March 2007 on municipal civil service (art. 11, para.1, § 7) gives local echelons a central role in the legal regulation of continuous training for regional and local agents. It provides for their right to continuous training, funded by the local budget under a municipal legal act and at the discretion of the regional or local authority. Regional legislation on municipal civil service can be based⁴² on the aforementioned federal legislation, simply refer to it⁴³ or omit it entirely⁴⁴. Consequently, each Russian regional and local authority (its deliberative body) is obliged to adopt regulations on the continuous training of municipal civil servants. Based on this act, every year the municipality’s top civil servants (mayor, head of the government, president of the audit chamber, heads of departments, etc.) draw up what is known as the “municipal order”, or the request to improve qualifications and organise re-training or courses for their employees for each type of training: the name of the educational programmes, the number of municipal civil servants to be trained, fees, etc⁴⁵. Nevertheless, the broad scope of local echelons over the continuous training of their civil servants is not equivalent to their total freedom.

To best reduce the risk of a breach when choosing the exact education establishment(s) that will provide the continuous training of regional and local agents for the forthcoming year, all municipal orders are strictly governed by federal law N° 44-FZ of 5 April 2013 on the contractual system for the purchase

40. *The number of higher education establishments in Russia dropped by 42% in the space of two years*, Interfax, 28 March 2016, www.interfax.ru/russia/500572

41. There was not the necessary infrastructure and/or a sufficient number of teachers, so barely any teaching was provided.

42. For example, the aforementioned laws of the Republics of Komi and Dagestan.

43. For example, the aforementioned law of the Republic of Mordovia.

44. As in the Udmurt Republic or the region of Tula.

45. Information available in the municipal rules on the continuous training of regional and local agents. See also the guide “Organisation of the continuous training of municipal civil servants”, Department of Public Service and Human Resource Policy of the Region of Volgograd. Available at www.dgs35.ru/president-program/obuchenie/munitsipalnye-sluzhashchie/21-123

46. E.g. see regulations on the continuous training of municipal civil servants in the rural municipalities of Kerchomia www.admkrm.ru/documents/191.html and Parch www.усть-кулом.рф/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/17.doc (Komi Republic), the city of Izhevsk www.izh.ru and the municipality of Yakchurskoe yakshurskoe.do.am (Udmurt Republic), the rural municipalities of Starogoryachinskoe krasnoslobodsk.e-mordovia.ru and Sialevsko-Pyatinskoe insar.e-mordovia.ru (Republic of Mordovia), the municipal district of Koulinsky www.kulirayon.ru and the city of Makhachkala arc.rusouth.info (Republic of Dagestan), the districts of Chernsky chern.tularegion.ru and Kalininsky kalinin-adm.ru (region of Tula).

47. Andrey Soldatkin, *Professional training of municipal civil servants and the jobs market: problems and perspectives*, International Journal of Experiential Learning, N°3, 2016, p. 14.

48. Ibid.

49. It is not possible to analyse all the regulations of regional and local authorities given the very high number of Russian municipal entities (22,923 as of 1 January 2015).

of items, works and services to meet public and municipal needs. Under this law, the municipal body responsible for budgetary policy (usually the finance department) is tasked with implementing the municipal order for the continuous training of its local agents. This long and extremely complicated process (under the pretext of transparency) deserves an in-depth study in its own right. For our research, though, we will limit ourselves to the observation that, to this end, a unified digital system has been implemented on a municipal level; any municipal order is applied through so-called competitive means: calls to tender (open, open with limited participation, open with two stages, closed, closed with limited participation, closed with two stages), auctions (digital, closed), quotation requests, proposal requests.

As we can see through the previous analysis of the legal regulation of continuous training for regional and local agents, there are three types of training: the acquisition of a new professional qualification, or retraining, the improvement of an already-acquired professional qualification, or a course. Although the first and third type often (but not always) depend on the initiative of the regional or local agent in question, the second is, as a general rule, required with a certain frequency despite its optional nature under federal law N° 25-FZ of 2 March 2007. Analysing the ten regulations (two regional and local authorities for five subjects of the Federation chosen “blind” for this study)⁴⁶ reveals that qualification improvement must take place at least once every three (or sometimes five) years.

The latest available figures on the number of local public agents in continuous training show that, in 2013, only 20,271 agents (5% of the total number) completed any qualification-improvement (95.9% of these civil servants or 19,876 people) or retraining programmes (3.8% or 789 people) or courses (0.2% or 45 people)⁴⁷. According to calculations based on this data, it would take 20 years for all these regional and local agents to undergo continuous training⁴⁸. Given that the knowledge necessary for this profession requires regular updating, this process would appear inefficient. This problem can be explained by the poor wording of § 7, paragraph 1, article 11 of federal law N° 25-FZ of 2 March 2007 (previous version). Before the amendments made by federal law N°63-FZ of 30 March 2015, a regional or local agent had a right to improve their qualification only as a type of continuous training covered by the regional or local authority in question. Consequently, before the 2015 modifications, agents had to pay for courses or retraining out of their own pocket. Today, thanks to the narrowing of the legislative gap between municipal and national civil service due to its legal changes, all types of continuous training for local agents must be covered by municipal budgets, but can also be financed by the agent in question if they wish.

As for the subject of continuous training for municipal civil servants, it is up to the municipal council of each regional or local authority to specify which are required in their regulations. Analysis of around twenty relevant acts⁴⁹ allows us to conclude that the most common subjects are public and municipal administration (management), public finance, public law (especially constitutional law and regional and local authorities), public policy, economics and computing. The same sources show that the regional and local agents in territorial economic development, town and land planning, legal aid, architecture, public transport, public infrastructure and logistics departments complete continuous training programmes most often.

The relevant municipal legal acts (regulations on the continuous training of local agents) also (often but not always) feature other motives that may encourage municipal civil servants to participate in different training programmes, such as better pay, bonuses, professional advancement through change of role and/or rank, and becoming more competent and operational. However, we should remember that, in most cases, regional and local agents are required to improve their qualifications (as a minimum).

Finally, the issue of the pay and compensation of local agents is also regulated by the aforementioned municipal acts. Nevertheless, local echelons do take the provisions of the Labour Code (federal law N° 197-FZ of 30 December 2001) into account on this matter. Article 187 of the Labour Code requires they pay the agent undergoing continuous training the average salary and/or reimburse travel and accommodation costs if the training is held in a different place to the regional or local authority in question. We can conclude that, at times, regional and local agents are somewhat penalised if they undertake continuous training, as they only receive the average salary, meaning without bonuses and lower than their usual pay. As for the so-called additional training/study leave, in the cases provided for by articles 173-6 of the Labour Code (e.g. if a regional or local agent studies for their PhD while working), the regional or local authority is obliged to grant leave of 30 working days, either with or without the average salary (according to the same provisions of the Code), to the civil servant in question.

Before moving on to the organic aspect of this type of training, it should be noted that there is no other specific regime for the continuous training of municipal civil servants suffering from disability or illness. However, what we have already explored (I.A) in relation to the initial training/education of this category of regional and local agents also applies to their continuous training (including problems and flaws). In other words, higher education establishments⁵⁰ with the infrastructure and educational tools required to take in students with disabilities, including the local agents in question, do exist.

b) The organisation of continuous training as a shared jurisdiction between regional and local authorities and education establishments

Although the legal framework for the continuous training of municipal civil servants mainly falls within the jurisdiction of local echelons, the organic aspects of this type of training are overseen jointly by local echelons and education establishments. Matters relation to the results and evaluation mechanisms of continuous training are commonly regulated by municipal legal acts, such as the examples cited above. Meanwhile, the planning, content and delivery of classes (except for courses) are specific by the relevant (education) establishments.

All regulations on the continuous training of municipal civil servants provide that, depending on the actual type of this training (qualification-improvement, retraining, course), the municipal agent who has taken classes or a course must show proof of success (certificate, diploma) to the human resource department (HR) within a month. With regard to courses, municipal regulations specify that they should be organised jointly by the regional or local authority in question and the establishment (or another regional or local authority) where the course takes place; these same acts require a dissertation and/or report to be written upon completion. A very small number of municipal regulations also include provisions for the evaluation of training programmes. The town of Khanty-Mansiysk (the autonomous district of

50. For example, the Russian Presidential Academy of National Economy and Public Administration (in different Russian cities such as Moscow, St. Petersburg, Orel, Nijnij Novgorod, etc.) www.ranepa.ru

51. See the methodology for evaluating the effectiveness of the retraining and qualification improvement of municipal civil servants of the government of the town of Khanty-Mansiysk of 3 September 2014, available at admhmansiysk.ru

46. For example, the rural municipality of Chuchary (region of Leningrad) [xn--80axgjn3ab0a.xn--p1ai/wp-content/uploads/MP-Povyshenie-kvalifikacii-2016-prilozhenie-12.docx](#) or the urban district of Morskoy (city of St. Petersburg) [xn----8sbhgwebpfldbvdp1a.xn--p1ai](#)

47. Andrey Soldatkin, *Professional training of municipal civil servants and the jobs market: problems and perspectives*, International Journal of Experiential Learning, N°3, 2016, p. 14.

48. Ibid.

49. It is not possible to analyse all the regulations of regional and local authorities given the very high number of Russian municipal entities (22,923 as of 1 January 2015).

Khanty-Mansi-Ugra), for example, represents one of the rare cases of detailed regulations, not only for the continuous training of its municipal agents but also for teaching/training evaluation⁵¹. Immediately after the training finishes, the relevant local agents of Khanty-Mansiysk fill in named, personalised questionnaires (22 questions); two months later, these civil servants and their superiors are contacted by the town government's HR department to find out whether or not there have been positive changes in the work of agents who have undergone continuous training. Based on the questionnaires and subsequent information, the HR department then performs a global evaluation (in the form of a report) of the classes and the establishment that provided them. This assessment may be taken into account at the next call to tender.

The bodies that provide continuous training to regional and local agents in Russia are mostly (but not always) the same as those who manage their initial training/education (see I.A). These higher education establishments can therefore be public or private, as long as they have a state licence and accreditation for both types of training. Depending on the local authority, self-government bodies can also organise continuous training programmes for their civil servants, in which case the regional or local agents are trained in the workplace.

All these bodies offer training programmes, the duration, distribution and delivery (lessons, tutorials, practical work, distance learning) of which varies depending on the education establishment. The relevant municipal regulations also set out the number of hours and organisational forms of such training. In the twenty-or-so local regulations analysed, this was 18-72 hours for "short" training and 73-144 hours for "long" training. In some municipal entities, the duration reaches 500 or even 1,000 hours. In the case of "short" training, the regional or local agents in question usually continue to work, training in parallel. Otherwise, they cease their municipal duties during this period.

Another similarity between the initial and continuous training of local agents is the large gap in the cost of training depending on the subjects of the Russian Federation and the establishments providing the training. Looking at the prices, we observed that the minimum price was 35 euros per agent and the maximum was 1,150 euros.

In conclusion, it should be noted that some types of continuous training (such as qualification improvement or retraining) are often required of municipal civil servants under the legal acts of regional and local authorities, Funding is therefore provided from the municipal budget and partially supplemented by regional subsidies. Unlike initial training, the echelons of Russian local self-government have a great deal of scope for the continuous training of regional and local agents. For the training of local elected representatives, meanwhile, it appears that, as with their initial training, continuous training is not a compulsory condition for fulfilling their duties to the inhabitants in question.

B. The continuous training of local elected representatives on a voluntary basis

a) Near-silent legal regulations

Regarding the initial and continuous training of local elected representatives, Russian legislation (on all levels) demonstrates a different approach to that for regional and local agents. Federal legislation includes no obligation or

right to continuous training for local elected representatives. Some (but not many) municipalities are adopting regulations on continuous training, the provisions of which relate not only to their civil servants but also their mayors and municipal deputies⁵². However, the results of implementing the educational programmes in question show that only regional and local agents – and not local elected representatives – have actually undertaken this training. We can presume that the latter were not motivated to do so, due to a lack of legal obligation. It should be noted that out of ten regional and local authorities and five Russian regions chosen “blind” (see part I), there is no regulation that addresses the issue of the continuous training of local elected representatives.

a) Training nevertheless exists in practice

The project entitled “Academy of Municipal Deputies”⁵³ established by the “Council of Municipal Entities of the City of Moscow” association is a rare example of continuous training specially organised for local elected representatives. Lectures, practical work, seminars, round tables and brainstorming sessions gave rise to debates between the municipal deputies in training and the theoretical and practical experts on local self-government, culminating in guides with different techniques and algorithms sent electronically to local elected representatives. As a result, in April 2013, 107 regional and local deputies and agents from 79 municipal entities of the city of Moscow took part in training on putting videos online. In May of that year, a seminar on “The financial control system for municipal districts in the city of Moscow” was held for the mayors of these districts. The following month, the Council of Municipal Entities of the City of Moscow, in collaboration with The Financial University under the Government of the Russian Federation, brought together over 20 local deputies for a round table on “The participative budget: international experience and prospects for implementation in Russia”. For its upcoming programme, the Academy of Municipal Deputies has announced lectures and debates on the problems of implementing state powers transferred to a local level in terms of housing and land planning. However, the latest information on this project is from December 2015; it is therefore highly possible that the continuous training centre created especially for local elected representatives no longer exists.

We can deduce that, for both initial and continuous training, Russian legal acts of any nature “favour” local elected representatives over regional and local agents by leaving the choice to undertake initial and additional training up to the former and making it compulsory to the latter. This seems rather paradoxical, as the decision-making process requires no less knowledge and skill from municipal elected representatives than the implementation of their decisions by municipal civil servants. Nevertheless, federal legislation guarantees universal suffrage as the basic principle for any election in the Russian Federation⁵⁴. Consequently, the requirement for a certain level of education (initial training) imposed on future local elected representatives raises doubts about this principle and suggests limited suffrage. Nothing, however, stops the same approach from being applied to mayors, municipal deputies and regional and local agents with regard to their continuous training.

54. Art. 4 of federal law N°67-FZ of 12 June 2002 on the principle guarantees of electoral rights and the right to participate in a referendum granted to citizens of the Russian Federation.

II – The 16 reflexive/in-depth studies | A. Examples of federal states

TRAINING OF LOCAL PUBLIC OFFICIALS IN FLANDERS

Koenraad De Ceuninck
& Herwig Reynaert



Abstract

When talking about training of local public servants we have to make a distinction between the local elected (councilors, aldermen and mayors) on the one hand and the public servants on the other hand. For the first category there is no specific training other than the local elections. However, that does not mean that many organizations, both public and private, invest a lot in training of local politicians in Flanders. That differs of course for the second category, that of the public servants. For them there are certain thresholds before they are recruited in a specific function.

I. Introductions

This contribution will focus on the existing training possibilities for local public servants in Flanders, the Dutch speaking part of Belgium. Under the label of local public servants, we encompass both the local politicians, who got their mandate as a result of participating in local elections, as well as public servants who are professionally attached to a local government body. Where appropriate, we will make a distinction between both categories.

We start this text with an overview of the internal government structure in Flanders, including an overview of the number of public servants working in local government. This overview is followed by a profile of the civil servant corps and an overview of their initial training. A next part of this text will focus on the continuing education of public servants and more in particular on the organizations involved in this matter. A final part will shortly address the situation of the local politicians and will focus on the possibilities they have regarding continuing training on a voluntary basis.

II. Flanders and it's underlying government structures

Flanders, the Dutch speaking part of Belgium situated in the North of the country, is a region that encompasses about 6.630.000 inhabitants¹. The region is governed by an own Flemish government and a Flemish Parliament, that after six consecutive rounds of state reform gained significant own competences such as education, infrastructure, economy, nature, spatial planning, etc. Since 2001, the three regions in Belgium (Flanders, the Walloon Region and Brussels) became responsible for the organisation of local and provincial government, as the two main tiers of local government in Belgium. In Flanders this resulted in new legal frameworks called the local and provincial decree (gemeente- en provinciedecreet). Both the operating modes of the municipal and provincial bodies and their day-to-day administration were reformed by these new legal frameworks, which have been replaced by the local government decree since 2019.

At the sub-national level Flanders counts five provinces and 300 municipalities. The provinces always served as an intermediate tier between the local level and the regional Flemish level and were responsible for a relative extensive range of competences. This has changed since January 2018, when the overall provincial competences were limited to only ground-tied competences (such as economy, agriculture, environment, spatial planning) while excluding all competences that are person-tied (such as culture, youth or sports). This was the result of a political agreement reached by the Flemish government in order to slim the provincial level as an intermediate government level².

1. Data from January 1, 2020. Retrieved from www.statistiekvlaanderen.be/nl/bevolking-omvang-en-groei

2. Tony, Valcke; Tom, Verhelst "Doorstart of Doodlopende Straat Voor De Provincies? Een Comparatieve Analyse Van De Steun Voor Functionele En Territoriale Hervormingen in Veertien Europese Landen." REYNAERT, Herwig (Ed.), *Veranderende Lokale Besturen Voor En Door De Mensen?!*, Vanden Broele, 2017, p. 113-128.

1. The municipalities united themselves into police zones since 2001 and into fire brigade zones since 2015. For the moment there are 185 police zones and 34 fire brigade zones in Belgium.

2. Data retrieved from www.statistiekvlaanderen.be/nl/personeel-lokale-besturen

3. Kathleen Vanmullen; Annie Hondeghem, *De Vlaamse lokale besturen vergrijzen. Een exploratieve analyse van de Pensioenproblematiek*, Steunpunt beleidsrelevant onderzoek – bestuurlijke organisatie Vlaanderen, 2008.

The first tier of local government is made up of 300 municipalities. They are responsible for matters attributed to them by a higher state level and for all matters with a municipal interest. In this way the local authorities have an extensive (open) list of competences such as town planning, education, culture and sports (museums, infrastructure), environmental issues, infrastructure (local roads), tourism, health, social services,... In this context it is important to notice that among those 300 municipalities, there is quite a large variation in terms of scale. The smallest municipality counts less than 100 inhabitants, while the city of Antwerp is the largest with more than 500.000 inhabitants. This diversity is also present in terms of surface or financial possibilities of the municipality in question.

Next to these two official tiers of government we should point out that there is in reality also a third tier consisting out of a variety of structures, with many forms of inter-municipal cooperation as most important and visible outcome. Municipalities tend to work together in a huge amount of competences which resulted in a multiple number of inter-municipal structures in many policy fields. Some examples include cooperation in social areas, economic development, spatial planning and regional cooperation, mobility, etc. Next to that there are police zones and fire brigade cooperation zones in which municipalities deal together with security issues³.

A. Public servants in numbers

In Flanders there are almost 170.000 people working for local authorities (in 2019)⁴. Recalculated to full-time jobs it concerns 133.000 full-time equivalents. However, this figure masks important differences between the different entities of local government. The cities and municipalities themselves are by far the largest employer, as shown in Table 1. Also the Public Centres for Social Welfare, a municipal body that is responsible for the implementation of social services in each municipality (and their associations such as care facilities for the elderly) are responsible for a large part of the employment at the local level. The local police zones employ approximately 17.000 people in Flanders. On the other hand, we see much smaller employment figures among the inter-municipal structures, the provinces and autonomous companies linked to local or provincial government.

Table 1: number of public servants at the local level in Flanders in full time equivalents (FTE) (2019)

	Total number of employees (in FTE)
Municipalities	50.671
Public centers for Social Welfare	31.206
Associations linked to public centers for Social Welfare	19.879
Local police zones	16.966
Inter-municipal cooperations	7.626
Provinces	3.831
Autonomous municipal companies	1.740
Autonomous provincial companies	984

The nature of the appointments in the municipalities can be divided into two large categories: the statutory staff members (staff members with a statute attached to the local government) and the contractual staff (staff working for local government with a contract of employment)⁵. These contracts can be fixed for

a temporary duration or a permanent duration. While in the past the statutory staff members outnumbered the contractual staff members, in recent years this situation has changed completely. The contractual staff members are in the majority. In 2015 about 62,6% of all staff members were contractual, while 37,3% still holds a statutory position⁶. When we split these figures up by gender we see that about 57% of all contractual staff is female while 43% is male. This ratio is inverse when we look at the statutory staff, where 48% is female and 52% male.

This evolution from statutory to contractual staff has been going on for many years and has several reasons. The most important is financial. Hiring contractual staff members is cheaper for municipalities than hiring statutory staff members. This last category can benefit from annual salary increases, which is much more difficult for people with a fixed contract. This financial element counts also when talking about the pensions of the staff members involved. Statutory staff members enjoy a higher pension than contractual staff members. In this sense, this distinction is not innocent for the people involved in this discussion. Besides that the overall social protection is much less favorable for contract staff than for statutory staff members. This is the case for example when talking about sickness benefits or parental leave. Contractual staff members also enjoy less vacation leave (expressed in the number of days that they are allowed to leave) and they enjoy less job security. For a local authority, it is much more easy to fire a contractual staff member, only by not renewing the contract, than it is to fire a statutory staff member, who benefits from a much better social protection.

Finally, considering the average age of the local staff members, we see that the division in appointments between statutory and contractual staff members has consequences as well. The contractual staff members tend to be younger than their statutory counterpart⁷. The most recent figures we could find indicate the strongest presence of contractual staff members in the category 25-45 years, while the strongest presence of statutory staff members is situated in the category 45-55 years. Above that, we can say that we witnessed over the past years an aging of local government staff.

B. Public servants and training

The recruitment of people at the local government level has gone a long way the last 40 years. In that sense, 1976 must be seen as a tipping point in recent history of local government in Flanders. In that year, the former 906 Flemish municipalities were by municipal amalgamations reformed into 308 new municipalities⁸. The former municipalities were very small both in terms of inhabitants and surface. They also lacked sufficient financial means. As a result of that, they were limited in their possibilities. They lacked not only the financial means, but also quite literally the space to develop a full-fledged local policy. These amalgamations meant in many respects a new start for the local government level in Flanders⁹. The municipalities not only grew in terms of numbers (inhabitants and surface), but also in terms of possibilities. With more financial means they were able to develop new policies in areas in which they remained absent until then. This evolution meant in many ways also a new start for the recruitment of local public servants. Before the municipal mergers, the local recruitment policy was in many municipalities strongly dependent on the negotiations between the local administration and local politicians, while it should have been part of a thorough analysis based on the real needs of the municipalities.

6. See data from the 'Gemeentelijke profielschetsen' retrieved from regionalestatistieken.vlaanderen.be

7. Kathleen Vanmullem; Annie Hondeghem, *De Vlaamse lokale besturen vergrijzen. Een exploratieve analyse van de Pensioenproblematiek*, Steunpunt beleidsrelevant onderzoek – bestuurlijke organisatie Vlaanderen, 2008.

8. Meanwhile, a new round of amalgamations in 2018 further reduced the number of Flemish municipalities to 300.

9. Koenraad De Ceuninck, *De Gemeentelijke Fusies Van 1976: Een Mijlpaal Voor De Lokale Besturen in België*, Vanden Broele, 2009, p. 265-270.

First, the broadening of the local scope of policy themes meant the need for new staff members. Initiatives in the fields of culture, youth or sports were rather limited before 1976. After the amalgamations many municipalities invested time and money into these new policy areas. Therefore they needed the right people which they missed so far. Second, the amalgamations also meant the introduction of the first diploma requirements at the local level. More specifically, the two main functions at the local level, that of the municipal secretary and the municipal treasurer, could after 1976 only be filled by people with a university degree. However, this measure only applied in those municipalities with more than 10.000 inhabitants. A third element that changed the recruitment policy at the local level is a result of the reform of the former commissions for public aid into the new public centres for social welfare. Since 1976, in each Belgian municipality there is such a centre that is responsible for the social policy at the local level and the providing of social services for those who need them. This reform went hand in hand with a drastic expansion of social services and the obligation for each municipality to employ at least one social worker. From that moment, only people with the right training in social affairs were eligible for these vacancies.

Today, the Flemish municipalities employ people with very different backgrounds. From workers for the maintenance of public spaces, roads or buildings to administrative staff members in accounting, financial or planning services. It goes without saying that those people have enjoyed very different trainings and backgrounds. Two elements are important here. First, municipalities have a large autonomy in recruiting employees. The conditions for new recruitment are laid down by the municipal councils, although within certain frameworks determined by the Flemish government. The local councils decide however about the type of people they want to recruit and what kind of background or education they have enjoyed. This large local autonomy is not surprising, given the fact that the total staff cost count for about half of all municipal expenses.

Second, a comparative exam is organized for almost every new recruitment in a Flemish municipality. This requires local control to select the right people based on objective and comparable parameters. These examinations usually consist of a written and an oral part and are held by an exam committee appointed for this purpose. The latter consists of existing staff members of the municipality involved, sometimes supplemented with external experts. Local politicians (such as the local councilors or members of the college of mayor and aldermen) are not part of these committees, but they have the right to attend those exams as observers. After the exam committee has made a final judgement, it will draw up a ranking of the appropriate candidates for the vacancy. It is then up to the college of mayor and aldermen to appoint the right candidate, in which it will respect the ranking made up by the exam committee. When it comes down to the appointment of a new municipal secretary or a new municipal treasurer, it is not the college of mayor and aldermen, but the municipal council that will appoint the candidate, again after a comparative examination guided by an exam committee.

III. Training... who's doing what?

10. For more information see the website www.vvsg.be

The big variety in jobs within Flemish local authorities ensures that the influx of new employees is very diverse. There is no statute or training in Flanders which automatically leads to a job in a local government. Neither is there a school or university that prepares people for a job at a municipality or city. People with a variety of backgrounds find their way to a job at the local level. However, when talking about the top management of the municipal administration, most staff members have a legal, administrative or economic background. Many of them also studied political and social sciences.

However, this big variety ensures a very broad influx of new staff members. People with a university degree starting at the local level usually enjoyed a four-year program, while people with a degree from a school for higher education enjoyed a three-year program on average. The possibilities to follow further courses and training are also very diverse. Continued training is a right for staff members, but how much time is allocated to it differs from municipality to municipality. It is once again the local council that sets out the framework that determines the space and the budget that is available for further education and training.

There are multiple agencies and players providing training for local government staff members. We need to make a distinction between three large groups of institutions. We will describe all three of them and name some important players and institutions within each category. The categories we distinguish are the government related institutions, the academic institutions and some private players. When possible, we distinguish between training for local government staff and training focusing specifically on local politicians.

1. Government related institutions

The first category contains the government related institutions that provide mainly continued training both for local staff members and local politicians. We distinguish between initiatives organized by the Flemish government and initiatives organized by local governments themselves.

- The Flemish government provides a lot of training possibilities for staff members of local authorities. This usually involves short-term initiatives (one day usually) focusing very specifically on one theme that is relevant for the local level officials. These courses reflect in part the supporting and policy-making role of the Flemish government towards the local governments. The Flemish government often expects local authorities to roll out Flemish policy, and in order to facilitate the local level in doing so, it provides the necessary training for local public servants. Examples of these trainings are trainings on spatial planning, local economy or mobility.
- A second important player within this category is *the Association of Flemish Cities and Municipalities* (VVSG)¹⁰. This association unites all 300 local governments in Flanders and acts as the defender of their interests at higher government levels. The association organizes a multitude of trainings both for local staff members and their political counterpart. These trainings cover all possible topics in which local governments are active. Most of their trainings are short-term trainings of one day only.

11. For more information see the website www.ugent.be/ps/

12. For more information see www.antwerpmanagementschool.be/en/program/executive-master-public-management/

13. For more information see soc.kuleuven.be/fo/english

II. Academic institutions

A second group of trainings is organized by academic institutions such as universities or schools for higher education. Many of these institutions work on themes that have a high relevance for local government, such as many legal issues, spatial planning, mobility, good governance, etc. In this way, several academic institutions organize both initial trainings (such as full-fledged bachelors or masters) and a wide variety of short-term training opportunities. In this regard, we mention three of the major institutions in this context, namely the Centre for Local Politics of Ghent University, the Antwerp Management School of the University of Antwerp and the Public Governance Institute of the University of Leuven.

- *Centre for Local Politics (CLP)*. The CLP has been established in 2005 and since then functions as a formal and autonomous research group in the Department of Political Science of Ghent University. Its mission is to foster the scientific research, education and services concerning local politics. The latter is considered as the configuration of institutions, actors and processes in and around municipalities and provinces as the two pivotal tiers of local government in Flanders. The Centre deliberative takes a political science perspective to build its research activities upon in focusing on the processes of making and executing authoritative and collective decisions on and at the local level¹¹. The Centre provides an integrated curriculum of courses on local politics expressing the concept of research based education both at the bachelor level as well as at the master level. In this sense, the Centre provides a broad initial training for people who aspire a job in a local administration. The Centre also offers academic services in relation to its research topics and educational curriculum to stakeholders in the field of local government and to the wider general public. This is exemplified by the organization of and participation in national conferences, seminars and/or workshops aimed at exchanges with practitioners and policy-makers.
- *Antwerp Management School*. This institution, affiliated with the University of Antwerp, provides in an executive master in public management¹². This program is designed for leading and policy supporting government professionals. In that sense, it serves as an additional training for local government professionals who want to acquire profound insights into the diverse aspects of government management. This master is the only Master-after-Master program in Public Management in Flanders.
- *The Public Governance Institute* of the University of Leuven is the third institution in this list and sets itself a dual task¹³. It serves as a provider of many short-term trainings for local government staff members and it conducts research into different aspects of public governance from a public administration and political science perspective. The mission of the Public Governance Institute is to gain knowledge and insight regarding politics, administration and public policies on local, regional, federal, European and international levels. The Institute intends to make scientific contributions to an improvement in the policy-making, organization and management of public administrations. It offers a wide

research-based educational program by which the Institute wants to contribute to lifelong learning and professional up-dating. The target audience are regular students and government officials as well as political actors.

14. For more information see www.politeia.be/nl/home

15. More in particular the *Union des Villes et Communes de Wallonie* (UVCW).

III. Private players

A final category which is worth mentioning are the private players in the local government sector. The most important among them are publishers and software suppliers for local government. Often they have built up their own expertise within a particular domain, making them well placed to organize training initiatives for local government professionals. Again, these trainings cover a wide range of topics, from trainings in legal issues over very specific cases or problems that local governments face, such as the introduction of new legislation on spatial planning or certain environmental regulations. We list some of these players below and give a short overview of their activities.

- *Vanden Broele Publishers*. This publishing house based in Bruges has built up a reputation within the sector of local government, not only as an important publisher, but also as an important supplier of software for local government. As a publisher, they cover both legal issues as well as issues in social and political science. Next to being a publisher, they invest many time and efforts in instructive seminars and workshops aimed at civil servants and local politicians. This mainly concerns short-term trainings around a wide variety of policy fields related to the local level. The focus lies on issues such as the challenges for local government, the relationship between local politicians and local professionals, local leadership, local finances, etc.
- *Politeia*. This institution was founded in 1990 within the former Ministry of Interior (at the federal level), in order to publish the department's research reports, but also for the publication of the professional journal for police services also called *Politeia*¹⁴. Since 1997 Politeia became an independent publishing company working in particular for public authorities in Belgium. The aim of this institution is to be a partner for the social profit sector in general and public authorities in particular. This is achieved through the development of sustainable partnerships with knowledge centers and trade unions in Flanders, Brussels and Wallonia. The publishing company organizes both study days and courses to share knowledge and information with people active at the local level. In this context it is also worth mentioning that Politeia works closely together with the previously mentioned Association of Flemish cities and municipalities and their Walloon counterpart¹⁵.
- *Die Keure*. The third and last institution we mention in this regard is also a publishing company, Die Keure. This company, also based in Bruges, acts as publisher in the fields of law, management and taxation. It goes without saying that with these topics they built up many relevant experience for the local government level in particular. Next to their publishing activities, they also organize subject-specific courses, in addition to their publications. These are also aimed at local public servants as well as local politicians.

16. Petra, Meier, « Een vergelijkend perspectief op de positie van mannen en vrouwen in de lokale politiek », *Res Publica*, 49, 1, p. 46-64.

17. For the latest figures see rosavzw.be/nl/themas/politiek-en-beleid/politieke-participatie/politieke-participatie-in-belgi%C3%AB

18. We make use of data from 2008, based on a survey among 565 Flemish local councilors. We would like to thank prof. dr. Tom Verhelst for providing us these data.

19. Herwig, Reynaert; Kristof, Steyvers & Dries, Verlet, « Van dorpsfiguur tot eerstelijnsbestuurder. De lokale politieke elite in Vlaanderen na 1945 », FIERS, Stefaan & REYNAERT, Herwig (red.), *Wie zetelt? De gekozen politieke elite in Vlaanderen* doorgeleucht, Lannoo Campus, 2006, p. 35-58.

IV. Training for local politicians

A. Who's who at the local level

Flanders counts 7.398 municipal councilors today in 300 municipalities and cities. These councilors are directly elected by the inhabitants of their municipality and hold a fixed mandate of six years. The number of councilors depends on the number of inhabitants of the involved municipality, ranging from 7 in municipalities with less than 1.000 inhabitants to 55 councilors in cities with more than 300.000 inhabitants. Among these 7.398 local councilors, we count about 1.300 aldermen. They hold an executive mandate at local level, by making part of the college of mayor and aldermen. 300 of them hold a position as mayor. Note that both the aldermen and the mayors continue to hold their position as local councilor. This situation, called monism, was never seriously questioned in Flanders. However, since 2006 is it possible that the local council is chaired by its own chairman. Before 2006 this was a prerogative of the mayor. Since then, the council decides independently on who chairs the monthly meetings. Since 2013, at the start of the previous local legislature, about two third of the Flemish municipalities chose an independent chairman. In about one third of the municipalities, the mayor still chaired the council meetings. Almost four out of ten local councilors is female (38%), a figure that has only slowly gone up in recent decades¹⁶. This female representation drops however, as we climb higher on the administrative ladder. About 34% of the aldermen is female and 15% of the Flemish mayors is a women¹⁷.

When we take a closer look at the initial training of the local political elite in Flanders, we see that 3,9% only finished elementary school, 28,5% only finished secondary school and 67,6% obtained a higher diploma (from a university, a school for higher education or an equivalent diploma)¹⁸. The professional occupation of the local councilors in Flanders is, according to our data, listed in table 2.

Table 2: Professional occupation of the local political elite in Flanders (2008)

Professional background	%
Clerk	22,8%
Retired	14,6%
Civil servant	10%
Shopkeeper or salesman	9,2%
Professional politician	7,9%
Liberal profession (e.g. lawyer, doctor)	7,3%
Teacher	6,7%
Business manager	4,8%
Engineer (e.g. technician, computer specialist)	4%
Labourer	2,9%
Houseman / wife	2,7%
Farmer or fisher	2,1%
Student	1,9%
Other	3,1%

These data are in line with other publications about the socio-professional background of the local political elite in Flanders¹⁹. They indicate that the number of farmers and workers (defined as people working with their hands) has fallen sharply, while the number of civil servants, intellectual and liberal professions and teachers has continually increased. In that sense we see the changes in society reflected in the composition of the local political elite.

B. Training for local politicians

As mentioned earlier in this text, many of the training possibilities for local public servants are also open to local politicians. Both the VVSG as well as many of the private providers of training possibilities make explicit clear that their trainings are accessible to both local staff members and local politicians. In that sense we will not repeat the earlier mentioned categories of training possibilities for local politicians. However, we want to make an exception for two initiatives that are worth mentioning in this context.

First and foremost, we want to stress the many initiatives taken by the VVSG aimed to train local politicians. The association not only organizes training for public officials, but invests also many time and efforts in training possibilities for local politicians. It sees its mission even wider than that. The association wants to be a network for local politicians by bringing them together around shared policy themes at regular intervals. In this way the association brings twice a year the chairs of the local councils together who are not mayors. Initiatives like this aim to share knowledge, offer a platform for possible questions among local councilors and offer them the possibility to build up a network. Local politicians who want to refine themselves in certain policy themes, can always contact the VVSG to sharpen their knowledge in that particular domain.

A second possibility that should be mentioned are the training opportunities that political parties organize themselves. Almost all Flemish parties offer training to their local politicians in order to give them a more solid knowledge base. The Flemish Christian Democratic Party (CD&V) for example, a party which has traditionally a strong local representation, has a division that is dedicated exclusively to the support of its local politicians. In most parties, this offer consists of more general trainings on communication, campaign management and working as a local councilor. In addition, there are more specific courses that focus on one policy theme, such as safety, environment, culture, etc. The offer slightly depends on what issues are considered to be relevant or what importance is given by political parties to a certain policy theme.

C. Conclusion

In this contribution we wanted to give an overview of the training opportunities available to Flemish local public servants and politicians. It may be clear that when talking about the public officials there are a lot of possibilities. We remember the large local autonomy that municipalities have in recruiting whom they see as appropriate for a particular function. Usually, local public servants have already enjoyed a solid basic education at a university or a school for higher education, but there remain many opportunities for further education during their career. Here too, there lies a great responsibility for the municipalities concerned, who decide how much time and budget they free so that their staff can use these opportunities.

For the local politicians, the situation is slightly different. They did not enjoy a formal education to obtain their seat, but do have very different backgrounds. They only have to come in favor of the local voter to win their mandate. Likewise the public officials, they can choose from a wide range of training opportunities offered by various partners. They decide, though on a voluntary basis, whether they use these possibilities and to what extent. But as often, there is the principle that a local politician who wants to survive politically, better uses these opportunities.

II – The 16 reflexive/in-depth studies | A. Examples of federal states

THE TRAINING OF ELECTED OFFICIALS AND PUBLIC SERVANTS IN WALLONIA

Pierre Petit



I. Introductions

The objective of this article is to answer the following question: “*how is training for local public servants and local authority agents organised in the Walloon region?*”

To answer this question, in addition to defining the methodology used it is important to specify the context in which this training is organising by summing up, in a few lines, the realities and outlines of what theorists call the “Belgian institutional millefeuille”, and which has an impact on our issue.

After this institutional detour, local public service will be addressed in its entirety, including the different stakeholders involved and the way in which legal texts are applied. All these elements will help define the subject of the study and answer the research question in three phases. First, we will address the issue of training for local authority agents in Wallonia, with an ultimate focus on the subject of legal grades and, finally, elected officials.

All these elements will lead to a conclusion, in which we will determine avenues for the future and certain perspectives in terms of human resource management policy.

II. Methodology

The aim of this article is to present a global overview of training and answer the following research question: how is the training for elected officials and local authority agents organised in the Walloon region?

To answer this question, data and information were collected from scientific literature and various published books on the subject. However, publications on this specific issue are relatively limited¹ and data was therefore supplemented by interviews with different stakeholders in the sector in the country’s French-speaking area.

A survey approach was also used to more directly record local government practices in the field of training. To this end, the views and opinions of local and provincial government Directors-General and Financial Directors were collected. It is difficult to present a precise overview of the entire training landscape in Wallonia, as there is such a large number of practices and policies in this area, the result of local autonomy².

III. Context

This contribution regards the training of elected officials and civil servants in one of the three Belgian regions, Wallonia.

Since the federalisation of the Belgian state, which began in 1970 and was made official in the 1990s, Belgium has been managed by a multi-level governance. First, the federal state has all the sovereign powers and those that are not explicitly attributed to other levels of governance. Municipalities, meanwhile, are in charge of person-related matters and education. Regions are in charge of employment, training and administrative supervision of the provinces and municipalities, or the levels of governance with which we are concerned in the context of this contribution.

1. Pichault F. 2007. «Les tentatives de modernisation des services publics via la GRH : une tentative contextualiste», in Guérard S. (dir.): *La GRH publique en questions : une perspective internationale*, Paris : L’Harmattan, pp.205-222.

2. According to articles 41 & 162 of the Constitution and article 117 of the New Municipal Law, given its municipal autonomy the authority has organisational freedom (in terms of managing its staff, its heritage and setting the budget). It also has a taxing power to ensure the means to implement its actions. The body in charge of assessment, compliance and defending municipal interests is the municipal council. It can take both individual and regulatory measures which, in legally established cases, will be subject to the control of the regulatory authority. Although the municipality takes the initiative in a number of matters, by law it is also granted or denied certain powers.

The geographical distribution of the municipalities was decided upon in 1976 when the municipalities were merged, and has remained unchanged ever since.

Municipal attributions are very broad, and concern matters of municipal interest, or the collective needs of residents.

Municipalities have certain compulsory roles and other optional ones. The former includes: organising and co-financing the CPAS (Public Social Assistance Centres), organising municipal primary education, keeping registries of civil status, policing, checking unemployment, covering deficits in the upkeep of churches, maintaining municipal roads and drawing up electoral lists.

Theoretically, then, a municipality can manage anything that is not prohibited to them, but its actions are subject to administrative tutelage in particular. Administrative tutelage is *“all of the limited powers granted by or under law to a higher authority in order to ensure compliance with the law and to safeguard the general interest against the detrimental inertia, excess and infringements of decentralised agents”*⁴. Today, administrative tutelage is used principally by the regions with regard to the municipalities, and exercising it can annul any act that may be contrary to the law or to general interest as defined by the higher authority.

The result of this tutelary jurisdiction of federal entities is a variation in management between local authorities in the three regions. For example, in municipalities under the tutelage of the Walloon region, the rules for appointing mayors are not the same as in the other two regions, as indicated in the local Code of democracy and decentralisation⁵.

Every Belgian municipality has its own Public Social Assistance Centre (CPAS). The centre offers social assistance to people who do not have sufficient means to live a dignified life; in other words, everyone should at least be able to feed themselves, dress themselves, have somewhere to live and access to healthcare.

CPAS assistance can take different forms depending on the centre in question:

- financial assistance: integration income, advances, premiums, helps with energy bills, etc.
- assistance in kind: meals, clothing, public transport, etc.
- medical assistance: help with medical and pharmacy bills, urgent medical assistance, etc.
- socio-professional assistance: help finding training or work, community shops, etc.
- family assistance: family support worker, shelter, childcare facilities, domestic help, etc.
- legal assistance: debt mediation, etc.

It is important to note that the realities in Walloon municipalities differ greatly. Some municipalities or CPAS are very small organisations; some do not have any full-time agents to implement their tasks. Other municipalities or CPAS are large organisations with up to 3,000 agents in their employment. In addition, in order to implement certain tasks, municipalities and CPAS can group together in public (and semi-public) inter-municipality structures (currently 78 in the Walloon area) and “chapter XII associations”⁶.

4. Dembour J. 1955. Les actes de la tutelle administrative en droit belge, Bruxelles, Larcier, 1955, p. 1.

5. Code of local democracy and decentralisation, wallex.wallonie.be/ Belgian Official Journal, 12 August 2004.

6. Under the organic law of 8 July 1976 governing Public Social Assistance Centres, CPAS are permitted to form an association with one or several other CPAS, with other public authorities and/or with any legal entities other than those with a profit-based motive, in order to perform one of the tasks assigned to the CPAS by this law. They are called “chapter XII associations” in reference to the chapter of the law.

IV. Local public service

A. Texts governing local public service

In Belgium, due to local autonomy, the provinces, municipalities and CPAS are governed by legal texts known as “circulars”, which are governmental recommendations or instructions issued by an authority to public servants in order to help them correctly apply a legislation or regulation. The texts therefore have a limited enforceable value with regard to Walloon decrees (which do have the force of law). Apart from the decree relating to legal grades⁷, local public service is governed by this type of circular, which explains the situational disparity in Wallonia.

B. The management of local administrations

In addition to being monitored by political authorities, Walloon provinces, municipalities and CPAS are managed on a daily basis by administrative managers known as “grades légaux” or legal grades.

In Wallonia, these legal grades are made up of the Director-General and the Financial Director.

With the reform of legal grades, the Director-General has in fact become chief of staff. In this sense, it is he or she who orders evaluations for agents, implements and oversees the internal control system for the functioning of municipal services, who implements and evaluates human resource management policy, and who manages and coordinates municipal services under the control of the college.

Moreover, he or she is tasked with implementing the fundamental political aspects of the general policy programme, which must be translated into a new tool known as the contract of objectives.

The financial director, meanwhile, takes on the role of financial and budgetary advisor to the municipality/CPAS and executes the following tasks: managing the revenue of the municipality/centre; carrying out, via mandates, purchases/expenditure authorised by the executive; submitting written and justified legal opinions on certain decision-making projects of the municipal council or the college over a certain amount of money.

Training is an essential tool for agents, and more specifically for legal grades and elected officials, in order to implement these tasks, fulfil this new role and move from administrative management to what has been called “municipal management”.

V. Training

A. The training of agents

To enable local and provincial public service agents to “forge a career”, they can receive training – subject to certain conditions – in order to progress in their career.

The number of these agents – from all local authorities – is rather limited when we compare this figure to the number of agents working in French regional and local authorities; nevertheless, we can observe from Figure 2 that the number of agents has continuously increased over the past years:

Figure 2. Number of workers in local authorities, development between 2003 and 2012

Type d'employeur	Nombre de travailleurs en chiffres absolus									
Année	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Communes	44459	44833	47010	48129	47878	48791	49875	50570	49770	49434
Zones de police	10210	10420	10371	10625	10542	10733	10888	11017	11046	10946
CPAS	29424	30782	27399	27293	27627	27449	27931	28633	29095	30185
Inter communales	19354	19218	24094	24879	25070	26310	27199	28139	28463	28391
Provinces	12258	12692	11793	11923	11921	12375	11719	11511	11248	11572
Divers	59	65	64	63	62	62	61	71	75	74
Total pouvoir locaux	115764	118010	120731	122912	123100	125720	127673	129941	129697	130602
Part de l'emploi des pouvoirs locaux dans l'emploi intérieur Wallon	10,5	10,5	10,6	10,6	10,5	10,5	10,7	10,8	10,6	10,6

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With regard to these agents, training regulations were established by the Walloon regional recommendation in 1994, in a text entitled “Principes Généraux de la Fonction Publique Locale et Provinciale” (General Principles of Local and Provincial Public Service).

At the time, the philosophy behind this text represented an innovative approach for the sector, as it offered a system of levels and career development in public service.

Through the circular of 27 May 1994 on the General Principles of Local and Provincial Public Service, the Minister recommended a transposable framework for every local authority, with an effect on one’s professional career; a limited number of grades (there were previously 1,300 different grades), the principles of which offered jobs, grades and duties over 5 levels (E, D, C, B and A); a uniform pay scale; the implementation of staff evaluation; and training for agents.

Currently, according to these “principles”, for an agent to progress in their career a rule of seniority applies, in addition to a positive evaluation and career development potential via certain training programmes certified by the government or a skills recognition system. This allows the agent to progress more quickly in their career.

8. Focus Formation available online via this link (FR): crf.wallonie.be/focus-formation.html

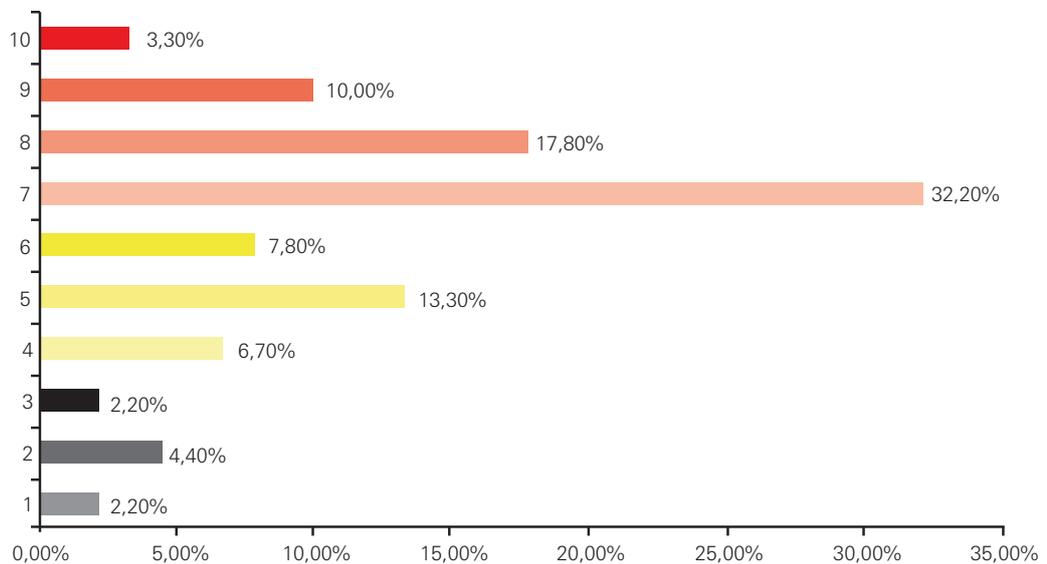
9. CODT is the acronym for “Code du Développement Territorial” (Territorial Development Code); a Walloon Government decree forming the regulatory aspect of the Territorial Development Code, Wallex, 22 December 2016, wallex.wallonie.be/index

The training programmes they are offered are organised by CRF-certified training operators and listed in an online catalogue called “Focus Formation” (Focus on Training)⁸.

In addition to the training that enables an agent to progress, there is also so-called continuous training, which is implemented according to ad-hoc requirements in the field. We can cite a recent example of this type of training, adapted to realities in the field. Following a legislative development in town planning (CODT⁹), the CRF served as a meeting place between operators, enabling them to develop and innovative training programme, its timetable and its operators.

Although the career development system is over 20 years old, its practicality and modernity remains unquestioned. A survey conducted among DGs and FD of different municipalities, CPAS and Walloon provinces demonstrated that the perception of its principles was still highly favourable.

Figure 3. Perception of general principles (survey conducted in 2012 by the CRF)



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To assess perceptions of the principles among legal grades, the following sample question was asked: “Assess the positive impact of the general principles in your local authority on a scale of 1 to 10”.

Career development training must therefore be certified by the government following the proposal of an organisation that plays the role of regulator: the Regional Training Board (CRF). In this respect, the role of the CRF is to make maximum use of existing networks and reduce costs, as well as guarantee quality and provide a good balance between supply and demand.

Aside from these non-binding rules for local authorities, the regulations relating to training are determined by local and provincial entities.

All of these elements relating to the training of agents give us an overview of the issue, but with the available means of the CRF it is impossible to provide a more detailed analysis, given the multiplicity of practices due to local autonomy.

C. The training of Legal Grades

Based on the observation that municipalities are no longer managed in the same way as they were twenty or thirty years ago, and that local and provincial authorities should be brought into the era of public management, a reform of legal grades was initiated, and with it certain training-related conditions. Although this training is provided for on paper, it is not organised for the Directors-General currently taking up their roles. The aim of this training is to help DGs to fulfil the tasks incumbent upon them, including internal control, the drafting of a contract of objectives and the monitoring of a genuine governing board.

This part, dedicated to the training of legal grades, is relatively summary given the newness of this training and the absence of any real implementation.

D. The training of elected officials

There is no compulsory training for elected officials in Wallonia. It is currently provided by the political parties to which the officials belong.

Two training operators also offer training programmes for new elected officials, with the Union des Villes et des Communes and the Association des Provinces. These training programmes are defined through legislative innovations, so as to clarify and simplify new legislations as much as possible, all of the elements relating to the training of agents, legal grades and elected officials have provided us with an overview that enables us to answer the initial question: “how is training for local public servants and local authority agents organised in the Walloon region?” This question leads us to consider different points relating to the way in which training fits into a policy of human resource management and influences the strategic management of organisations.

E. Considerations on training

Despite the large number of initiatives undertaken in order to modernise local public service and bring about a new governance, the Regional Training Board, which is in constant contact with the Directors-General of municipalities, CPAS and provinces, has – through various lines of enquiry – been forced to observe how ill-equipped local authorities are when it comes to implementing modern human resource management policies.

Based on this observation and guided by the conviction that the prevailing shortcomings should not hamper the implementation of a HRM policy whereby people are the central concern, the CRF has conducted a pilot project with the objective of supporting local entities in their HR projects.

The CO3 project (initiated in 2014 and renewed in 2016), covering no less than 101 local authorities, is a support-based project in the field of HR through the provision of tools and the sharing of best practices. Compared to similar projects, this one is unique in its respect for budgets and financial constraints, and in that it can be adapted to the size and specificities of each entity – something that is particularly important, as highlighted above.

VI. Conclusion

Through these different considerations on training in local public service, we can demonstrate that there is not one training system for public service agents, but several, due to Belgian institutional specificities and local autonomy. Nevertheless, although there are no prescriptive and binding texts defining the nature of training for agents, the CRF has observed that an increasing number of local authorities are becoming aware that training is not excluded from their HR policy. The aim of the CO³ pilot projects is to encourage the entire public service to adhere to the premise that training is a central, key element of their HRM policy, one that enables them to meet the strategic and operational objectives set by the political and administrative hierarchy.

**THE REFORM OF PUBLIC
ADMINISTRATION OF 2015:
TRAINING OF LOCAL PUBLIC
SERVANTS AND OF LOCAL
ELECTED PUBLIC OFFICIALS
AS ELEMENTS OF THE
MODERNISATION OF PUBLIC
ADMINISTRATION IN SPAIN**

By Elisa Pérez de los
Cobos Hernandez



I. Introduction

The recent period of corruption lived in Spain has caused a significant loss of confidence in the citizens and a profound change in social values. In addition, the recent budgetary crisis and the technological changes have reflected certain difficulties in the traditional model of the Public Administration in Spain, that made us become aware that the whole system requires a modernization that involves the professional preparation of public officials -to make them more competent and responsible- and the quality increasement of the services for the citizens.

Furthermore, besides the right of the public employees to be continuously trained and updated in their knowledge and professional skills, - created by article 40.2 of the Spanish Constitution and consecrated after by the Basic Law Statute of Public Employment- Spain has introduced a new system of instruction focused on the innovative and competitive capacity of the Administration to provide quality in the human resources area.

The fundamental importance of coaching, projected on the administrative decentralization of the Spanish State, has generated a significant diversification of the instruction activities. The administrative management of the Spanish State permits the development of different agencies and different administrations, intended for the tuition and improvement of public employees. The three administrative levels - State, Regional and Local -manage in their account Institutes, Centers and Schools of Public Administration that are responsible in planning, implementing and evaluating their own drilling plans. Thus, in the General Administration of the State, along with training institutes, each Ministry is responsible of the training of the bodies that they are seconded. At regional level, each autonomous community develops and manages its own training initiatives, dealing with their own centers. In regards to the local administration, given its enormous diversity, one cannot speak of a consistent line in their guiding policies.

This fragmentation allows a professional preparation according to the needs of each sector but can also cause conflicts as a result of the various criteria exercised by the different administrations. It is essential to establish a series of mechanisms of cooperation and coordination between the different public administrations and, of course, the various Institutes and Training Centers that guarantee an equal minimum for all the public servants.

II. Grounding of local public servants in Spain: multi-level public administration

The proper functioning of the public administration requires a qualified staff to carry out the professional activities. This reality is the result of the strategic place that occupies the public sector at political and social level. It is essential to maintain an adequate the degree of satisfaction of the citizens with the services that they receive in the social welfare states. Therefore, the need to ensure the training of local public servants (LPS) and to keep it updated by the given condition of continuing education and professional development of local public servants is a critical factor in the reforms to improve the Public Administrations. The Spanish Administration is not an exception at this respect.

1. In accordance with article 40 of the Spanish Constitution: *“the public authorities shall promote a policy guaranteeing professional training and retraining; they shall ensure labor safety and hygiene and shall provide for the need of rest by limiting the working day, by periodic paid holidays, and by promoting suitable centers”*. Basic Law Statute of Public Employment approved by Royal Legislative Decree 5/2015, of 30 October, approving the revised text of the Basic Law Statute of Public Employment, (“BOE” No. 261, of 31 October 2015).

2. In October the 26 of 2012, the Council of Ministers established the Commission for the Reform of Public Administration (CORA), Agencia responsible for conducting and implementing a comprehensive study aimed at modernizing the public sector, providing greater efficiency, eliminate duplication and simplify the procedures through which citizens and companies are related to the Administration. The report was sent to the Council of Ministers on 21 June 2013. This document includes 217 proposals based on the idea that a competitive economy requires effective public administrations, transparent, agile and focused on the service to citizens and companies. In particular, 139 proposals affect the State and the Autonomous Communities and 78 exclusively to the General State Administration (AGE). For the implementation, momentum and follow-up of these measures was established in 2013 the Office for the implementation of the Reform of the Administration (OPERA). These measures include the attribution to the National Institute of Public Administration (INAP) of the formation of local public servants (LPS) of the various Ministries.

3. Law 39/2015, of 1 October, Common Administrative Procedure of Public Administrations and, Law 40/2015, of 1 October, Legal Regime of the Public Sector (LRJSP), (BOE No. 236, October the 2nd of 2015).

Based on the individual right of public employees to benefit from continuing education and professional development provided for in the article 40.2 of the Spanish Constitution and the Basic Law Statute of Public Employment (EBEP), Spain has designed a training system that accompanies the workers in their cycle of personal development and professional promotion. This is an essential support to the innovative and competitive capacity of the Spanish public administration based on some quality human resources¹.

There are two issues that need to be taken into account to speak of the training of public servants: **i)** the economic crisis and the rationalization of public expenditure and **ii)** the complex structure of the Public Administration in Spain. In relation to the first issue raised, the past few years Spain has experienced a process of rationalization to contain the expenditure of the public administrations. The principal backbone is the optimization of the procedures, structures and means - both human and material - with the Public Administrations. This spirit of permanent renovation is reflected by the Commission for the Reform of Public Administration (CORA) and Office for the implementation of the Reform of Public Administration (OPERA), Agencies that are responsible for conducting and implementing a comprehensive study aimed at modernizing the public sector, providing greater efficiency, to eliminate duplication and to simplify the procedures through which citizens and companies are related to the Administration².

Secondly, Spain is politically and territorially decentralised and consists of three governing entities: Central State, Autonomous Communities and Local Entities. At each of these levels there are institutes, schools and institutions of public administration to develop training programs for the public personnel. This issue is discussed in detail in the following pages. This system, organized into different levels, allows a training offer adapted to the specific needs of each Public Administration. However, the variety of approaches, the teaching methodologies and evaluation models used, could collide one to each other. A recommended solution to this problem was the establishment of cooperation mechanisms between the Public Administrations, Institutes and Training Centers. The aim is to find a standard training that allows a basic and a common model to all the Public Administrations.

III. The reform of public administration of 2015: training of local public servants as elements of the modernisation of the public administration in Spain

In October the 2nd of 2015, the Boletín Oficial del Estado (BOE) published two laws that modified the fundamental pillars of the Spanish Administrative Law: Law 39/2015, October the 1st, Common Administrative Procedure of Public Administrations (LPACAP) and the Law 40/2015, October the 1st, Legal Regime of the Public Sector (LRJSP)³. These laws, which came into force on October the 2nd 2016, are part of an ambitious reformation plan of the Spanish Government, in order to alleviate the effects of the growing crisis. Taking as a starting point the report of the Commission for the Reform of Public Administration, (CORA), the Spanish Government developed a new regulation for which it is intended to adapt the public administration to the new social demands of the 21st

century. One of the objectives of the process reform of the Public Administration is to ensure that public services are provided in the most efficient way for citizens⁴. At this respect, it should be noted that the implementation of the Electronic Administration plays a key role in this reform. The information and communication technologies for development are underway throughout Spain. The aim is to foster and promote relations of collaboration and cooperation between the Public Administrations⁵. This is part of the premise stating that any initiative of modernisation and improvement of the administrations must be based on the use of the technologies -and their use- in order to improve its activity.

On the other hand, the real modernisation of the public administration depends on the professionals who work in it. The public employees must incorporate into their daily practice the new management values. Seeking further, the initial and continuing training of the local public servants plays a leading role in the reform and modernisation of the Public Administration. Governments can change laws, but that is the easiest part. The adaptation of the administrations and the training of those who work in them, is a complex task and requires training plans that are perfectly planned. So as to make real and meaningful progress, it is necessary to have trained human resources, that are motivated to adapt the Administration into the new social demands. Therefore, it is so important for these professionals to have an appropriate instruction in these new procedures, forms of organization and their results. As Jiménez Meroño & Sánchez Medero point out, “the change is the result of consensus and participation in the process of human resources, and the rules only serve to establish the frameworks for action”⁶.

IV. Initial training of local public servants in Spain

According to the most recent data provided by the National Institute for Statistics, Spain has a population of 46.528.966 inhabitants⁷. However, it is not easy to know the number of local public servants. The calculations are not clear enough. In Spain there is not a single record to control public employment, that could be used in different sources such as: Labour Force Survey (EPA), The Spanish Tax Agency, affiliation to the social security system, Statistical Bulletin of the staff at the service of the Public Administrations, among other. Depending on the source of information that is used, the difference in the number of local public servants can easily rub the 900,000 inhabitants. This accountability is very important to provide increased clarity and simplicity in this study, by making the use of a single source of information: in particular, the Statistical Bulletin of the staff at the service of the Public Administrations, (BEPSAP)⁸.

According to the BEPSAP, in January 2017, the total number of local public servants who worked in the State Public

4. Commission For The Reform Of Public Administration (CORA), *Report of the Reform of Public Administration*, Government of Spain, Madrid, 2013, p.40.

5. Ministry Of Finance And Public Administration And Ministry Of Presidency, *Memory of regulatory impact analysis of the Draft Law on the Legal Regime of the Public Sector*, Madrid, January 9, 2015, pp. 6-9.

6. Jiménez Meroño, S., Sánchez Medero, R., Sánchez Medero, G., «The Institutes of Public Administration in Spain: training programs for staff at the service of the administration», *Generanciales Studies*, Vol. 26, No. 116, 2010, pp. 169-192.

7. National Institute For Statistics, Population Figures on 1 January 2017, Statistics on Migration 2016, Press Releases, 29 June 2017, p. 1.

8. Government Of Spain, *Statistical Bulletin of the staff at the service of the Public Administrations*, Central Register, January 2017, Ministry of Finance and Public Function, Madrid, 2017. The Statistical Bulletin of the staff at the service of the Public Administrations, (BEPSAP), shall aim collecting information about local public servants in the service of the different Public Administrations. It was first published in 1990, has a half-yearly basis and is prepared by the Central Register. It was decided that the statistical scope of this edition of the BEPSAP rests on the Law 6/1997, of 14 April, on the Organization and Functioning of the General State Administration (LOFAGE), because the Law 40/2015, of 1 October, Legal Regime of the Public Sector, which are now abrogated and replaced the LOFAGE, establishes in its fourth additional provision of a period of three years from the date of its entry into force for the adaptation of public entities and agencies of the state public sector. For the Autonomous Communities have followed similar criteria. Includes staff at the service of the Public Administrations that are detailed below: the public servants of State Public Administration (General Administration of the State, State Security Forces and Bodies, the Armed Forces, the administration of justice and public business entities and public bodies with specific regime); the Administrations of the Autonomous Communities; the Local Administration (Town Councils, Provincial Councils and Island Councils), and the universities.

9. In the specific case of Murcia, by way of example of civil servants, the total number of inhabitants of this autonomous community is of 1,800,000 persons of 47,572 jobs in the public service. Region Of Murcia, Ministry Of Finance And Public Administration General Directorate Of The Civil Service And Quality Of The Services, Annual Bulletin of the public function and quality of services, Murcia, 2017.

Administration was 522,412 people; in the Autonomic Administrations 1,307,35 people; in the Local Administration, 543,110 people; and 150,287 in the Public Universities⁹.

In order to ensure a better understanding of the functioning of the Spanish Public Administration and the initial training of the local public servants, we have discussed below it is necessary to study the following issues: **i)** Main categories of local public servants; **ii)** Main percentages of local public servants; **iii)** Basis of initial training of local public servants; **iv)** Institutions that manage initial training and main modalities of initial training of local public servants; **v)** Interest, time and duration of initial training areas of study and specialisation of initial training of local public servants; **vi)** Special cases of local public servants in initial training; **vii)** Cost of the initial training of local public servants and their remuneration during initial training.

I) Main categories of local public servants

The main categories of LPS that can be identified in the Spanish Public Administration are the following:

- **A career civil servant (funcionario de carrera):** A career civil servant is a person that has been linked into a Public Administration by the virtue of a legal appointment. They are permanent public servants. They have a statutory relationship with the Public Administration that is regulated by the Administrative Law.
- **Contract staff in the service of Public Administration:** A contract staff is a person that has been linked into a Public Administration by the virtue of any type of employment contract.
- **Temporary public servant:** A temporary public servant is a person that has been linked to a public administration by the virtue of a non-permanent appointment. This servant may only perform functions that have been expressly qualified as trusted or specially advised. Their salary is paid from the budget appropriations allocated to that purpose.
- **Interim staff:** the interim staff is a figure that has been created for reasons of necessity and urgency. It is appointed to occupy only temporary duties that have been assigned to the career civil servant during the persistence of the circumstances that are referred in the 10th article of the Basic Law Statute of Public Employment.

The other staff that has not been included in the previous categories is the public servant trainees. The “public servant trainees” are public servants that have accomplished one of the recruitment procedures in the public service, mostly through an exam. They are intended to become permanent LPS after the probationary period -or period of training- in a school of public service. As such, they receive a salary during this period. In the Spanish Public Administration this figure does not exist.

II) Main percentages of local public servants

For complete information on the type of Local Public Servants in Spain, we must take into account main percentages in relation to gender distribution, temporary factors at work and the average age of LPS.

a) The gender distribution of LPS.

The first issue that needs to be analyzed is the gender equality in public administration: the gender distribution of LPS.

In the General State Administration there are a total of 522.412 LPS. The distribution between men and women is very uneven. Men occupy 362.123 jobs while women hold only 160.289 jobs. That is to say, of the total of the LPS in the General State Administration, 69.3% of the LPS are men, while only 30.6% are women.

In the Autonomous Communities the situation is different. Of a total of 1.307.358 LPS at service in the Autonomic Administration, 404.344 are men and 903.014 are women. Therefore, we can say that the percentages are reversed: 30.9% are men and 69.1% are women

In the Local Public Administration, the gender distribution is much more balanced. Of a total of 543.110 of LPS, 281.926 are men and 261.184 are women. The percentages are much more balanced than in the General State Administration or the Autonomic Administration. In this segment, 51.7% are men and 48.3% women.

Finally, the Public University has a total of 150,287 LPS, in which 79.679 are men and 70.608 are women. Again we have similar percentages: 53% are male while 47% are women.

It is possible to state conclusively that, in Spain there is a balance in the gender distribution in the Public Administration.

b) The temporary factor at work

Another aspect to be taken into account is the temporality of work. The percentages between permanent public servants and temporary public servants, vary according to the level of the public administration.

In the General States Administration the majority of the public servants are permanent. In particular, 424.247 people. A wide 81.2% of permanent public servants, much higher than the 16.7% of temporary public servants, that is, 87.271 people. A minimum a 2,1% of public employees of the General States Administration (10.894 people), are subject to other schemes.

In the administration of the Autonomous Communities happens something similar. 821.722 people are permanent public servants (62,8%), while 132.040 people are temporary public servants (10%). Only 353.596 public employees are subject to other regimes (27,2%).

The local Administration has 204.692 permanent public servants (37,6%), 289.610 temporary public servants (53.3%) and 48,808 employees subject to other regimes (9%).

Finally, the Public University has a total of 150.287 public employees. Of these,

68.009 are permanent public servants (45,2%); 74.792 temporary public servants (49.7%), and subject workers to other regimes 7.486 (4,9%).

c) The average age of Local Public Servants

The third issue that we must examine is the average age of LPS at the service of the Spanish Public Administration. This question has been carefully examined, and the following conclusions were drawn.

- LPS under the age of 30 years: 494 male and 585 female
- LPS between the ages of 30 and 39 years: 7.615 male and 9.175 female
- LPS between the ages of 40 and 49 years: 22.230 male and 22.174 female
- LPS between the ages of 50 and 59 years: 44.561 male and 47.133 female
- LPS between the ages of 60 and 64 years: 12.835 male and 12.065 female
- LPS 64 years of age and older: 1861 male and 1146. female

Therefore, the average age of the LPS in Spain is between the ages of 50 and 59 years.

III) Basis of initial training of local public servants

In Spain the initial training of the LPS is not mandatory following a legal provision either in the General State Administration or in the Autonomic Administration. Nor is there a project for initial training of LPS in preparation or waiting to be implemented in Spain. Practically, it is an individual right of the LPS provided for in article 40.2 of the Spanish Constitution and the Basic Law Statute of Public Employment. The Spanish Constitution mandates that public authorities shall promote a policy guaranteeing professional training and retraining of the LPS. Therefore, the initial training and the continuing education of the LPS is an obligation of the public authorities. The initial training of LPS is not separated and different from the one provided to the public servants who work in the central government. It is the same for all LPS.

IV) Institutions that manage initial training and main modalities of initial training of local public servants

Institutions that manage initial training depend on the particular level of public administration (Central State, Autonomic Administration or Local Administration).

In the General States Administration there are three notable training centers: the National Institute of Public Administration (INAP), the Tax Studies Institute (IEF) and the Diplomatic School. Furthermore, in absence to specialized training centres, the Ministries themselves must bear directly the functions of selection and training of LPS. For this purpose, the Ministries use the people hired in their human resources management department.

At autonomic level, each Autonomous Community has the freedom to develop and implement their own plans of initial training of the LPS. As a result, there is a proliferation of training schools

In regards to Local Public Administration, it is very varied and scattered. As a result, it is difficult for the local public administration to be able to offer a homogeneous in its training policies.

Thus, the National Institute of Public Administration assumes the functions of the disappeared Institute of Studies on Local Administration. In addition, some large Council have created their own personal training centers. For that reason, there is a multiplicity Schools and Institutes of Public Administration responsables for the public training.

The initial training is provided in a specialized center. This matter has been previously analyzed in these study. In regards to the modalities of training, the main one is provided through master classes and online training. When the initial training is completed, the LSP is awarded with a certificate or a diploma that states the overcoming of the course. For greater success, there is an evaluation of the initial training of local public servants, that takes place at the end of his formation. The institution that manages the initial training is the responsible of taking the evaluation, that must be carried out using an anonymous questionnaire.

V) Interest, time and duration of initial training areas of study and specialisation of initial training of local public servants

The Interest, time and duration of initial training are key issues. The interest for LPS to participate in the initial training activities is motivated by the fact of becoming a permanent public servant. As the initial training is not compulsory, there is no particular time for its development. Currently, the formation lasts the time of recruitment.

The areas of study and specialisation of the initial training are many and are very varied. These areas could include: Public Management; Public Policies; Public Law; Sociology of organisations; Public Finance; Computing; Social Responsibility; Ethics and Good Practice; Innovation and Quality; Attention to the citizenship, equal treatment and non-discrimination; Skills and Communication; Occupational Risk Prevention and Health Promotion; Languages; Europe; Management, Direction and Coordination of staff; Technical Training: Health and Consumption; Agriculture; Education; Labor, Industry and Infrastructure; Social Services; Urban Planning and the Environment; Traffic and Road Safety Police Intervention and operational; among other matters.

In regards to the main professional activities that are most likely to benefit the initial training of LPS, we can include the following: Financial and Human Resources Management; Strategic Management; Europe; Child Welfare Policy; Spatial and Urban planning; Sustainable Development; Local Economic Development; Public Transport; Educational Policies; Culture; Health; Legal Affairs and Citizenship; Ecological Engineering; Water; Sanitation; Energy; Architecture; Building and Logistics; Public Infrastructure and Networks; Fire Fighters and the Management of Major Risks; Security and Local Police; E-administration, IT Security; Personal Data Protection; among others.

10. Resolution of 9 October 2013, of the Office of the Secretary of State for Public Administrations, which publishes the Training Agreement for the Use of Public Administrations of 19 July 2013, (BOE No. 252, of 21 October 2013).

11. This Order was published in the Official Gazette of the Region of Murcia (BORM No. 281 of 4 December).

VI) Special cases of local public servants in initial training

In Spain, there is a special status granted to LPS with disabilities or illnesses that occur during their initial training. This is mandatory according to the Resolution October the 9th, 2013, of the Office of the State's Secretary for Public Administrations, which published the Training Agreement for the Use of Public Administrations on July 19th, 2013¹⁰.

As far as it has been exposed, the General Commission of Training for the Use of Public Administrations is the responsible to promote all the initiatives that encourage the reconciliation between family living and work life. This Commission must also adjust the methodologies and schedules of the initial formation, adapting the participation of LPS with any kind of disability or so ever, with groups that may have greater difficulties in the implementation of the training activities that are carried out.

The Autonomous Communities are also provided with a legal provision that regulates these special cases of LPS with any kind of disability. For example, the Order November 30, 2015, of the Regional Ministry of Finance and Public Administration, approved the Plan for the training of the staff in the service of the Local and Regional Administration in the Autonomous Community of the Region of Murcia during the year 2016¹¹.

In Spain there is not a specific training for under qualified / illiterate LPS. Despite this, the Spanish Public Administration has not required any initial training of local public servants for some public services who should have needed it. For example, in the case of services affected by policy changes, a initial training of new applications and languages should have been mandatory.

VII) Cost of the initial training of local public servants and their remuneration during initial training

The average cost of the initial formation of the LPS is 14.00€/people/year. The cost of the initial formation of the LSP is responsibility of the central government and the local public entity which employs them. The LPS are exempt from paying.

The average salary of a LPS in Spain is 1500€. During their initial training the LPS do not receive remuneration. There is not a compulsory initial training so that there are no obligations or compensations during this initial training of the LPS.

V. Continuing education and professional development of local public servants in Spain

From the perspective of Public Administrations, the continuing education and professional development of LPS are a necessity to achieve its objectives of efficiency and modernization. Today, it is an urgent necessity due to the rapid development of knowledge and information technologies and communications. The continuing education is a relevant factor for increasing the productivity of each public employee and the organization as a whole. This is an essential objective for achieving the levels of competitiveness to which Spain aspires. A country integrated into the framework of the European Union and the dynamics of globalization.

The continuing education and professional development of local public servants are one of the best investments that can make the public administration. At the same time, for the LPS, vocational training is an essential tool in the development of your career.

12. Law 30/2015, of 9 September, which regulates the system of professional training for employment in the field of Labor («BOE» No. 217, of 10 September 2015).

For best understanding of the continuing education and professional development of local public servants in Spain, we analyze below the following sections:

i) Basis and nature of continuing education and professional development of local public servants. Special cases of local public servants; **ii)** Institutions that manage continuing education and professional development and main modalities of continuous training of local public servants; **iii)** Interest, time and duration of continuing education and professional development of local public servants. Areas of study and specialisation of continuing education and professional development of local public servants; **iv)** Remuneration of local public servants on continuing education and cost of continuing education and professional development for local public servants.

I) Basis and nature of continuing education and professional development of local public servants. Special cases of local public servants

The continuing education and professional development of LPS is imposed by a legal provision. This continuing education is the same for all LPS, whether of the General State Administration, of the Autonomic Administration or of the Local Administration. There is an individual right of the LSP to benefit from continuing education professional development. It is provided for in article 40.2 of the Spanish Constitution, in the Basic Law Statute of Public Employment, in the Law 30/2015, of 9 September, which regulates the system of professional training for employment in the field of Labor, and in the agreement for the training of the Public Administrations of 22 March 2010¹².

The local public servants have participated in this training mode from the Agreement between Administration-Trade Unions, of 15 September 1994. It have signed three agreements on training continues to be characterized by the shared responsibility of the Public Administrations, and it has been developing a management model based on social consensus which have helped to improve the system of training of public employees.

It is important to keep in mind that, the Basic Law Statute of Public Employment guarantees a special status granted to LPS with disabilities or illnesses during their continuing education and professional development in Spain.

II) Institutions that manage continuing education and professional development and main modalities of continuous training of local public servants

This continuous training and professional development of the LPS is carried out in the same schools of administration that manage the initial formation of LPS. Therefore, we refer this matter to the content discussed in the section corresponding to the initial training.

With regard to the modalities of training, the main one is the master classes and online training. When continuous education is completed, is not awarded

to the LSP a certificate. The certificate is incorporated in its administrative record. For greater success, there is an evaluation of continuing education and professional development, this evaluation is the responsibility of the institution that manage training. The evaluation is carried out using an anonymous questionnaire that takes place at the end of the formation.

III) Interest, time and duration of continuing education and professional development of local public servants. Areas of study and specialisation of continuing education and professional development of local public servants

The interest of LPS to participate in continuing education and professional development is motivated by being trained in local public management and becoming more efficient. The frequency of continuing education and professional development of LPS is annual, the LPS spend 40 hours per year to their training and professional development. In total, they have 500 hours in 15 years for continuing education and professional development.

With regard to the areas of study and specialisation of continuing education and professional development, some of the most noteworthy are: Public Management; Public Policies; Public Law; Public Finances, Computing and IT, among other matters.

As far as, the main professional activities that are most likely to benefit from continuous training, we could highlight the following: Financial and human resource management; Strategic Management; Europe; Social policies for autonomy; Fight against Exclusion; Child Welfare Policy; Spatial and urban planning; Sustainable development; Local economic development; Educational policies; Water/ Sanitation; Energy; E-administration, IT security, protection of personal data.

IV) Remuneration of local public servants on continuing education and cost of continuing education and professional development for local public servants

In Spain, the local public servants on continuing education and professional development do not receive special remuneration. They continue to receive their monthly pay and their usual incentives as if they were in activity, (bonuses linked to the actual accomplished work / or directly linked to the results of their activity). The LPS must compensate for their work obligations during continuing education and professional development because they can not benefit of a study leave to complete their continuing education and professional development activities.

In relation to the average cost of continuing education and professional development for local public servants this varies between 2000 and 4000€/person/year. The cost of continuing education and professional development of the LSP is responsibility of central government and the local public entity which employs them. The LPS are exempt from paying the cost, but in the payroll period, the amount is withheld for the continuing education and professional development.

VI) Training of local elected public officials in Spain

In Spain there is not a clear and reliable information on the number of local elected public officials. There are not enough overall statistical data to make it possible to cross-reference this information. As Ortega Klein has argued, are estimated to total less than 125.000 political positions¹³. In Spain there are not many elected representatives (about 2,500 parliamentarians) if we put aside the more than 68,000 local councillors. Both at State and Autonomous Community levels, the two Houses of Representatives of the Assembly are very small. That said, we might add that Spain spends little on local elected public official. Their wages are in the lower paid by other European democracies. In 2014 were counted the number of local elected public official in Spain. Approximately, the figures are as follows: at the central government level, 2,935; at regional level 14,143, at provincial level 2873, and at the municipal level 101865 local elected public official¹⁴. That is, a total of 122,021 people.

On the other hand, the 27 of May 2013, César Molinas and Elisa de la Nuez published a press article on the need for change of the political parties. The authors argued that 300,000 people would be a conservative estimate of the size of the collective of local elected public officials¹⁵. In addition, Ferran Martínez wrote in the press that if we add up all the politic charges the figure would be 158,230, a calculation as valid as the conservative estimate of Molinas And De La Nuez¹⁶.

In order to ensure a better understanding of training of local elected public officials in Spain, we discussed below, the following issues: **i)** Main percentages of local elected public officials; **ii)** Basis and nature of the training of local elected public officials in Spain. Special cases regarding training of local elected public officials; **iii)** Institutions that manage training of elected public officials and location of training. Main modalities of training of elected public officials; **iv)** Interest, time and duration of training of local elected public officials. areas of study and specialisation of training; **v)** Cost of training of local elected public officials and their remuneration during training.

I) Main percentages of local elected public officials

For complete information on the type of local elected public officials in Spain we must take into account main percentages in relation to gender distribution, the percentages of local elected representatives at their first term of office and reelected later, and the average term of office for local elected public officials.

The first issue that needs to be analyzed is the gender distribution of local elected public officials. According to official sources, is possible to state that, in Spain there is a relative balance in the gender distribution of local elected public officials. The proportion of men and women is similar, the percentages are the following: Male: 58.21% Female: 41.79 %. With regard to local elected representatives at their first term of office and reelected local public officials, official sources indicate that 50.72% is first term of office. Finally, the average term of office for local elected public officials is 5 years.

Other important issues are the questions of the average age, the level education of local elected public officials and the occupational distribution of local elected public officials. First, the average age of the local elected public officials is of 45 years. The second issue, the level education of local elected

13. Ortega Klein, A., *Rebuild Democracy*, RBA Books, Barcelona, 2014, 272 pp.

14. Official data extracted from Parliaments, Governments, reports of the Court of Auditors and the Ministry of Economy (Inventory of State Public-sector entities). It does not count the posts in international organizations, groups of municipalities, regions or metropolitan areas. Rodríguez Teruel, J. «How many politicians in Spain? And why do we care?», article published in www.eldiario.es, 18 February 2014. Available at: www.eldiario.es

15. Molinas, C., & De La Nuez, E., «Why is there to change the parties?», *El País*, 27 May 2013. Available at: elpais.com

16. Ferran Martínez I Coma, «How many politicians in Spain?», www.eldiario.es, 29 May 2013. Available at: www.eldiario.es

public officials, it should be noted that the 95% of the local elected representatives have a Bachelors Degree or a Masters Degree in Spain. Only a 5% of the local elected representatives has a Phd specializing. Finally, the occupational distribution of local elected public officials is the following: the 90% are managers, intellectual workers and professional occupations, the 7% had another profession and only 3% do not have any profession.

II) Basis and nature of the training of local elected public officials in Spain. Special cases regarding training of local elected public officials

In Spain the initial training of local elected public officials is not mandatory following a legal provision. Nor is there a project for the training of local elected public officials in preparation or awaiting to be implemented.

The training of local elected public officials is not distinct and different from that of national elected officials or from that of public servants working in central government. There are not different types of training for the local elected public officials. There is not an individual right to training for the local elected public officials, although it provide a specific training modules for the newly elected local without being given any certificate for it.

Nor is there a special training granted to local elected public officials with disabilities or diseases or a specific training for local elected public officials that have not graduated from secondary school.

III) Institutions that manage training of elected public officials and location of training. Main modalities of training of elected public officials

The legal status of the institutions that manage the training of local elected public officials is both public and private. The institutions that provide training for local elected representatives tend to be Universities and Political parties. The training is conducted through teachers, senior specialists in the field or through specialized consultancies. Therefore, the local elected public officials undertake their professional training generally outside their work place. With regard to the modalities of training, the main ones are the master classes and online training. The training activities of elected public officials are not subject to the assessment process.

IV) Interest, time and duration of training of local elected public officials. Areas of study and specialisation of training

The interest for local elected public officials to participate in training activities is motivated by increased professionalism. They carry out their training upon taking their office. Normally, this training of elected public officials has a duration of a few days (usually 2 days).

The areas of study and specialisation of initial training are many and varied. These áreas could include: State public administration and deconcentrated administration; Supervision and audit of local authorities; General organisation of local authorities; Legal and political organisation of decentralised admin-

istration; Electoral law and / or organisation and financing of political elections; Competencies of local elected representatives; Communication and / or public relations; Rights and obligations of local elected public officials; Public Democracy; Public policy management; Strategic Management; Competencies of local authorities; Financial control of local authorities; Public procurement; Civil service and management of human resources; Implementation, management and monitoring of EU funding; understanding of the organisation and functioning of the European Union; Fight against exclusions; Child Welfare Policy; Spatial and urban planning; Sustainable development; Local economic development; Energy; Public Infrastructure and networks E-administration, IT security, protection of personal data, among other matters.

V) Cost of training of local elected public officials and their remuneration during training

The average cost of training of the local elected public is 1500€ per year in office. This cost is responsibility of the local public entity which employs them. Local elected public officials are exempt from paying the cost, but in the payroll period, the amount is withheld for the training.local elected representatives are not paid and do not benefit from a compensation from the local authority they represent during their training.In addition, it is important to know that local elected public have a total incompatibility with the exercise of another profession.

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II – The 16 reflexive/in-depth studies | B. Examples of regional state employment systems

TRAINING FOR PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES IN ITALY

By Patrizia Magarò

1. Preliminary considerations on the general context

This article aims to shed light on several aspects of the training of public officials and elected representatives in Italian local authorities, in the light of information obtained from open access documents and a number of restricted¹ access databases.

According to the survey of the National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT), in January 2021 the Italian population is 59,641,488 people (down from last national population census in 2011, when Italy had 60,457,909 inhabitants), of which about 5 million were foreigners.

As a preliminary remark, it seems useful to present some general remarks regarding the nature of decentralisation in Italy.

The Italian Constitution of 1948 introduced into the system of territorial autonomies, in addition to the traditional local authorities already existing in the pre-republican period (the communes and the provinces), another intermediate level authority with legislative power: the region.

With the amendment of Title V of Part II of the Constitution - dedicated to the territorial organisation of the State - in 2001, the competences of regional and local autonomies (already progressively enlarged, at the administrative level, by means of legislative reforms initiated since the early 1990s) were extended. More recently, an attempt was made to reorganise local government, including the definitive abolition of the provinces, by means of a constitutional law adopted in April 2016, but rejected by the confirmatory referendum held in December of the same year. The provinces therefore continue to exist, although a legislative reform in 2014 transformed them into second-tier communities, also known as “wide areas”, without bodies directly elected by the people. In addition, since 2015, fourteen provinces have been replaced by as many “metropolitan cities”, which also currently lack a directly representative character (pending a national law that establishes the conditions for the direct election of the mayor of the metropolitan city).

The sub-state level of government is composed of 20 regions, 5 of which have special autonomy, due to their complex historical, morphological or linguistic minority conditions.

The intermediate level of “large area” consists of 107 metropolitan cities and provinces, plus two autonomous provinces (Trento and Bolzano).

The third level is composed of 7,904 municipalities, whose population and territorial characteristics differ greatly according to the competences assigned to them.

5 509 municipalities have less than 5,000 inhabitants, 886 between 5,000 and 20,000 inhabitants; the population exceeds 20,000 inhabitants in only 509 communes. Some territorial characteristics indicate another peculiarity of the communes. There are 3,516 mountain municipalities, 652 partially mountain municipalities (with different levels of altitude between hill and mountain) and 3,880 non-mountain municipalities; there are 1,003 coastal municipalities (of which 87 belong at the same time to the category of partially mountain municipalities) and 7,405 non-coastal municipalities.

1. The general data in this study is taken from the restricted access databases of the Ministry of Economy and Finance and the *Ragioneria generale dello Stato* (General State Accounting Office), access to which was made possible with the help of Cristina Sollenni, a civil servant at the Corte dei Conti, the regional control section for Liguria.

2. See for these data ISTAT - «Annuario statistico italiano» - 2015 (<https://www.istat.it/it/archivio/pubblica-amministrazione>).

3. See the «Direttiva sulla formazione e la valorizzazione del personale delle Pubbliche Amministrazioni» of 2001 (<http://www.funzionepubblica.gov.it/sites/funzionepubblica.gov.it/files/16892.pdf>).

In starting to address the subject of training for public agents, we must first of all start from some data such as the active population, which in Italy comprises 22.3 million at national level (of which 13 million are men and 9.3 million are women), in the three sectors of agriculture, industry and services.

There are 3,253,000 public employees overall, of which 8.42% are on fixed-term contracts. There are 566,000 local authority employees (52.95% women and 47.05% men).

The central administrations are present at the local level with the deconcentrated administrations of the ministries and other national² bodies. The analysis of age groups indicates a prevalence of public employees over 50 years of age (with the consequent rigidity of the mainly technological change of the last decades), both in central and local administrations; there is a stable tendency of low generation renewal through new recruits, mainly due to the constraints introduced over time by the national legislation on staff recruitment, as a result of the reduction of public expenditure. Overall, there is a higher initial educational level of newly recruited public servants, even for those professions for which such a level is not a specific condition of access.

Although it is not the subject of our study, it seems useful to note that the training of national administration staff has developed over time in a structured way, in a system that is now quite defined.

Since the last decade of the last century, profound changes in administration have been introduced. In particular, in 1997, a movement to redefine competences between the State and local authorities began, aiming to transfer as many administrative functions as possible to the peripheral level, in accordance with the principle of subsidiarity.

In order to achieve this complex objective, the training of public servants had to accompany organisational change; it has become increasingly important, being considered an essential strategic tool for the implementation of reforms.

The main reference for guiding the training process in national and local administrations, defining its characteristics and purposes, is the Directive adopted by the Department of the Civil Service on 13 December 2001³. This guiding act indicates the parameters on the basis of which the training activity must be carried out (compulsory, annual, programmed, with selected personnel, evaluated in its results, etc.), the sectors and objectives that must be taken into consideration (reorganisation, simplification, communication, digitalisation, etc.).

Central administrations have long been able to refer to the system of public training schools, historically consolidated - reorganised in 2013 - and coordinated by the National School of Administration (ENA). Specialised structures or training offices are present in all ministries, national bodies, authorities and public organisations.

ENA is an institution of higher education and training, under the supervision of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers; it was established in 1957 and is responsible for the recruitment of top managers and civil

servants, the initial training of top managers, the permanent training of top managers and civil servants at national level. The School can also deal with the training of personnel from public administrations other than the State, subjects that manage public services, institutions and private companies; the costs of the training are borne by the employers.

ENA also develops research, analysis and documentation activities aimed at the pursuit of excellence in training, linked to the processes of reform and innovation in administration.

In the “national” system of training for public agents of the State, “*Formez PA*” is the “Centre for services, assistance, studies and training for the modernisation of the administration”⁴. It is an association with a legal personality under private law, which plays a role in supporting reforms and disseminating administrative innovation to associated entities, which may be national administrations, regions and other local authorities.

At present, only nine regions, three municipalities and two provinces are effectively involved. The Department of Public Service is the majority partner of *Formez PA*, which is subject to the control of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers.

2. Training for local authority officials: the legal reference framework

As far as the public agents of local authorities are concerned, training interventions cannot be framed in a “system” with uniform characteristics throughout the country, but are organised in a baroque “constellation” of highly diversified experiences.

There is now a widespread awareness that the creation of a body of public servants with qualified preparation is a prerequisite for the proper functioning and effective renewal of public administrations; this essential objective, however, is not being pursued at regional and local level on the basis of a sufficiently structured reference model.

The analysis of this context is not easy, due to the significant differences existing among Italian local authorities, which are obviously reflected in the type of training activities. In fact, it is not possible to compare the provision of training by large authorities (with thousands of staff and specific offices or sectors dedicated to the analysis of internal needs and the preparation of training programmes, supported by adequate financial resources) with that provided by the many smaller authorities (which can often rely on only a few employees, working in several offices or on a part-time basis).

Moreover, databases related to these somewhat fragmented activities are still lacking (databases can be more easily organised at national level for several reasons but also because central administrations have to transmit their training plans to the Civil Service Department of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers).

While taking into account the limitations just outlined, the development of training activities by regional and local authorities can be analysed with regard to three different areas of intervention: initial training, training resulting from a change in professional position and continuing training. It should

4. See Legislative Decree No. 6 of 25 January 2010, «*Riorganizzazione del Centro di formazione studi (FORMEZ)*, a norma dell'art. 24 della legge 2009, n. 69».

be remembered, however, that in all the areas mentioned there is also “local training”, which is provided in the professional context by superiors and colleagues. This training is not reflected in the statistics, but it plays a fundamental role in the continuous training of public servants.

When thinking about the outline of the framework, it is necessary first of all to go back to the normative sources of the public sector, which establish the rules for training.

First of all, the Single Text for the Civil Service of 2001 is of special importance: Art. 1, c. 1, letter c), provides that public administrations - including local and regional authorities - must ensure “the training and professional development of employees” in order to make the best use of human resources. Article 7, c. 4, further specifies that the training and retraining of staff, as well as of managers, must ensure *“the adaptation of training programmes, in order to contribute to the development of the administration’s gender culture”*.

Article 7 bis, c. 1 (introduced by Law no. 3 of 16 January 2003) establishes that the administrations must prepare each year “a staff training plan”, taking into account the needs identified, the skills required in relation to the objectives, the programming of recruitments and the normative and technological innovations.

Further information can be found in the national collective labour agreements and in particular in Article 23 of the CCNL for the staff of regions and local authorities of 1 April 1999, which obliges to allocate a minimum of 1% of total staff expenditure for the development of training activities. It is also specified that the amount earmarked for training and not spent in the reference financial year must be used the following year for the same purpose.

The agreement of 31 March 1999 (CCNL on the revision of the classification system for the personnel of the local regions and authorities) recognises, in article 2, c. 2 and c. 3, *“the need to enhance the professional skills of the workers, promoting development, in accordance with the requirements of efficiency of the authorities”*; adequate and organic training interventions, *“on the basis of multi-annual programmes, formulated and financed by the authorities”* are foreseen for these purposes.

General training and continuing education activities, linked to professional activities, are mainly taken into consideration (Art. 5, c. 2).

The main reference for the training process in public administrations is the aforementioned 2001 Directive of the Department of the Public Service and the 2010 Directive of the Minister for Administration and Innovation (on the “programming of training in public administrations”). Although directed at national administrations, these directives indicate criteria and operational guidelines for regional and local authorities in relation to the different phases that should characterise the training process (needs analysis, planning, monitoring, in itinere support, final evaluation of public agents).

The only obligation for all workers is the one concerning safety, provided for in the “Single Text on Health and Safety at Work” (Legislative Decree no. 81 of 2008). This obligation, which applies to any professional role or type of contract, for the entire duration of the employment, implies periodic and modulated continuous training in relation to each sector, according to the different risks.

Finally, there are special regulations for disabled workers, for whom specific training is guaranteed both at the time of entry to work and throughout their professional activity⁵.

5. See Law No. 99 of 2013, converting the Decree-Law of 28 June 2013, No. 76.

Beyond what we have pointed out, there is no other legislative requirement for initial 'basic' training for public servants when they join the administration, including in regional and local authorities.

This is a requirement which, all things considered, is not yet particularly accepted in Italy, since access to the civil service is through a public competition, with specific training requirements and tests to which the candidates are subjected and which call for general institutional knowledge of organisation of the local authority, as well as specific competences for the role to be performed. The training, if any, provided by the local authority at the beginning of the job is intended to enable knowledge of internal organisational models and to provide normative upgrading. The possession of adequate skills is always required, even for the management of the lowest levels of the staff classification (for which the local authority can carry out the recruitment through employment agencies).

The status of permanent civil servant is obtained after a probationary period varying between two and six months. Different types of contracts are foreseen for their fixed duration and for the conduct of temporary work through the use of temporary employment agencies.

As regards the main categories of public employees, the two national collective agreements, which we mentioned earlier, indicate the exact designation of the different functions. Four levels, in ascending order, are recognised for staff who are not qualified as managers. Level A includes, first of all, the support and custodial activities of both the local authority and the schools it manages. At level B, there are, for example, functions performed in archives or using different types of machinery (school canteen kitchens, terminals, school buses, special machinery with a specific permit, workers). Level C provides for functions with specialised qualifications, such as administrative, accounting, police and traffic control functions, didactic activities in nursery schools, technical activities of surveyors or skilled workers. Finally, level D concerns functions characterised by a higher content of several categories of specialised knowledge, provided by public agents of different qualifications, for which the university degree represents the access title.

Finally, there is the level of senior managers, with management responsibilities, which also includes the position of secretary of the local authority, governed by a specific national collective agreement (for senior managers in the regions/local authorities sector), signed in 2010.

3. Training of public officials in the regions and local authorities

The training of public officials has been part of the daily life of Italian regions and local authorities for just over fifteen years, through activities which, in terms of content, delivery, recipients, etc., fall within the framework of the organisational and regulatory autonomy recognised by the Constitution to territorial autonomies.

Given the lack of specific institutions for coordinating and planning training activities, sharing good practice and pooling databases, the experience of local and regional authorities is still difficult to assess as a whole.

Some information can be drawn from the reports on training in public administration, supported by the Civil Service Department (coordinated by ENA and carried out jointly with *Formez PA*⁶). These documents are very useful for identifying the characteristics, dynamics and problematic aspects of training in the administration at national, regional and local levels. The last report on the continuous training of public agents was published in 2015, presenting the information available on the training activities carried out in 2012 and 2013 and those planned for 2014 by public administrations. The data highlighted in this report allow us to understand the evolution of the training phenomenon both from a quantitative point of view (highlighting the scale of expenditure, public agents involved, activities carried out) and in qualitative terms (management methods of the training cycle, teaching methods adopted, critical factors identified and objectives determined to improve the quality of training).

However, this information - which has not been collected in a database - is not regularly updated and does not cover all local and regional authorities, as the surveys are largely sample-based and the results of the analysis are based on questionnaires, which are not returned by all authorities involved in the research.

The organisational and managerial autonomy of local authorities (which is very strong on these points in Italy) allows each authority both to draw up its own plan of training needs and to implement it in different ways (sometimes by means of a call for tenders, sometimes by direct choice of suppliers and other times in the form of courses given by their best employees), defining the objectives of the training and the categories of staff involved.

Each institution is therefore autonomous in making concrete choices regarding the training of its staff, resulting in very different solutions, largely conditioned by the political balance and the size of the territorial authority.

As far as initial training is concerned, it has already been observed that such a need is generally not yet felt and considered to be satisfied by the conditions of access to the civil service.

The situation is different with regard to continuing education.

There are external factors that require local authorities to undertake continuous training, upgrading and retraining of staff.

A powerful *stimulus* today is the development of information and communication technologies. The computerisation of the administration's activities is indeed essential both for administrative simplification and for dialogue with society.

The effective use of the most modern IT systems is now a fundamental support for all decision-making processes, not only in relation to management and administration, but also in relation to the provision of services to the social community of reference and for the continued good functioning of the administration, as emphasised in Article 97 of the Constitution and expressed in the principles of effectiveness, efficiency and economy.

Knowledge of computer technologies is necessary for the implementation of multiple communication activities, not only internal but also external, with the aim of promoting better management of relations between the administration and the community, improving the visibility and operational impact of relations with the public.

The need for training in this specific sector is particularly felt also in view of the average age - over fifty - of public employees, whose past experience often did not include the possibility of developing appropriate IT skills, both in the school and private sector.

Another major external factor which requires constant updating of the human resources which give substance to the administrative machinery is represented by the frequent national normative changes which affect the organisation and functions of the different levels of government or introduce specific disciplines which affect the competences of the local authorities. It is constantly necessary to find the strength to neutralise the “defensive” reaction of the bureaucratic apparatus, which is overwhelmed by too many and rapid changes.

The complex anti-corruption legislation introduced (Article 1, c. 8, of Law no. 190 of 2012) the obligation for all public administrations to approve a three-year Plan for the Prevention of Corruption, which must also define the most appropriate procedures for selecting and training employees to work in areas particularly exposed to possible illegal behaviour. Specific training activities for special professional profiles and managers should be foreseen, as well as interventions for the prevention and management of risks of corrupt activities; furthermore, efforts to raise awareness of legality should be targeted at all employees.

It goes without saying that there is a relationship between the size of the local authority and the training needs, because the larger the administrative organisation, the more specialised the staff in the various offices must be, the higher the requirements for access to the various professional profiles become. In programming training interventions, the aforementioned 2001 Directive of the Department of Administration recommends the creation of databases to systematically organise and collect all relevant information. The Directive allows for the freedom of choice of training providers, while requiring administrations to draw up their own lists of providers who meet certain conditions. Administrations should activate quality control systems for training activities during their implementation, on the basis of explicitly identified parameters, which allow for the evaluation of the relevance of the contents, the degree of correspondence of the project and actions with the needs of the staff, the effectiveness and efficiency of the different operational aspects.

In this respect, it should be noted that not all local and regional authorities have an internal structure responsible for organising the training function; this obviously affects long-term strategic choices concerning staff.

Regions and communities in metropolitan areas are generally the most dynamic subjects.

All regions have units engaged in training activities, either exclusively or predominantly. In many cases, this is a true “Training Office”, i.e. a unit specifically created to respond exclusively to educational activities and whose staff perform this function directly, under the direction of a senior manager.

Some territorial realities have long used internal schools: in particular, the autonomous province of Trento and the Marche region. The region of Umbria carries out 90% of the internal training through the “Umbrian School of Administration Consortium”.

As far as local authorities are concerned, many municipalities and provinces have not set up a structure dedicated to training: 39% of municipalities do not have one, particularly in the south of the country, while in the case of the provinces the percentage falls to 10%.

The number of 100,000 inhabitants represents the demographic and dimensional threshold above which municipalities with training services prevail; the latter have unfortunately been restructured over time into more flexible or even smaller organisational units, often with part-time employees.

The demographic dimension of the local authority affects the same preparation of the “Training Plan”, which is an obligation under national legislation.

While all the regions have complied with this, more than two thirds of the municipalities and almost half of the provinces do not draw up any training plan; in the latter case, training activities are occasional or requested by other decision-making centres (public and private) and often quite distant from the concrete professional requirements of the subjects to be trained.

The only significant exception is the authorities in the metropolitan areas, which in all cases have a training plan that is generally multi-annual.

The weak training vision of public administrations expresses, to some extent, the persistence of a cultural limitation of the Italian ruling class, which still considers internal training activities unproductive (or not immediately productive, in a context dominated by the imperative of short-term results) and therefore devotes little time and resources to them.

4. Evolving trends in the training of territorial public agents

Although professional mobility and processes of reorganisation of functions at regional and local level make targeted and continuous education of public officials necessary, expenditure on training has decreased considerably in recent years.

Until 2005, there was a consolidation of investment in continuing training, with an increase in the rates of participation in the various activities, particularly with regard to women, managers and civil servants. The overall percentage for all territorial administrations was close to - but not exceeding - the target of 1% of training expenditure (with higher results for the regions, followed by the provinces and municipalities).

Since 2006, however, there has been a downward trend, first moderate and then significantly accelerating, as a result of the fiscal consolidation policies put in place by governments from 2009 onwards in response to the crisis. As a result of the rules on the coordination of public finances, regional and local authorities have been forced to respect strict spending limits; national legislation has also reduced over time the transfer of financial resources to local and regional authorities, in the context of other restrictive decisions aimed

at strengthening the framework of public finances and achieving the difficult objective of a balanced budget. This has had a negative impact on staff training policies, charged to the budgets of local and regional authorities, which have been sharply reduced (with the exception of training related to statutory obligations). In particular, between 2010 and 2011, expenditure on training has almost halved.

In this respect, it should be stressed that all local authorities mainly provide staff training with their own resources; the use of external funding (which is not subject to public finance constraints) does not appear to be particularly significant so far. Apart from European funds, it should be remembered that the National Institute of Social Security (INPS) grants scholarships to public servants, under agreements with the administrations concerned for the training of their staff.

Almost all local and regional authorities have reduced investment in training, confirming that financial resources are now the main problem, a difficulty that affects around 70% of administrations. The need to reconcile training with professional obligations, on the other hand, has for many years been the primary critical factor.

The contraction in training commitment seems to have finally diminished somewhat in the regions, but it is quite evident in the provinces, even because of the uncertainty linked to the expectation of a profound institutional change in these authorities. They were destined to be abolished by the 2016 revision, but – following the referendum that rejected the constitutional law – the provinces continue to exist in the Italian system, although transformed, in 2014, into second-level authorities, with bodies that are not directly elected and with basic functions defined by national legislation (while the “non-core” functions have been reorganised by the individual regions, with their own laws). The most significant effects of the crisis have been seen in the municipalities, where the reduction in resources has been accompanied by a numerical and dimensional reduction in the structures dedicated to the management of training activities and by the contraction of programming and evaluation activities related to training.

The need to carry out a thorough budgetary review has not only reduced the resources available for non-compulsory training interventions (established by the aforementioned national collective agreement of April 1999 for the regions and local authorities), but has also affected staff turnover, eroding the possibility of both initial and continuous training at the grassroots level, due to an increased workload of public servants on duty.

Local authorities have tried to respond to the need to limit costs, through a more rational use of resources, by reducing the number of assignments and the use of external trainers, both public and private, with a corresponding increase in self-training initiatives provided by the home administration or by an internal school. The choice of short courses, more professional and more directly related to the activities of the local authority, is currently predominant. However, the practices of the past have a surprising capacity to survive.

The surveys carried out by ENA (which, it should be remembered, are carried out on a sample basis) show that the majority of continuing training activity is carried out “by catalogue”, by subjects external to the local authority (approximately 50%). For more or less noble reasons, local and regional authorities

turn to private training companies, either directly - after a market study - or by issuing special calls for tender.

Training can also be provided by public subjects external to the local authority. At national level, there are continuing education programmes whose activation can be requested by each administration, both national and local, assuming the relative costs. Agreements can be made with specific institutions, such as ENA - which organises masters' degrees, courses and seminars - and *Formez PA* (which offers courses and training days, even by video-conference or distance learning, on topics of particular interest to regional and local self-governments, such as participation in projects for the use of European structural funds).

Training provided by universities (or other higher education institutions) active in the territory of reference of the regional or local authority represents about a quarter of the total and is carried out through the participation of public officials in conferences, symposia and seminars. However, training activities are organised mainly on the basis of requests from administrations, often offering participants the possibility of attending specialised courses, regardless of whether they have a university degree. This modality has been increasingly successful, as it is open to all public officials. The courses are given by university professors, in places that are easily accessible, without any permanent expenses outside the headquarters, for a sufficient number of hours of study concentrated in a relatively short period (usually a few months), on issues of specific importance for local authorities.

There has been an increase over time in training provided directly by the regions and local authorities, based on prior internal planning of specific courses, which are then delivered by qualified staff. This modality obviously reduces costs considerably. The thematic deepening are "tailor-made" and are strictly linked to the specific needs of the local authorities. Courses designed on the basis of specific requests from administrations have increased slightly (especially in the regions, where "project-based" courses prevail over "catalogue-based" courses) and "à la carte" courses, on the basis of requests from public officials, have decreased.

In addition, in the case of municipalities, the specific use of training initiatives carried out in association between different administrations has increased considerably, again for reasons of economy.

As far as the practical modalities of training are concerned, classroom courses predominate, there are few laboratories, e-learning is not sufficiently developed; alternative forms such as monitoring, tutoring, group work, as well as informal processes of knowledge dissemination are sometimes experimented. There does not seem to be a radical rejection of or disinterest in other training modalities, but rather a weak circulation of information and an insufficient valorisation of the experiences carried out by each territorial authority.

The public official, participating in the courses at the request of his/her administration, is paid for the hours of training, and, if transfer and stay away from headquarters is necessary, travel expenses are reimbursed. Training usually also involves the purchase and supply of books (magazines and publications, the purchase of tools and online access to the websites of sector organisations), to enable the maintenance of acquired skills and individual upgrading. In addition, the national collective labour agreement provides

that a civil servant who enrolls, by choice and at his/her own expense (i.e. outside the training provided by the administration), in secondary or university education courses may benefit from 150 hours of paid training, with different recognition arrangements defined by each administration (on the basis of certificates of course attendance, rather than of successful completion of examinations); a day's leave of absence, with a maximum of 8 days' absence, to take examinations (documented by certification of participation in the latter), is allowed.

A 2001 law allows public officials to follow a doctoral course in Italy and abroad, while maintaining their remuneration. To avoid abuse, a 2010 law requires that this be compatible with the requirements of the administration, but does not directly establish a coherent link between the cultural enrichment resulting from doctoral studies and the professionalism required in the sector where the public official works.

Training activities should normally be targeted at the acquisition of knowledge strictly related to the specific professional skills and institutional functions of the local authority.

The need for further training of public officials is to a large extent related to four specific areas. The legal sector stands out for its importance, with courses aimed above all at meeting the need to update staff knowledge in this area. The other areas are economic and financial, information technology and the rather heterogeneous specialised technical area, which includes territorial, environmental and urban planning subjects (but also cultural, social and sectoral legislation).

The different levels of depth and the scope of the topics covered depend on the functions performed by the public official in the administration, the impact of national normative changes and the nature of the internal organisational review processes of the local authority.

On the subject of the quality of training activities, the available information shows that evaluation experiences, despite their increasing trend, are closely linked to the existence of formative planning tools. In the absence of one, the others are also lacking. Therefore, this means that training activity is neither planned nor evaluated in half of the municipalities.

The training project adopted by the regions and local authorities may provide, especially in the case of larger authorities, for the recording of feedback (generally by means of a questionnaire compiled by the person who has benefited from the training activity), in relation to the quality of the teaching given, the degree of depth of the subjects dealt with, but also to indicate possible additional training activities, considered appropriate. It is also foreseen that the head of the office to which the public servant belongs will check on the improvement in the employee's professional performance obtained thanks to the training.

In view of what has been observed so far, the critical factors slowing down the convergence of territorial administrations towards a general and shared model of training for local public agents are obvious.

On the whole, training in Italian local authorities is generally aimed at refresher courses and does not form part of specific projects relating to the implemen-

tation of reorganisation, reform or restructuring of a function, department or organisational system. Training is often scheduled on the spur of the moment, close to its completion, for a limited period of time (except in the regions, where it is generally multi-annual); it is focused on reform processes already underway, rather than on the formulation of innovation projects and their implementation.

It should also be added that the monitoring of the results of the training activity seems to be weak, and in any case not very significant, thus confirming the predominant functionalisation of the training to a simple upgrading of the personnel, according to very general standards, in order to make the public agents better understand the content of the reforms introduced by the national legislator and to allow for their better execution.

It is also worth noting the persistence of significant imbalances between the Centre-North and the South of the country, between large and small local authorities, between those which are structurally capable of developing effective programming activities and others which are less equipped.

In this context, it should also be pointed out that the proactive role of universities is weak; they do not yet contribute adequately to the development of useful suggestions for improving the training of public officials.

Finally, there is neither a common database nor a body capable of coordinating the training processes of local authorities. On the other hand, at national level, there is the Observatory of Training Needs in the Administration, created in 2001, which has developed a computer system for the management of training processes, based on interactive databases managed by ENA, available to central administrations that request it.

5. Some remarks on the training of local elected representatives

On the basis of what has been said so far, it is obvious that staff training, considered in all its aspects - initial, continuous and refresher training - should assume a greater weight and a more structured dimension in the strategies of local authorities.

If we look at the training of local elected representatives, the situation appears even more problematic and nuanced than that of territorial public agents.

Information from the Ministry of the Interior database (updated in May 2019) shows that there are 945 national parliamentarians, 1,005 elected in the regions, 1,318 in the intermediate level and 105,215 in the municipalities, including 18,896 in those with more than 15,000 inhabitants. Overall, women represent 28.10% of elected representatives. The distribution by age shows that, unlike local government officials, most local elected representatives are in the 41-50 age group, followed by the 51-60 and 31-40 age groups.

In terms of educational level, there are 4,020 elected without any diploma or with only a primary school certificate. 15 243 people have a lower secondary school diploma, an equivalent or similar qualification, while 44,522 elected local representatives have a professional degree or higher education; finally, elected officials with a university degree or post-graduate specialisations number 35,570.

With reference to employment prior to the election, 1,174 elected members are retired and 873 are not employed, 354 workers come from the agricultural sector, 6,005 from trade, 13,926 from industry and about 25,000 from managerial activities (professions that require a specific qualification), while more than 78,380 belong to a wide range of sectors (craft activities, unskilled activities, etc.).

There are no official records of the training activities provided to local and regional government officials. A few remarks therefore seem appropriate in this respect, to better illustrate some of the changes that have taken place in a dynamic that continues to evolve.

For almost half a century after the Second World War, the Italian political scene was dominated by the presence of powerful, highly structured mass parties, widely spread throughout the country.

The peripheral political class was formed in this context. Local administrators - mayors, presidents of provinces, assessors - often illustrated the problems of their communities in the headquarters of parties, trade unions or in those of organisations that were parallel to Catholic Action (where the political class of the dominant party was formed for more than forty years), stimulating and preparing young people to take up positions in local authorities.

The training of elected representatives was completed in the field, first in local government assemblies and then in local governments, through a gradual *cursus honorum*, which recalls the path that was typical of the Fourth French Republic. It was common to see the passage, over time, from the role of councillor of a municipality to that of member of the government of the same community, then to the council of the province and the role of assessor.

The effective establishment of the regions in 1970 (with a long delay in relation to their constitutional provision) pushed the Italian parties into a phase of more intense training activity, in order to upgrade the knowledge of a peripheral political class which, to a large extent, had already gained experience in local government.

For several decades, some parties had well-structured national schools for cadres destined for the most important political positions; these high roles were usually reached after a route through positions in the peripheral party machinery and responsibilities in local government.

With the fall of the Berlin Wall, the scandals revealed in 1992 by the Italian judiciary - in the "Clean Hands" operation - and the exhaustion of financial resources of foreign origin or linked to corruption (an evil destined, however, to return with force to Italian society), the old party system collapsed and what is commonly known as the "Second Republic" began to exist, even if the Constitution is still the one that came into force in 1948.

The personalization of the new Italian parties, both at the national and peripheral levels - thanks also to the introduction of forms of direct election or substantial popular nomination of the presidents of the local authorities -, the reduced militancy and the financial weakness of the organizational machine, the weakening of the relationship with the intermediate bodies of society (such as, for example, the trade unions), corresponds to a profound change in the selection processes of the political personnel, who accede to periph-

eral, and often national, responsibilities by cooptation from the top, without any apprenticeship in the field; this was characteristic of the *cursus honorum* of the previous phases.

The Italian political system favours a ‘caste’ reproduction of the political class (especially in the South) and the training of newly elected officials sometimes takes place within families, thanks to the presence of peripheral authorities committed to guaranteeing, together with their children, continuity in the political control of the territory.

The growing weakness of parties and the deep crisis of their formative role coincide with the gradual proliferation of foundations set up by political leaders, which reconstitute the old system of currents in a new form. These foundations are often supported by non-transparent funding and by peripheral banks that are intertwined with the dominant parties in the territory.

The debates and cultural initiatives are aimed more at propaganda and the search for new activists than at the serious preparation of a competent and task-oriented political class at the different levels of the institutional system. In 2015, however, on the initiative of former Prime Minister Enrico Letta, the new School of Politics - note, not policy - was created; this School is open to a very small number of young people of different orientations.

In this empty space, there are interesting experiences, such as the “diocesan” courses of political training, organised by the Catholic Church in Genoa and open to candidates of the various parties in local elections.

The strong rejuvenation of the Italian political class, since 2013 (also in relation to the emergence of the 5-Star Movement), highlights a younger staff, highly motivated but lacking adequate training and experience on the ground.

The percentage of lawyers (who have long been over-represented in Italian political life) has fallen considerably and the new staff is less versatile than the previous one, in relation to the institutional, economic and social scenarios, which have radically changed and are now marked at the same time by the transfer of functions downwards and towards the transnational level, in a context of gradual “glocalisation”.

To a certain extent, the weakness of local elected representatives is compensated for through training activities provided by the Association of Italian Municipalities (ANCI), by the Association of Provinces (UPI) and by associations in which universities also participate; these subjects organise, through their peripheral branches, events aimed at deepening the most important changes, not only in terms of legislation, but also in terms of local governance and territorial problems.

The vast majority of such initiatives involve public officials (sometimes with close party ties), but in some cases there are also more serious members of the political periphery who are aware of the need to enrich and focus their preparation.

In some cases, the composite nature of the training programme and the audience becomes a factor of contamination between spheres that should remain better separated, rather than a positive added value.

Mention should also be made of the activity occasionally organised by the various regions, sometimes in collaboration with universities and private subjects. In this case, the participation of elected representatives appears to be much less significant.

In recent years, these initiatives seem to have diminished in number and importance, not because of a lack of motivation on the part of the territorial authorities, but rather as a result of the reduction in available resources, which is - as we have already mentioned - the peripheral effect of the processes of consolidation of the national budgets, in a phase of weakness in Italian public finances.

Finally, what is still missing is a general commitment to develop training synergies with other European local authorities of the same level, to better understand common problems, to verify the effects of solutions tried out elsewhere, to promote the circulation of new ideas and best administrative practices. Although there are many obstacles, the extensive and important research into which this study is based can make a significant contribution to raising awareness of a new and largely unexplored path ahead.

II – The 16 reflexive/in-depth studies | C. Examples of unitary state career systems

TRAINING FOR LOCAL PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES IN FRANCE

By Stéphane Guérard
and Pierre Camus



Local public officials and local elected representatives are two categories of actors in local public action who do not have the same history or the same missions.

Indeed, local elected representatives represent the people and set a political course ; they benefit from political legitimacy, allowing them to be the first decision-makers in terms of public action ; but they do not have the certainty of ‘professional’ permanence, since they can be removed from their functions by losing elections. Whereas local public officials technically steer the public policies decided by the elected representatives and are, at present, for the majority of them, recruited by “competition”, and thus benefit from a relatively protective legal status.

However, since the consecration, development and deepening of decentralisation, they have been faced with common challenges: the increase in and complexity of local competences, the emergence and institutionalisation of inter-municipality and the impact of European Union law, in a context of increasing financial constraints.

In such a configuration, training is an issue at multiple levels. Indeed, these two categories of actors are confronted with situations (economic, European, institutional), which necessitate thinking about the need for training to enable the adjustment of the professionalisation of these two audiences to the increasing complexity of local affairs.

Although they are subject to the same local issues, but because of their different positioning and role, a “single training course” for these two audiences does not exist, is not possible and is not desirable.

Instead, each has a separate right to training.

Thus, for the local or territorial civil service, the professional training process takes place at the beginning of the career (after passing an administrative competition for future permanent local civil servants or the signing of a contract for non-permanent civil servants), so training is “initial” ; but this training process also continues throughout the career, so training is also “continuous”, for all these civil servants, regardless of their “legal regime” (statutory/permanent or not).

For local elected representatives, distinguishing initial training from continuing education does not really make sense, insofar as, in the framework of French representative democracy, the sole quality of citizen entitles one to legitimately run for electoral office and not any level of initial training. Also, and unlike the majority of local public officials, they are not, in principle, expected to ‘make a career’. Even if they devote their lives to elected office, local and/or national, it is not certain that their political career takes place exclusively within the same public structure.

However, even if it is differentiated, the fact remains that “professional training”, or more precisely “training” for local public servants such as local elected representatives, is nowadays unanimously considered as essential, even indispensable in France.

There is therefore a certain difference between the “career” of local public servants (I) and the “political and professional life” of local elected repre-

1. Circular of 23 February 1989 on the renewal of the public service, NOR: PRMX8910096C

2. Failing that, a standard statute, set by the decree of 10 March 1920, applied. It was replaced by a decree of 12 January 1938, taken in application of the law of 12 March 1930.

sentatives (II), which justifies dealing with the issue of their training separately and successively.

I - Initial and ongoing training for local public officials (Stéphane Guérard)

“The initial and ongoing training of employees must fully play its role as a privileged instrument for the professional development of employees and for the adaptation of their qualifications to the evolution of missions and professions”¹.

Moreover, paragraphs 1 and 2 of Article 22 of Law N°83-634 of 13 July 1983 on the rights and obligations of civil servants state that *“The right to lifelong professional training is recognised for civil servants.*

It promotes their professional and personal development, facilitates their career development, mobility and promotion as well as access to the various existing levels of professional qualification. It shall enable them to adapt to foreseeable developments in the professions. It shall contribute to equal access to the various grades and jobs, in particular between women and men, and to the advancement of the least qualified.

The training policy for local public employees is long-standing ; often carried out internally, within local authorities, more specifically the communes, it was ‘nationalised’ with the creation of the Centre de formation des personnels communaux (CFPC).

The first law adopting specific measures for municipal public employees was passed on 23 October 1919 ; it obliged municipalities with more than 5,000 inhabitants to draw up a statute for their staff². This obligation was generalised for all French communes employing permanent staff with the vote of the law of 12 March 1930.

As a result, the first real training school for municipal staff, called the École nationale d’administration municipale (ENAM), was created in Paris in 1922 : it developed by creating a centre in Lille (1923) and another in Strasbourg (1931). From the outset, ENAM positioned itself as a school for preparing for municipal functions ; it thus initiated the **initial training** of the local civil service at the time.

But it was never a school for further training, aimed at promoting the continuous training of municipal civil servants. From 1923 to 1939, ENAM trained 2,000 students, knowing that 90% of the employees of French communes graduated from it.

This school was initiated by Henri Sellier (1883-1943) who declared, at the 5th Congress of the International Union of Local Authorities, held in London from 25 to 28 May 1932, that *“No one should be able to accede to the higher (municipal) functions if he has not followed a special education, if he does not have a certain amount of administrative practice acquired in the lower echelons, and if he does not possess the qualities that are necessary for those who are called upon to direct a service”.*

Before the Second World War, the ENAM Students’ and Alumni Association and its teachers wanted to promote a continuing education scheme, but this was not to be achieved because of the Second World War.

It was not until the first real (national) statute for municipal civil servants, embodied in Act No. 52-432 of 28 April 1952, which became Book IV of the Municipalities Code, that thought was given to the training of municipal civil servants. After the Second World War, municipal employees were recruited either directly by the mayor (his or her close collaborators), subject to the requirement of a diploma, or by³ competitive examination.

In 1962, under the influence of the Ministry of the Interior and with the support of the Association of French Mayors, the National Association of Municipal Studies (ANEM) was created to better train municipal civil servants by preparing them for competitive examinations and offering them training in partnership with universities. This was all the more useful as the number of municipal civil servants had risen from 108,115 in 1937 to 358,340 in 1962. However, here again, ANEM was mainly interested in the initial training of these agents. By providing assistance, even at a distance, in preparing for administrative competitions, it incidentally contributed to the development of the beginnings of a continuing education policy in the local civil service.

On the eve of the 1972 reform, this civil service even numbered up to 460,775 people. Thus, Law No. 72-658 of 13 July 1972 created the Centre de formation des personnels communaux (CFPC), at a time when continuing education was valued as a symbol of social promotion⁴. This centre, a unique public establishment, prepared municipal employees for competitive examinations in order to improve their skills and enable them to access higher positions. The CFPC also set up a deconcentration in the form of regional or inter-departmental delegations; this was definitively achieved in 1978. In order to prepare staff for the competitive examinations, the CFPC signed a large number of agreements with universities, creating CURETs (Regional University Centres for Territorial Studies). They disappeared with the creation of the National Centre for Territorial Public Service (CNFPT).

However, in the wake of Act I of decentralisation, Law No. 84-53 of 26 January 1984 on statutory provisions relating to the territorial civil service, supplemented by Law No. 84-594 of 12 July 1984 specifically on professional training, dissolved the CFPC to create, on the one hand, the regional centres of the FPT (one per region) and, on the other hand, the National Centre of the FPT (CNFPT).

The law of 12 July 1984 was, among other things, amended by Law No. 2007-209 of 19 February 2007 on the local civil service. The latter law established the “right to lifelong professional training” (FLTV) for local civil servants, both permanent and contractual. The FLTV is the right of every individual, throughout his or her life, to acquire knowledge, qualifications and skills and to have the value of his or her experience recognised, from a personal, civic, social, professional or employment-related perspective.

Law 2019-828 of 6 August 2019 on the Transformation of the Civil Service has minimally modified an already well-developed and comprehensive right to professional training in the Civil Service (Art. 58 to 62, in particular).

From now on, local civil servants can benefit, at the beginning of their career, from initial training [“training for integration and professionalisation” (FIP)] or even from apprenticeship; as well as in the course of their career, they are offered “continuous training”, enriched by numerous training tools ranging from the training plan to the individual right to training (DIF), without

3. Municipalities with at least 40 employees organised their own competitions, while those below this threshold had to join a union of municipalities to do so; statutory management could therefore be the subject of inter-municipal cooperation.

4. This centre was created in the form of a national EPA, managed on a parity basis (elected municipal officials and staff union representatives) and associated, within the board of directors, representatives of the State (Ministries of National Education and the Interior) as well as qualified personalities.

forgetting the professional training leave (CFP), the personal training account (CPF), the training booklet (LF), the competence assessment (BC), or the validation of acquired experience (VAE).

Consequently, the study of “lifelong (professional) training” in the local and regional civil service in France involves giving a brief overview of the latter in figures **(A)**, followed by a traditional study of initial **(B)** and continuing **(C)** training provisions, before giving a constructive and critical reading of them **(D)**.

A) The state of the local civil service in France

In France, there were 1.915 million local public employees - or 1.737 “full-time equivalent” (FTE) or “full-time employees” - on 1 January 2019, out of a total of 5.56 million people working in the three French public services [in addition to the territorial public service or “FPT”, including local civil servants, there is the State civil service or “FPE” (2.47 million people) and the hospital civil service or “FPH” (1.178 million people)], representing almost 22% of the total French working population as at 31 December 2020⁵.

The FPT comprises 9.7% of senior managers, grouped in the ‘A category’, 14.7% of middle managers making up the ‘B category’ and 75.6% of operational staff included in the ‘C category’; in the years to come, management will increase and operational staff will decrease as the management of a large number of basic local public services is outsourced by means of concession contracts. This should automatically lead to an increase in the cost of the FPT, even though the State is reducing its budgetary allocations.

The majority of the 1.915 million local civil servants work for the French communes, i.e. 52.6% of them, 14.6% for the départements, 4.9% (only) for the regions; 27.9% of the FPT work for local public establishments, most of them ‘communal

The vast majority of civil servants are permanent employees (77%); the majority of civil servants are women, even in category A posts (51.2%), whereas there are far fewer female managers in the FPE (49.1%).

The average net salary in the FPT is €2,259 compared to €2,370 in the FPE and €2,117 in the FPH; by way of comparison, in France, the average net salary in the private sector is €2,369.

To conclude the presentation of the FPT, it is important to underline that local civil servants are subject to a legal regime, composed of numerous laws and regulations, the most important of which are Law No. 83-634 of 13 July 1983 (laying down the general principles governing civil services), Law No. 84-53 of 26 January 1984 on the status of the territorial civil service, as well as Decree No. 88-145 of 15 February 1988 on the status of non-permanent staff (mainly “contractual staff”) of the territorial civil service.

There is therefore a serious lack of a real “Civil Service Code” in French law.

B) The 'initial training' of French local public officials

Training is a key to entry into the civil service via the sandwich course for low- or higher-skilled jobs; initial training then accompanies entry into the civil service, and is even consubstantial with it **(1 and 2)**.

More traditionally, the winners of administrative competitions in categories A, B or C are required, by virtue of Article 1 of Law No. 84-594 of 12 July 1984, to undergo induction training **(3)** when they take up their duties, which is followed, in the context of their first job, by an initial professional training course known as "first job" **(4)**.

1) Learning

Introduced in 1992 and made permanent in 1997 (Act No. 97-940 of 16 October 1997) in the civil service, apprenticeship and the related contract are now governed by Articles L 6221-1 to L 6227-12 of the Labour Code. Apprenticeship is therefore part of a training programme leading to a diploma, which may even enable the apprentice to acquire higher qualifications such as a master's degree or an engineering degree.

The apprenticeship contract is a private law contract, usually for two years, which can be concluded between a local authority and/or a local or territorial public institution and an apprentice.

The apprentice, who is at least 16 years old and in principle (except in the case of a disability, for example) no more than 25 years old, is then half-time in employment and half-time in training for a qualification. Successful completion of the diploma is a contractual obligation.

In addition, all training costs are covered by the employing public authority. The apprentice also benefits from paid leave, sick leave and examination leave. It should be noted that the CNFPT covers 50% of the apprentice's training costs (L. n° 84-53, 26 Jan. 1984, art. 12-1-I-5°, created by article 62 of law n° 2019-826 of 6 August 2019).

The public employer appoints an apprenticeship master from among its members and pays the apprentice, just as the State covers his social security contributions. A pedagogical tutor also follows the apprentice and acts as a relay between the public employer and the organisation of the diploma course.

2) Training to 'help' people in difficulty

Article 38 bis of Law No. 84-53 of 26 January 1984 provides that young people aged 28 or under who have left the education system without a diploma or recognised professional qualification, and those whose level of qualification is lower than that attested by a diploma from the end of the second long cycle of general, technological or professional education, may, following a selection procedure, be recruited into category C jobs by local or territorial authorities and public establishments. This possibility may also be open to long-term unemployed persons aged 45 and receiving minimum social benefits.

They are recruited under public law contracts, the purpose of which is to enable them to acquire, through training that alternates with their professional activity, a qualification related to the job in which they have been recruited or, where applicable, the title or diploma required for access to the job category to which this job belongs. They are of course paid, but the completion of this training is a condition for their appointment to the local civil service job corresponding to the post they occupy.

Their contract can last, in principle, from 12 to a maximum of 24 months and they are paid to work for their public employer and to follow the training in an approved training organisation. They therefore carry out their contract on a sandwich basis.

This contract is reminiscent of the apprenticeship formula, with the two exceptions that, on the one hand, it is reserved for people who have failed at school and/or are excluded, and that, on the other hand, this formula can lead to the beneficiary's tenure.

3) Integration training for competition winners

It is governed by a 1° of article 1 of law No. 84-594 of 12 July 1984, supplemented by articles 1 to 10 and 17 to 19 of decree No. 2008-512 of 29 May 2008 on the compulsory statutory training of territorial civil servants. It aims to promote the integration of the trainee civil servant, to adapt and to acquire know-how.

The National Centre for Territorial Public Service (CNFPT: www.cnfpt.fr) is responsible for organising and providing this "first" initial training, as well as, in principle, all training for territorial civil servants (Law No. 84-53, 26 January 1984, Art. 12-1-I).

In this respect, and in order to set up and manage a whole programme of initial and ongoing training made available to local authorities and their public establishments, in application of 1° of article 12-2 of the above-mentioned law of 26 January 1984, the CNFPT receives "*a compulsory contribution paid by the communes, departments, regions, their public establishments and departmental houses for the disabled, having at least, on the first of January of the year of collection, one full-time job (FTE) included in their budget*". It is currently 0.9% of the gross wage bill of each public employer with at least one FTE, whereas the training budget of the State civil service or the hospital civil service is around 2 to 3% of that of the public employers concerned!

This explains why the CNFPT provides 65% of the average annual training for local public employees, especially as almost 20% of the rest of the training market for these employees takes place internally and therefore within the local authorities, to which the trained employees belong. This leaves a small portion (15% of the market) for other public or private training organisations.

This training aims to provide the "new civil servant" with knowledge of the territorial environment, especially the organisation and functioning of local authorities, but also of civil service law.

Since 1 January 2016, it has been provided over 10 days for category A and B trainee civil servants and over 5 days for category C trainees (see Decree No. 2015-1385 of 29 October 2015 on the duration of integration training in certain job categories of the territorial civil service). It takes place during the working time of the agents and in the year of their appointment. As a result, they are paid when they attend the training, especially as it meets a legal obligation for both the local civil servant concerned and their public employer.

The CNFPT sends a certificate of attendance to all public employers, especially since the validation of this induction training is a condition for the tenure of the trainee civil servant. This certificate is placed in the individual file of each local civil servant who has completed the integration training.

Some local public officials are logically exempted from this, such as those appointed through internal promotion and those - less logically - recruited without competition, for example.

4) Professionalization training for the first job

It is governed by article 1(a) of law 84-594 of 12 July 1984, supplemented by articles 1 to 5 and 11 to 19 of decree 2008-512 of 29 May 2008 on the compulsory statutory training of local civil servants. The modalities of this training, which may follow the integration training, vary according to each particular status of the job category to which the local civil servant is attached.

As a result, this training, which is always provided, in principle, by the CNFPT, is adapted, in terms of content and duration, to the duties performed by the territorial civil servant concerned, in order to make him or her even more operational in the exercise of his or her duties (Dec. 29 May 2008, Art. 3 and 11, in particular).

As a general rule, it takes place within two years of the official's appointment and lasts a minimum of 5 days for category A and B staff and 3 days for category C staff. However, by mutual agreement between the official and his or her employer, this training can be extended to 10 days.

The staff member is normally paid by his or her public employer during the first-job training course, and the employer also bears all the related costs.

The CNFPT sends a certificate of attendance to all public employers; this certificate is placed in the individual file of each local public employee who has attended the integration training.

C) The "continuous training" of French local public officials

The types and numbers of continuing training courses are greater than those of initial training. Thus, there are several other training courses, both compulsory **(1)** and optional **(2)**, for professionalization. In principle, these training activities must comply with the training plan **(3)**, sometimes be implemented through the Personal Training Account (PTA) - formerly known as the DIF (Individual Right to Training) - **(4)** and be included in the training booklet **(5)**. Similarly, continuing education may give rise to the organisation of skills assessment **(6)**, validation of acquired experience **(7)** and the introduction of specific training leave for trade union or health and safety purposes **(8)** for local public servants.

1) Other compulsory professional training courses

They are governed by b of 1° of article 1 of law no. 84-594 of 12 July 1984, supplemented by articles 1 to 5 and 11 to 19 of decree no. 2008-512 of 29 May 2008 on the compulsory statutory training of territorial civil servants.

They include "career-long professionalization training" and "professionalization training for assignment to a position of responsibility".

The first period lasts from 2 to 10 days per five-year period, with the first period starting at the end of the two years following the appointment; it can

therefore only take place after the completion of the integration and professionalisation training for the first job (see above on initial training, B-3 and B-4). The second training lasts from 3 to 10 days and must take place within six months of appointment to the post of responsibility.

These two types of professionalisation training follow the same legal regime as that of professionalisation in the first job (see above B-4).

2) Optional professionalisation training

They are governed by 2° (*advanced training, enabling public servants to acquire new skills*), 3° (*training to prepare for competitions and professional examinations*), 4° (*personal training at the initiative of the public servant*), 5° (*actions to combat illiteracy and learn the French language*) and 6° (*training to implement a professional development project*) of Article 1 of Law No. 84-594 of 12 July 1984, as well as by Decree No. 2007-1845 of 26 December 2007 on lifelong professional training for local civil servants. This training therefore makes the territorial civil servant an entrepreneur/actor of his or her own training.

In addition, training for further training, preparation for competitions and professional examinations in the civil service, as well as personal training followed at the initiative of the public servant, may also benefit contractual public servants pursuant to Articles 41 and 42 of the aforementioned decree of 26 December 2007.

The public employer may refuse to allow territorial civil servants to take such training courses, but must give reasons for its refusal. Moreover, under Article 2 of Law No. 84-594 of 12 July 1984, the competent territorial administrative authority may not refuse the public employee more than twice in succession without consulting the joint administrative commission (a representative body composed equally of representatives of the public employer and of the public employees; it is consulted on individual matters concerning the said employees).

If the public employer agrees to the employee's request, the employee may take the training on his or her own time and will continue to be paid, as provided for in Article 3 of the aforementioned Decree of 26 December 2007.

Similarly, this employer, by acceding to the request of the agent, whether a permanent or contractual employee, may also grant him or her professional training leave, under certain conditions, with the maintenance of 85% of the salary pursuant to articles 12 and 44 of the aforementioned decree of 26 December 2007.

A public employee on parental leave may ask his or her employer to take such optional training courses. In principle, the public employer always bears the costs - including transport costs - of the optional training that it has accepted, except in the case of personal training or preparation for competitions and examinations.

The fact remains that attendance at such training courses requires the issue of certificates of attendance which are placed in the personal file of the local civil servant concerned.

3) The Training Plan

Pursuant to Articles 7 and 8 of Law No. 84-594 of 12 July 1984 on the training of local civil servants, local authorities and their public establishments must draw up annual or multi-annual (usually three-year) training plans in the light of the collective or individual needs of their employees, as these may emerge, for example, from individual and annual assessment interviews.

This plan is presented to, and subsequently adopted by, the deliberative body and transmitted to the CNFPT. The latter, thanks to all those communicated to it, can usefully organise its continuing education activities to best meet the needs of local authorities and their public establishments.

Unfortunately, the Conseil supérieur de la fonction publique territoriale (CSFPT), following the CNFPT, can only regret that local public employers do not systematically draw up one and/or, when they do, do not always communicate it to the CNFPT.

It is also true that not all local authorities have a training department and, when they do have a "human resources" department, it is not always large enough to manage the "training mission" effectively.

4) The Personal Training Account

Pursuant to Articles 22 ter and quater of Law No. 83-634 of 13 July 1983, created by Order No. 2017-53 of 19 January 2017, and Article 2-1 of Law No. 84-594 of 12 July 1984 on the training of local civil servants, the individual right to training was replaced in 2017 by the "personal training account".

This legal mechanism is completed, for all public services, by Decree No. 2017-928 of 6 May 2017 on the implementation of the personal activity account in the public service and lifelong professional training, as amended by Decree No. 2019-1392 of 17 December 2019.

From now on, public servants can benefit from 24 hours of training per year up to 120 hours and then 12 hours per year up to a maximum (unused) of 150 hours, which can be used for "long training", provided that the public employer grants the request for training in view of the requirements of the service.

5) The Training Booklet (LF)

The training booklet is addressed to all territorial civil servants, as soon as they are appointed to their first permanent post. It is also given to them by their first territorial employer.

It is governed by Decree No. 2008-830 of 22 August 2008.

Under the terms of Article 1 of this decree, the training booklet is defined as a document that the civil servant must complete throughout his or her career, which is his or her property, and which lists all the diplomas and qualifications obtained during initial training, all the initial and continuing training courses that he or she has followed and validated, all the skills assessments and the validation of acquired experience, his or her mentoring activities, as well as the jobs that he or she has held and the professional skills and abilities that he or she has acquired during his or her "career path".

During their individual assessment interview or any request for training or professional development, territorial civil servants can take it with them and use it.

6) The Bilan de Competences (BC)

Under Articles 18 to 26 of Decree No. 2007-1845 of 26 December 2007 on lifelong vocational training for local civil servants, a local civil servant, as well as a contractual employee (pursuant to Article 46 of the same decree), may benefit from a skills assessment with a view to professional development, at most every five years.

The role of a skills assessment is to analyse the individual's skills, aptitudes and motivations. This can enable them to develop their career plan as part of this development.

The public employer pays for this assessment when it has agreed that the local public employee should do so, subject to the conclusion of a tripartite agreement between the employer, the employee and the body carrying out the assessment.

The employee may even be granted leave for skills assessment and retain the benefit of his or her remuneration during this leave, provided that he or she submits a certificate of actual attendance from the body responsible for the assessment.

The results of the skills assessment are only communicated to the public employer if the local public employee concerned authorises this communication. As a result, it does not necessarily allow for the development of a professional project in conjunction with the local authority and its "HR" department. This may finally explain the small number of annual beneficiaries of this scheme, i.e. between 2,200 and 2,300 agents each year. Moreover, this small number of beneficiaries is mainly made up of civil servants (between 86 and 87% per year).

7) Validation of acquired experience (VAE)

According to articles L 335-5 and 6 as well as L 613-3 and 4 of the Education Code, any person, regardless of age, nationality, status and level of training, who can prove at least one year's experience directly related to the intended certification, can apply for VAE. This certification, which may be a diploma, a title or a certificate of professional qualification, must be registered in the National Directory of Professional Certifications (RNCP).

The certification, such as CLÉA⁶, obtained through VAE, has the same value as that obtained through training.

VAE is above all a procedure for verifying, assessing and certifying the candidate's skills by a jury, which is monitored, for the territorial civil service, by the CNFPT, by virtue of 2° of I of Article 12-1 of Law No. 84-53 of 26 January 1984 on statutory provisions relating to the territorial civil service.

It therefore requires the production of a real description of the skills acquired in relation to the certificate, title or diploma applied for, generally in the form of a report detailing the candidate's professional life, which is usually presented to the jury.

In application of articles 27 and 47 of decree no. 2007-1845 of 26 December 2007 on lifelong professional training for local civil servants, a local civil ser-

vant, as well as a contractual employee, can benefit from the VAE system as well as from a leave of absence to carry out this continuous training action.

The cumbersome nature of the principle often discourages local civil servants, only 4,000 of whom apply each year, mainly civil servants (75% on average) in category C (80% on average), with a large majority of women, this time to the benefit of the parity principle.

8) Other training leave

Under Decree No. 85-552 of 22 May 1985, local civil servants may be granted leave for trade union training by their public employer. This leave is subject to specific conditions (Art. 2 and 3 of the decree) and requires the beneficiary to provide the territorial authority with a certificate of attendance at the end of the training course (Art. 4).

Health and safety training must, in principle, be organised for local civil servants as soon as they take up their duties, in the event of a change of function or following a serious occupational accident or illness, or even at the request of the preventive medicine service, in application of Articles 6 to 9 of Decree No. 85-603 of 10 June 1985 on occupational health and safety and professional and preventive medicine in the local civil service. This training may also be accompanied by specific leave (Art. 8-1).

C) A critical and prospective view of the training of French local public officials

There is inequality of access to training according to the size of the local authority - only the largest local authorities can more easily free up their public servants to take part in training - and according to the category of staff - the more time passes, the more category A staff (60% in 2013) take part in, and therefore benefit from, further training courses than category C staff (30% in 2013). This is especially true of women in the latter category (which accentuates the inequality of treatment observed, to the detriment of the principle of parity), and according to their status - in fact, contractual staff attend three times fewer advanced training courses than permanent staff, which makes one wonder about the government's desire to give priority to contracts (which, moreover, are of limited duration or even of short duration) over the status.

Beyond these inequalities of treatment in terms of consumption of training actions, there are other important constructive criticisms, and thus proposals for reform, to be made concerning the training plan, induction training, the training booklet and the VAE.

First of all, it is a great pity that some local authorities or public establishments, whether local or territorial, do not draw up a training plan, even though they pay a social contribution to the CNFPT in order to organise training for their public employees.

Admittedly, for some public servants, usually in category A or even A+, the CNFPT cannot always offer training that is sufficiently specialised and/or specific to train them for technical or even new and/or innovative tasks or missions; this explains, for example, why the training departments of the

French regions organise their own training activities (in the sense of those outside the CNFPT) for such agents in particular, either in conjunction with other public or private training bodies, or internally. However, this remains a residual practice in relation to the CNFPT.

However, if the above-mentioned public employers do not draw up a training plan, not only do they not optimise and enhance the value of individual and annual training interviews, but they also do not help the CNFPT to better and more effectively adapt its training offers to their needs.

The CNFPT should therefore help, in particular, local authorities without a training department and/or with an underdeveloped "HR" department to draw up their training plan.

This is all the more true because the preparation of a training plan is an ideal opportunity for the development of a real social dialogue between the public employer and the trade unions representing public employees; the issues at stake are more conducive to construction than to confrontation.

Moreover, it is also an ideal opportunity to use the negotiated training plan project to initiate a real debate within the deliberative body, even if it means using it as a pretext for the more ambitious determination of a real medium- or even long-term training strategy for local public employees.

Secondly, as regards induction training, it is a pity to see this training followed by professionalisation training for the first job in a short period of two years.

Especially since, for example, for students with a bachelor's and/or master's degree in (possibly local) public administration, public law (or even, more specifically, local government law), local public management, local public policy, local public economics and/or the sociology of (possibly local) public action, induction training seems of little use or even risks being boring and redundant with regard to their "initial curriculum", which is also a first initial training action.

Indeed, it is a pity that training courses are compulsory, and therefore not very adaptable, for newcomers to the local civil service, without taking into account their curriculum vitae. This results in a form of financial waste, especially as the winners of the A and B categories often include students who have graduated from the above-mentioned courses, particularly in the administrative sector, which accounts for almost 23% of the workforce in the local civil service and is made up of more than 83% of civil servants.

It would therefore be preferable not to oblige competition winners to follow training courses, even for a few days, which will be of no use to them, whereas it would be advisable to use these same days of training to promote their professionalisation in their first job, thus reinforcing the learning of their know-how with regard to their functions and thus making them more and more quickly operational.

One cannot ask a local civil servant to be an actor and driver of his or her professional training if, from the moment he or she joins the local civil service, he or she is confronted with a "rigid and compulsory" training system.

The right to initial training for public servants should only oblige them to take a certain number of possible or even desirable days of training, but with the possibility for them to set up their "own" professional training programme for their first job - which could, moreover, include induction training, which is too standardised or even stereotyped, regardless of the profile of the local public servant.

In conjunction with their "HR" department and/or their CNFPT correspondent - not forgetting online information - local civil servants could thus put together an initial training programme tailored both to their expectations and to their (real) professionalisation needs. Subsequently, this work of "constructing" his or her own initial training programme could be developed in the first three months of taking up the post as he or she discovers his or her job, his or her shortcomings and/or knowledge or know-how to be strengthened with regard to the missions and tasks associated with the post.

Admittedly, this proposal could be tested initially with regard to category A trainee officials, and perhaps never implemented for category C officials.

However, for the winners of category A and B competitions, the question deserves to be asked and examined in relation, in particular, to their diplomas and, incidentally, their basic training.

Furthermore, and concerning the training booklet, the question of its usefulness can be raised.

When it comes to training local public officials, it is not the tools that are lacking but their practice and even their functionality and/or usefulness.

The training booklet is supposed to provide a "snapshot of the entire career of the local civil servant", but it also appears to be a very complicated tool (because it has many headings), and above all, a very useless one (insofar as it can be redundant with regard to the individual file of the civil servant).

It would therefore be more appropriate to modernise and enrich the local civil servant's individual file, by systematically dematerialising it, so that he or she can access and/or consult it, and thus simply abolish the training booklet.

Ultimately, the validation of acquired experience (VAE) is a procedure considered long and complex by local public agents and sometimes costly for the public employer.

Here again, the CNFPT could provide support, and thus useful assistance, to local civil servants who undertake such a procedure, in order to successfully complete their application; real training to help them put together the application and draw up the documents that make up the application could be all the more useful as it is mainly category C employees, seeking recognition of their qualifications, possibly with a view to professional development towards category B, who make up 80% of the 4,000 applications for VAE each year, the majority of whom, at the risk of repeating ourselves, are women.

This also incidentally raises the question of the "poor knowledge", and therefore "communication", of the "HR" departments and even the CNFPT with

regard to local civil servants on the subject of training tools, such as the VAE, the skills assessment, or even the various training leaves.

This is despite the fact that dematerialisation could make it possible to put all this information on line and bring it directly to the attention of these same agents, by e-mail even, through a simplified guide with useful (and educational) links to the various training schemes.

Local public employers and trade unions, coordinated by the CNFPT, have an essential role to play in building this type of dematerialised repository of tools for the initial and continuing training of local public employees, as well as in reflecting on and implementing an efficient communication policy on this subject.

Let us now turn to the study of the training of local elected representatives in France.

II - The training of local elected representatives in France (Pierre Camus-Lutz)

Since the 1980s, the exercise of local mandates has become increasingly complex. The increase in responsibilities, the technical nature of the issues and the multiplication of levels of governance have all increased the conditions for elected representatives. To fight against this rigidification, training for elected representatives appears to be a solution. According to its promoters, it facilitates the exercise of local responsibilities by giving elected representatives the means to "bring themselves up to speed" with their responsibilities, while at the same time supporting them in their professional reintegration at the end of their mandate.

It is to meet this need that French local elected representatives currently have a double training right. The first, resulting from law n°92-108 of 3 February 1992, provides for 18 days per mandate, entirely financed by the local authorities. More recently, since the promulgation of law no. 2015-366 of 31 March 2015, they also benefit from 20 annual hours under an individual right to training (DIFE).

However, beyond the importance that is recognised and the organisation that it generates, training attracts little. Each year, only 1 to 3%⁷ of all French local elected representatives use their rights. This disaffection is so striking that, apart from the regions, all local authorities spend less than the minimum authorised by law, placing them in a de facto illegal situation.

This lack of interest is also found in the academic world, where research on the subject has remained in the background until now. Disciplines such as political sociology or political science approach this formal learning of local functions as a marginal practice (Cadiou 2009, Dulong 2010, Douillet and Lefebvre 2017), preferring to look at the socialisation of local elected representatives as an exercise that takes place either 'on the job' (Lagroye 1994), i.e. informally between elected officials and their political entourage (Dulong and Matonti 2007, Demazière and Le Lidec 2014) or by mobilising dispositions acquired in different social universes (family, activists, professionals, etc.) prior to the commitment (Dorandeu 1994, Neuveu 2003, Bargel 2014). The very few studies that mention the existence of such a right (Navarre 2015) do so only to emphasise its accessory and secondary nature. As a result,

the training of elected representatives is currently caught in a contradictory tension between, on the one hand, the arguments that legitimise it and give it a fundamental democratic dimension and, on the other, its actual use by unenthusiastic elected representatives.

To understand this situation, it is necessary to retrace the history of this right in order to understand the conditions under which it was institutionalised in the 1990s as a right regulated by the French state and to analyse its recent developments and the cohabitation of the 'historical' right with the DIFe.

A) Genesis and institutionalisation of the training of local elected representatives in France (1890-1990)

At the turn of the 20th century in France, the training of elected representatives was a practice developed by the political parties born of revolutionary socialism and reserved for the elected representatives who represented them (Tartakowsky 1980; Pudal 1989; Ethuin 2003; Bellanger 2017). In the diffuse 'socialist movement' of the 1880s (Le Flamanc 1995), it was the Guesdist tendency that first took hold of the formation through the Parti Ouvrier Français (POF) (Willard 1965). Since it did not recognise any personification of the mandate, the POF imposed on the elected representative from the working class world to fulfil his or her "class role" and to be only the functional relay of the decisions it adopted. Training is then a tool available to the party to act on the elected representative. It allows them to control their commitment to the local community, which is considered a "bourgeois and corrupting" institution, and to legitimise them in the face of the trials of incompetence that they undergo from the traditional elites (Offerlé 1984).

Taken over successively by the SFIO and then the PCF in the 1900s and 1920s, it was not until the early 1970s that the training went beyond its initial functions and allowed the offer to diversify. Two factors encouraged it at that time. Firstly, the promulgation of the 1971 law on continuing education for employees, but especially for civil servants in 1972, aroused criticism from associations representing elected representatives. They denounced the fact that elected representatives were being sidelined by an increasingly professional administration, which was suspected of taking decisions in place of legitimate representatives.

At the same time, a growing number of senior civil servants and politicians are converting to the idea of a hypertrophy of the state. They imagined decentralisation scenarios as a means of relieving the State to the benefit of territorial administrations (Rosanvallon 1981). Training becomes the corollary of an increase in local competences. Reports are commissioned⁸, draft laws emerge⁹, parliamentary commissions are opened¹⁰ to reflect on the prospects of institutionalising the practice. In this context, new actors are investing in the training of local elected representatives in anticipation of legal recognition, albeit with very different intentions. In all, four models of training for elected representatives are developing together.

The partisan model, supported by political parties, whose aim is to make managers responsible for carrying out partisan political action. The popular education model, used to defend a project of empowerment of local areas in the face of the state by addressing a plurality of actors such as association activists, trade unionists, civil servants, members of neighbourhood commit-

8. Like the Guichard Report "Vivre Ensemble" in 1977.

9. In particular, the Draft Law N°187, for the development of the responsibilities of local authorities, of 20 December 1978.

10. Like the Debarge I and II commissions of 1982 and 1990.

11. At that time, it was rarely the departmental associations of the AMF. They would only become involved in training later on.

12. Such as the Office Régional d'Information et de Coordination de formation permanente (ORICEP).

13. Universities such as Paris I Sorbonne, Grenoble II, Lyon III, Dijon, or Strasbourg III etc.

14. That is, on issues of allowances, leave entitlements, legal liability, pension and training.

15. Article 1 of law n°82-213 of 2 March 1982 states: "Laws will determine [...] the statutory guarantees granted to the staff of local authorities, the method of election and the status of elected representatives [...]".

16. It should be noted that the universities also tried to structure themselves into a national federation by creating, in March 1982, the Centre Interuniversitaire de formation des élus locaux (CIFDEL). Nevertheless, the traces are quickly lost and suggest a rapid disappearance.

17. Motion concerning the legislative projects concerning the training of local elected representatives. National Federation for the Training of Local Elected Officials. 1990. Archives of the CNFEL.

18. The letters sent by the members of the federation to members of parliament or ministers testify to this desire to assert their own conception of training.

19. Parliamentarians who are often locally elected and familiar with the associations of elected representatives and their demands.

tees and elected officials. The generalist model defended by the departmental associations of elected representatives¹¹ to defend the interests of the group and offer mutual aid services (information, networking, experience sharing and training). The professional model developed by professional training organisations¹² and university continuing education departments¹³ whose aim is to increase the number of potential trainees.

Thus, at the beginning of the 1980s, the training of elected representatives was an informal and scattered practice. However, following the promulgation of the 1981-1982 decentralisation laws, the situation changed. The right to training that was supposed to accompany the increase in local responsibilities did not materialise. Caught up in the debates on the "status of elected representatives"¹⁴, the issue was postponed until a future law was adopted¹⁵. This delay encourages some training organisations to join forces and actively campaign for the formalisation of the right.

This was the case as early as 1981 with departmental associations of elected representatives and professional training centres. In anticipation of the legislative delay, some thirty organisations came together to found the Association pour l'Information et la Formation des Elus Locaux (AIFEL) which became the Fédération Nationale pour la Formation des Elus Locaux (FNFEL) in 1990. This federation sealed the alliance between generalist and professional training models. By excluding popular education associations, political parties or universities¹⁶, the AIFEL-FNFEL promotes a certain right to training for local elected representatives; a right reserved for elected representatives alone, regardless of their political orientation, organised by organisations represented by elected representatives or continuing education professionals, offered on an optional basis at local level, etc¹⁷. Above all, beyond the agreement on the definition and the objectives, the federation is updating the rhetoric of "democratic urgency" to put the issue on the political agenda. By acting as a lobby group¹⁸ with the "legislator"¹⁹, the Federation succeeded in orienting the spirit of law n°92-108 of 3 February 1992, which takes up some of its demands; the right to training is closed to elected representatives and excludes other groups (civil servants, professionals, members of associations, etc.) and its use must facilitate the exercise of local responsibilities in order to democratise access.

In fact, the legislative recognition of the right reflects the successful debate on a certain vision of the training of elected representatives. Training is seen as a tool to combat the increasing complexity of mandates, to reify the divide between politics and administration and to reaffirm the role of elected representatives in the production of public policies. But above all, the institutionalisation of the law now imposes a regulation of the practice of training of elected representatives by the French state, which theoretically controls both the scope and the definition.

B) A right to training regulated by the state

The promulgation of law n°98-102 of 3 February 1992 transformed the framework for the training of local elected representatives. An experimental and self-regulated practice for almost a century, it became an object of public policy. More precisely, two policies at the confluence of each other. The first, of an incentive nature, structures the practical arrangements for access to and exercise of the right for elected representatives (public funding, right of

absence etc.). The second, of a regulatory nature (Hassenteufel 2011), organises the screening of organisations wishing to train them.

This difference in treatment, between satisfying demand and monitoring supply, is based on a double presupposition that was indissociable from the spirit in which the 'legislator' constructed the law at the beginning of the 1990s; elected representatives expressed an increasingly strong need for training and the public funding of this need attracted a significant number of organisations interested in the prospects of profit²⁰. In this logic, legislative measures are designed to reduce the constraints (temporal, financial, psychological, etc.) limiting the ability of elected representatives to take training while controlling the quality of the training offered.

For the first part, several measures were adopted (Scanvic 1994). From a financial point of view, training becomes a free right that can be mobilised up to 20% of the total functional allowances of elected representatives distributed by the authorities. Within this framework, all elected representatives can benefit from the reimbursement of costs incurred both by the training course itself and by the travel and accommodation expenses incurred by the exercise of the right. From a temporal point of view, the system of authorisation for professional absences is extended to allow elected representatives to claim 6 and then 18 days of availability per mandate.

For the second part, fearing the likely excesses of a market left to the free play of competition, the "legislator" takes up the idea of instituting a system of approval as a regulatory instrument entrusted to the ministerial authority in charge of territorial authorities. Nevertheless, the prospect of free state intervention in a matter affecting the principles of free territorial administration is opposed. While the state is the only one that can ensure the effective implementation and distribution of approvals, it should not unilaterally assume the function of decision-making arbitration. To ensure a relative separation between local and national interests, as well as to guarantee the quality of offers and their adjustment to the needs of elected representatives, an advisory body is created.

The regulatory side of the training market for elected representatives is thus constructed as a 'concerted State prerogative'. A prerogative insofar as the market, which is based on public funds, is restricted to organisations that have been granted approval by the Minister of the Interior. It is concerted because ministerial decisions are based on the opinions of a consultative body, the National Council for the Training of Local Elected Representatives (CNFEL), the majority of whose members are local elected representatives from the main representative associations²¹, as well as qualified personalities (academics, representatives of the Council of State etc.).

At the centre of this governance, the CNFEL has a double mission. Firstly, to give a "general orientation to the training of local elected representatives", in other words to participate in defining and objectifying all the training needs of local elected representatives and the most appropriate educational forms for this particular public. Secondly, to define a policy for regulating the market, i.e. to set out all the expectations and prerequisites for uniformly examining the applications submitted by organisations in order to give the minister's decisions a 'legitimacy of impartiality, reflexivity and proximity' (Rosanvallon 2008).

20. Thyraud Report No. 238, Senate, p. 66.

21. Such as the Association des Maires de France (AMF), the Assemblée des Départements de France (ADF) or the Association des Régions de France (ARF) etc.

22. We will have to wait until 2019-2020 with the will of the government of E. Philippe's government to see the training of elected representatives back on the political agenda.

However, although it has become a legally regulated public policy, the training of elected representatives has not stabilised. Between 1994 and 2016, although the existence of a need for training for elected representatives is no longer a matter of debate²², the regulation of supply remains extremely labile, leaving the boundaries of the market in flux.

In fact, the CNFEL is unable to establish a stable regulation insofar as, even when institutionalised, the training of elected representatives is not based on a clear and unanimous definition. At a time when the notions of "political profession" or "professional elected representatives" remain illegitimate, the recognition of training that allows elected representatives to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to exercise their mandate inevitably contributes to bringing the exercise of local mandates closer to any other professional commitment and to placing it at odds between the needs it is trying to meet and the consequences that its existence implies. In other words, training gives credence in spite of itself to the idea it is trying to combat; that local functions are no longer accessible to just anyone without prior preparation or continuous training.

In so doing, the CNFEL, charged with organising the regulation of an ill-characterised object, is faced with the impossibility of setting stable and permanent control criteria, leaving the exercise of regulation variable over time according to the state of relations between the different actors or according to the definitions legitimately recognised and used at a given time. This instability can be understood by three phenomena which, when combined, contribute to the variation of the logic of regulation.

The first is the way in which the approval procedure is set up between the different actors in charge of this production. The law n°92-108 of 3 February 1992, while formalising the framework for the exercise of the law and its regulation, leaves the concrete organisation of its implementation largely undetermined. In fact, the production of accreditation became an issue between members of the CNFEL and the ministerial administration. Particularly visible during the first few years of its existence, the various competitions quickly turned to the advantage of the CNFEL, which truly became the central regulatory body for the market. However, lacking the necessary tools to effectively socialise its members, the CNFEL was confronted with a problem of structural absenteeism, which contributed to the fact that the market regulation exercise was based on a very limited number of members. Moreover, unable to draw a line between itself and the market it regulates, the CNFEL invests personalities who are regularly members of the same training organisations whose entry they are supposed to regulate. As regulators and actors in the training of local elected representatives, this accumulation of positions places the CNFEL in a certain proximity to the actors of the market, which it sometimes uses to orient its regulation policy.

The second is the change in market regulation models. Starting out with the spirit of protecting the market and local elected representatives, the members of the CNFEL adopted a rigorous stance at the end of the 1990s, refusing the majority of the dossiers examined. However, at the beginning of the 2000s, this logic lost its substance in favour of a new one, imported by new members who promoted the idea of greater tolerance towards a self-regulating market. From being a market protector, the CNFEL became a facilitator of the meeting of training supply and demand between organisations and elected representatives. Then, from 2010 to 2016, this logic of openness was gradually

abandoned in favour of a new, more hybrid posture, reinvesting protection logics while maintaining methods of tolerance.

The third consists of the differentiated treatment that CNFEL members give to files according to their origin. Between the files of associations, companies or public institutions, the regulation that the members construct in the first years of the Council's existence proves to be very unequal. It was also only temporary. This difference in treatment between the files varies according to the periods, and does not allow the same training organisations to enter the market in the same proportions and for the same reasons.

However, the CNFEL has recently lost its monopoly in the control of training for elected representatives. With the arrival of the DIFe, a new training right has opened up to elected representatives. Although it was initially intended to complement the first, it is now becoming increasingly intertwined with the latter.

C) Complementarity or confusion? The two training rights of French local elected representatives.

In addition to the initial system, law 2015-366 of 31 March 2015 recognises a new training right for elected representatives: the individual right to training (DIFe). Initially, the DIFe is intended to complement the right resulting from the 1992 law. Its objective, as presented during the discussion of the law in Parliament a few years earlier, is not to train elected representatives within the framework of their mandate but to support them in their "professional reintegration" at the end of their mandate.

Insofar as 'reintegration' training is not considered to be linked to the elected representatives' responsibilities, the financing of the DIFe is organised in such a way that it does not rely on the budgets of the local authorities but on the beneficiaries themselves. By deducting 1% of the allowances of each elected representative, the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations (CDC) is designated as the "collecting body" to administer the right and redistribute the 18 million euros deducted annually to elected representatives requesting training. The latter acquire 20 hours of training per year²³, which can be accumulated over time and used subject to acceptance by the Caisse des Dépôts.

However, between the initial intentions and the actual promulgation of the DIFe, a major change occurred. Even if it retains a function of facilitating a 'return to work', the law of 31 March 2015 simultaneously allows the DIFe to finance training provided by professional training organisations listed by the Ministry of Labour as well as organisations approved by the CNFEL. Through the DIFe, elected representatives can both train to prepare for a professional reintegration and to facilitate the exercise of their mandate.

This amalgam between the two rights was further strengthened by the promulgation of Ordinance No. 2021-45 of 20 January 2021 reforming the training of local elected representatives. From now on, local authorities are authorised to participate directly in the financing of the DIFe, in parallel with the funds collected by the Caisse des dépôts et Consignations. Initially separate, the DIFe is gradually merging with the historical right, both in terms of the objectives of the training courses offered and the way they are used and financed by elected representatives. However, although they are similar, the nature of the training offered by the two schemes is divergent.

23. The ordinances n°2021-45 plan to change the hourly calculation by the end of 2021 to a calculation in euros. In this context, elected representatives would no longer have 20 hours of cumulative training per year but 700 € of non-cumulative training each year.

24. This data is based on the analysis of half of the files of the organisations accredited in 2017 by the CNFEL.

25. The data on "DIFe" is based on the report of the General Inspectorate of Social and Administrative Affairs: Acar Bruno, Giguët Xavier, Morin Gabriel, Schechter François, "la formation des élus locaux", IGAS-IGA, January 2020.

26. In 2018, 62% of them did not include any training expenditure in their budget.

27. IGAS-IGA report, January 2020.

28. Lagroye, Jacques "Être du métier", Op Cit.

29. Dulong Delphine, Matonti Frédérique, "Comment devenir un(e) professionnel(le) de la politique? L'apprentissage des rôles au conseil régional d'Ile-de-France", Op Cit.

On the one hand, the "historical law" is more favourable to associations (departmental associations of mayors, associations linked to political parties) which manage to capture the majority of elected representatives. Between 2010 and 2014, out of 100 hours of training financed by local authorities, 83 on average were provided by these associations. The training offered is in the form of group sessions, mainly dedicated to basic civic and institutional knowledge, current legislation or learning budgetary techniques²⁴.

On the other hand, the DIFe is proving to be more business-friendly. In 2018, out of 100 hours of training financed by the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations, an average of 63 were provided by companies. The latter are investing in this market around more individualised training and on themes related to communication techniques, electoral strategies or foreign language learning²⁵.

In other words, since the DIFe came into force in 2017, the training offer for French local elected representatives has been organised around two schemes, each subject to a different regulatory system. On the one hand, a market financed by local authorities for associations of elected representatives, controlled by the CNFEL, offers collective training courses in the framework of local mandates. On the other hand, a market financed by the allowances of elected representatives, rather entrepreneurial, administered by the Caisse des dépôts et Consignations, offering individual training that goes beyond the sole framework of elective commitment.

However, despite these developments, the interest of elected representatives in training has not changed fundamentally. Data from the CNFEL and the CDC show that the historical right is under-used and that the DIFe is under-sized. Of the 345 million euros per year theoretically available, local authorities only spent 15 in 2018, i.e. 4.5% of the funds. So much so that, apart from the regions, no local authority respects the minimum spending threshold. While they are required to spend at least 2% of their compensation envelope each year, the communes do not exceed 0.85%²⁶, the inter-municipalities 0.75%, and the départements 1.15%. Only the regions fall within the legal framework with 3.60% of expenditure.

As a result, only an average of 1 to 3% of all elected officials take training each year in this way. For the DIFe, if all of the eighteen million collected by Caisse des Dépôts are effectively spent, the number of elected representatives trained remains relatively low. From 2017 to 2020, only 22,000 elected officials were authorised to receive training under their DIFe²⁷.

This low level of investment lends credence to the idea that elected representatives do not need training and reinforces the predominance of research that sees learning the 'profession of elected representative' as taking place informally, either prior to taking up a post²⁸ or 'on the job'²⁹ once in office. However, beyond this general observation, it is not true to say that all local elected representatives do not receive training. In fact, even though it is true that elected officials do not train much, the reality is more nuanced. Indeed, regional and departmental elected representatives are regular seekers of informative and reflective training, unlike elected representatives from municipalities with fewer than 2,000 inhabitants, who are not used to training and only to respond to the concrete problems they encounter in the exercise of their mandate.

Therefore, contrary to global and homogenising views, it appears that French local elected representatives have a varied relationship with training. Further

studies would therefore be necessary to understand, at each institutional level, the factors that slow down or encourage elected officials to use training.

Therefore, contrary to global and homogenising views, it appears that French local elected representatives have a varied relationship with training. Further studies would therefore be necessary to understand, at each institutional level, the factors that slow down or encourage elected officials to use training.

Joint conclusion (Pierre Camus-Lutz and Stéphane Guérard)

It is very difficult to come to a common conclusion about the training policies of local public officials and local elected representatives, given their different histories and training tools, and given the specificity and distinction of these audiences.

As a result, and as training actions are moments of exchange, questioning, learning and even questioning or difficulties, it is not necessary and could even be "counter-productive" (in terms of optimising training) to mix local public agents, even administrative managers, with local elected representatives in the same action.

Indeed, to mix decision-makers and implementers, even at a higher level, would be to risk censoring the freedom and quality of interactive exchanges in a training action, beyond the content itself delivered by the facilitator.

In a word, to succeed in training, it is better that it is given to a sociologically homogeneous group, that "we stay among ourselves".

This is all the more true because, even if the demand for training between elected representatives and local public officials may be comparable in terms of communication or legal refresher courses, the way in which they are approached and/or the expectations of these two types of audience may often be different.

This could, this time, complicate the role and positioning of the facilitator.

Nevertheless, for these two essential categories of local public actors, training is an unavoidable, even essential, theme today, even if elected officials do not have a 'career', in the primary and professional sense of the term, as is supposed to be the case for local public agents.

Consequently, and with a view to continuously improving and promoting, or even enhancing, the quality of public action, the "training" of local public employees (all categories taken together) as well as of local elected representatives is an "obligation" as much as a "right", because my local public employees and elected representatives must, in all respects, be both "actors" and "drivers" of the training policy of the local public employer, which they represent (elected representatives) or on which they depend (employees).

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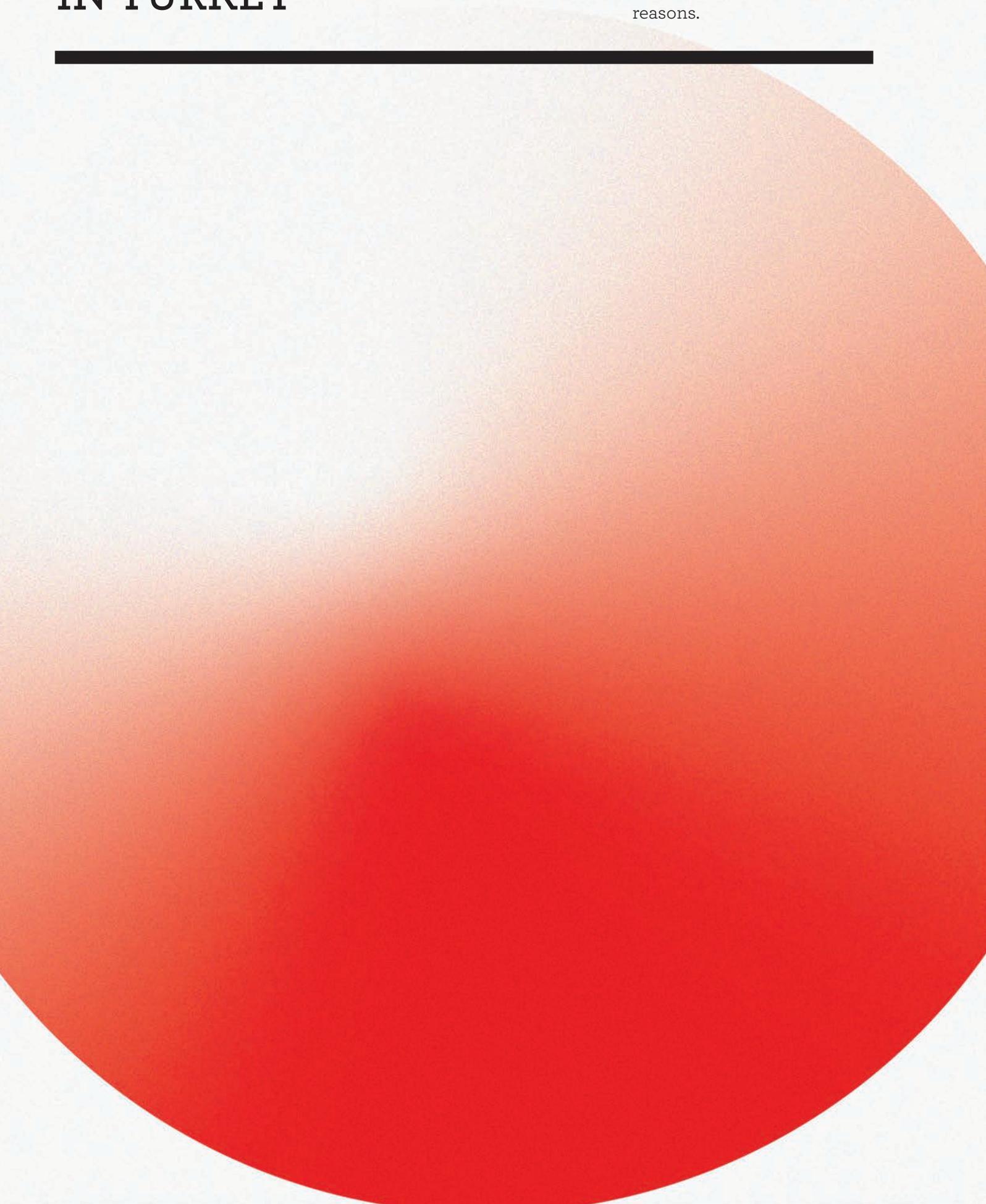
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PUBLIC AGENTS IN TURKEY

Anonymity has been requested by the author of this article for security reasons.



On the July 15th, 2016 Turkey witnessed a failed military coup against the government. From the very beginning, the general belief was that the coup attempt was the project of a religious community that had patiently placed its members and/or sympathizers in the strategic positions of the state apparatus, notably at units of justice, military and education without no doubt with the support and cooptation of the political party in power with whom the community had gone along well for long.

With the failure of the coup attempt and thanks to the declared state of emergency, the government has expelled more than a hundred thousand public servants with the pretext of having links with the terrorist organizations. Yet, the actual motivation was to get rid of all opponents from the public sector. Without any concrete accusation and proof or a process of judgment, life of millions has been severely affected.

In spite of such an immense purge from public sector, the state apparatus is still the largest employer in Turkey. In order to see the scope of this sector and how its members are formed, we shall first provide its general photo before explaining the ways and content of the formation of its employees.

The Legal Framework Public Servants

The first legislation on public agents during the republican period is the Constitution of 1924 that states the right of public recruitment for all Turkish citizens (art. 92) and that the rule of publishing specific laws for the rights and competencies of public servants (art. 93). The first law on public servants (n. 788) was approved in 1926.

The 117th article of the Constitution of 1961 states that qualities, appointment, responsibilities and competencies, rights and duties, salaries and payments as well as other personnel affairs are to be set by laws. The law n. 657 on Public Servants was enacted in 1965 in this new constitutional framework and is still in vigor, albeit amended in numerous times.

The fourth article of the law n. 657, defines four categories of public servants: civil servant, contract employee, temporary employee and workers.

Civil servants (*memur* in Turkish) are those who execute major and permanent public services offered by state or public legal entities. Contract employees are recruited for one financial year for posts that require specific knowledge and expertise whereas temporary employees are contracted for less than a year or for a season in the framework of tasks and salaries and in numbers that are all determined by the government. Neither contract nor temporary employees are considered as workers by the law as the latter is recruited for undetermined period or at least for six months for seasonal or specific tasks (campaigns, fire fighting etc.) The law bans all other ways of recruiting personnel (art. 5).

According to the official statistics, there are 3.561.539 public servants in Turkey by the end of 2016. As Figure 1 illustrates public servants represent the great majority of the public servants followed by permanent workers and contract employees.

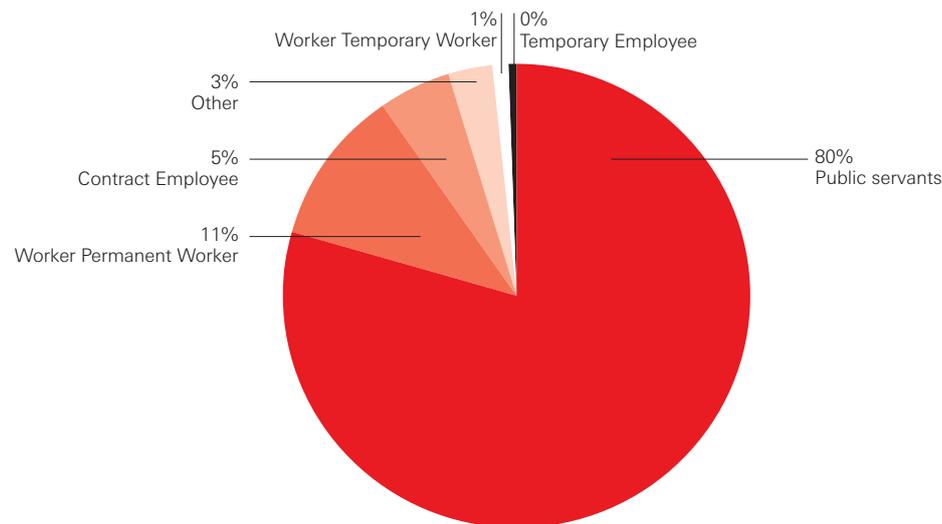
1. www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do
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2. www.tuik.gov.tr/PreIstatistikTablo.do,
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Figure 1. Distribution of different status of public agents (2016)

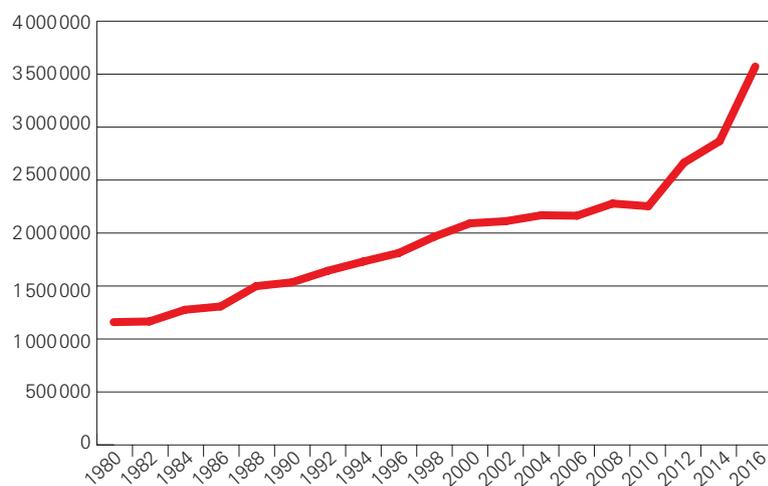
Source: <http://www.dpb.gov.tr/tr-tr/istatistikler/kamu-personeli-istatistikleri> (2016).



The evolution of the number of public servants indicates a constant rise as shown in Figure 2. Accordingly the ratio of public servants over the active population has risen from 9,3% in 2003¹ to 9,6% in 2011² and 11,6% in 2016³. The sharp rise after 2010 is most probably related to the change in economic policies of the government that has since then adopted a more populist orientation, thus allocating public resources for political ends in domains like public employment.

Figure 2. Number of total public agents between 1980 and 2016

Source: (Kayar, 2011, p. 77) (for 1980-2011), www.kaynakhaber.com (for 2012-2014), last consultation May 24th, 2017, www.haberler.com (for 2015) and www.dpb.gov.tr (2016), last consultation May 24th, 2017.

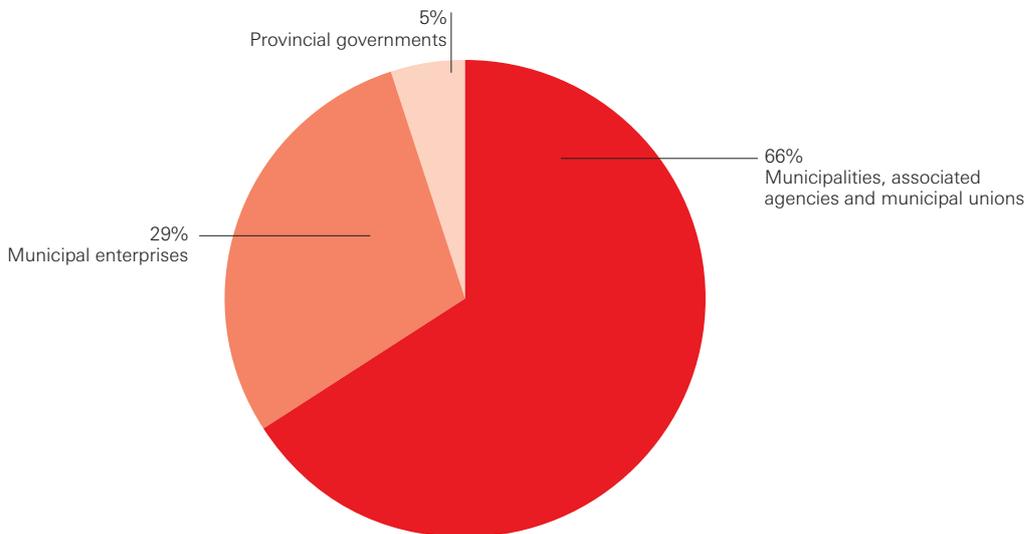


For the year 2016, the number of local public agents is 313.323, the employees of municipal enterprises included. That means, 9% of all public agents are recruited by local governments and their firms, which represent %1 of the overall active population. When we examine the distribution of these employees with regards to the type of local governments (*Figure 3*), we see that municipalities recruit two thirds of them. The reason of this grand majority is linked to the amendment of the Metropolitan Law in 2012 according to which in the largest 30 provinces provincial governments were abolished and the boundaries of metropolitan governments were enlarged to cover the totality of provincial area.

The significant share of municipal firms in the overall local public agents reveal a major policy orientation in local public service delivery, which is more often carried out through outsourcing to either private enterprises or to those formed and managed by municipalities operating according to private law.

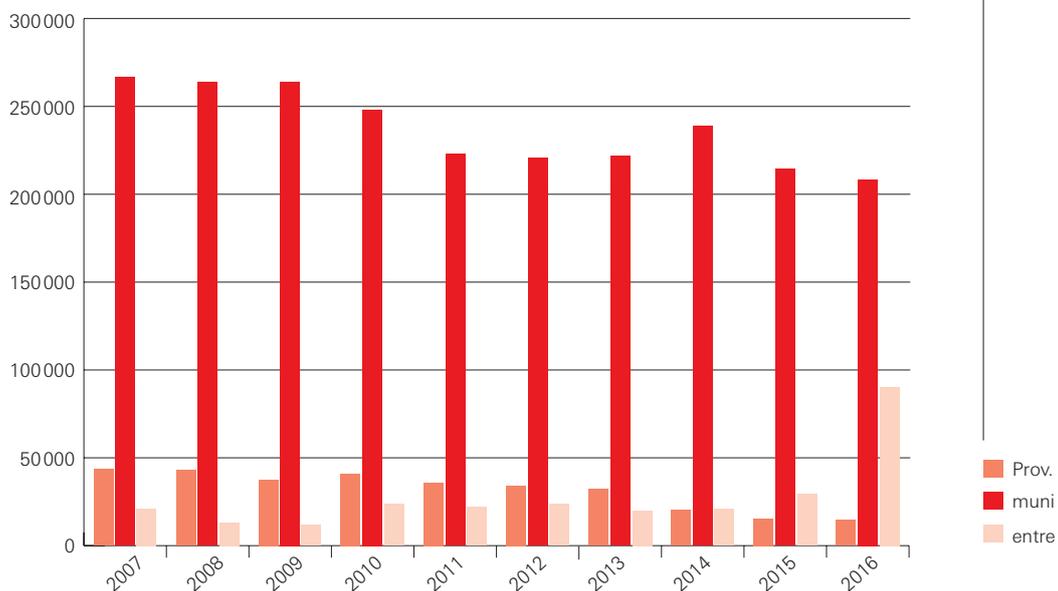
Figure 3. Distribution of different status of local public agents (2016)

Source: <http://www.dpb.gov.tr/tr-tr/istatistikler/kamu-personeli-istatistikleri> (2016), last consultation May 24th, 2017.

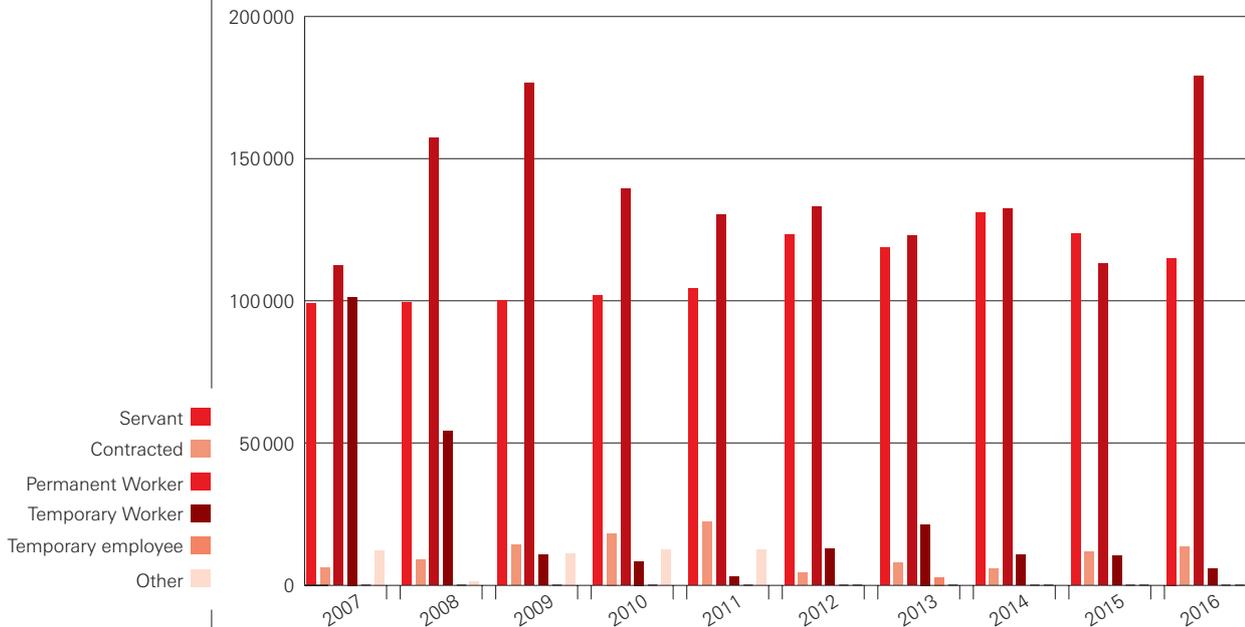


To see how this distribution has evolved through time, we can have a look at the number of employees of different local governmental bodies. In *Figure 4*, we see that municipal employees have been always the largest segment of local public agents whereas the number of provincial personnel has decreased through the examined period. As indicated above, the reason of this decrease was the abolition of these governments in 30 provinces with the legal amendment of 2012 effectuated after the local elections of 2014. The most striking fact revealed by the figure is the significant rise of employees of municipal enterprises that more than quadrupled since 2007. Such an increase in the share of private firms owned and managed by municipalities illustrates clearly the preference of local governments to operate as private entities.

Figure 4. Number of employees of different local governmental bodies between 2007 and 2016



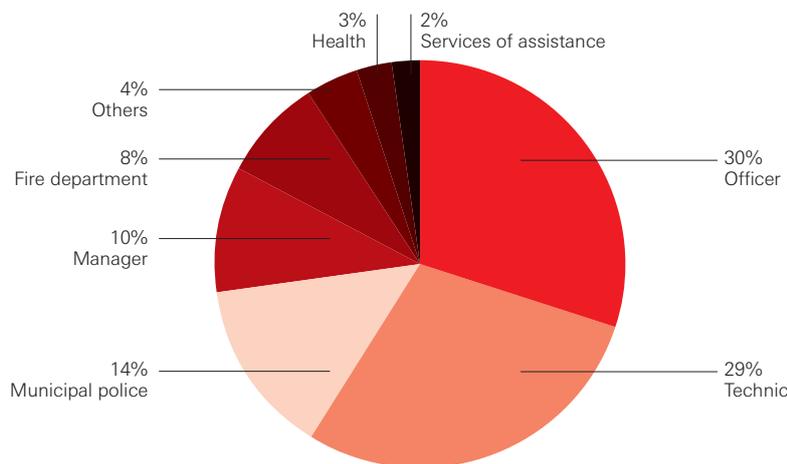
The data we refer allow us also the evolution of status of public agents through the same period. The first observation is the majority of permanent workers with significant rises in certain years such as 2008, 2009 and 2016. These rises with regards to number of permanent workers correspond also to decreases of temporary workers. This correspondence may let us consider such changes to the transformation of workers' contracts from temporary to permanent status most probably for political reasons. However the rise in 2016 is certainly linked to the growing presence of municipal firms in the local governmental sphere.



When we examine the departments of public servants employed in local governments as presented in *Figure 5*, we see that more than half of the public servants are either officers or technical personnel each representing one thirds of the total number of employees. With a percentage of 14%, municipal police represents the third most crowded section among local public servants. It is also noteworthy that number of managers are more than that of health personnel and firemen making us think that local governments appear more as bureaucratic organization rather than a service provider in these major sectors of urban life.

Figure 5. Categories of local public servants

Source: *The annual report of activity of the Directorate of Local Administrations (2015); www.migm.gov.tr/kurumlar.*



Finally, if we examine the gender distribution of public servants (Table 1), we see that women are most numerous in the research fields, albeit always less than men. The percentage of women among public servants is 40%, higher than other status of public function. What deserves attention in these numbers is the difference between female permanent workers (8,2%) and non-covered permanent workers (23,03%) who are deprived of syndical rights. This almost tripled numbers illustrate the precariousness of women employees even if they are employed.

Table 1. Gender distribution of public agents (2016)

Source: www.dpb.gov.tr/F/Root/dosyalar/, last consultation June 2nd, 2017.

Type of employment	Number of women	Women %	Number of ment	Men %
Public servants	1.003.627	40,45	1.477.762	59,55
Judges and prosecutors	3.973	25,82	11.415	74,18
Academics	54.679	42,62	73.628	57,38
Contracted employees	36.323	29,30	87.664	70,70
Temporary employees	3.920	18,63	17.122	81,37
Permanent workers	19.908	8,23	222.115	91,77
Non-covered permanent workers	826	23,03	2.761	76,97
Temporary workers	3.087	12,50	21.608	87,50
Employees subjected to specific conditions	30.018	48,27	32.165	51,73

Formation of Public Agents

The main law on public agents (n. 657) refers only briefly to the formation of public agents by leaving the main legislation to a by-law to be published by the prime ministry. The law states that the probationary employees should go through a general formation on general qualities of all public agents as well as a preparatory formation or internship specifically required for their future positions and responsibilities (art. 55).

Another issue referred in the main law on public agents is the formation abroad. According to the 78th article of the law, recruited and ennobled public agents can be permitted to pursue professional and technical formation programs or to undergo internships abroad for maximum two years (to be doubled if required). The agents keep their posts in their home institutions and continue to receive 60% of their salaries. For those who find their own financial sources to pursue such programs can be on unpaid leave. Those who spend some time abroad for such inservice formation purposes, will have a duty of compulsory service. Those who do not perform this service are obliged to pay twice of the expenses spent by their home institution (art. 79). Apart from these two issues, the formation of public agents is determined by a general plan.

General Plan on the Formation of Civil Servants

The main document with regards to the organization of the formation of civil servants is the “General Plan on the Formation of Civil Servants” that was published in 1983. The plan has three main objectives. Having acknowledged the fact that the basic formation of civil servants has been and should be carried out by vocational schools and universities, the Plan underlines the need

of coordination between these educative institutions and the public institutions so that the programs and the content of such institutions should meet the requirements of the bureaucracy. Secondly, inservice training of civil servants is considered essential by the Plan as each institution and/or post does require specific categories of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Therefore, each and every institution should develop and carry out their own inservice training programs to meet their specific needs as well as the objectives of national plans and programs. Finally, the Plan highlights the need of continuing formations due to the rapid changes in technics and technology that affects unavoidably the delivery of public services and thus requires the adaptation of public servants to such developments.

The plan introduces two main categories of formation: pre-service formation and inservice formation. Public institutions can found their proper pre-service formation bodies only if the existing education programs do not meet their specific requirements or the number of graduates of such programs remains insufficient. Public institutions can provide offer scholarships for their future employees so that they can attend to foreign programs to acquire knowledge and skills specifically required for their future responsibilities. Beneficiaries of such scholarships engage in a compulsory service in the related public agency by which they are recruited without any other entrance procedure.

For those who have been already recruited in the public service, there are two kinds of inservice training: During the probationary employment and active service.

During the probationary, formations consisting of Kemalism, Code of Public Service, republican history and national security are organized to all future candidates. Besides, they are also familiarized to their institutions by presentations on the responsibilities, tasks, organization, legislation and relations with other agencies of the institution by which they are employed. Finally, they undergo an apprenticeship during which they are expected to acquire the practical skills required for their post.

The formation offered to those who are already in active service can aim at either improving the efficiency (by refreshing or updating knowledge), or getting prepared for promotion or receiving specific training for top executive positions.

Formation of Local Public Agents

Although the General Plan draws the main framework and the methods of the formation of public servants, the lack of adequate human and financial resources avoid the actual realization of the Plan (Ergun, 2004, p. 259). Nevertheless, the formation of local public agents is determined in direct reference to it. The pre-service formation is divided into two categories: formation by existing institutions of education and by the home-institution. The formation given by the institution itself is also divided into two categories.

Firstly, probationary public agents attend to a formation for at least ten days consisting the following headings:

- Kemalist Principles
- Turkish Constitution
- Organization of the State
- Republican History
- Law on Public Agents
- National Security
- Correspondence and Filing
- Communication
- Protection of Public Goods
- Public Relations
- Turkish Grammar
- Confidentiality

At the end of the formation, the candidate-agents under go an exam; those who acquire at least 60 over 100 in the exam are qualified to attend to the preparatory formation that aim at improving the post-related skills and knowledge of future LPA.

During the preparatory formation, the future local public agents are formed at least for a month in the following domains:

- General information on local governments;
- Duties of local governments;
- Structure of local governments;
- Legislation on local governments;
- Relations of local governments with other institutions;
- Post-related issues of probationary public agents;
- Other issues that local governments consider as necessary.

Another exam is organized and it is necessary to get at least 60 points over 100 so that the candidate is qualified as successful. After the mainly theoretical phase of the pre-service formation, the candidates undergo a period of internship of at east two months during which two of the most related chiefs prepare a document of “Internship Evaluation” that comment on the following qualities of the candidate:

- General personal qualities of candidates;
- Respect to disciplinary measures;
- How hardworking s/he is;
- Cooperative qualities;
- Trustworthiness and loyalty;
- Professional knowledge.

Those who succeed these stages of pre-service formation are admitted to their post and start their professional career during which they will receive inservice training for either refreshing or updating issues related to their actual posts and responsibilities or promoting in their institutions. These inservice formations are organized in direct reference to the General Plan.

Institutions providing Inservice Formation

There is no single central institution that offers inservice formation of local public agents. Although Directorate of Local Administrations within the Ministry of Interior is the main central body on local governments their training programs are far from meeting the need. Thus there are other bodies that deliver similar programs of inservice formation (Bilgin, Akay, Koyuncu, & Haşar, 2007, p. 32).

As local governments have been placed under the administrative tutelage of the central government through the General Directorate of Local Administrations within the Ministry of Interior, one could expect that the formation of local public agents have been mainly offered by the Ministry. It is indeed true that the Ministry has a department of education, but the formations seem to be mainly pre-service courses of experts and sub-governors⁵.

Since 1993, the Ministry has delegated the inservice formation of local public agents to governorships (Bilgin et al., 2007, p. 33) that will carry out them according to the Plan of Inservice Formation of Local Administrations⁶. The list of public agents whose attendance is mandatory, is annexed to the plan. Those who do not attend without a legitimate reason (sickness or compassion) will be subjected to the disciplinary articles of the Law on Public Agents.

Table 2. List of public posts with obligation to attend to inservice formation

Source: Annex 1, General Plan of Inservice Formation of Local Administrations, egitim.icisleri.gov.tr, last consultation May 29th, 2017.

In provinces	In districts
Vice-governor	Chief clerk of the district
Chief of juridical affairs	District chief of demography and citizenship
Sub-governor	District chief of juridical affairs (in districts with a population over 50,000)
Probationary sub-governor	District chief of local governments (in districts with a population over 50,000)
Chief of cabinet	District chief of informatics (in districts with a population over 50,000)
Provincial chief clerk	District chief of social etudes and projects (in districts selected by the ministry)
Provincial chief of demography and citizenship	District chief of associations
Provincial chief of planning and coordination	Other personnel of the district units and local units of the Ministry
Provincial chief of associations	
Provincial chief of media and public relations	
Provincial chief of Executive Committee	
Provincial chief of local administrations	
Provincial chief of disasters and emergencies	
Provincial chief of social etudes and projects	
Unit head of juridical affairs	
Unit head of martyrs and veterans	
Unit head of informatics	
Unit head of protocol (in metropolitan municipalities)	
Protocol chiefs (in municipalities)	
Chief of population of the central-district	
Personnel of the department of supervision and coordination of investments (in metropolitan municipalities)	
Other personnel of the prefectural units and local units of the Ministry	

The plan also states the thirty-five domains on the formations to be delivered to the local public agents: European Union and international relations; administration of disasters and emergencies; constitution and the structure of the state; management of archives; Kemalist principles and reforms; decrees of prime ministry and ministries; information technologies and technological developments related to public services; informatics; briefing, reporting and presentations; supervision and evaluation; disciplinary actions and investigations; e-state applications; formation of trainers; public relations; internal auditing and supervision; improving the administration; human rights; management of human resources; legislations with regards to public agents; personal and institutional development; financial issues; project development; purchasing, renting and tender operations; development and execution of strategic plans; austerity measures; issues related to fundamental services and duties; rules of representation, protocol and courtesy; issues related to terrorism and separatism; regulations about ceremonies, flag and holidays; foreign language; operations of correspondence and office; recent changes in the related legislations; deontology and fight against corruption; administrative science and other issues determined by the governorship⁷.

7. Annex 2, General Plan of Inservice Formation of Local Administrations, egitim.icisleri.gov.tr, last consultation May 29th, 2017

At the end of these formations, oral and/or written exams can be carried out to evaluate the success of the participant. Those who obtain at least 60 over 100 are qualified as successful and receive a certificate of success. Depending on the accord of the Ministry, the three most successful participants may be awarded. In case of failure, the public servant can be invited to a formation to be held on the same subject. Attendees of formations without any exams receive a certificate of participation. Positive or negative all personal evaluations of the public servant are archived in their personal files of their home departments.

Public Administration Institute for Turkey and Middle East (PAITME)

Apart from formations organized by the ministry of interior, other ministries and central bodies can hold specific formations in their domain of expertise. But among these programs those offered by the Public Administration Institute for Turkey and Middle East (PAITME) is noteworthy with regards to formations addressed to local public agents. The Institute is the main inter-institutional venue for inservice formation as public agents from all institutions can pursue graduate studies in the programs offered. In order to be admitted to these programs, it is required to obtain a minimum point from the nationally conducted examination as well as the oral exam of the Institute, be a public agent for at least five years and be maximum 45 years old. Those admitted to the programs of the Institute enjoy a leave of absence with pay keeping all their personal rights and incomes. Those who successfully complete these programs are rewarded with administrative seniority according to the time they spent at the Institute.

Apart from this general framework of inservice formation of public agents, the Institute conducts a Research Project of Developing Education Material for Local Governments addressed mainly to local public agents since 1999 with the fund of State Planning Organization. In the framework of the project, a web-based portal (www.yerelnet.org.tr) has been launched where all information about local governments and the related legislation is accessible. Secondly, the Institute publishes handbooks and training cd's that the municipal managers and staff can use during inservice formations. Such material has been

8. www.yerelnet.org.tr
last consultation on
June 5th, 2017.

9. The Association of
Local Administrations
www.mahallidarelerdernegi.org.tr
the Association of
Technological Research
and Development of
Local Administrations
www.miargem.org
the Association of Local
Government Inspectors
www.kontder.org.tr;
last consultation on
June 5th, 2017.

10. wald.org.tr/egitim
last consultation on
June 5th, 2017.

published on management of human resources, urban planning and control, urban services, financial structure, international relations etc.

The Institute offers also free courses on specific subjects and issues to municipal employees. The institute hosts at most ten employees from each municipality and freely offers the formation material, lunch and snacks to them. The municipalities pay only the transfer and accommodation expenses of their personnel attending to the courses. In april and may 2017, the Institute offers such courses about legislation public procurement, direct supply and public loss as well as practices of formal correspondence, occupational health safety, internal auditing and risk management, geographical imaging systems, managerial improvement and environmental management⁸.

- Training programs of municipalities themselves;
- Programs of non-governmental organizations;
- Programs offered by private enterprises.

Programs offered by other organizations

In recent years, the Turkish Union of Municipalities have seemed to be very active in the inservice formation of not only the elected political actors but also local public agents. These programs are categorized under three headings: urban services (such as urban planning, production of space, built environment, water and sewage, municipal police, disasters and emergency, civil services, sportive, cultural and social services etc.), legislation (such as municipal law, law of urbanism, local finance, personnel, social security, autonomy and tutelage etc.) and issues of vision (such as human resources, personal and institutional development, participatory democracy, project development, gender equality, foreign language etc.). These courses are realized upon the request of municipalities at the Union or municipalities.

Like the national union, other regional unions as well as related associations⁹ offer similar programs of inservice formation on general urban services as well as more specific, technical issues on legislation of and service delivery by local governments. The trainings offered by the Istanbul based World Academy of Local Democracy represent an important venue for improving the sensitiveness of local governments to issues such as human rights, democratic government, peace, multiculturalism, participation, gender equality and international relations¹⁰.

Apart from these non-governmental organizations, private enterprises offer also programs of inservice training on the requested issues by organizing seminars, courses or conferences in the municipalities or in holiday resorts. The attractiveness of such formations is that they are usually held in hotel resorts in touristic regions so that the attendees see it also a chance of vacation paid by their home institution. Such formations organized by private firms may represent also a means of transferring public funds to politically connected fractions.

Conclusion

This paper is written in 2017 while on the one hand the purges from the public sector has been continuing -like the author of the paper- and on the other hand there is an hot discussion about the amendment of the law n. 657 on public agents. Although the legal changes have not been yet officially accepted, it seems that there will fundamental changes with regards to the status of public employees. Rather than the status of public servants with a full job security, contracted employment will be the main category of recruitment. The salaries of public agents will be determined according to their performance rather than seniority. Those who are considered as unsuccessful or poor performer will be easily dismissed from their posts.

In short, all you have read throughout this paper may need to be revised in the days to come. However, I hope that it had given a general picture on public agents and their formations so that the scope and the nature of recent purges and upcoming amendments can be better comprehended.

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II – The 16 reflexive/in-depth studies | C. Examples of unitary state career systems

TRAINING FOR PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES IN ROMANIA AND BULGARIA

By Gabriela Condurache

Members of the European Union since 1 September 2007, Romania and Bulgaria are two states located in Central Europe, whose form of government, since the fall of the socialist-communist regime in 1989, is the Republic¹.

The provisions of Article 1 of the Romanian Constitution of 8 December 1991 enshrine *"the national, sovereign, independent and indivisible character of the Romanian State, with the Republic as its form of government"*. Moreover, according to paragraph 3 of the aforementioned article, Romania is *"a democratic and social State governed by the rule of law, where the dignity of the human being, the rights and freedoms of the citizens (...) justice and political pluralism represent guaranteed supreme values"*.

In the same sense, the provisions of Article 1 of the Bulgarian Constitution of 13 July 1991 specify that Bulgaria is *"a Republic (...) whose state power derives from the people"*.

In contrast to Romania, whose constitutional provisions do not expressly enshrine the political system of the state - described by Romanian publicist doctrine as *'semi-presidential, parliamentary or attenuated, or a semi-parliamentary system'*, with a two-headed executive - Bulgaria enshrines the parliamentary system of the Republic in the provisions of paragraph 1 of the first article of the Bulgarian Constitution. The Romanian Parliament is bicameral, while the Bulgarian Parliament is unicameral. Finally, both states are organised according to the principle of the separation and balance of the three powers: legislative, executive and judicial .

The constitutional foundation of the two states

	Romania	Bulgaria
	Constitution of 8 December 1991 - revised in 2003	Constitution of 12 July 1991
Form of the State	Unitary (para 1, art. 1)	Unitary (art. 2)
Nature of the scheme	Principle of the separation of powers (Art. 1, para. 5)	Parliamentary system (art. 1) with separation of powers (art. 8)
Political organisation	Bicameral Parliament: Senate and Chamber of Deputies (Art. 61); President of the Republic (Art. 80); Government (Art. 102); Judicial authority (Art. 124) ; Constitutional Court (Art. 142)	Unicameral Parliament: National Assembly (Art. 62) ; President of the Republic (art. 92); Council of Ministers (art. 105); Judiciary (art. 117); Constitutional Court (Article 147)
Territorial administrative organisation	Division into rural and urban communes and departments (para. 3, art. 3)	Division into communes and regions (Art. 135)
Language	Romanian (art. 13)	Bulgarian (Art. 3)
State of democracy	Rule of law (para. 3, art. 1)	Rule of law (art. 4)

The administrative-territorial organisation benefits, in Romania as in Bulgaria, from a double consecration, constitutional and legal. Indeed, if the provisions of paragraph 3 of article 3 of the Romanian Constitution set the general framework by specifying that the Romanian territory is divided into urban and rural municipalities as well as departments, the provisions of Title IV of the Government Emergency Ordinance (GUE)⁵ no. 57 of 3 July 2019 on the Romanian Administrative Code⁶ set the administrative-territorial sub-divisions as well as the conditions under which the change of their status can occur⁷. Similarly, in Bulgaria, the provisions of Article 135 of the Constitution specify that the Bulgarian territory is divided into municipalities and regions. The constitutional provisions are supplemented by the Law on Local Self-Government and Administration published in the State Gazette No. 77 of 17 September 1991.

1. Romania borders Bulgaria to the south, the Republic of Moldova to the east, Ukraine to the north-east, Hungary to the north-west, Serbia to the south-west, and the Black Sea to the south-east. Its territory covers an area of 238,391 km² and has, according to the latest census in 2011, a population of 20,121,641. The official language is Romanian (Latin origin); the official currency is the leu (1 euro = 4.5 lei). A country of Slavic origin, Bulgaria borders Romania to the north, the Black Sea to the east, Turkey and Greece to the south, Macedonia to the southwest and Serbia to the northwest. Its territory covers an area of 110,994 km² and has 7,128,000 inhabitants. The official language is "Bulgarian" (Slavic origin); the official currency is the "leva" (1 euro = 1.96 Bulgarian leva).

2. Since then, the Romanian Constitution has been revised by Law no. 429 of 23 October 2003, a revision approved by the national referendum of 18-19 October 2003.

3. Vedinas (V.), *Drept administrativ (Administrative Law)*, Universul Juridic, 2012, p. 17.

4. Paragraph 4 Article 1 of the Romanian Constitution and Article 8 of the Bulgarian Constitution.

5. Condurache(G.), " La procédure de recours aux ordonnances: de la lettre constitutionnelle à la pratique politique. Etude comparée entre la France et la Roumanie", *Revue Française de Droit Constitutionnel*, 2020, n°121, pp. 115-139.

6. Hereinafter "Administrative Code".

7. Tudor (A.), *Territorial decentralisation in Romania in the light of its administrative history since 1859. Entre rupture et continuité*, Thesis, University of Lille, 2020.

Administrative-territorial division

	Romania		Bulgaria
Municipalities	3210	2,891 rural	264 municipalities
		319 urban	
Departements	41 + the capital city of Bucharest		-
Regions	8 development regins (unicorporated)		28 administrative regions (in turn grouped into 6 development regions)

In both States, the legal regime of the different socio-professional categories in the public sector is subject either to statutory rules or to common provisions of labour law. Indeed, Romania and Bulgaria adopted a statute for public servants in 1999. Adopted by Law no. 188 of 8 December 1999, the Romanian Statute of Public Officials was repealed on 5 July 2019, when its content was integrated into the Administrative Code adopted by the OUG no. 57 of 3 July 2019. Structured in nine parts, the Administrative Code reserves Title 2 of Part 6 to the "Statute of Public Officials" and Title 3 of the same part to the "Contractual Personnel of Public Authorities and Institutions". Bulgaria has published its statute for public officials in the State Gazette No. 67 of 27 July 1999.

Both States have opted for a strict regime for their respective civil services. In other words, only those persons appointed to a public function, with the specific aim of exercising prerogatives of public power, within a local or central administration are public servants (in the sense of the 1999 Statute). The legal regime of other socio-professional categories in the public sector is governed by special statutes and/or labour standards. In their quest for good governance, Romania and Bulgaria guarantee access to vocational training for civil servants, as both a right and an obligation. Indeed, in both states, career advancement (grade or class advancement) can be conditional on the completion of a certain number and/or type of training courses, for example. In order to strengthen the professional skills of their local public servants and elected representatives, both countries have, since the 2000s, paid particular attention to the reconstruction of the training system. In addition to the adoption of numerous governmental strategies related to the training of public sector agents, Bulgaria and Romania have also set up a National Institute of Administration (INA) / Institute of Public Administration (IPA). Specialised in the training of local public servants and elected representatives, the Institute, both in Romania and Bulgaria, is an executive agency that operates under the subordination of the Government. Benefiting from the support and expertise of the European institutions, but also of States with a long tradition in the field of training for officials, such as France, the two institutions have succeeded in laying the foundations of a fairly complex initial and continuous training system.

The normative framework for training is therefore built around two types of training, initial and continuing, whose historical development of the legal framework currently in force differs significantly in Romania **(I)** and Bulgaria **(II)**.

I. Training for local public servants and elected representatives in Romania

The institutionalization of the training of local agents in Romania dates back to the creation of the modern Romanian State, its evolution towards the current framework being marked by two fundamental moments for the existence of Romania (A); this justifies the rather long process of reconstruction of the training system not only of public agents but also of local elected representatives (B).

A. The gradual institutionalisation of local government training in Romania: from its origins to the present day⁸

A brief historical look shows that, regardless of the political regime that has inhabited Romania, the concern for the training of public servants has always been very strong (1), and the system currently in force groups together several categories of public servants and local elected officials, who are nevertheless subject to different legal regimes (2).

1. Training of agents, a historically constant interest

Even though the interest in the training of Romanian civil servants dates back to well before the creation of the "Great" Romania, on 1 December 1918⁹, it was only after this historical moment that the idea of setting up specialised institutions, exclusively for the administrative training of civil servants, took shape. The fact remains that if the first Statute of Public Servants adopted in 1923 does not contain any precision regarding the training of civil servants, the same cannot be said of law no. 95 of 14 June 1925 for the administrative unification of the Romanian State¹⁰. In fact, according to the provisions of article 378 of Law no. 95 of 14 June 1925, "*schools of administrative professional instruction were to be created for administrative officials of all branches at county and local level...*". In the same year, 1925, Professor Paul Negulescu established the Institute of Administrative Sciences, which three years later was to acquire the status of an institution of public utility.

Almost a decade later, the provisions of Article 237 of Administrative Law No. 569 of 26 March 1936¹¹ enshrined the principle that "*no one could be appointed as a public administrative official if he or she had not completed the required professional technical training*". Moreover, paragraph 2 of the above-mentioned article established a new principle, that of continuous training, according to which "*administrative civil servants [should] follow advanced courses according to their grade and speciality*". These principles were also taken up by the Code of Conduct, which replaced the 1923 Staff Regulations in 1940, and by the Staff Regulations, which replaced the Code of Conduct in 1946.

The end of the constitutional monarchy, through the forced abdication of King Mihai Ie on 30 December 1947, and the establishment of a socialist-communist regime marked a new stage in the evolution of the training of public servants, not only because of the abrogation of the statutory framework and the adoption of the first Labour Code in Romanian history, but also because of a different political ideology. Nevertheless, although at the beginning of the communist era training was not a priority, it gradually became one, especially through the provisions of article 159, paragraph 2, of the 1972 Labour Code, according to

8. Condurache (G.), *The legal challenges of the statutory civil service: between tradition and modernisation. Etude comparée à partir des exemples roumain et français*, Université de Lille, 2018, 756 pp.

9. The creation in 1871 of the Higher School of State Sciences, which had as its main mission the training of persons wishing to join the civil service. The idea of the need for training is also reflected in the Law for the Administrative Organisation of the Kingdom of Romania of 1892 and the Law for the Organisation of State Services and Personnel of 27 March 1893.

10. Online at: lege5.ro, accessed on 05 May 2021.

11. Online at: lege5.ro, accessed on 05 May 2021.

12. See for further developments subsection "B", entitled "La contractualisation du droit à la formation pendant le communisme", in Condurache (G.), *Les défis juridiques de la fonction publique statutaire: entre tradition et modernisation. Etude comparée à partir des exemples roumain et français*, Université de Lille, 2018, pp. 478-484.

13. Generic name for any employee, regardless of the field of work.

14. Condurache (G.), *op. cit.* pp. 478-484.

15. Prior to 2019, the legal regime of the link between public employees and the employing institution was regulated by separate legal texts. Thus, the legal situation of statutory civil servants was determined by the provisions of Law no. 188 of 8 December 1999 on the Statute of Romanian Civil Servants and Law no. 7 of 18 February 2004 on the Code of Conduct for Public Servants. The contractual agents, on the other hand, were subject to the provisions of Law no. 286 of 23 March 2011 corroborated by the provisions of the Labour Code. The aforementioned normative acts were repealed in 2019 when they were incorporated into the Administrative Code adopted on 3 July 2019 by Government Emergency Ordinance no. 57/2019.

16. Title IV of the Administrative Code has taken over the provisions of Law No. 215 of 23 April 2001 on local public administration and Law No. 393 of 28 September 2004 on the status of local elected representatives.

which "the Ministry of Education and Teaching, as well as the other ministries and central bodies, executive committees (...) had the duty to ensure a close link between the theoretical and practical training of pupils and students". Indeed, the provisions of articles 92 and 164 of the Labour Code already mentioned laid the foundations of a system which - because free schooling was conditional on a work contract of several years in the field of training - legally linked vocational training to the work contract. In other words, free schooling (pre-university and university education) was cushioned by the obligation assumed by the young signatories of the study contract to work as soon as they obtained their diploma for a period of up to several years in the institutions and/or companies to which they were assigned¹².

In the area of continuing education, it was Law No. 2 of 18 March 1971 on the professional development of "workers"¹³ in the socialist units which laid down the rules. From the first articles of this law, it is clear that employees, including civil servants, are both obliged and obliged to participate. Moreover, the provisions of the first article of the above-mentioned law assigned to the management of "socialist units" the obligation to ensure the conditions required for each "worker" to periodically attend further training courses corresponding to the duties performed¹⁴.

The fall of the communist regime in December 1989 once again posed the challenge of reconstructing the normative framework relating to the legal situation of the various socio-professional categories working in the public sector, including the training system.

2. The status of public officials and local elected representatives in force

The public employees, who work in the Romanian territorial and local public institutions, can be divided into two categories, statutory and contractual civil servants¹⁵.

The evolution of the number of public function and public servants between 2012-2016

Public service categories	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Public services at central and territory level	73 823	71 508	70 620	73 903	73 118
Local public services	87 760	85 926	88 092	90 222	93 487
Total public services	161 583	157 434	158 712	164 125	166 605
Number of public officials appointed in occupied and temporarily occupied positions	125 093	123 826	127 259	128 376	130 780

Source: ANFP, *Report on the management of the Romanian Civil Service over 2016*, Bucharest, 2017, 31 p.

The legal regime of local elected officials is also based on several normative acts, including the Administrative Code¹⁶ and Law No. 115 of 19 May 2015 for the election of local public administration authorities. According to the provisions of Article 106 of the Administrative Code, 'local public administration authorities' means 'local councils (...) as deliberative authorities and mayors

as executive authorities', as well as departmental councils - constituted at departmental level. The mission of the departmental councils is to coordinate the activity of the local councils of the department, with attributions in the accomplishment of public services of departmental interest - and the president of the departmental council.

17. Article 151 of the Administrative Code.

18. Articles 106 and 107 of the Administrative Code.

Under the terms of the above-mentioned article, the term "local elected representatives" refers to the mayor, local councillors, the president of the departmental council and departmental councillors. The mandate conferred by universal, equal, direct, secret and freely expressed vote is for a period of 4 (four) years¹⁷. Under the provisions of the Administrative Code¹⁸, the category of local elected representatives also includes the deputy mayor(s) and the deputy chairpersons of the departmental council, even if they are not elected by universal suffrage.

The number of councillors may vary, according to article 112 of the Administrative Code, depending on the number of inhabitants of the municipality concerned, from 9 to 31 members, or even 55 members for the capital city of Bucharest.

Number of inhabitants of a rural or urban municipality	Number of councillors
Up to 1,500	9
Between 1 501 and 3 000	11
Between 3 001 and 5 000	13
Between 5 001 and 10 000	15
Between 10 001 and 20 000	17
Between 20 001 and 50 000	19
Between 50 001 and 100 000	21
Between 100 001 and 200 000	23
Between 200 001 and 400 000	27
Above 400,000	31
General Council of the Capital City of Bucharest	55

The normative framework for training is mainly composed of the 4th section of the Administrative Code, entitled "*Training and professional development of public servants*" and the Government Decision No. 1066 of 10 September 2008 for the approval of the norms for the professional training of public servants.

B. The legal regime for initial and continuing training

The initial training of Romanian civil servants is, with a few exceptions, provided by university education **(1)**, while continuing education is provided by the National Institute of Administration and by external providers **(2)**.

19. www.snsps.ro

20. Be appointed to a public service in central or local government.

21. Article 2 of DG No 183 of 20 March 1991.

22. In accordance with the provisions of Article 1(3) of DG No 542 of 21 July 1995.

23. ENSPA remains in essence a public institution of higher education, scientific research and academic and professional training of a high national and international level, which provides studies at the three levels of education: Bachelor, Master and Doctorate.

24. Like the mayors, for example.

1. Initial training

Initial training is provided mainly by universities, through their bachelor and/or master programmes specialising in administration, as well as by the National School of Political and Administrative Sciences in Bucharest (ENSPA)¹⁹ **(a)** and the recently recreated National Institute of Administration **(b)**.

a. The National School of Political and Administrative Sciences (ENSPA)

Created by Government Decision No. 183 of 20 March 1991, as a post-graduate institution of higher learning with legal personality, ENSPA was intended to provide professional training, both theoretical and practical, for people who aspired not only to a career in the civil service²⁰, but also in diplomacy, the judiciary or other areas of the public sector²¹.

Since 1995, following its reorganisation by decision no. 542 of 21 July 1995, ENSPA has had to support the process of economic, social and administrative reform of the State through its training programmes²². As a result, its training and further education offer has been considerably expanded at both university and post-graduate levels. ENSPA trains specialists in the fields of political science, social communication and public relations, management, public administration and international relations.

Among the attributions of ENSPA, developed by the provisions of article 2 of DG n° 542 of 21 July 1995, are the elaboration of the strategy of training and professional development in political analysis, communication and public relations, public management, as well as international relations. Moreover, according to the same text, ENSPA is responsible for the training and professional development of central and local public administration staff. Significantly, upon request and on a contractual basis, ENSPA is also competent in the training and professional development of the staff of non-governmental public institutions, economic agents and trade unions²³.

While the university system is the main provider of initial training for local and regional government officials, it is no less true that the legislator's efforts have also focused on rebuilding a specialised network of both initial and continuing training.

b. The National Institute of Administration (INA)

In the early 2000s, OUG (emergency ordinance) No. 81 of 7 June 2001 created the National Institute of Administration, whose mission was to provide initial training for future public servants and continuing education not only for public servants but also for contractual staff working in public institutions and authorities, or for persons appointed or elected to public²⁴ office in central or local government. The status of the INA was that of an institution of national interest with legal personality. The provisions of the OUG were supplemented a few months later by DG No. 710 of 3 April 2002 on the functioning of the National Institute of Administration.

In terms of initial training, the INA organised two-year specialised vocational training courses in public administration for holders of bachelor's degrees under the age of 30 (Article 3 of DG 710 of 30 July 2002). Access to the INA was only possible by competitive examination. During the two years of the

course, INA students had the status of junior or senior civil servants, depending on the case. In addition, similar to the French schools, INA students received a monthly salary from the INA for junior civil servants and from the employing institutions for permanent civil servants. In exchange, the winners of the INA entrance exam had to sign an agreement committing them to work in the administration for at least five years after the end of the course. If they did not, they had to reimburse their schooling expenses²⁵.

In 2010, in the context of the economic and financial crisis of the late 2000s, the INA was abolished by Law No. 329 of 5 November 2009²⁶. Its staff and its responsibilities in the field of continuing education have since been taken over by the National Agency for Public Employees and its regional branches. The Government Decision no. 650 of 8 September 2016 for the approval of the strategy for the professional training of the public administration personnel for the period 2016-2020 presented in its first part an inventory of the difficulties that the Romanian system was facing; among them the absence of an institution specialised in the initial and continuous training of civil servants. Therefore, the Government decided to recreate the INA, through the OUG no. 23 of 24 August 2016 regarding the creation of the National Institute of Administration. According to this OUG, the INA is supposed to participate in the elaboration of governmental strategies that contribute to the reinforcement of the efficiency of the Public Administration through the professionalization of the personnel of the central and local Public Administration. By the term "personnel", we mean, according to letter "a" of paragraph 2 of article 2 of the OUG already mentioned, not only senior public officials and public officials subject to statutory provisions, but also contractual personnel of public administration institutions, persons elected or appointed to functions of public dignity²⁷, or public managers.

Finally, concerning the training of local elected representatives, the provisions of article 217 of the Administrative Code specify that the latter enjoy the right to "training and professional development"²⁸.

In contrast to initial training, where regulations remain fairly limited, continuing training benefits from a much more important framework, both statutory and regulatory.

2. Continuing education

The general framework for continuing training **(a)** allows the identification of different training providers, both public and private **(b)**.

a. The general framework

The provisions of article 458 of the Administrative Code establish the dual legal nature of professional training²⁹. In fact, according to these provisions, the Romanian civil servants have "the right and the obligation to continuously improve their professional training"³⁰. In order to guarantee the right to training, the provisions of paragraph 4 of the same article establish the obligation for the public authorities and institutions to reserve, in their own annual budgets, the necessary percentage for the expenses of professional training of the civil servants, when they are organised on the initiative or in the interest of the public institutions. The provisions of paragraph 5 of the aforementioned article also specify that, when the training is organised on the initiative or in

25. Article 8 of the OUG No. 81 of 7 June 2001 on the creation of the National Institute of Administration.

26. On the reorganisation of certain public authorities and institutions, the rationalisation of public expenditure, support for the business community and compliance with the framework agreements with the European Commission and the International Monetary Fund.

27. Mayors, presidents of departmental councils, councillors of local or departmental councils etc.

28. Before the adoption of the Administrative Code, the training of local elected representatives was both a right and an obligation. This obligation only concerns local elected representatives who have previously held a mandate as a local or departmental councillor, mayor or president of a departmental council, or who have served as a prefect or who have completed economic, legal or administrative studies

29. According to article 4, letter b) of DG 1066 of 10 September 2008, professional training is understood to be "the process of instruction, as part of ongoing training, intended to ensure the development of certain skills, the aim of which is to improve the individual's professional activity carried out during the exercise of the prerogatives of public authority".

30. This dual legal nature of training for public servants contrasts with the mandatory nature of training regulated by the Labour Code for employees.

31. *On the other hand*, the mere agreement of the head of department is not sufficient to finance training at the initiative of the public official.

32. Unless a different period of commitment was provided for by law.

33. ANFP, *Raport privind formarea/perfectionarea profesionala a functionarilor publici (The report on the professional training/development of public officials)*, 2015, p. 6.

the interest of the public institution, or on the initiative of the public official, provided that he has previously obtained the agreement of his public institution³¹, he continues to benefit from his salary rights. In the case of training financed by the state or local budget, which exceeds 90 days in one year, this financing is conditional on a written commitment by the beneficiary civil servant to continue working in the administration between two and five years from the end of the training course. The "two to five" years quota is calculated *in proportion* to the number of days of professional training attended³².

In the event that civil servants who have benefited from publicly funded training do not fulfil their commitment, they are obliged to reimburse not only the value of the expenses advanced by the public institution for the training, but also the salary entitlements received during the training period. The reimbursement is calculated on a *pro rata basis* for the period remaining until the end of the engagement. In the same way, when at the end of a training course an examination is scheduled to evaluate the knowledge acquired, if the official does not pass it, he is obliged to reimburse the cost of the training paid for by his institution, as well as the salary rights received during the training period. If the official is dismissed for reasons beyond his control, he is no longer obliged to reimburse his employer.

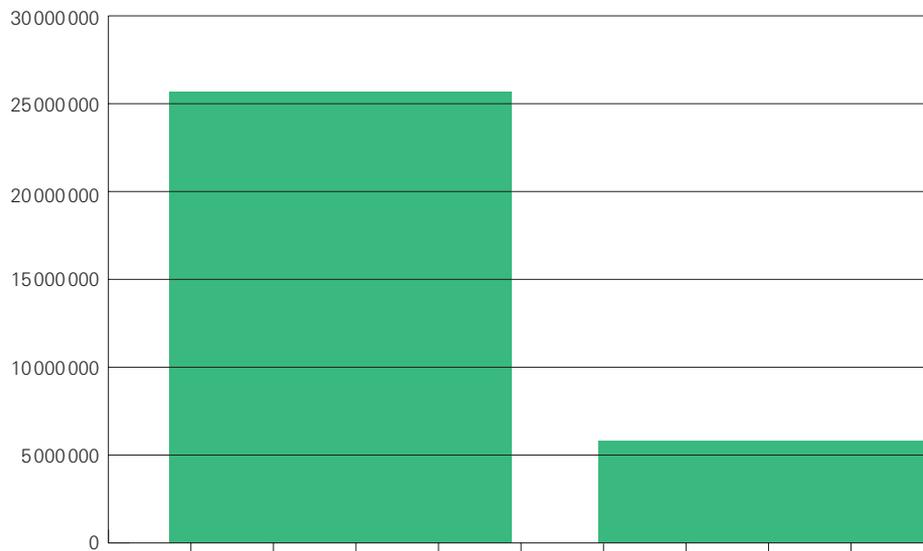
The provisions of paragraph 9 indicate that university studies (bachelor's degree, master's degree) or doctoral studies are not "advanced training" and cannot be financed from the state or local budgets. In contrast to initial training, the framework for continuing education is more detailed.

b. The institutions responsible for continuing education

The provisions of letters c) and d) of Article 2 of DG 1000 of 2 August 2006 concerning the organisation and operation of the ANFP include among its tasks the professional development of public officials and the development and implementation of professional training programmes in the public administration.

In terms of further training, the ANFP designates the priority areas of professional training for public servants and validates the sectoral strategies relating to the further training of these same civil servants. Thus, the ANFP is responsible for identifying the themes necessary for the training and further training of public servants.

The ANFP is also responsible for centralising the professional development plans of public officials, the preparation and submission of which is the responsibility of the public authorities. However, the percentage of institutions that meet this obligation continues to be very modest, given that in 2015, only 5.06% of the total number of institutions and public authorities sent ANFP the forms concerning annual training needs³³. However, the ANFP centralises the annual amounts reserved by the budgets of each public institution for the financing of continuing training.



The situation of funding from the budget of public institutions (first column), and from other sources (second column) in 2016, source: ANFP, *Report on VET training*, 2015, p. 7³⁴

34. Total budget of public institutions (central, territorial and local levels): 26,711,025 lei, i.e. approximately € 6,070,688. Total from other sources: 5,595,245 lei, i.e. approximately € 1,271,646.

35. ina.gov.ro, accessed on 06 May 2021.

36. ina.gov.ro, accessed on 06 May 2021.

37. www.coe.int/fr, accessed on 06 May 2021.

The ANFP must also coordinate the activities of the regional training centres for local agents, which represent the ANFP in the territory in terms of continuing education. In fact, the ANFP is responsible not only for the elaboration, in collaboration with the beneficiary public institutions and, since 2018, with the National Institute of Administration, of the strategy of continuous training of public servants, but also for monitoring and evaluating its application.

In this respect, and in order to better respond to the needs of central and local administrations in terms of training for public officials, the INA has been developing since 2018 an important network of specialised professional training, notably through its regional centres. The INA's training programme concerns both senior public officials, management and executive public officials, contractual agents, as well as people elected or appointed to public office, or local elected officials. Among the training programmes offered, there are several that are of particular interest because of the target categories of officials who can benefit from them.

Firstly, the Leadership Academy Programme (LAP)³⁵ is intended for the training of mayors and other elected representatives of the local administration. Developed by the Council of Europe in more than 20 European states, in Romania, the pilot programme started in 2018 for a group of 14 mayors from urban and rural municipalities. The objective of the programme is to provide the participants with *"the knowledge and tools for good governance at the level of the Romanian local administration"*³⁶. Organised over six months, the LAP programme is structured in three distinct training modules, namely "leadership for organisations", "leadership for strategy" and "leadership for capacity building". While the first module focuses on 'local governance, leadership values, self-awareness, and leadership and representation skills', the second module focuses on 'organisational culture, strategic management and performance management'. Finally, the purpose of the third module is to provide knowledge on "ethics and integrity, inter-communal cooperation, and equal opportunities and responsibility". The duration of the training is 9 days, i.e. three days per module. The courses are given by international and local experts, members of the Centre of Expertise for Good Governance³⁷ created by the Council of Europe. At the end of the course, participants receive certificates of participation issued by the INA and the Council of Europe.

38. ina.gov.ro, accessed on 06 May 2021.

39. *Idem*.

40. Each administrative-territorial unit (urban or rural commune) has a "secretary general". Paid from the local budget, the secretary of the commune is a senior public official with a degree in legal or political science, responsible for ensuring compliance with the principle of legality in the adoption of administrative acts. The municipal secretary also ensures the proper functioning of the mayor's or, as the case may be, the county council's specialised apparatus, as well as the continuity of the municipality's activities" (see Article 242 of the Administrative Code).

41. ina.gov.ro, accessed on 5 May 2021.

42. The Great Powers - Germany, Great Britain, France, the Austro-Hungarian Empire and Russia - made changes to the Treaty of San Stefano only a few months after its signing at the Great Powers Congress held in Berlin (Tangev (E.), Belov (M.) and Ionescu (C.), *Constitutional Law of 2 EU Member States: Bulgaria and Romania*, ed. Kluwer, pp. 6-7.

43. *Ibid*, pp. 6-7.

44. *Ibid*, pp. 6-7.

Another specialised training programme concerns public administrators. This programme is aimed at public administrators who, on the basis of a management contract, exercise '*powers delegated by the mayor or the president of the departmental council*'³⁸ or within the framework of an inter-community development association. The objectives of this course are primarily to provide knowledge that enables the understanding and application of "*management instruments used for the planning, organisation and control*" of the public institution.

The INA has also laid the foundations for a programme devoted to the training of local and departmental elected representatives, and a programme for the training of commune⁴⁰ secretaries.

In addition to the specialised training programmes, the INA also provides professional development training for all public officials in general. The INA's Advanced Training Programme Department and the territorial centres for continuous training in public administration offer training courses in public policy, human resources, financial management, project management, international relations, public procurement, quality management, ethics and integrity and⁴¹ urban planning. Currently, INA has five regional training centres, namely in Constanta, Craiova, Iasi, Sibiu and Timisoara.

The legal regime of Bulgarian local public servants, as well as the training system for them, have not only similarities, but also differences with the Romanian system.

II. Training for public officials and local elected representatives in Bulgaria

The analysis of the evolution of the normative framework from the origin of the modern Bulgarian state to the present day allows us to analyse the current legal regime for local public servants and elected representatives in the context of their historical evolution **(A)**, as well as the training system currently in force **(B)**.

A. The evolution of the normative framework: from its origin to the present day

A brief look at the history of the Bulgarian state highlights two major existential stages with important repercussions on, among other things, the legal regime for public officials "yesterday" **(1)** and today **(2)**.

1. Training, a historically constant interest

Historically, Bulgaria has experienced similar detours to those in the history of Romania. Indeed, Bulgaria gained its independence in 1878 when, following the San Stefano Peace Treaty signed on 3 March 1878⁴², the territory of Moesia and the district of Sophia formed the Principality of Bulgaria.

Between 1878 and 1946 Bulgaria was a constitutional monarchy with a democratic system of government⁴³. A long process of modern institution-building and economic expansion began, a process that was somewhat hindered first by the disastrous policies of Tsar Ferdinand in the early 1910s, and then by the

outcome of the First World War⁴⁴. As in Romania, 1947 was the year when the Bulgarian monarchy was abolished following the establishment of the communist dictatorship. As in all ex-communist states, this also resulted in a strong centralisation of power in Bulgaria, as well as the reconstruction of a normative framework in harmony with the communist ideology.

The social-communist regime lasted until 1989, when Bulgaria became a democratic republic.

2. The status of public officials and local elected representatives

The administrative-territorial organisation has a double consecration, constitutional and legal. Indeed, although the provisions of Article 135 of the Constitution specify that the territory of Bulgaria is divided into municipalities and regions, it is also true that paragraph 2 of the aforementioned article specifies that other territorial divisions - such as the district or the 'mayorie' - may be regulated by law. Also by law, entities of inter-municipal cooperation can be created by law. The 28 regions represent entities with a view to ensuring the coordination of regional policies and the application of governmental measures in the territory, and even to arbitrate *'the competition that might arise* [in the context of local autonomy and decentralisation of local authorities] *between national and local interests*⁴⁵.

Significantly, the constitutional provisions on local government in Bulgaria are supplemented by the provisions of the Local Government and Self-Government Act published in State Gazette No. 77 of 17 September 1991, as well as the Local Elections Act published in State Gazette No. 66 of 25 July 1995.

The elected local representatives are the mayors as local executive bodies and the local councils as deliberative bodies. Mayors are, according to the provisions of Article 139 of the Constitution, elected for a four-year term by direct, equal and universal suffrage⁴⁶. Elected under similar conditions to mayors, the number of councillors, members of local councils, varies from 11 to 41, according to Article 19 of the Law on Local Administration and Self-Government, depending on the number of inhabitants of the municipality concerned. The capital city Sofia has 49 councillors.

Number of inhabitants of a rural or urban municipality	Number of councillors
Up to 5,000	11
Between 5 001 and 10 000	13
Between 10 001 and 20 000	17
Between 20 001 and 30 000	21
Between 30 001 and 50 000	23
Between 50 001 and 75 000	27
Between 75 001 and 100 000	29
Between 100 001 and 160 000	33
Above 160,000	41
Capital city Sofia	49

45. Article 142 of the Constitution.

46. Grigorov (G.), Corporation and partnership in Bulgaria, Wolters Kluwer, 2nd ed, 2014, pp. 18-21.

47. National Statistical Institute of Bulgaria, 2014, www.nsi.bg/en.

48. Sofia University, New Bulgarian University and Varna University of Economics.

49. Zajazi (K.) (ed.), Warner (A.), Sosic (M.), Gligorov (Z.), Rolul asociatiilor autoritatilor publice locale din S-E Europei in furnizare de instruire (formare) pentru autoritatile locale (The role of local authority associations in S-E Europe in providing instruction (training) for local authorities), ed.

50. Network of Association of Local Authorities of South-East Europe (NALAS), www.nalas.eu.

51. Only one training course was held in 2007, with 35 participants.

The staff working in Bulgarian local and regional authorities can be grouped into two main categories, statutory and contractual. As was also the case in Romania: under pressure from the European institutions, the Bulgarian State proceeded, inter alia, towards the end of the 1990s, to adopt the Statute of Public Officials, published in the State Gazette No. 67 of 27 July 1999. According to Article 2 of the Statute, *"a public official is a person who, by virtue of an appointment, holds a salaried position in the administration which leads him to exercise public power in the performance of his duties"*. Contractual staff are subject to common labour law standards. In 2014, the Bulgarian administration had about 177,508 employees, of which 32,633 employees work in local government⁴⁷.

Statistically, it is interesting to observe how the number of civil servants subject to the statute has gradually increased in relation to contractual agents. Indeed, if in 2004 the Bulgarian administration had 32% statutory civil servants and 68% contractuels, in 2010, according to the report on the state of the public administration in 2011, there were 66.6% statutory civil servants and 33.4% contractuels.

B. The legal regime for initial and continuing training

The Bulgarian training framework primarily regulates the legal regime for continuing education **(2)** and only incidentally for initial education **(1)**.

1. Initial training

Initial education is not specifically regulated in the Bulgarian public system. As in Romania, the system of initial education is based particularly on the bachelor's and master's degree programmes offered by Bulgarian state and private faculties in the fields of legal and administrative sciences, management or economics⁴⁸.

In addition to universities, training for public officials can also be provided by federations or associations of local authorities, such as the National Association of Municipalities of the Republic of Bulgaria⁴⁹. Indeed, according to a study launched in 2007 by the Network of Associations of Local Authorities of South-East Europe (NALAS⁵⁰), if the presence of the Romanian Federation of Local Authorities in the field of training is very discreet⁵¹, that of the National Association of Local Authorities of Bulgaria is more dynamic. According to the study, the Bulgarian Association has very quickly organised itself, firstly to set up a training centre for local public authorities, with several units specialising in the training of staff and elected representatives, and secondly to set up its own group of permanent or external trainers, with a capacity in 2018 of 55 specialists. In addition, the Bulgarian Association had already established a tradition in 2007 of *"organising train-the-trainer workshops in different fields of activity"*, the aim of which was to contribute to the training of *"well-trained local experts who then work as trainers in the different regions of the country"*.

The dynamism of the Bulgarian Association is also reflected in the implementation of its training activities, considering that by 2007, the Association had set up no less than eight training modules and organised 30 training sessions that benefited 600 staff members. According to the above-mentioned study, in the same period, the Romanian Federation of Local Authorities had organised only one training session, in which only 35 local staff were trained.

In contrast to initial training, the framework of the continuing education system is governed by more detailed statutory regulations.

2. Continuing education

Analysis of the general normative framework for training **(a)** identifies several training providers, only one of which is statutorily enshrined **(b)**.

a. The general normative framework

The Bulgarian Civil Servants' Statute lists training as one of the statutory rights⁵² of Bulgarian civil servants. The provisions of article 35, paragraph 1 of the Statute specify that public institutions must ensure the conditions for the continuous further training of civil servants, as well as for their professional requalification. When the training for further training or requalification is undertaken at the request of the public institution (public service needs), the costs of the training shall be borne by the latter, in accordance with paragraph 2 of the above-mentioned article.

However, when the training followed under the conditions specified in paragraph 2 above exceeds one month in a year, the provisions of paragraph 3 establish the obligation for the official to continue to work for the institution that has taken charge of his training for a period of one to three years. This period is fixed, or even negotiated, by the public institution and the official. If the official does not respect the period fixed by the public institution, he is obliged to reimburse the training costs in proportion to the remaining period of service.

Furthermore, by virtue of the provisions of paragraph 4 of article 35 mentioned above, public institutions are obliged to draw up a training plan each year and to send it to the Public Administration Institute for registration. As the costs of training are financed by the State budget, which must annually set aside a certain amount for this purpose, the Public Administration Institute must construct the training offer in accordance with the budget released by the State⁵³.

b. Institutions providing training

The Institute of Public Administration (IPA) is the entity responsible for the management, development and delivery of training programmes **(1)**, together with other external public or private providers **(2)**.

1) The Institute of Public Administration⁵⁴

The Institute of Public Administration (IPA)⁵⁵ was established in 2000 by the provisions of Article 35a of the Statute, as part of the administrative reform undertaken in the context of Bulgaria's application for EU membership. The IPA has the status of an executive agency with legal personality and operates under the subordination of the Government (Council of Ministers of the Republic of Bulgaria). Article 35a, paragraph 3, states that the IPA is headed by an Executive Director and a Management Board consisting of five members. Representatives of the academic and non-governmental community may also participate in the meetings of the Governing Board, but without the right to vote. In order to accomplish its mission, IPA has concluded collaboration agreements with more than 100 experts and specialists in various government-related fields from the public and private sectors.

52. Article 35 of Section IV of the Bulgarian Civil Servants' Statute, entitled "*The rights of civil servants*".

53. Paragraphs 5 and 6 of Article 35 of the Civil Service Regulations.

54. www.ipa.government.bg, accessed on 08 September 2017.

55. Until 2007, the Institute was called "Institute of Public Administration and European Integration".

56. Courses include: Institutional Performance Management, CAF Management and Implementation, Risk Management in Administration, Strategic Leadership and Change Management, Contemporary Tools in People Management, Personal Effectiveness, Team Effectiveness. Team Management and Development, Communication Skills, Public Speaking Skills, Analytical Skills and Critical Thinking, New Tools for Effective Management, Practical Issues in Human Resource Management Policy, Knowledge Management. Workplace learning methods, Practical training for human resource management experts, Diplomatic protocol and etiquette.

57. Courses include: Development, Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation of Public Policies, Impact Assessment, Open and Transparent Government (e-course), Access to Public Information: Legal Framework and Application, Open Data in Government, Ethics and Ethical Regulation in the Public Service, Better Regulation for a Better Business Environment, Methods for Preventing Corruption in the Public Service: Legal Framework and Practices, Assessing and Combating Corruption Risks, Effective Methods for Preventing and Combating Fraud, Innovations, Research and Entrepreneurship

IAP's main mission is to provide training for public officials at all levels (central, regional and local) of the public administration. To this end, IAP has developed three main areas of activity, including training, research and consultancy.

Among IPA's tasks are to contribute to the professional and career development of public administration employees; to analyse and plan the needs of the administration so that training programmes are designed in accordance with these needs; to develop, promote and transmit 'good governance practices' that contribute to the modernisation of the administration; and to strengthen training in the design and implementation of projects that can be financed by EU funds. IPA is also expected to provide expertise in modernising management in the administration, or to propose reforms for the modernisation of the administration.

IPA provides two types of training: mandatory training required for career advancement and specialised training for professional development. Mandatory training is concerned with strengthening the administrative and leadership skills needed to make the public service effective. Mandatory training is financed mainly by a public fund from the state budget. Among the compulsory training modules offered by the IPA, one can list the Introduction to the Public Service course for newcomers; the Challenge to Govern course for employees appointed for the first time in a managerial function; or the Good Governance and Leadership course for senior public officials.

Specialised training consists of a wide variety of specialised programmes and courses on different topics of interest to public officials. The various specialised modules have been grouped into 8 major training programmes covering no less than 100 subjects. The catalogue of specialised training offered to public employees in 2016 includes eight main programmes: the "Management and Personal Effectiveness"⁵⁶ programme, the "Public Policy" programme⁵⁷, the "Management and its Application" programme, the "Financial Management" programme⁵⁸, the "Bulgaria in the EU" programme, the "e-Governance" programme⁵⁹, the "Local Governance" programme⁶⁰, the "IT Skills" programme and the "Language Skills" programme.

IPA also organises conferences, annual meetings and competitions on public administration issues.

IPA's 2014 balance sheet highlights the organisation of no less than 1,000 training modules which contributed to the training of 21,000 public officials. But IAP is not the only institution competent in the field of training for local public servants, other entities are actively involved in the professionalisation of public officials and local elected representatives.

2) The national association of local and regional authorities

In addition to the Institute of Public Administration (IPA), further training of local public servants is also dynamically supported by the National Association of Local Authorities of Bulgaria. This is reflected in the project *"Improving the capacity of municipal employees to deliver quality public services"*, implemented in 2017 within the framework of the Operational Programme "Good Governance", co-financed by the European Union *through*⁶¹ the European Social Fund. Under this project, municipal employees (not including elected officials) receive free training in one of the following ten training modules: public property, spatial planning, disaster prevention and management, public order and safety, education, social policies, local finances and taxes, municipal budgets, water management and waste management.

Conclusion

In principle, the training systems for local public employees and elected officials in Romania and Bulgaria are based on similar legal rules. However, neither of the two training systems analysed seems to have a functional system of compulsory training for integration into the public administration. As regards continuing education, the regulatory framework regulates the conditions for this type of training in greater detail. Moreover, in both legal systems, the statutory provisions indicate the institution responsible for the management, coordination and application of continuing training programmes, the National Agency for Public Servants and the National Institute of Administration in Romania and the Institute of Public Administration in Bulgaria.

Significantly, both systems intend to diversify training services for local public servants and elected representatives, among other things, through the gradual development of digital training and the establishment of collaboration with various national and international training bodies.

Ultimately, a question common to both training systems concerns the evaluation not only of the content of the training, but also of the trainers, and even of the contribution and degree of use by public officials of the skills acquired during the training. This is because the current evaluation system in both countries is based on an evaluation in the form of a questionnaire concerning the degree of satisfaction of the employee, which is in danger of being too formal.

58. Courses include: Internal Control and Audit of Financial Activities of State Institutions, Opportunities and Approaches for Developing Effective Public-Private Partnerships, Use of Financial Engineering for Public-Private Partnerships, State Aid (face-to-face and e-learning), Programme Budget and Budget Programmes, Nature of Investment and Investments.

59. Courses include: e-Government, Interoperability and Information Security, Electronic Document and Electronic Signature, Development and Application of Cloud Computing in e-Government, Smart Government. Smart City (e-learning course).

60. Courses include: Local Development Strategies and Policies, Preliminary Assessment and Supervision of Municipal By-laws, Municipal Property Management, Methods for Determining Local Taxes and Service Charges (face-to-face and e-learning), Effective Implementation of Financial Management and Control Systems, Crisis Management and Disaster Preparedness, Green Municipality (e-learning).

61. www.namrb.org, accessed on 10 September 2017.

INITIAL AND CONTINUOUS TRAINING OF LOCAL PUBLIC AGENTS AND LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES IN ESTONIA, LATVIA AND LITHUANIA

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Despite major ethno-linguistic and cultural disparities, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania are three European states united by a common history and shared future, particularly due to their geographical location, which often brings them under the umbrella term of “Baltic states”. These three republics, small in both size and population, all attained independence in the same year (1918), were annexed and occupied by the USSR for nearly half a century, recovered independence in the early 90s following the collapse of the Soviet Union and actively conducted a policy of rapprochement towards the West which, among other outcomes, led them to become members of NATO (on 29 March 2004) and the European Union (on 1 May 2004) in the same year.

The territorial administrative organisation of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania is generally similar insofar as they are three decentralised unitary states with a single level of regional and local authorities (the municipal level), whose leaders, elected through direct and universal suffrage, manage their administration autonomously. The proper functioning of these local public powers relies on their available material, financial and human resources, as well the proper and regular use of these resources by their staff. Only the ability, expertise and adequate knowledge of local elected representatives and local public agents can enable them to best manage the matters they are in charge of for their regional or local authority.

The aim of this text is to present the training systems for local elected representatives and local public agents in place in each of the Baltic states on a separate basis.

I. Estonia

To best understand the whole picture of the Estonian training system for local public agents (LPA) and local elected representatives, it would first appear essential to get some perspective on the subject and to introduce the general framework within which this system is positioned.

We will therefore provide some insight into the Estonian public sector, its composition and key information relating to those it employs. We will then give a reminder of the current context of the Estonian civil service, which saw a major reform in 2013. After that, we will unpack the legal and regulatory framework of Estonian civil service, focussing on only the most relevant texts to this study. Once we have addressed these issues, we will present the training system for LPAs and local elected representatives in detail.

The training of LPAs will be studied from two different perspectives. The first will be initial training. Bearing in mind that there is no specific school or educational framework in Estonia for the training of future LPAs, we will instead examine the qualifications required to join regional and local civil service. Secondly, we will focus on the existing system for the continuous training of LPAs. The final point will cover the issue of training for local elected representatives.

1. According to Statistics Estonia, press release of 14 February 2017. Available online (in Estonian) at www.stat.ee/pressiteade-2017-019 (consulted 21/08/2017).

2. All the statistical data included here for the year 2016 comes from the report on civil service for 2016 published by the Estonian Ministry of Finance. *Avaliku teenistuse 2016.a. aruanne* [Report on civil service for 2016] (translated by the author). Available online (in Estonian) at www.fin.ee/doc.php?115625 (consulted on 22/08/2017).

A. Reference figures and the composition of the Estonian public sector

Estonia currently has a little over 1.3 inhabitants across an area of around 45,300 km². Its working population in 2016 was 691,400, with 47,700 unemployed, or a rate of 6.75%¹.

1. The Estonian public sector and its agents

According to the official figures of 2016², the total number of people working in the Estonian public sector (*avalik sektor* in Estonian) was 132,900.

In Estonia, the public sector is divided into two branches: one for the government sector (*valitsussektor* in Estonian) and the other for all the structures that do not fall within the category of the government sector (*muu avalik sektor* in Estonian). The government sector corresponds to the notion of public administration (PA). It is the largest branch in terms of the number of workers, currently employing 88% of public sector staff or 116,700 people. The remaining 12% fall within the category of other public sector establishments, such as public education establishments (schools, universities), for example.

2. Estonian public administration (PA) and its agents

The government sector, understood in the sense of public administration, is divided into three subsets: central government (*keskvalitsus* in Estonian), local autonomous entities (*kohaliku omavalitsuse üksused* in Estonian) and social security administrations (*sotsiaalkindlustusfondid* in Estonian).

Central government, or state administration, is formed of five sets of entities that include public authority entities (*ametiasutused* in Estonian), organisations managed by public authority entities (*hallatavad asutused* in Estonian), foundations (*sihtasutused* in Estonian), legal persons under public law (*avalik-õiguslikud juriidilised isikud* in Estonian) and companies and non-profit associations (*äriühingud ja mittetulundusühingud* in Estonian). According to the 2016 statistics from the Estonian Ministry of Finance, the number of agents working for central government was 54,029, or 49% of PA staff.

Local autonomous entities encompass a set of four different structures, which, as with central government, include public authority entities, foundations and companies and non-profit associations. Agents in the local authority sector are currently among the majority in PA (53%), numbering 61,857 in 2016.

According to the latest figures from the Ministry of Finance, social security administrations (health insurance and unemployment funds) employed 848 agents.

3. Estonian civil service and its agents

To avoid any risk of confusion, it should be pointed out that the Estonian notion of public service is narrower than that of public administration, known as the government sector in Estonian, it only takes public authority entities (*ametiasutused*) into account, both on a state and regional or local level.

In 2016, the number of agents working in civil service (state and regional/local civil service) was 28,513. If we take the two areas of civil service into account, in 2016 there were 22,879 agents in state civil service and 5,634 for regional and local civil service.

However, not all civil service employees (state or regional/local) have the same status. The majority are civil servants, meaning public service agents with tenure, in a legal and regulatory context of public law. The others are contract agents, meaning employees governed by an employment contract, like private sector workers.

According to the latest statistics, in Estonia there were 2,050 civil servants in all areas of civil service (70% of all civil service agents) and 8,463 contract agents. In regional and local civil service, the number of tenured agents was 3,269 in 2015 (over 55% of all LPAs), with 2,521 contract agents.

Among the 213 regional and local authorities in Estonia in 2016, 36.5% of regional and local civil service agents are concentrated in four of them. These are the cities of Tallinn, Tartu, Narva and Pärnu. The remaining 209 regional and local authorities employed 3,577 LPAs, meaning an average of around 17 LPAs per remaining regional or local authority³. Estonia distinguishes two types of civil service. One, which can be referred to as common law civil service, is made up of agents covered by the Civil Service Act (see below). It encompasses agents from state and regional or local civil service. The other features specialised civil service agents, covered by specific laws relating to them. Included in this “*lex specialis*” civil service category are police and border-control agents (*politsei- ja piirivalveamet*), active military personnel, fire-fighters, prison wardens, diplomats and civil service corps given special status under the Constitution, such as magistrates and prosecutors.

B. The current context of the Estonian civil service: the major reform of 2013

In 2013, the Estonian civil service saw a significant reduction in its workforce, or more precisely in the number of its civil servants, following the implementation of the reform driven by the new Civil Service Act (*avaliku teenistuse seadus*, in Estonian, abbr. *ATS*). This gave a stricter definition of the concept of the civil servant, thus decreasing the number of those able to join. Consequently, many people working in civil service lost their status of civil servant and became employees with the equivalent status of private sector workers. It should be noted that someone with a job in the Estonian public sector cannot hold the status of civil servant unless they are employed by a (state or regional/local) public authority body; in other words, one that belongs to civil service.

Overall, the 2013 reform marked the discontinuation of several elements of career-based civil service in favour of a profession-based one and, more generally, a closer approximation to the privatist concept of employment. This applied to both state and regional and local civil service.

Broadly speaking, the changes brought about by this reform covered:

- The evaluation system for civil servants⁴, which was simplified and made clearer and more effective;
- The pay system, which became more transparent (with the online publication of the salary level of civil servants) and put on an equal footing with that of the private sector (taking into account issues linked to the job market, professional responsibility and competitiveness);

3. Report on civil service for 2016, *op.cit.*, p. 9

4. The new Civil Service Act put an end to the certification system, replacing it with an appraisal and professional development interview (*arengu- ja hindamisvestlus* in Estonian), which must be held on a yearly basis between the person employed in civil service and their direct line manager. The aim of this discussion is to assess the achieved results in relation to the goals set in the previous interview. It is an opportunity to take stock of the agent's work, evaluate their performance level, come up with measures to improve it (such as training, for example) and set goals for the forthcoming year.

5. The new Civil Service Act (RT I, 06.07.2012, 1) replaced the one adopted on 25 January 1995 and in force from 1 January 1996. An English translation of the law is available on the official journal of the Republic of Estonia at: www.riigiteataja.ee/en/eli/515122016001/consolide (consulted on 14.07.2017).

6. This is one of the three minimum conditions under the Act. The other two are holding Estonian nationality and having an excellent command of the Estonian language.

- The social guarantees for civil servants, given that, since the reform, agents can no longer obtain additional leave, the duration of leave is set at a maximum of 35 calendar days, and the notice period for dismissal has been reduced.

C. The legal and regulatory framework for Estonian civil service

The status of Estonian civil servants is mainly governed by the Civil Service Act (hereafter “ATS”), the new version of which was adopted on 13 June 2012⁵. The ATS, which entered into force on 1 April 2013, represents the legal framework both for state civil service and for regional and local authorities. As mentioned above, the ATS forms the common basis that governs the entire Estonian civil service, and to which laws on civil service corps belonging to specific professional categories – such as police officers, customs officers, active military personnel, magistrates and prosecutors – refer.

The reciprocal rights and obligations between the civil servant and the administration for which he or she works are derived from the ATS rather than an employment contract. On this point, article 3 of the ATS provides that the “Employment Contracts Act” (*töölepingu seadus* in Estonian), which governs private sector employment relationships, does not apply to civil servants, except in cases provided for by the Act. According to the ATS, the Employment Contracts Act and other legislative texts applicable in employment relationships under private law govern the status of contract agents employed by the public administration, meaning around 30% of civil service agents.

Article 2 of the ATS provides that this act only applies to public agents (civil servants), with the particular exclusion of elected representatives, unless provided for otherwise by a law. In relation to Estonian local civil service, it should therefore be pointed out that the rules of the Civil Service Act principally concern local public agents, and in some exceptional cases, if authorised by law, local elected representatives (members of the municipal council and municipal government).

Article 5 of the ATS introduces “a public-law service and trust relationship between the state or local government and an official to perform the functions of the authority”. Under the act, the employment law relationship, which ties the contract agent to the administration in which they are employed, can only provide support in the performance of public authority-related activities, but can never be used to actually carry them out.

D. The training of local public agents

1. Initial training for LPAs

a) No specific initial training is required for LPAs

Under the ATS, to join the civil service people must have successfully completed upper secondary education (*keskharidus* in Estonian), as a minimum⁶. This condition, set out in article 14, para. 1 of the ATS applies for both state and regional or local civil service. In light of the statistics from the Ministry of Finance, however, it would appear that this minimum required level of study is exceeded in the majority of cases. Moreover, of all the professional sectors, Estonian civil service is the one that has the highest number of employees

with a university degree. In 2016, 76% of Estonian civil service agents had a university degree, compared to 40% of the entire working population. Finally, article 14, paragraph 3 of the ATS provides that each regional and local authority is responsible for defining the skills required for the role of LPA within it. This freedom, a result of regional and local authorities' right to autonomy, does not prevent them from applying government regulations on the level of education, professional experience and the foreign language skills required of civil service agents⁷. This is optional for regional and local authorities.

Looking at both areas of civil service, we notice that the proportion of agents with a university degree is higher in regional and local civil service. 64% of LPAs successfully completed their university studies, compared to 59% for state civil service agents. This difference can largely be explained by the fact that the statistics of state civil service encompass specialised civil service corps (police, fire-fighters, border-control agents, prison wardens, etc.), most of whom are not required to have university education.

b) The specific case of the secretary-general of the mayor's office

Among local public agents, the "secretary-general of the mayor's office" ("val-lasekretär" in Estonian for rural municipalities or "linnasekretär" for towns and cities) is a senior municipal official who must have specific initial training in order to hold this role.

Under article 55, paragraph 2 of law on the organisation of regional and local authorities⁸, in order to be appointed by the mayor, the secretary-general must be at least 21 years of age and hold a legal diploma (Master's or degree level). Two years of professional experience in civil service (state or regional/local) is only required for candidates with a law degree. The law also makes it possible for those without a law degree to apply for the role of secretary-general of the mayor's office if they have a certificate of professional aptitude issued by the professional committee of secretaries-general of the mayor's office, and if they have held a role in state or municipal administration for a minimum of two years.

2. Continuous training for LPAs

a) Rules on the continuous training of LPAs

Each Estonian regional or local authority is responsible for managing its staff and taking measures to enable its agents to improve their level of skill and knowledge in order to perform their professional tasks. This freedom is governed by the rules set out in the Civil Service Act and in government regulation on the organisation of training for civil servants (*Ametnike koolituse kord* in Estonian). Nevertheless, through the application of the principle of local autonomy, these regulations (which are compulsory for state administrations) simply represent an indicative and optional framework for regional and local authorities⁹. Each municipality is still entitled, under the ATS, to establish such regulations governing the organisation of training provided to its agents.

According to the ATS, alongside mobility – the secondment of an agent to another service or administration for a limited duration –, training is one of the administration's principal means for improving the agent's professional skills.

The administration is obliged to take all reasonable measures to allow its staff to maintain a sufficient level of knowledge and skill for performing the duties

7. *Ametnike haridusele, töökogemusele ja võõrkeelte oskusele esitatavad nõuded* in Estonian

8. Law on the organisation of regional and local authorities (*kohaliku omavalitsuse korralduse seadus* in Estonian), RT I 1993, 37, 558

9. Art. 10, para. 4, 1st sentence, ATS

it allocates them. One result of this obligation, covered by article 31, paragraph 1 of the ATS, is the fact that each administration is required to allocate in its budget funds specifically for expenditure relating to the continuous training of its agents. In 2016, Estonian regional and local authorities spent 1.3 millions euros on the continuous training of their agents, which globally represents 1.5% of their salary budget. Since 2010 a constant increase in this expenditure has been observed, with the exception of 2013, which saw a slight decrease¹⁰.

Public agents, meanwhile, are required by the act (art. 31, para. 2, ATS) to adopt a positive attitude to their administration in order to perfect their professional skills and knowledge. For public agents, continuous training is both a right and an obligation.

Overall, the Civil Service Act poses a dual obligation when it comes to continuous training: one for the administration to offer continuous training, the other for the public agents to undertake this training. Although the decision to undergo continuous training can be made at any time of the year, the ideal time is on the day of the annual appraisal and professional development interview. The ATS states that, in the context of this conversation between the agent and their line manager, one or the other may consider the need to undergo further learning to acquire additional skills and knowledge.

In all cases, only the agents direct line manager or head of department can decide whether or not the agent should undertake continuous training. As such, public agents do not have an absolute right to perfect their professional knowledge, rather, it must fit in with the administration's freedom to grant an agents' request to do so. Another restriction on the rights of public agents relates to the fact that they cannot ask the administration to allow them to take part in very expensive, time-consuming continuous training (see below on "resource-intensive training").

All costs relating to the continuous training of public agents are covered by the administration. In addition, as continuous training relates to working time, agents who undergo such training continue to receive their salary (art. 31, para. 10, ATS).

b) The specific case of "resource-intensive training"

Training requiring significant resources (*ressursimahukas kooolitus* in Estonian) is a category of professional training subject to specific regulations in the Civil Service Act.

1) The definition of "resource-intensive training"

According to the ATS, continuous training can be classed as resource-intensive training when it meets two alternative criteria: one relates to time, the other to money. It can include training:

- With a total duration of over 90 calendar days and to which, during this period, the agent dedicates a large amount of their working time by undergoing training, or
- With a total cost of over 5 times the minimum salary, as set by the Employment Contracts Act. The gross minimum salary is currently 470 euros, so continuous training costing at least 2,350 euros would be classed as resource-intensive training.

2) Constraints linked to undergoing "resource-intensive training"

When a public agent undergoes resource-intensive training, their administration can, in certain cases, draw up an administrative contract with them,

stipulating their obligation to work for the administration in question for up to three years (art. 32, para. 2 ATS).

Under the terms of article 32, para. 3 of the ATS, the administration is obliged to draw up such a contract when the planned training costs is over 100 times the minimum salary for full-time employment (currently set at 470 euros).

E. The training of local elected representatives

To our knowledge, no in-depth study has yet focussed on the issue of the training of local elected representatives in Estonia. Nor do we have any official statistics on the level of initial training of the 2,951 local elected representatives in Estonia today. That said, manual aimed at local elected representatives was published in 2016 at the initiative and with the backing of the Estonian Ministry of the Interior (*KOV volikogu liikme käsiraamat* in Estonian)¹¹.

Estonia local elected representatives do not have a specific right to training during their mandate. No rules currently exist or are set to be adopted on this subject in Estonia. Elected representatives are simply free to undertake training, at their own expense and during their working time, if they judge it necessary in order to correctly perform their duties.

II. Latvia

Our goal is to explore training of local public servants in Latvia over the last 20 years in the light of administrative reform and modernisation. We will explain the general training tendencies in public administration and the main reasons related to governance of training inherited in the reform process. Latvia`s experience in establishing training system for public officials might be helpful, since researchers mostly rely on Western experience to explain effects of modernisation and NPM while complexity of reforms in Central and Eastern Europe has gone beyond well-known theories and explanations¹². Even though the central focus of this presentation is local elected representatives in Latvia, the whole training system for public official will be explored since this is the only way to explain the governmental decisions related human resources management and training in Latvia.

A. Training of public administrators

The initial Civil service law (1994) was designed to re-establish the classical Weberian bureaucracy with a complicated system of qualification categories and remuneration. It was created by joining together Latvian pre-WWII experience and the German experience. However, the law was not implemented due to several factors. The traditional bureaucratic model failed since it lacks flexibility to adapt to changing conditions. In addition, there was low trust in public administration at the beginning of 1990ties. Internal pressure to modernise public administration along with external pressure from the international community ensured the rise of NPM as the main reform ideology in Latvia. Contracting-out issues and more discretion to public sector leaders as well as client relationship management were the main items on the reform agenda in 1990ties .

11. This can also be consulted at haldusreform.fin.ee/static/sites/3/2015/11/kov_volikogu_liikme_kasiraamat_2015.pdf

12. Harald Koht, Iveta Reinholde “ From Pre-Weber to Post-NPM: Challenges to Modernization of Public Administration in Latvia and Norway”. In: Gajduscek Gyorgy., KovaĐ Polona. (eds) *Contemporary Governance Models and Practices in Central and Eastern Europe*. NISPAcee Press, 2015, p. 75-96.

Regarding training of public administrators at the national and local levels, Latvia followed the decentralised approach letting the market rule in this sphere. Thus, along state financed training facilities, agencies had the discretion to procure training from the market if this was necessary and agencies could afford to cover the training costs.

Originally, it was intended that recruitment into the civil service will take place on both national and local levels and will be based on a unified approach to remuneration and training, entry exams and qualification grades. Since decentralization happened before the civil service reform (in 1993), it turned out that there was a huge number of stakeholders in opposition to civil service. Many of these stakeholders were local governments- in mid-1990ies there were around 550. Local governments saw civil service as hampering their autonomy and discretion. As the reform progressed, issues regarding civil service were placed on the agenda several times, however they disappeared just as quickly. Despite that, resulting from debates, an agreement was reached that “civil service” will only be applied to/ exist on national level. All later reform efforts were tailored to capacity building of local municipalities for policy implementation and service delivery.

In this respect, the special role of Civil service law (1994) should be mentioned. The law foresaw establishment of two important agencies –the State Civil Service Administration and the Latvian School of Public Administration. The State Civil Service administration had the following functions:

- To design the main principles and guidelines for civil service in Latvia;
- To develop unified human resource management principles for public administration and to control implementation of the law “On civil service”;
- To ensure control and oversight in civil service;
- To organise entry exams and qualification exams for civil servants.

Meanwhile, the Latvian School of Public Administration (further on -the School) (established in 1993) was designed to provide the basic training for new civil servants when they are entering the service. The School operated on state funding, offering the courses for civil servants and employees of the central level free of charge. Since local municipalities decided to stay outside the civil service they found themselves in a situation where they have very limited possibilities to apply for training at the School. Thus, the Training Centre of Local Government (further on - the Training Centre) (established in 1993) was established as a training facility for local municipalities mainly.

The decision to be outside the civil service had further implications. First, it caused the establishment of a parallel training facility, where the training for municipalities was based on the market approach. If ministries sent their staff to the School without additional fees, the municipalities sent their staff to the Training centre covering the training costs from their own budget. Second, different training facilities did not contribute to the building of a common public service ethos and unified understanding of policy implementation. Thirdly, two different reform speeds were created- one at the central level and one at the local level. Finally, different approaches to and speeds of reforms have created “two different public sectors” – central level and local level with a rather different vision of public sector’s mission .

In 2001 Latvia shifted to the position-based civil service system, since the previous approach with career-based civil service with different qualification catego-

ries, entry exams, and detailed oversight from the Civil Service Administration had not been fully implemented due to budgetary constraints and resistance from public administration bodies. The new Civil service law (2000) was also passed, simplifying civil service and making it more open. The new law included a very important precondition - all civil servants must have higher education. Later, the requirement for higher education, due to pressure from universities, was further extended and became a key condition to be employed in the public sector per se. In addition, higher education and continuous education was included as conditionality for performance pay and performance appraisal pushing everyone to study and invest efforts in training since 2009.

A substantial shift in the reform approach came after the umbrella law “On public administration structure” was passed by the parliament in 2002. The law created a unified approach for the whole public administration. Before 2002, the common approach in the laws was to perceive separately central administration, labelling it “public administration”, and local level, labelling it “local self-government”. Now with a new law, the common principles of good governance were introduced on equal basis for all levels. Initially, local municipalities tried to resist the law, arguing that they have their own law on local self-government, adopted back in 1994. However, as time passes the resistance declined.

The law “On public administration structure” has several important articles to be discussed in more detail. First of all, the law designed the unified governance structure, explaining the relationship between local and central governance. This relationship becomes crucial when an issue deals with policy implementation. Secondly, the law spelled out principles of good governance explained in 11 basic points. Thus, continuous training of officials and a common understanding of these basic points became crucial for successful development of a common public sector ethos. Thirdly, principles of administrative law were built in in the administration as well.

Additional training and continuous professional education became a second-range topic at the central level, due to stricter entry requirements. The situation was completely different at local level. Implementation of human resource management practices is left to ministries, agencies and municipalities. They have quite a lot of discretion when it comes to recruitment, selection, promotion, appraisal and training. Since no data is available on education of the employees of local administration, it is hard to make estimates. However, the general tendency shows that most of local administrators have spent some time in universities.

Finally, the law “On local governments” (1994) did not specify or foresaw any requirements for training and education of local elected representatives. Meanwhile, the law “On civil service” (1994) included several articles related to education and training of civil servants, including the Latvian School of Public Administration. However, the austerity regime introduced after the economic decline of 2008/9 pushed the School to survive on its own in the market. Thus, the School developed a curriculum to be competitive in the market of training. At the same time, different training courses were offered by private training companies, professional bodies and associations on a competitive basis on both local and international levels.

When it comes to the requirements regarding elected local representatives, discretion increases even further. The law on Republican city council and

13. Law "On unified remuneration for public administration and local self-governments" Retrieved: likumi.lv/doc.php?id=202273 Last accessed: 05.08.2017.

14. Post of Mr Valdis Gavars. June 5, 2017. Retrieved: www.facebook.com/permalink.php?story_fbid=1855366828123465&id=100009504965420 Last accessed: 05.08.2017.

county council elections (2008) states that anyone who is a citizen of the Republic of Latvia or the EU, is of legal age and sound mind, is registered to vote, has been living and/or employed, or legally owns property in the municipality, is eligible to compete for office in local level elections. One is only prohibited from competing if they are: underage at the time of the election, not legally sane, have committed a severe crime (except if the person is deemed as rehabilitated and the criminal record has been cleared), is or was a member of a foreign intelligence agency or remained a member of one or several organizations of the USSR regime after January 13th, 1991. Despite this, statistics on the education levels of local elected representatives shows that the majority has higher education.

Higher education is an entry condition for labour relations in Latvian public sector ensuring that significant part of labour force is highly skilled. This also puts a pressure of private sector to create more jobs for skilled and educated staff.

B. Continuous education for local elected representatives and suppliers of it

To recap, the Latvian political system assumes that local politicians (or local elected representatives) are elected by acquiring certain number of votes. Skills and experience take a back-seat to popularity. In order to be elected, a candidate joins a political party or several of them form an election association (for small municipalities). Thus, the career background and career path of elected officials might be very different, as the data below in Graph 3 shows. There might be newcomers elected for the first time and old politicians being elected in the local councils for several consecutive terms. The mayor (or head of council) is being employed full-time while other elected officials are employed only part-time.

According to the law "On unified remuneration" (approved 2009)¹³ the data on remuneration paid out to local elected representatives is publicly available online on a monthly basis. For example, the member of Riga municipality Council Mr. Gavars published his payslip on Facebook, stating his monthly salary to be around 450 EUR/Net¹⁴. Continuous training of local elected representatives, previous experience and education do not have any impact on their remuneration. Thus, if they do participate in a seminar or course, it is most likely based on personal motives.

The main suppliers of education for local elected representatives and administrators are the Latvian School of Public Administration, the Training Centre of Local municipalities and private training companies. Since all these stakeholders participate in the training market on a competitive basis, the local municipalities can choose the supplier. Universities and university colleges are providing continuous education in rare cases, mostly in the framework of international projects for specific fields (e.g. for social workers).

The Training Centre of Local municipalities (www.lpmc.lv) is one of the largest suppliers of continuous education and was established with a mission to deliver education and training courses on all topics related to the functioning of local governments. Their web page states that it was founded by 16 municipalities (of 119), The Latvian Association of Local and Regional Governments and the Joint Stock Company "Latvia's State Forests".

For a fee it offers courses mainly in the field of local municipalities on such topics as:

- Management of local municipalities;
- Management of orphans court;
- Management of culture;
- Finances of local municipalities
- Human resource management in local municipalities;
- Social care and social assistance;
- As well as other courses covering the function of local municipalities.

Another serious training provider is the Latvian School of Public Administration. The courses offered by the School are structured into the several groups:

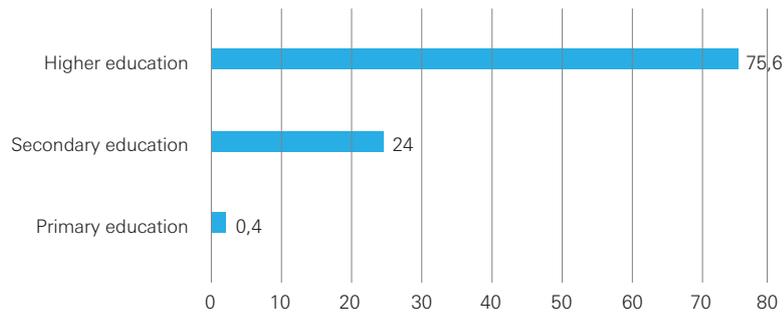
- Introduction to public administration;
- Development of managerial skills;
- Legal issues in public administration;
- Policy implementation
- Human resource management;
- Accounting and finances;
- Communication skills
- Languages;
- IT
- Internal audit.

Since the School also offers the courses for a fee, participants can choose the supplier based on their needs and financial availability. However, these two training operators are competitors since the prices for the courses are quite similar. The local municipalities have full discretion regarding their choice of the training supplier, so the training courses are offered also by private companies and professional bodies as well. The prices set by these bodies might differ quite drastically from the ones set by the School or the Training Centre, which stems from private companies and professional bodies inviting high-level, internationally recognized lecturers and specialists who have no local counterparts. Should a local elected representative, civil servant or municipality employee have interest in participating, they might have to cover the costs out of their own pocket, since, as mentioned, the funds allocated for education in the budget of a particular municipality might not be sufficient. Thus, many might not see this as a worth-vile investment, since the certificate or diploma will have no impact on their future remuneration.

C. Education of local elected representatives – “garbage in – garbage out”

As it was noted, there limited data on education of local elected representatives. Even though the Central Election Commission gathers data on candidates and issues a publication after the results have been finalized, the information is very limited. The published statistical data about the candidates and elected local representatives only looks at age, gender, level of education and the grounds for running for office. Furthermore, the data that is most interesting in the context of this research – education – is very narrow. The graph below shows the published, official results.

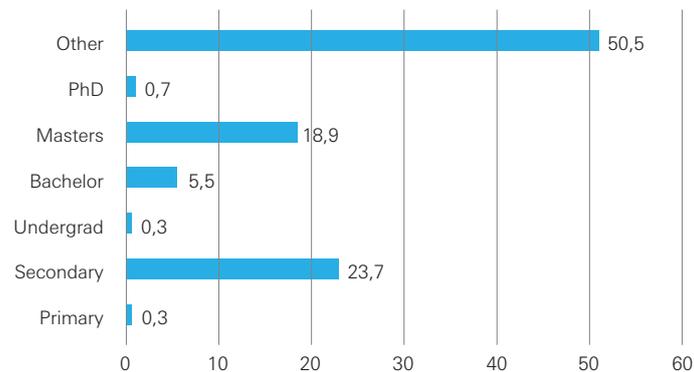
Graph 1: Latvia, Municipality elections 01.06.2013, Elected officials by level of education



Source: Central election commission, Municipality elections 01.06.2013, www.cvk.lv/pub/upload_file/2013/Pasvaldibu%20velesanu%20rezultati%202013_gramata.pdf

This data was deemed not sufficient to contribute properly to this article, thus the authors manually checked approximately 1214 Curriculum Vitae of all elected local representatives, which are published on the web site of the Central Election Commission. The gathered data is summarized in the graph below.

Graph 2: Latvia, Municipality elections 01.06.2013, Elected officials by level of education in detail

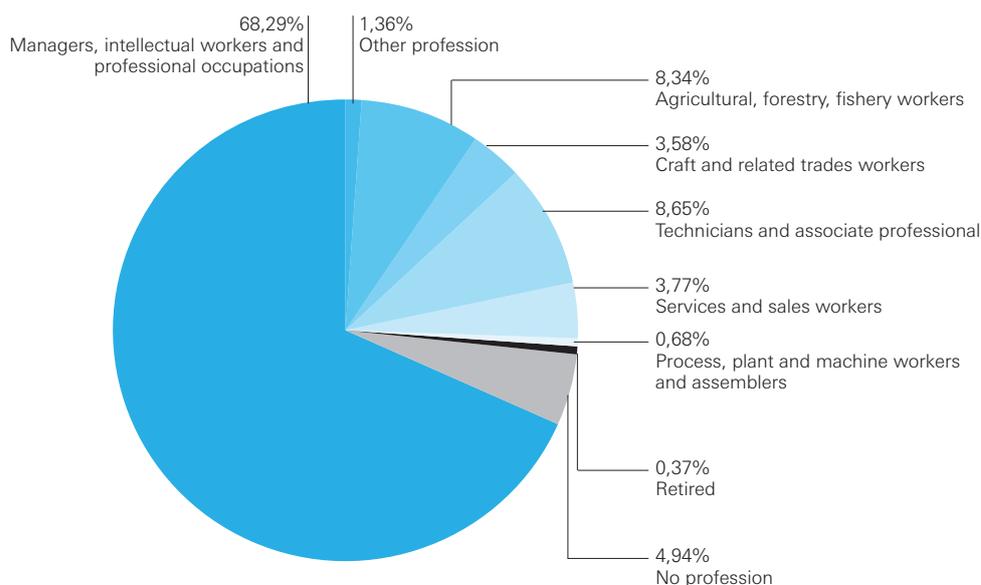


Source: Unofficial source: Central election commission www.cvk.lv/http://www.pv2013.cvk.lv/ResNovPart-0100.html

The category “Other” encompasses the elected local representatives who: 1) did not bother to specify what kind of diploma they received after graduating from an institution of higher education, or 2) who had acquired their education during USSR regime and have not used the option of equating their education to modern standard. As a result, people of this category could be placed in BA, MA categories or as having completed a vocational educational program – thus the discrepancy between the numbers in Graphs 1 and 2. Additional difficulty with interpreting this data and summarizing it properly also stems from the fact that there seems to be no official standard or template as to how the CVs of the candidates are to be filled out.

As it was mentioned before, there often are inconsistencies between a person’s level of education and their office or profession, so a decision was also made to look more closely at the profession or job of all the local elected representatives before they took office. The data is summarized in the graph below.

Graph 3: Latvia, Municipality elections 01.06.2013, Elected officials by profession/ occupation



Unofficial source: Central election commission www.cvk.lv <http://www.pv2013.cvk.lv/ResNovPart-0100.html>

This data was once again gathered manually from the CVs and classified per the International classificatory of profession that was in force in 2016 (since then there have been updates). Once again, several issues made it difficult to interpret the data with a high level of confidence, which can be mostly attributed to the lack of a standardized template. For example, in the CVs there were no dates [“from”, “to”] / information for how long a person had had this occupation, whether they are still working there, etc. Some elected officials only listed their official elected office as their only occupation which might not always be true. In many cases the elected official had only acquired secondary education yet had listed themselves as being board members or something similar, thus making it rather hard to place them. After consultations and discussion, the final decision was made to classify them under “No profession”. In addition to that even though there are more than 150 local elected representatives in the age category “60+”, only 6 people listed “retiree” as their occupation so there might be a lot more.

There were also several cases where the education and position/job of the local elected representative in their CV were so mismatched, it raised questions. The most memorable example was a CV of a male candidate who was elected in a municipality of just over 5 thousand inhabitants. This individual had listed under “Education” having acquired the qualification of “economist-manager”, yet under “Occupation” had stated that he is performing the duties of a “Leading geo-physical engineer, Lead geo-physicist”. This means that there is either a significant chunk of information missing, or that this person is grossly unqualified to perform their duties.

To acquire more in depth information about the real situation in municipalities when it comes to education elected local representatives an attempt was made to send out a survey. The survey was comprised of 22 questions – both multiple choice and open. Unfortunately, the response was so low that the data was deemed unusable for drawing conclusions and constructing an overall picture of the situation. The few answers that were received, however, further confirmed the practice, that there are no specialized training courses for local elected representatives and they are free to take part in any courses that catches their inter-

est if they are willing. The education of local public servants and public servants is mostly left up to the institution that employs them – the law states that there must be funds in the budget dedicated to educational purposes however nothing is said about how big these funds should be or how they are to be spent (priorities, etc.). That creates instability and unpredictability when it comes to local public servants and public servants planning their education in long term.

In sum, when it comes to analysing the education of local elected representatives – both before and after taking office – we are faced with the unfortunate “garbage in-garbage out” situation. The lack of official statistical data and a common standard for filling out a candidate’s CV with sufficient detail has left us perhaps more confused than when we began. However, a rather disturbing conclusion arises from this scarcity of data – it seems that both the candidates and the people publishing official final reports might be operating under the assumption that this information is not important and/or will be not used/read by the public. This in turn hinders the academia from, for example, generating research that would allow to tackle the issues mentioned above, thus minimizing the potential for evidence based change, improvement and long-term evidence based policy learning.

D. Conclusions – fending for themselves

To sum up, even though the system in Latvia has been decentralised for quite some time, it does not promote an increase of quality, because the same legal norms are being interpreted in different ways on national and local levels. In addition, the decentralised system has been promoting various approaches to policy implementation as well. As a result there are various approaches and various views that can lead to misunderstanding and conflicts not only between local and state level governments, but also among various local governments. The situation is not aided in any way by the general vagueness – or non-existence – of the law when it comes to ensuring the initial training and continuous education of both local elected representatives and public administration employees. And one can also not neglect the role of – perhaps, perceived – breaches of a local municipality’s autonomy and discretion have played in sacrificing true coordination, collaboration and the formation of a common public service ethos in the name of reform.

When it comes to the education of local elected representatives, the vast majority have attained higher education, even though the law sets no such requirement. However, the data on this subject is rather scarce and unreliable; the acquisition of comprehensive and reliable data and information requires resources, which are not available at present time. There is no mandatory initial training for newly elected officials, yet there is a handbook, which contains very basic information about what a municipality is and what are some of its functions and operational norms, and the “Dos and Don’ts”, etc..(LPS, 2013)¹⁵ Of course, there is no way of telling if and how often these books are actually consulted by local elected representatives.

When it comes to continuous education, for the most part both local elected representatives and public administration employees seem to be left to fend for themselves or to rely on luck that at the end of the year there will be enough funds left over in the budget to afford participation in at least one or two courses or seminars. Since every municipality decides on how much money they are willing and able to allocate to educational activities, we cannot talk about predictability, stability and common standards in the sphere of educating both local elected representatives of public administration employees in

Latvia. There are many municipalities, especially in the more peripheral and border regions of the country, where the local municipalities struggle with providing education, access to medical care or public transportation at levels, that would comply with the law. Thus, allocating copious funds to educating their employees or elected officials is neither possible nor rational.

Firstly, one must look at these educational activities from the perspective of the individual themselves – how rational or justifiable participation would be. Since the remuneration of local elected representatives is in no way influenced by one’s education, experience and skills, the motivation for participate in various training courses and seminars must come from within the individual. On many occasions participation in such activities – especially if free of charge – might simply be used as an opportunity to socialize with colleagues from other municipalities or to simply enhance one’s public image. If, however, fees are to be paid, the local elected representative might not be interested in investing their own means in an activity that will not bring them any return. Finally, since for the most part of local elected representatives governing is just a part-time job, they might see their time better spent elsewhere. Thus, the cost-benefit margin for making a choice could be very thin.

Local employees of public administration institutions can be a bit more constrained when it comes to making the choice. There are spheres, e.g., securing EU funds via various projects and initiatives, that requires the employee/-s in charge to be knowledgeable about the latest trends, requirements, standards, priorities, etc. Employees, who perform highly specialized tasks, e.g., work in the internal audit department, risk management or IT, are also required to have up-to-date knowledge about the best practices, international standards, trends and technologies. The possibilities for choice are further constrained if the individual has acquired some kind of professional certificate or education, which requires the collection of continuous professional education points – CPE – or hours in order to maintain the validity of the certificate or need to undergo regular recertification (e.g., CIA or CGAP holders, or doctors), which can be very expensive for a single individual. Finally, the individual themselves might be very resistant to change and simply not see the need to listen to some outsider lecture them on how to do their job.

Secondly, one must also consider the balance of requirements and reward from the municipality’s perspective. People who invest time, money and efforts in furthering their education generally do so with the underlying motivation to get something in return, mostly – better career opportunities and/or better remuneration. Unfortunately, remuneration in the public sector is comparatively less competitive than the private sector. Thus, local municipalities – especially more peripheral ones – could face the inability to continue their operations if the requirements for education are too high. People with the necessary qualifications, skills and experience simply would not be interested. Thus, the municipalities must make do with what they have. The situation is also to be made more difficult in the future due to changes in the minimum-wage which is to be increased by 50 euro starting 2018.¹⁶ At first glance it might not seem much, however, one must bear in mind that Latvia had to adopt severe austerity measures after the financial downturn of 2008/9 and the consequences are still felt by many. Thus, many municipalities, especially smaller and more peripheral ones, are already facing challenges with securing funds for salaries and the provision of basic, mandatory services. This means that not only the very likely possibility of reorganizations and lay-offs, but also that continuous education and various trainings will continue to be a luxury and not a standard part of operation.

16. LETA. Minimālo algu jau nākamgad palielinās par 50 eiro. July 4, 2017. Retrieved: www.delfi.lv/bizness/budzets_un_nodokli/minimalo-algu-jau-nakamgad-palielinas-par-50-eiro
Last accessed: 05.08.2017.

III. Lithuania

Under the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania (adopted in 1992 at the national referendum) *the Lithuanian public power* (more precisely, the public government system) consists of *state power* (state government sub-system) and *local self-government* (local self-government sub-system). At the same time, the local self-government is recognized as a specific public administration system, which operates on different grounds than the state power and is not directly subordinate to the state power. Lithuania has a two-level and two-category system of administrative-territorial units: 10 higher-level administrative-territorial units – counties (apskritis) and 60 lower-level administrative-territorial units – municipalities (savivaldybės).

A. Civil service and local civil servants (situation from 2002 till 2019)

Lithuania is one of the countries that had a mixed type of civil service with the features of both career and political position models. The Republic of Lithuania Law on Civil Service was passed in 2002 and has been in place until 01 01 2019. It gave a pattern of organising civil service that were applicable to people who worked in both state and municipal institutions. A natural person, who performed duties in civil service (who worked for state and municipal institutions) and fulfilled civil administrative functions was considered to be a civil servant. Persons, who fulfilled state and local self-government functions (President of the Republic, members of the Seimas, ministers, judges), state officials (prosecutors, members of commissions set up by the Seimas, President of the Republic, and Government), the military, persons who provided civil services and worked for state and municipal enterprises and offices, are were not civil servants. The Law on Civil Service of Lithuania Republic was applicable to 28 540 persons (excluding statutory civil servants, i.e. those whose services are regulated by statutes) of who 6 660 work for municipal institutions. Table 1 shows the dynamics of the number of civil servants (local civil servants included) in state and municipal institutions.

The Republic of Lithuania Law on Civil Service adopted in 2002 stipulated several elements typical of a position model (e.g. possibility of participation in a competition for any vacancy). The Law gave new definitions of civil service and a civil servant; identified several groups of civil servants (local civil servants included): heads of state or municipal institutions or agencies, career civil servants, civil servants of political (personal) confidence, and statutory civil servants, i.e. those whose services are regulated by statutes; provided for a unified system of remuneration based of the categories of civil servants (a civil servant may be of category 1 to category 20), which is the basis for calculating the basic part of a civil servant's remuneration (his/her basic salary). The Law also stipulated a changing part of one's remuneration (bonuses and additional payments) that may not exceed 70 per cent of one's basic salary. The Law contained provisions on the system of evaluating the activities of a civil servant (the performance and the competence level of a civil servant are evaluated). Chapter X as well as other provisions of the Law on Civil Service provided for civil servants' systemic training (forms of training, financing of training, organisation of training, etc.).

Tangible changes (including the ones concerning local civil servants) were introduced on 5 July 2012:

- 1) two stages of selection (including the ones concerning local civil servants) were set forth: the first (centralised) stage implies the assessment of key competencies, managerial capabilities and knowledge of a foreign language (the responsibility of the Civil Service Department); the second stage is the assessment of a candidates ability to fulfil certain functions in an organisations (the responsibility of the head of an employer organisation or its unit);
- 2) performance of civil servants (including the ones concerning local civil servants) was associated with the obligation of a civil servant to upgrade his/her qualifications (civil servants are to trained and upgrade the skills they lack for successful performance of their official duties);
- 3) the concept of a reserve pool, the pool of potential civil servants was introduced (the responsibility of the Civil Service Department);
- 4) new provisions on a civil servant's (local civil servants included) withdrawal from civil service on mutual agreement (between the organisation and the civil servant) by ensuring his/her social guarantees were stipulated;
- 5) stricter provisions on civil servants' (local civil servants included) misconduct in office were introduced;
- 6) a new scheme of organising the system of civil service was set: the Government (with a minister of the interior) together with the Civil Service Department and Personnel Management Commission was the highest body tasked with managing civil service (the one that shapes policies);
- 7) the status of the Civil Service Department was changed. It became an institution reporting to the Government of the Republic of Lithuania, moreover there is the Personnel Management Commission under it with the Director of the Civil Service Department as Chairman of the Commission.

All that has been said concerning the organisation of civil service (training included) extended to civil servants who worked for state as well as municipal institutions and agencies.

Table 1. Dynamics of the number of civil servants employed in state and municipal institutions and agencies in 2010–2017

No	Year	Number of civil servants in state and municipal institutions (statutory servants included)	Number of civil servants in state and municipal institutions (statutory servants excluded)	Total Number of civil servants in municipal institutions			
				Total	Of which	Career civil servants	Heads of institutions
1.	01/01/2010	33 714	28 268	6 267	5 978	116	173
2.	01/01/2011	32 617	27 311	6 197	5 921	116	160
3.	01/01/2012	32 089	26 982	6 224	5 932	117	175
4.	01/01/2013	32 313	27 170	6 394	6 101	114	179
5.	01/01/2014	33 531	28 172	6 555	6 259	117	179
6.	01/01/2015	33 899	28 480	6 657	6 356	118	183
7.	01/01/2016	34 675	28 603	6 562	6 252	116	194
8.	01/01/2017	34 868	28 540	6 660	6 350	114	196

Source: Data of the Civil Service Department of Lithuania Republic

Table 2. Distribution of local civil servants by education and position 01/01/2017

	Career civil servants	Heads of institutions	Civil servants of political (personal) confidence
Higher university education or equivalent education	5889	113	186
Higher non-university or college-level education or special secondary education completed before 1995	343	1	7
Secondary education and appropriate professional qualifications	118	0	3
Total:	6 350	114	196

Table 3. Distribution of local civil servants by age and gender 01/01/2017

Age range/ Gender	Career civil servants	Heads of institutions	Civil servants of political (personal) confidence
18 – 30	419	0	27
31 – 40	1 311	16	62
41 – 50	1 610	30	41
51 – 62.5	2 613	62	52
over 62.5	397	6	14
Total of civil servants:	6350	114	196
Women	4723	55	109
Men	1627	59	87

Table 4. Distribution of local civil servants by category and position 01/01/2017

Position category	Career civil servants	Heads of institutions	Civil servants of political (personal) confidence
20	0	0	0
19	0	0	0
18	0	7	0
17	2	53	11
16	22	25	59
15	82	28	52
14	370	1	10
13	643	0	37
12	1 363	0	10
11	1 006	0	15
10	1 271	0	0
9	1 029	0	1
8	330	0	1
7	148	0	0
6	62	0	0
5	15	0	0
4	8	0	0
3	1	0	0
2	0	0	0
1	0	0	0
Total:	6350	114	196

Table 5. Distribution of local civil servants by knowledge of languages 01/01/2017

Foreign language	Career civil servants	Heads of institutions	Civil servants of political (personal) confidence
Total:	6 350	114	196
Russian	4 331	77	85
English	2 636	41	85
German	1 247	29	21
French	354	4	11
Spanish	21	0	0
Polish	578	17	22

B. Training of local politicians (situation from 2002 till nowadays)

Despite attempts to train local politicians in 1994-1997 when on the initiative and funding of four Unions of Lithuanian Local Authorities and the Association of Local Authorities, launched in 1995, and with the assistance of Dutch and Danish experts training materials for newly elected local politicians were prepared and systematic training sessions for elected local politicians were organised at the Centre for Training of Civil Servants and Languages in 1995 and 1997, efforts to create a single system of training for local politicians (initial and continuous) failed. Currently each municipal council, presided by a Mayor, decides on training programmes (modules, subjects) and forms of training (lectures, seminars, etc.) for local politicians to gain knowledge they lack or to improve their competencies.

The Law on Local Self-government of Lithuania Republic actually provides that an executive institution (Director of a municipal administration) is tasked with organisation of training of local politicians. A traditional way is as follows: before a Director of a municipal administration draws (revises) a three-year strategic plan for the municipality and an estimate of a municipal budget for the coming year (which usually takes places in October and/or November), he/she sends out a questionnaire to members of the municipal council to find out what trainings (what programmes, modules, lectures, seminars, traineeships, etc.) financed from the municipal budget of the coming (financial) year would be preferable. After he/she gets responses, he/she plans for respective measures in the three-year strategic plan and appropriate financial allocations (funds) in the draft municipal budget of the coming year. After the municipal council endorses the plans, employees of the municipal administration (civil servants), authorised by the Director, organise trainings in line with the selected training programmes (modules, courses, seminars) in view of the funds available for the purpose. About 50 per cent of trainings of local politicians happens and is funded in that way.

Trainings of local politicians may be financed in other ways:

- 1) the Association of Local Authorities in Lithuania or a political party that gets funding for its projects aimed at training of local politicians or political party members from the EU structural funds or other financial instruments organises training of local politicians;
- 2) a municipality or a state institution, e.g. a ministry, an agency under a ministry, a non-governmental organisation, etc. gets funding from the EU structural funds, other financial instruments, the state budget or other sources for its projects of improvement of the functioning of the public sector and its governance, which comprises

improvement of qualifications of local politicians, local civil servants and employees, e.g. projects aimed at better strategic plans, projects to engage communities in management of local affairs, or projects to improve the system of internal control, etc.

Organisation of trainings of local politicians, in case a municipality or the Association of Local Authorities in Lithuania hold specialised training sessions for their needs while funding comes either from the municipal budget or from the EU Structural Measures or other financial instruments, is the same as organisation of training for local civil servants: training services provided by persons that provide training services to local politicians are acquired under the procedure established in the Law on Public Procurement. Training sessions take place in the administrative premises of the municipality or in the premises that belong to or are rented by the persons that provide training services. Having completed a respective training programme or its modules, local politicians are issued certificates by the persons that provide training services. Even though evaluation forms are not compulsory, at the end of a training session local politicians usually give their evaluation of the quality of the services.

Trainings organised for local politicians by a municipality in its administrative premises are usually free of charge. In case trainings are organised by other persons that are eligible to funding from EU funds, other financial instruments, etc., the costs of a return trip of local politicians to and from the location where their training takes place, their stay at a hotel or another place of temporary residence are covered by the municipality (60-70 per cent) and by the local politicians themselves (30-40 per cent) unless funding is planned in the training project. The duration of a training session (programme, module, seminar) for local politicians inside Lithuania usually is one or two days (8 or 16 academic hours).

Data available from every local election proves that the turnover of politicians is about 50 per cent. Newly elected local politicians, however, are hardly ever given an initial training. They are briefly told about their rights and obligations, which means to say that they gain knowledge and skills by working as elected members. Systemic training sessions of several modules to newly elected local politicians are exceptions rather than a pattern in Lithuania. That is why the training organised by the Association of Local Authorities in Lithuania in 2015 – it was the first time when mayors were elected directly and three fifths were elected for the first time – was a nice exception and an example. The newly elected mayors went to Brussels and were acquainted with representation of interests of local authorities in European Union institutions.

Continuous training of local politicians is common practice when they acquire knowledge and skills in the areas of significance to their municipalities: strategic management (planning), financial control and audit, civil service and human resource management, absorption and administration of financial support from EU structural funds, local politicians' ethics, communication and public relations, sustainable development, implementation of a social policy in municipalities, implementation of an education policy in municipalities, e-government and information technologies, etc.

Training to local politicians in Lithuania is provided by:

- 1) The Association of Local Authorities in Lithuania or Training and Consultation Centre of the Association of Local Authorities;

- 2) Public authorities or their training centres, e.g. Chief Official Ethics Commission, Civil Service Department, Special Investigation Service, Public Administration Institute under the Ministry of the Interior (until 2019), Training and Rehabilitation Centre *Dainava* of the Ministry of the Interior, Training Centre of the Ministry of Finance (until 2019), etc.;
- 3) Universities or their training centres, e.g. Vilnius University, Mykolas Romeris University, Šiauliai University, Municipal Training Centre of Kaunas Technological University);
- 4) Non-governmental organisations or their training centres, e.g. Transparency International, Non-Governmental Organisation Information and Support Centre (NISC), etc.;
- 5) Training and/or consultation firms in the private sector, e.g. UAB “Eurointegracijos projektai” [Euro integration projects], UAB “Kompetencijos ugdymo sprendimai” [Solutions for Competence Development], UAB “Vadybos pokyčių konsultavimas” [Consultations in Management Change], Public Agency “Kompiuterinių programų mokymo centras” [Computer Programs Training Centre], etc.

C. Initial training and improvement of qualifications of local civil servants (situation from 2002 to 2019)

1. Legal provisions on improvement of initial training and improvement of qualifications of local civil servants

During period from 2002 to 2019 Lithuania could be characterised by relatively solid legal provisions on training of civil servants (local civil servants included) and on improvement of their qualifications. To be precise, it had a unified system of legal acts on training. The core of the system was the Law on Civil Service of Lithuania Republic where:

- 1) Chapter X (of three paragraphs) stipulated types of training of civil servants (local civil servants included), its funding and organisation. ;
- 2) The Law on Civil Service Article 15 Paragraph 1 established the duty of civil servants (local civil servants included) to study in accordance with the procedure laid down in this Law while Article 16 Paragraph 1 laid down the right of public servants (local civil servants included) to training, in accordance with the procedure laid down in this Law, financed from the state budget and municipal budgets;
- 3) Article 22 of the Law on Civil Service that established a system of evaluation of civil servants (local civil servants included) clearly said that among other purposes of evaluating the performance and qualification of a civil servant is was the one of assessing his/her qualification and ability to perform the functions set out in his/her job description; that in case the evaluation commission evaluated the performance of a civil servant “satisfactory”, it suggested that the head of the institution should not only assign a lower qualification class but made sure the civil servant improved his/her professional qualifications, while in case a public servant’s performance is was evaluated as “unsatisfactory”, the evaluation commission suggested that the head of the institution should demote the civil servant and necessarily make certain that he/she improved his/her qualifications;
- 4) Article 38 of the Law stipulated a possibility for civil servants (local civil servants included), who had the work record of at least three months, to enjoy a leave of up to one year for the improvement of qualifications; the civil servant retained the formerly occupied position, but does did not receive any remuneration;

5) Article 43 of the Law that regulated guarantees available to civil servants (local civil servants included) stipulated that a civil servant, who under his/her consent was sent for training for a period of over 30 calendar days, had guarantees that he/she would retain the job and would be paid 100 per cent of his/her remuneration for a period of up to 30 calendar days and would be paid 50 per cent of his/her remuneration for a period that exceeded 30 calendar days.

2. Strategy for training of civil servants

The Strategy for Training of Civil Servants was drafted, approved and implemented with reference to Article 47 of the Law on Civil Service.

By implementing the 2011–2013 Strategy for Training of Civil Servants that was approved by the Resolution of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania of 12 January 2011 No 20 On the Approval of the Strategy for Training of Civil Servants for 2011–2013, approx. 51 per cent of civil servants improved qualifications every year (55.9 per cent in 2011; 51.3 per cent in 2012; 46.6 per cent in 2013). During that period, the most frequently developed competences were in the area of implementation of strategic goals of the state and municipal institutions and agencies. A greater need for improving managerial and leadership skills were experienced in 2013 as 9.5 per cent of all the civil servants, who participated in training sessions, focused on management skills, improved their leadership and management competences (compare 0.6 per cent in 2011; 1.2 per cent in 2012).

On the other hand, training sessions related to a decision-making process and implementation of decisions in the European Union, and Lithuania's preparation for the Presidency in 2013, when Lithuania was getting ready for and held Presidency of the Council of the European Union, as compared with 2012, doubled.

Allocations per person trained in 2011–2013 amounted to LTL 630 (LTL 943 in 2013, LTL 461 in 2012, and LTL 487 in 2011). The funding for training of civil servants came from the state budget as well as other sources.

Assessment of Quality and Efficiency of Training was launched on 1 February 2012 in the self-service sub-system of the Civil Service Information System and aimed at high quality of the training. The idea was that civil servants (local civil servants included) should fill in a questionnaire and respond concerning the quality of the session they had attended. The data obtained from the respondents show that the civil servants who had attended the training sessions gave 4.29 points out of 5 maximum points for the quality and efficiency of the training.

In order to set priorities in the training of civil servants and priority groups of civil servants to be trained, in 2013 the Civil Service Department analysed the situation by asking heads of state and municipal institutions and agencies, heads of structural units and persons, who are responsible for human resources administration, to respond to several questions. The analysis led to the conclusion that approx. 67 per cent of the respondents were satisfied with the system of training of civil servants. However the survey also showed that a relatively large share of the respondents wanted the training to be improved (about 82 per cent of the respondents). They pointed out that civil servants' professional skills needed for fulfilment of specific functions set out in their job descriptions should be the focus of the training (about 95 per cent of the

respondents). As for the civil servants who provide services to inhabitants, the proposal was to prioritise development of a customer-centred approach (about 90 per cent of the respondents). Other proposals: development of analytical thinking (about 90 per cent of the respondents); development of communication skills (about 85 per cent of the respondents). When naming priority groups of civil servants to be trained, the respondents indicated that, first and foremost, the skills of civil servants who provide services to citizens and other persons who come to and/or appeal to institutions and agencies need to be improved (about 83 per cent of the respondents); another priority group were civil servants who make the largest contribution into attainment of strategic goals of their institutions and agencies (about 80 per cent of the respondents and their qualifications). Next by importance is the group of civil servants who are the heads of state and municipal institutions and agencies (about 77 per cent of the respondents).

Having considered the results of the survey, the Government of the Republic of Lithuania passed Resolution of 28 May 2014 No 481 which approved the *Strategy For Training Of Civil Servants For 2014–2017* (further referred to as the Strategy).

The Strategy laid down a strategic goal and two priority objectives:

- 1) the strategic objective of training of civil servants was improvement of performance/efficiency of civil servants (local civil servants included);
- 2) the first objective of training of civil servants was strengthening of strategic competences of civil servants (local civil servants included):
 - Managerial, leadership and change management skills of civil servants;
 - Communication skills of civil servants;
 - Analytical skills of civil servants;
 - Competences and skills of civil servants, who provide services to inhabitants, to exercise a customer-centred approach;
 - Knowledge of civil servants in professional ethics and corruption prevention;
 - Competences and skills of civil servants in the area of digital information security (cyber security).

Civil servants were to be grouped for training into separate priority groups or being trained to reach training objectives.

The following priority groups of civil servants (local civil servants included) to be trained were listed in the Strategy for 2014–2017:

1. The highest category (category 18–20) of civil servants;
2. Middle management positions;
3. Civil servants, who provide services to inhabitants;
4. Civil servants, who occupy higher risk-related and corruption-sensitive positions;
5. Civil servants, who perform corruption prevention and control functions.

- 3) the second objective of training of civil servants (local civil servants included) was improvement of the efficiency of training, which was expected to be reached by introducing innovative ways of organising the training.

The criteria and aspired targets in the evaluation of the implementation of the Strategy for 2014–2017 and attainment of goals and tasks are laid down in an annex to the Strategy (Table 6).

Table 6. List of criteria and aspired indicators for evaluation of the Strategy for Training of Civil Servants for 2014–2017

No	Criteria and units of measurement of evaluation of objectives and tasks	Indicators				
		Initial indicator (2013)	2014	2015	2016	2017
	The strategic objective of training of civil servants is improvement of performance/efficiency of civil servants (local civil servants included)					
	Share of residents who believe that the performance of civil servants is improving (per cent)	22	23	24	25	26
	Share of public administration institutions that apply a competence model (per cent)	1.6	1.6	100	100	100
1.1.	The priority objective of training of civil servants is strengthening of strategic competences of civil servants					
	Share of civil servants having improved qualifications of the total number of civil servants (per cent)	46.6	51	52	53	54
	Share of civil servants, having attended training sessions that meet the priority objectives of training, of the total number of civil servants having improved qualifications (per cent)	–	–	10	15	20
1.1.1.	The task is to organise/conduct training of civil servants in separate priority groups					
	Number of civil servants, having attended training aimed at improving strategic competences	–	–	–	6 000	6 500
1.2.	The priority objective of training of civil servants is improvement of the efficiency of training ²					
	Evaluation of the efficiency of training of civil servants (giving points in rating 1 to 5) – <i>civil servants are surveyed to get the indicator</i>	4,29	4,3	4,35	4,4	4,5
	Average budget funds allocated for the training of one participant (in LTL)	265	270	275	280	285
1.2.1.	The task is to introduce innovative ways of organisation of training					
	Number of new ways of organisation of training of civil servants introduced	–	–	3	3	3

The Strategy was implemented by state and municipal institutions where civil servants had their jobs. State and municipal institutions annually:

1. Analysed training needs and evaluate the quality of training;
2. Set target groups to be trained;
3. Organised respective training.

The implementation of the Strategy was coordinated by the Civil Service Department that:

1. Performed the functions with regard to training prescribed to it by Article 49 Paragraph 4 of the Law on Civil Service;
2. Conducted surveys of civil servants in relation to organisation of training in state and municipal institutions and agencies;
3. Carried out monitoring of training of civil servants in the self-service sub-system of the Information System of Management of Civil Service (Lith. VADIS – Civil Service Management Information System) and the Register of Civil Servants;
4. Gave proposals and recommendations concerning the organisation of training of civil servants to state and municipal institutions and agencies.

Data about the implementation of the Strategy and the related legal acts were submitted by the Civil Service Department in its report to the Government of the Republic of Lithuania and the Minister of the Interior.

3. Procedure of organisation of training of civil servants

Article 47 of the Law on Civil Service provided that the Government not only approved the Strategy for Training of Civil Servants but the *Procedure For Organisation Of Training For Civil Servants*, too.

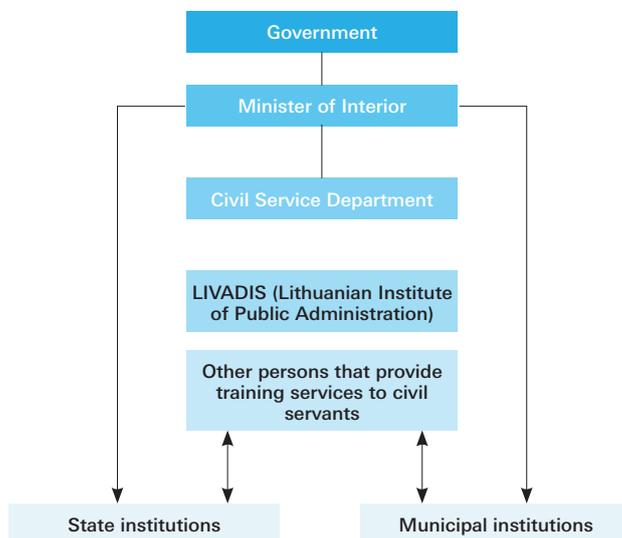
The Procedure for Organisation of Training for Civil Servants (further referred to as the Procedure) had been in force since 1 January 2013 under Resolution of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania No 1575 till 1 January 2019. The Procedure set the procedures for preparation, evaluation, approval, recognition as invalid, and organisation of training for civil servants, and the system of evaluation of the quality of the training.

Main provisions on organisation of training for civil servants

The main legal acts prescribing training for civil servants were as follows:

- The Law on Civil Service (provided the system, forms, funding and organisation of training for civil servants);
- The Strategy for Training of Civil Servants (provided for priority groups of civil servants and priority of objectives of their training);
- The Procedure for Organisation of Training for Civil Servants (stipulated procedures for approval of civil servants' training programmes and organisation of training for civil servants).

Figure 1. The system of training for civil servants in Lithuania



Source: personally processed on the basis of the Law on Civil Service of Lithuania Republic

The main principles of training for civil servants:

- The persons, who were the employers of the civil servants, were responsible for training of civil servants and organisation thereof;
- Training of civil servants was coordinated by the Civil Service Department;
- Civil servants were trained in agencies approved by the Director of the Civil Service Department;
- Training programmes of the duration of more than 8 academic hours were approved by an order of the Director of the Civil Service

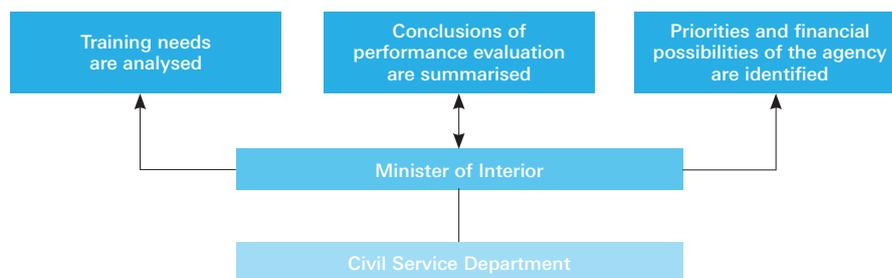
Department;

- The strategy for training civil servants (where priorities are set) and the procedure of the organisation of the training were approved by the Government;
- The Minister of the Interior approved the requirements for the content of the training programmes and the list of persons, who enjoyed the right to provide training services to civil servants.

Training abroad (Resolution of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania of 4 August 2006 No 780)

- Civil servants might improve their qualifications in other state or municipal institutions or agencies, international institutions or institutions of foreign states.
- A civil servant was sent to improve his/her qualification upon decision of the head of the agency he/she works for after a personal invitation for the civil servant to improve his/her qualification was received by the civil servant or the agency (p.14).

Figure 2. Planning of training for civil servants



Source: personally processed on the basis of the Law on Civil Service of Lithuania Republic

Training plan:

- After having been coordinated with the head of the agency, the training plan was annually submitted to the Civil Service Department via VATIS (the Information System of Management of Civil Service) by 10 March.
- Having found discrepancies between the training plan and the strategy provisions, the Civil Service Department annually notified respective agencies of it via VATIS by 24 March.
- The agencies that received the notifications revised their training plans and submitted them to the Civil Service Department via VATIS by 10 April.

Acquisition of training services:

- Services of training for civil servants were acquired in line with the Law on Public Procurement, simplified open procurement procedure, irrespective of their value.
- In case the price of a service was lower than EUR 3000 (value net of VAT), there might be an oral interview/negotiation and a contract; in case the price of the service was higher than EUR 3000 (value net of VAT), the negotiation and the contract had to be in writing.
- Article 22 of the Law on the Value Added Tax established that education and *training services should be VAT exempt*.
- Training services might be acquired on the basis of both criteria, that of the lowest price and economic efficiency.

What was training in the sense of the Law on Civil Service?

- Types of training:
 - 1) Initial training (obligatory for newly appointed career civil servants)
 - 2) Improvement of qualifications (improvement of professional knowledge during the entire period of service).
- Improvement of qualifications may take various forms, e.g. courses, seminars, conferences, discussions, rounds table discussions, etc.).
- The Law on Civil Service implied that the training, conducted in approved agencies that enjoyed the right to provide qualification improvement services (except for the cases set out in Resolution 780) on the basis of approved programmes, when certificates of attendance were issued as a result of attending the training, and most frequently funded from the budget line “improvement of qualification”, were considered to be improvement of qualifications of civil servants.

Funding of training:

- The Law on Civil Service prescribed that funds to be used for training of civil servants should account for no less than 1 per cent and not more than 5 per cent of total allocations for the remuneration of civil servants.
- A contract concerning repayment of the funds allocated for training should be concluded with a civil servant if his/her training exceeded *uninterrupted* 2 months of training.
- The funds needed not be repaid in case a civil servant moved from one public administration agency to another, e.g. change of official posts.
- The only funds to be repaid are those allocated for training; business trip expenses need not be repaid.

Report:

- Agencies submitted reports on the training of their civil servants for the previous year to the Civil Service Department via VATIS by 1 February.

4. Persons who provided training services

Paragraph 2 of Article 45 of the Law on Civil Service stipulated that training programmes for civil servants (local civil servants included) should be developed and civil servants (local civil servants included) should be trained on the basis of those programmes only by persons, who were approved under the procedure prescribed by the Minister of the Interior.

The *Procedure For Approval Of Persons Providing Training Services For Civil Servants* had been in place since 1 January 2010 under the Order of the Minister of the Interior of the Republic of Lithuania of 31 December 2009 No 1V-735 till 1 January 2019. The Procedure set out:

1. Requirements for physical persons wishing to provide training services for civil servants.
2. Procedures approved by the Order of the Director of the Civil Service Department for entering physical persons into and removing them from the List of Physical Persons Enjoying the Right to Provide Training Services for Civil Servants
3. Procedures approved by the Order of the Director of the Civil Service Department for entering legal persons into and removing them from the List of Agencies Enjoying the Right to Improve Qualifications of Civil Servants.

The right to provide training services for civil servants were enjoyed by:

1. The physical persons who met the set requirements – citizens of the Republic of Lithuania, of Member States of the European Union and the European Free Trade Area and their family members.
2. The legal persons that met the set requirements – legal persons or other organisations registered in the Republic of Lithuania, a Member State of the European Union, or their branches registered in the Republic of Lithuania, and/or branches in the Republic of Lithuania of legal persons and other organisations registered in other foreign states (further referred to as legal persons).

A physical person, who wished to provide training services, to civil servants (local civil servants included) had to meet at one of the following requirements:

1. He/she had to be a scientist in the area and/or branch of science linked to the content of the training programme to be delivered to civil servants.
2. He/she had to have no lower than higher university education (master's degree) or equivalent education and at least 3 years of practical experience in relation to the content of the training programme to be delivered.
3. He/she had to have no lower than higher university education (bachelor's degree) or equivalent education and at least 5 years of practical experience in relation to the content of the training programme to be delivered.

A legal person, who wished to provide training services to civil servants (local civil servants included) had to meet the following requirements:

- 6.1. It had to have teachers/a teacher capable of delivering training programmes, who meet/meets at least one requirement of Point 5 of the Procedure and have an employment, copyright or preliminary contract with the legal person that wishes to provide training services to civil servants on provision of the training services.
- 6.2. It had to have experience in provision of training services (the total number of academic hours of training sessions provided within a year prior to submission of the documents listed in Point 8 of the Procedure must be at least 300 and the total number of participants trained must be at least 200).

A physical and/or legal person that wished to provide training services to civil servants might to submit to the Civil Service Department the documents set by the Procedure. The following procedure of the evaluation and approval of documents received from persons, who wished to provide training services, was prescribed by the Procedure approved by the Minister of the Interior.

- 1) After having received the documents, within 5 working days from the day of their receipt, the Civil Service Department sent a confirmation to the physical or legal person about the receipt of the documents and mentions the term during which the application would be considered and possible means of recourse of the physical and legal person that could be applied in case of a dispute between the Civil Service Department and the physical or legal person that wished to provide the training services to civil servants.
- 2) Within 10 working days from the date of receipt of all the documents, the Civil Service Department evaluated on the basis of the submitted documents whether the physical or legal person met the set requirements. In case the physical or legal person failed

to submit all the required documents or the information in the documents was not detailed enough, the Civil Service Department notified the physical or legal person of the necessity to do so in 20 days after the Civil Service Department sent the notification of submitting the missing documents or correcting the shortcomings.

3) Having found that the physical or legal person did not meet the set requirements, within 10 working days from the date of receipt of the documents, the Civil Service Department notified the physical or legal person of its non-compliance and of what requirements are were not met, and returned the submitted documents.

4) The physical or legal person that wished to provide training services to civil servants was approved by the order of the Director the Civil Service Department by entering the physical person into the *List Of Physical Persons Enjoying The Right To Provide Training Services For Civil Servants*, and by entering the legal person into the *List Of Agencies Enjoying The Right To Improve Qualifications Of Civil Servants*.

5) After the physical person was entered into the List of Physical Persons Enjoying the Right to Provide Training Services for Civil Servants and the legal person was entered into the List of Agencies Enjoying the Right to Improve Qualifications of Civil Servants, within 10 working days from the date of coming into force of the respective order of the Director of the Civil Service Department, those persons were sent a user name and password by e-mail in order for them to access the Sub-system of Training Agencies in the VADIS portal.

As provided by the Procedure for Approval of Persons Providing Training Services for Civil Servants approved by the Order of the Minister of the Interior of 31 December 2009 No 1V-735, the Director the Civil Service Department approved by his/her orders:

- 1) The *List Of Agencies Enjoying The Right To Improve Qualifications Of Civil Servants*;
- 2) The *List Of Physical Persons Enjoying The Right To Provide Training Services To Civil Servants*.

The *List Of Agencies Enjoying The Right To Improve Qualifications Of Civil Servants* was approved by the Order of the Director the Civil Service Department of 2 January 2013 No 27V-2. The list (as at 1 June 2017) contained 171 entries of legal persons enjoying the right to provide training services to civil servants: universities, colleges, public agencies, private companies, partnerships, centres, etc. The List is was revised by entering new legal persons and removing legal persons that terminated the activities of providing training services. The Director of the Civil Service Department issued 19 orders to that end in 2013, 24 orders in 2014, 29 orders in 2015, 34 orders in 2016, and 17 orders in 2017 (till 1 June 2017).

The *List Of Physical Persons Enjoying The Right To Provide Training Services To Civil Servants* was approved by the Order of the Director the Civil Service Department of 2 January 2013 No 27V-1. There are 9 physical persons in the List (as at 1 June 2017). This List is continuously revised as well. The Director of the Civil Service Department issued 4 orders aimed at renewal of the List in 2013, 5 orders in 2014, 2 orders in 2015, 7 orders in 2016, and 6 orders in 2017 (till 1 June 2017).

5. Training programmes

As mentioned before, the Resolution of the Government of 28 December 2012 No 1575 On Approval of the *Procedure For Organisation Of Training For Civil Servants* has been in force since 1 January 2013 till 1 January 2019. It established the procedure for the development, approval, recognition as invalid of training programmes for civil servants (further referred to as training programmes). As to training programmes the *Procedure* provided:

1. Training programmes the duration of which did not exceed 8 academic hours were submitted for approval to the Civil Service Department.
2. A training programme submitted for approval should specify the following aspects:
 - 2.1. the title of the programme, its duration in academic hours, training methods to be applied, and the duration of practical tasks in academic hours should be specified;
 - 2.2. the following data about the teachers involved should be given: education and work experience in relation to the content of the training programme.
3. Documents supporting the education and work experience of the teachers involved should be provided together with the training programme that is submitted for approval in a digital medium 'methodological materials of the training programme'.
4. The teachers involved in the training programme should meet the requirements for persons that provide training services to civil servants (local civil servants included) set by the Minister of the Interior.
5. The training programmes submitted to the Civil Service Department should be reviewed by two reviewers (one of who covers the practical side and the other is a representative of the respective area of science). The review should analyse and evaluate the methodological material of the training programme and its relevance to the content of the training; the appropriateness of the application of the methodology of the training programme should be revealed; the appropriateness of the training programme to the target group should be assessed; the subject-matter and application of the training programme should be considered in view of ensuring the attainment of the objectives and goals of the training programme; when appropriate, recommendations on improvement of the training programme should be given.
6. The reviewers should meet the following requirements:
 - 6.1. The vocational activity of the reviewer practicing in the field should be related to the content of the training programme/programmes and be at least 4 years long;
 - 6.2. The scientific reviewer should have a doctor's or doctor habilitatus' degree in the area and/or branch of science he/she reviews;
 - 6.3. The reviewers may not:
 - 6.3.1. work for the agency that enjoys the right to improve qualifications and is submitting the training programme for approval;
 - 6.3.2. during the period of the review of the training programme, have a copyright or preliminary contract on provision of training services with the agency that enjoys the right to improve qualifications and is submitting the training programme;
 - 6.3.3. be developers or teachers of the training programme.

7. In case the review contains recommendations concerning improvement of the training programme, a reasoned letter by the service provider, reconciled with the reviewer who gave recommendations concerning improvement of the training programme, should be submitted to the Civil Service Department to explain how the recommendations were taken into consideration.
8. The Civil Service Department evaluates the training programme within 7 working days and approves it or returns it to the developers with remarks and a request to revise it.
9. The training programmes submitted to the Civil Service Department are approved and recognised as invalid by an order of the Director of the Civil Service Department.
11. The training programme approved by an order of the Director of the Civil Service Department is registered in the database of the Information System of Management of Civil Service (VADIS) and entered into the list of training programmes on the website of the Civil Service Department, while the programmes that are recognised as invalid are deleted from VADIS and removed from the list of the training programmes on the website of the Civil Service Department.
12. The training programmes of the duration of 8 or fewer hours were approved and recognised as invalid by persons that provide training programmes. The data required by Point 5 of the Procedure should be included in the training programmes.
13. The persons that provide training services register their approved training programmes in the VADIS database and delete the programmes recognised as invalid from VADIS in the procedure set for VADIS.
14. The persons that provide training programmes may conduct training on the basis of their training programmes for civil servants (local civil servants included) only after they have registered their programmes in the VADIS database.

It has already been mentioned that training programmes for civil servants (local civil servants included) were developed in line with the *Requirements For The Content Of Training Programmes For Civil Servants*. The Requirements for the Content of Training Programmes for Civil Servants that should be complied with were approved by the Order of the Minister of the Interior of 20 July 2009 No 1V-386 (requirements for the content and documentation of a training programme).

The Requirements provided:

1. for the following types of training programmes for civil servants (local civil servants included) that were stipulated in Paragraph 1 of Article 45 of the Law on Civil Service: initial training programmes, training programmes for improvement of qualifications (including training programmes for civil servants of categories 18-20 and lower categories of heads of agencies).
2. A training programme for civil servants should have a theoretical part and a practical part.
3. General requirements for the content of initial training programmes aim to acquaint civil servants (local civil servants included) with:
 - 3.1. The system of entities of public administration;
 - 3.2. The process of making public policy decisions;
 - 3.3. The hierarchy of legal acts, rules of drafting of laws and other legal acts;

- 3.4. Civil service and topicalities of its reform;
- 3.5. The institutional framework of the European Union and the fundamentals of European Union legislation;
- 3.6. The ethical principles of civil servants and ways of and measures for corruption prevention;
- 3.7. Organisation of consideration of personal applications, complaints and information and provision of services under a 'one-stop shop' principle in public administration institutions and agencies;
- 3.8. Peculiarities of drafting internal documents (except laws and other legal acts) and usage of an official written language in public administration institutions and agencies.
4. Taking into consideration the nature of the functions of state and municipal institutions, initial training programmes may be supplemented with training modules aimed to broaden professional knowledge of civil servants (local civil servants included).
5. The duration of an initial training programme may not be shorter than 36 academic hours.
6. A training programme for heads of agencies of a lower category than category 18 should be designed to develop the competencies of the civil servants for them to be able to:
 - 6.1. Improve strategic management;
 - 6.2. Organise and improve consideration of personal applications, complaints and information and provision of services under a 'one-stop shop' principle in public administration institutions and agencies
 - 6.3. Apply modern leadership, management and public organisation theories;
 - 6.4. Improve decision-making, communication and cooperation by making use of information and communication technologies;
 - 6.5. Ensure equal opportunities;
 - 6.6. Participate in activities of European Union institutions and agencies and implement provisions of EU legislation;
 - 6.7. Perform functions in relation to the implementation of the national regional policy.
7. The duration of a training programme for heads of agencies of lower category than category 18 may not be shorter than 72 academic hours.
8. A training programme for civil servants of category 18-20 should be designed to develop the competencies of the civil servants for them to be able to:
 - 8.1. Improve strategic management;
 - 8.2. Organise and improve consideration of personal applications, complaints and information and provision of services under a 'one-stop shop' principle in public administration institutions and agencies
 - 8.3. Apply modern leadership, management and public organisation theories;
 - 8.4. Improve decision-making, communication and cooperation by making use of information and communication technologies;
 - 8.5. Ensure equal opportunities;
 - 8.6. Participate in activities of European Union institutions and agencies and implement provisions of EU legislation;
 - 8.7. Implement the key provisions on ensuring national security.
10. The duration of a training programme for civil servants of category 18-20 may not be shorter than 100 academic hours.

11. Qualification improvement programmes should be designed to develop the competencies of civil servants:
 - 11.1. Which would facilitate attainment of priority training objectives set out in the *Strategy For Training Of Civil Servants For 2014–2017*;
 - 11.2. Which are needed for drafting and implementing legal acts;
 - 11.3. Which are needed for making an assessment of the impact of legal acts;
 - 11.4. Which are needed for cooperating and working in a team;
 - 11.5. Which are needed for settlement of conflicts and management of stressful situations.
12. Qualification improvement programmes should be designed to develop other competencies of civil servants, too, beside the ones mentioned above, that are necessary for them in fulfilling their official duties.

Table 12. Number of local civil servants, who were trained 2014–2017

Year / Month	Career civil servants	Heads of institutions	Civil servants of political (personal) confidence
2014	3 088	56	47
2015	2664	63	57
2016	2 766	53	43
till 1/06/2017	1 721	32	28
January 2017	427	5	1
February 2017	499	6	4
March 2017	662	11	10
April 2017	491	14	13
May 2017	301	16	4
1–15 June 017	132	10	2

Source: data of the Civil Service Department of Lithuania Republic

6. Training plans

As mentioned before, the *Procedure For Organisation Of Training For Civil Servants* approved by the Resolution of the Government of 28 December 2012 No 1575 has been in force since 1 January 2013 till 1 January 2019. The Procedure provided that:

1. An agency drafts a training plan for its civil servants for a current year (further referred to as a training plan).
2. The training plan sets out the number of civil servants employed in the agency, who will attend training sessions, by type of training and funds to be allocated for the training.
3. The training plan is drafted by a structural unit of the agency or the civil servants, who perform the functions of human resource management / personnel administration (further referred to as a personnel administration unit).
4. In its efforts to draft the training plan, the personnel administration unit takes the following steps:
 - 4.1. It analyses the training needs of the agency's civil servants;
 - 4.2. It summarizes proposals (recommendations) from civil servants' direct superiors and a civil servants' evaluation commission concerning improvement of qualifications of the civil servants in consideration of the results of the latter's official performance;
 - 4.3. It sets priority objectives of training for civil servants and priority

groups for the training with reference to the Strategy for Training of Civil Servants approved by the Government of the Republic of Lithuania (further referred to as the Strategy) and the agency's strategic goals and financial possibilities.

5. The training plan, reconciled with the head of the agency, is submitted to the Civil Service Department via VATIS by 10 March of the current year.
6. The Civil Service Department analyses the trainings plans submitted by the agencies and assesses their compatibility with the Strategy provisions. Having found any incompatibility, the Civil Service Department notifies the agencies about it via VATIS by 24 March. The agencies that are notified of any incompatibilities revise their training plans and submit them to the Civil Service Department via VATIS by 10 April of the current year.

7. Reports on training

The *Procedure For Organisation Of Training For Civil Servants* approved by the Resolution of the Government of 28 December 2012 No 1575 that has been in force since 1 January 2013 till 1 January 2019 also stipulated that:

1. Agencies submit reports on training of their civil servants in the last year via VATIS by 1 February every year. The reports give the number of the agency's civil servants and the number of civil servants, who attended the training sessions, by type of training, the funds allocated for training purposes, and the share (percentage) of funds allocated for training of civil servants from the Republic of Lithuania State Budget and municipal budgets in total allocations for the remuneration of the agency's civil servants.
2. The persons that provide training services submit their activity reports to the Civil Service Department via VATIS by 1 February. They report on the training programmes conducted during the year and the duration of training sessions, the number of civil servants, who attended the training sessions, and the teachers involved, the payments received, the agencies that used their training services, information about civil servants' improvement of qualifications abroad, and responses of the attendees concerning the quality of the training.
3. The Civil Service Department:
 - 3.1. Analyses reports on the training of civil services submitted by the agencies;
 - 3.2. Analyses annual reports submitted by the persons that provide training services to civil servant and, where appropriate, give them remarks on the implementation of the training programmes;
 - 3.3. Summarises the data on the training of civil servants obtained from the reports of the agencies and persons that provide the training services to civil servants and inserts them into a general report on the implementation of the Republic of Lithuania Law on Civil Service and other related legal acts which is made public on the website of the Civil Service Department.

8. System of evaluation of the quality of training

The *Procedure For Organisation Of Training For Civil Servants* approved by the Resolution of the Government of 28 December 2012 No 1575 that has been in force since 1 January 2013 till 1 January 2019 had general provisions on the evaluation of the quality of training as well:

1. With a view to ensuring the quality of training for civil servants, the persons that provide the training services to civil servants:
 - 1.1. Must make a survey of the civil servants (local civil servants included) on the quality of the training; having summarised the responses, insert the data of the survey into their annual activity reports;
 - 1.2. Ensure that all the teachers involved in the implementation of the training programmes meet the requirements set in the Procedure.
2. The persons, who employ civil servants (local civil servants included):
 - 2.1. Are responsible for the acquisition of high quality training services to civil services;
 - 2.2. Ensure that all the civil servants of the agency respond to questions in respective questionnaires in the self-service sub-system of VATIS upon completion of the training.
3. Upon completion of every training session, a questionnaire is sent out to the civil servants on the quality of the training to be filled in in VATIS. The civil servants must fill it in within 5 days from the receipt of an email message about the presence of the questionnaire in VATIS.
4. In its efforts to monitor the implementation of training programmes, the Civil Service Department:
 - 4.1. Having analysed the annual activity reports by the persons that provide the training services and having found that 50 or more than 50 per cent of the respondents gave a negative assessment of the quality of the services, may initiate the procedure for recognising the services of that person invalid under the procedure established by the Minister of the Interior;
 - 4.2. Analyses the data available on VATIS on the quality of training and places the data on the website of the Civil Service Department;
 - 4.3. Analyses the responses by the civil servants available on VATIS concerning the quality of the training sessions conducted by certain persons that provided the training services and, having found that 50 or more than 50 per cent of the respondents gave a negative assessment of the quality of the implementation of certain training programmes:
 - 4.3.1. Recognises as invalid the training programmes the duration of which exceeds 8 academic hours and notifies of it the person that provides the training services no later than on the next working day;
 - 4.3.2. Removes the training programmes the duration of which is shorter than 8 academic hours from VATIS and notifies of it the person that provides the training services no later than on the next working day;
5. When appropriate, the Civil Service Department may purchase expert services as prescribed by the Republic of Lithuania Law on Public Procurement for an assessment of a training programme to be made.

9. Funding of training for civil servants

Article 46 of the *Law On Civil Service* contained general provisions on funding of training for civil servants:

1. The training of civil servants (local civil servants included) in state and municipal institutions and agencies should be financed from the funds allocated from the state budget and municipal budgets. Such funds should account for no less than 1 per cent and not more than 5 per cent of total allocations for the remuneration of civil servants.

2. In case the duration of a training session exceeded 2 months and training is was funded from the state budget or municipal budgets, a contract should be concluded with a civil servant (a local civil servant included) concerning the repayment of the funds allocated for the training. The contract should provide that the funds would be repaid by the civil servant if he/she:
 - 1) Resigned from the civil service less than one year after completion of the training;
 - 2) Was dismissed from office due to a disciplinary penalty.
3. A person dismissed from the civil service with whom a contract for the repayment of the funds allocated for training was concluded should within 6 months after his/her dismissal refunded the training-related expenses incurred by a state or municipal institution or agency to a relevant state or municipal institution or agency. If the person failed to refund the expenses related to his/her training, the state or municipal institution or agency would apply to court for the recovery of such funds.
4. Training of civil servants seeking to improve their qualifications might financed from the funds other than specified in Paragraph 1 of this Article.

10. Sending of civil servants for training to other institutions, international institutions and institutions of foreign states

As stated before, Paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 45 of the Law on Civil Service prescribed a possibility for civil servants to improve their qualifications both in Lithuania and foreign states under the procedure established by the Government. The *Rules Of Sending Civil Servants To Improve Their Qualifications To Other State Or Municipal Institutions Or Agencies And To International Institutions Or Institutions Of Foreign States And Of Covering Training Expenses* approved by the Resolution of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania of 4 August 2006 No 780 have been in place since the date of their approval till 1 January 2019. The Rules stipulated that:

1. Agencies submit information about their capacity to accept civil servants from other agencies for improving their qualifications or their wish to send their civil servants to improve their qualifications to other agencies to the Civil Service Department.
2. Having received information from a foreign institution about a possibility to improve qualifications, the agency submits it in writing or by email to the Civil Service Department within 5 days from the receipt of the information.
3. When the agency receives information about a possibility to improve qualifications, which is exclusively related to the competence of the agency that received it, and when the employer takes a decision that there are reasonable grounds for a civil servant (a local civil servant included) to be sent to improve his/her qualifications, civil servants employed in the agency are informed of the possibility to improve qualifications.
4. The civil servant to be sent for improving his/her qualifications is selected by the head of the agency or by the person authorised by him/her, or by a selection commission set up by the head of the agency. Civil servants wishing to improve their qualifications submit applications, reconciled with their direct superiors, to the head of the agency or the person authorised by him/her, or the selection commission set up by the head of the agency.
5. In case the improvement of qualifications concerns the competence

of several agencies and the number of candidates is higher than the number of vacancies, the selection of civil servants to be sent to improve qualifications in a foreign institution is made by a commission, set up by an order of the Director of the Civil Service Department, with representatives of the Civil Service Department and the agencies whose functions correlate with the nature of improving of qualifications and, in case of necessity, experts from respective areas as its members.

6. While selecting a civil servant to be sent to improve his/her qualification, priority is given to civil servants:
 - 6.1. Whose functions defined in their job descriptions meet the content of the course for improvement of qualifications;
 - 6.2. Who meet criteria for members of priority groups in civil servants' training as set forth in the Strategy for Training of Civil Servants approved by the Government of the Republic of Lithuania.
7. When a civil servant or an agency receives a personal invitation to improve qualifications, the civil servant is sent to improve his/her qualifications upon a decision of the head of the agency.
8. Within 14 calendar days after having returned from the improvement of qualifications course, the civil servant submits a report to the head of his agency and a document certifying the completion of the course (if it was issued).
9. Information about the improvement of qualifications of a civil servant, the subject and duration of a course, the nature of funding are entered into the Register of Civil Servants.
10. Expenses in relation to training conducted in the territory of the Republic of Lithuania are covered as set out in the *Rules Of Covering Expenses Of Business Trips In Budgetary Institutions* approved by the Resolution of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania of 29 April 2004 No 526.
11. Expenses in relation to improvement of qualifications in a foreign institution, in case they are not covered by the foreign institution, or in relation to improvement of qualifications in a state institution or agency located outside the territory of the Republic of Lithuania, are covered under the following procedure:
 - 11.1. In case the duration of the course of improvement of qualifications is shorter than 30 calendar days (travel time excluded), the expenses in relation to the improvement of qualifications are covered by the agency that sends the civil servant.
 - 11.2. In case the duration of the course of improvement of qualifications is longer than 30 calendar days, the expenses in relation to the improvement of qualifications for the first 30 calendar days are covered by the agency that sends the civil servant as prescribed in the *Rules Of Covering Expenses Of Business Trips In Budgetary Institutions*; while, from the 31st day, the expenses, i.e. a per diem and rent, are covered by the agency that sends the civil service to improve his/her qualifications in the following manner:
 - 11.2.1. If a per diem is not higher than the rate of a per diem set by the Minister of Finance for a foreign state, the per diem is decided by the head of the agency;
 - 11.2.2. If a rent is not higher than the rate of a rent set in the STANDARD RENT IN FOREIGN STATES approved by the Minister of Finance, the rent is decided by the head of the agency.
12. If the expenses in relation to improving qualifications in a foreign institution are reimbursed by the foreign institution, the agency does

not cover any of the expenses.

13. All training-related expenses are covered only against the documents justifying the expenses.

D. CONCLUSIONS

1. Despite attempts to train local politicians in 1994–1997 when on the initiative and funding of four Unions of Lithuanian Local Authorities and the Association of Local Authorities, launched in 1995, and with the assistance of Dutch and Danish experts training materials for newly elected local politicians were prepared and systematic training sessions for elected local politicians were organised at the Centre for Training of Civil Servants and Languages in 1995 and 1997, efforts to create a single system of training for local politicians (initial and continuous) failed. Currently each municipal council, presided by a Mayor, decides on training programmes (modules, subjects) and forms of training (lectures, seminars, etc.) for local politicians to gain knowledge they lack or to improve their competencies.

2. Data available from every local election proves that the turnover of local politicians in Lithuania is about 50 per cent. Newly elected local politicians, however, are hardly ever given an initial training. They are briefly told about their rights and obligations, which means to say that they gain knowledge and skills by working as elected members. Systemic training sessions of several modules to newly elected local politicians are exceptions rather than a pattern in Lithuania.

3. Continuous training of local politicians in Lithuania is common practice when they acquire knowledge and skills in the areas of significance to their municipalities: strategic management (planning), financial control and audit, civil service and human resource management, absorption and administration of financial support from EU structural funds, local politicians' ethics, communication and public relations, sustainable development, implementation of a social policy in municipalities, implementation of an education policy in municipalities, e-government and information technologies, etc.

4. Training to local politicians in Lithuania is provided by:

- 1) The Association of Local Authorities in Lithuania or Training and Consultation Centre of the Association of Local Authorities;
- 2) Public authorities or their training centres, e.g. Chief Official Ethics Commission, Civil Service Department, Special Investigation Service, Public Administration Institute under the Ministry of the Interior (until 2019), Training and Rehabilitation Centre *Dainava* of the Ministry of the Interior, Training Centre of the Ministry of Finance (until 2019), etc.;
- 3) Universities or their training centres, e.g. Vilnius University, Mykolas Romeris University, Šiauliai University, Municipal Training Centre of Kaunas Technological University;
- 4) Non-governmental organisations or their training centres, e.g. Transparency International, Non-Governmental Organisation Information and Support Centre (NISC), etc.;
- 5) Training and/or consultation firms in the private sector, e.g. UAB “Eurointegracijos projektai” [Euro integration projects], UAB “Kompetencijos ugdymo sprendimai” [Solutions for Competence Development], UAB “Vadybos pokyčių konsultavimas” [Consultations in Management Change], Public Agency

“Kompiuterinių programų mokymo centras” [Computer Programs Training Centre], etc.

5. Trainings of local politicians in Lithuania may be financed in these ways:

- 1) about 50 per cent of trainings of local politicians are funded from the municipal budgets;
- 2) the Association of Local Authorities in Lithuania or a political party that gets funding for its projects aimed at training of local politicians or political party members from the EU structural funds or other financial instruments organises training of local politicians;
- 3) a municipality or a state institution, e.g. a ministry, an agency under a ministry, a non-governmental organisation, etc. gets funding from the EU structural funds, other financial instruments, the state budget or other sources for its projects of improvement of the functioning of the public sector and its governance, which comprises improvement of qualifications of local politicians, local civil servants and employees, e.g. projects aimed at better strategic plans, projects to engage communities in management of local affairs, or projects to improve the system of internal control, etc.

6. During period from 2002 till 2019 Lithuania could be characterised by relatively solid legal provisions on training of civil servants (local civil servants included) and on improvement of their qualifications. To be precise, it had a unified system of legal acts on training. The core of the system was the Law on Civil Service of Lithuania Republic where Chapter X (of three paragraphs) stipulated types of training of civil servants (local civil servants included), its funding and organisation.

7. The other main legal acts prescribing training for civil servants (local civil servants included) in Lithuania were as follows:

- 1) the Strategy for Training of Civil Servants which was approved by the Resolution of 28 May 2014 No 481 of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania (provides for priority groups of civil servants and priority of objectives of their training);
- 2) the Procedure for Organisation of Training for Civil Servants which was approved by the Resolution of 1 January 2014 No 1575 of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania (stipulates procedures for approval of civil servants' training programmes and organisation of training for civil servants).

8. The main principles of training for civil servants (local civil servants included) in Lithuania were:

- 1) the persons, who are the employers of the civil servants, are responsible for training of civil servants and organisation thereof;
- 2) training of civil servants is coordinated by the Civil Service Department;
- 3) civil servants are trained in agencies that are approved by an order of the Director of the Civil Service Department;
- 4) training programmes of the duration of more than 8 academic hours are approved by an order of the Director of the Civil Service Department;
- 5) the Minister of the Interior approves the requirements for the content of the training programmes to civil servants.

9. Local civil servants (local civil servants included) might improve their qualifications in other state or municipal institutions or agencies, international institutions or institutions of foreign states. A civil servant was sent to improve his/her qualification upon decision of the head of the agency he/she works for after a personal invitation for the civil servant to improve his/her qualification is received by the civil servant or the agency.

10. In the sense of the Law on Civil Service of the Republic of Lithuania there were these types of training of local civil servants (local civil servants included) in Lithuania:

- 1) initial training (obligatory for newly appointed career civil servants);
- 2) improvement of qualifications (improvement of professional knowledge during the entire period of service). Improvement of qualifications might take various forms, e.g. courses, seminars, conferences, discussions, rounds table discussions, etc.). The Law on Civil Service implied that the improvement of qualifications, conducted in approved agencies that enjoyed the right to provide qualification improvement services on the basis of approved programmes, when certificates of attendance were issued as a result of attending the training, and most frequently funded from the budget line “improvement of qualification”, were considered to be improvement of qualifications of civil servants.

11. The services of training for civil servants (local civil servants included) in Lithuania were acquired in line with the Law on Public Procurement, simplified open procurement procedure, irrespective of their value. In case the price of a service was lower than EUR 3000 (value net of VAT), there might be an oral interview/negotiation and a contract; in case the price of the service was higher than EUR 3000 (value net of VAT), the negotiation and the contract might be in writing.

12. Article 46 of the Law on Civil Service of Lithuania Republic contained general provisions on funding of training for civil servants:

- 1) the training of civil servants (local civil servants included) in state and municipal institutions and agencies should be financed from the funds allocated from the state budget and municipal budgets. Such funds should account for no less than 1 per cent and not more than 5 per cent of total allocations for the remuneration of civil servants;
- 2) in case the duration of a training session exceeds 2 months and training is funded from the state budget or municipal budgets, a contract should be concluded with a civil servant (a local civil servant included) concerning the repayment of the funds allocated for the training;
- 3) training of civil servants (local civil servants included) seeking to improve their qualifications might be financed from the funds other than specified in Paragraph 1 of this Article.

THE CHALLENGES OF TRAINING PUBLIC AGENTS AND LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES IN VISÉGRAD GROUP COUNTRIES (HUNGARY, POLAND, CZECH REPUBLIC AND SLOVAKIA)

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Viségrad Group countries are characterised by a unique relationship with the training of public agents and local elected representatives due to their shared paths. Decentralised territorial management models were quickly imported after the fall of the Berlin Wall. At the time, these countries were characterised by the absence of a culture of local action, which had wiped out several decades of Soviet communism. It was therefore a matter of breaking away from this authoritarian centralised model, and democratisation seemed to require decentralisation. The importing of these models of governance, which were not necessarily suited to the socio-political reality of these central European states, was accelerated with a view to joining the European Union. Numerous legal powers were granted to the regional and local authorities that were hurriedly set up, without giving the newly-recruited agents – most of whom were from a state administration background – time to be trained. The restitution of political autonomy to villages, which had been under collective authoritarian rule during the normalisation period of 1968 to 1989, led to an increase in the number of municipalities – and therefore local elected representatives – as well as in the need for ad hoc training. These municipalities were granted new powers, without having the means to exercise them. This observation also applies to the regions created latterly. In the 1990s, regionalisation was therefore perceived as a necessary criterion for joining the European Union, and the prospect of obtaining structural funds accelerated this process. Central authorities orchestrated these institutional decentralisations, and legal frameworks that protected local autonomy were quickly adopted. However, during this transition human resource management was neglected in favour of a perhaps overly formalist legal approach that sought to create decentralised structures in line with the idealised European standards which some Western countries were broadly circumventing. Due to a lack of time and adequate financial means, the training of public agents and local elected representatives has long been deficient. The vast majority of local public agents are recruited from state administration. These people often retain their centralist-influenced institutional cultures. Similarly, the newly-elected political leaders have been given broad responsibilities without really having the technical skills to exercise them. This has led to shortcomings and, as a result, a dependence on central authorities. However, successive reforms have gradually allowed for the implementation of training systems that now have some similarities with those that exist in other European countries.

In order to correctly present the issue of training for public agents and local elected representatives in the states examined here, it is first important to look back at the sociological and historical context **(I)**, before addressed the training of local public agents **(II)**, followed by local elected representatives **(III)**, more concretely.

I. Sociological and historical recontextualisation of the challenges of training public agents in Viségrad Group countries

It is essential that the history of Viségrad Group countries be taken into consideration in order to understand the specific administrative cultures linked to these unique histories. This provides a better understanding of the contemporary challenges of training local public agents in countries where the very concept of local action, working to a “bottom-up” type model, is relatively recent.

1. François BAFoil, *Europe centrale et orientale. Mondialisation européenne et changement social*, Presses de Sciences Po, Paris 2006, p.17.

2. Law of 8 March 1990 on local administration (*Dz.U. 1990 nr 16 poz.95. Ustawa z dnia 8 marca 1990 r. o samorządzie terytorialnym*).

3. Legislative bodies of groupings (*gromady*), the lowest echelon of the authoritarian state and deprived of any individual legal capacity, made up of delegates from the local corps of the Polish Workers' Party, and the manager of national goods tasked with implementing the objectives set out by the central state.

4. Law of 5 June 1998 on the administration of departments (*Ustawa o samorządzie powiatowym z dnia 5 czerwca 1998 roku. Dz. U. 01.142.1592*).
Law of 5 June 1998 on the administration of regions (*Ustawa o samorządzie województwa z dnia 5 czerwca 1998 roku. Dz. U. 01.142.1590*).

5. *System administracji publicznej w Polsce*, Ministerstwo administracji i cyfryzacji, Warszawa, 2014, p.5. [mac.gov.pl, access: 22.07.2016].

In these countries, which were long under the Soviet yoke, regional and local authorities were perceived as a potential “perversive” risk to the regime. Hidden behind the egalitarian rhetoric of the regime was the fear of any opposition to the “single-party dictatorship”¹. The communist hegemony was characterised by a very hierarchical organisation and the domination of the centre over the periphery. The capital cities home to the centres of power attempted to erase any regional specificities. The use of minority languages was forbidden in favour of the language of the ethnic majority. This was the case in Polish Silesia, the Sudetes, Slovakia and Hungary. Any hint of initiative was condemned. The so-called “normalisation” period followed on from the abortive attempt in to ease the grip of the regime through the implementation of a “socialism with a human face” in 1968, which was violently suppressed. It was not until the fall of the Berlin Wall that a genuine democracy was established. Authoritarian centralisation is part of the institutional history of the Viségrad Group countries and allows us to understand the often-complex relationships between the capital cities and the peripheral regions.

In the 1990s, the reassertion of local autonomy seemed an integral part of the democratisation process. It had a very strong symbolic significance, which may explain the speed – or haste – with which the reforms took place. The gradual development of training for local agents in Viségrad Group countries not only met the challenges of increasing the professionalism of staff in regional and local authorities, but was also part of a broader process relating to the democratisation of the entire political system after the fall of the authoritarian, centralised system of the socialist state. The democratisation of society was therefore impossible without the re-establishment of free regional and local structures stemming from regional and local authorities made up of inhabitants who were free to manage their futures and their local areas. It is therefore unsurprising that one of the first reforms adopted after the semi-democratic legislative elections of June 1989 in Poland was the law on the “self-management of the municipality” of 8 March 1990². The inclusion of local authorities in national heritage, with the creation of the notion of municipal property, the elimination of national assemblies³, and the election – through free and universal suffrage – of democratic municipal authorities make the municipality the cornerstone of the Polish regional and local system. In this context, Poland’s ratification of the European Charter of Local Self-Government was made possible and took place in 1993, long before the adoption of the new democratic constitution in 1997 and the territorial reforms regarding the establishment of districts and regions in 1999⁴. After the municipal reform of 1990, 2,479 municipalities were created, with an average size of 126 km² and an average population of 15,400 inhabitants⁵. The municipality performs the tasks set out in article 7 of the law of 1990 (local roads, water and waste management, land planning, housing, primary education, local transport, protection of the environment and green spaces, etc.) and exercises the jurisdiction transferred by the state and with the assistance of its legislative and executive bodies.

In Viségrad Group countries, the rapid transfer of jurisdiction to municipalities and staff who are insufficiently prepared has led to many shortcomings. For example, in the context of a local democracy in its infancy, delegating the management of land planning has led to inconsistencies in the urban development of certain towns and cities. On occasion, it has even led to wrongdoing. In Slovakia, for example, the power to issue building permits has allowed for personal gain to the detriment of general interest, as is sometimes illustrated by the unbridled development of some constructions in areas that are over-populated and affected by pollution or by parking problems. In the

absence of genuine control by a then-nascent local democracy, transferring certain powers to the municipalities turned out to be a risky gamble. In the V4 countries, where communism had at times led even the most audacious citizens to resign themselves to accepting the unacceptable, some distrusted collective actions during this period, favouring more individual strategies. For example, the restructuring of human resources in public service has occasionally been rather opaque. It has only rarely provoked collective opposition, as this was not in the culture of these countries and would have been unlikely to succeed. The agents who lost out from this system were more willing to mobilise their networks individually in order to obtain a position in another department rather than collectively oppose the arbitrary or unjust nature of a reform. The loss of trust in the concept of general interest, which was distorted by the communist regime, and the absence of any culture of collective opposition have left a considerable degree of latitude for individual and partisan approaches. These have sometimes prevailed over local or regional interest, which were still rather vague notions.

Despite a desire for change, proponents of reform in Viségrad Group countries have come up against institutional inertia. Sociologists have shown that the members of an organisation will not immediately become invested in a process when the expected outcomes are unknown, preferring instead to perpetuate traditional practices whose mechanisms they understand. Although the desire for change that existed after the fall of the Wall represented a window of opportunity and allowed for a full restructuring of constitutional and legislative frameworks, administrative practices have been subject to a degree of historical continuity⁶. Changes to regional and local structure and the establishment of new institutions do not automatically trigger such a radical change in the mentality of agents, a much lengthier process. This is principally the case with local civil servants, who were trained under the authoritarian state regime and whose consequent behaviour has not instantly adjusted to changes in the institutional framework. Under the popular democratic system, the citizen was not a subject but rather an object in his or her relations with the state administration, and was obliged to passively accept the often arbitrary decisions of the nomenklatura. The civil servant was always in command of the situation. This resulted in a flagrant imbalance between the civil servant and the “user”. Changes to the rulebook after 1989 demanded a change in practices, not only from civil servants accustomed to their supremacy, but also from citizens, who often had an insufficient awareness of their rights. It took several years for citizens to gain recognition, and since this process is not yet complete, the issue of the central position of the user is far from resolved.

In the early years following the creation of regional and local authorities in Viségrad Group countries, these structures were run alongside state structures in a system in which the distribution of powers remained vague for several years: “*In Slovakia, the distribution of powers between state structures and regional and the newly-established local authorities were very unclear in the period prior to joining the EU. Lines were blurred, but there was hope that the situation would be clarified in the future*”⁷. This was the case in the four V4 countries, and the upheaval created by the many reforms with a view to joining created real instability.

Staff recruited to work in regional and local authorities were, by definition, mainly ex-state civil servants who unknowingly brought their centralist-influenced administrative cultures with them. “Sometimes, the administrative

6. Frédéric DELANEUVILLE, “La lente réaffirmation des identités politiques locales et régionales en France et dans les pays du groupe de Viségrad: approches comparatives”, *Pour une Europe forte, rénover les structures économiques, entrepreneuriales, politiques, territoriales et éducatives*, Travaux scientifiques du réseau PGV, Belianum, Banska Bystrica 2015, (ISBN: 978-80-557-0921-5), p. 445-454.

7. Tomáš JACKO, Ľudmila MALIKOVA, “Public Administration in Slovakia – One Step Forward, Two Steps Back?”, in Mirko Vintar, Allan Rosenbaum, György Jenei, Wolfgang Drechsler (eds.), *The Past, Present and the Future of Public Administration in Central and Eastern Europe*, NISPAcee Press, Bratislava 2013, p. 124-137.

staff did not even have to move offices, and the new sign on the building in which they worked did nothing to immediately dispel their working habits.”⁸

In a system in which power continued to be exercised in a very hierarchical way, no value was accorded to personal initiatives. For that matter, the reorganisation of territorial management was seen as a threat by agents, who suspected a drastic reduction in staffing.

The implementation of a new institutional framework did not enable these states to completely shed the cultural vestiges of the communist regime. Local elected representatives and agents of the newly-established regional and local authorities lacked any genuine culture of local action, putting them in an inferior, delayed position compared to central power.

In a system where, for several decades, the development of professional careers favoured hierarchical allegiance over skill, the recruitment of regional and local authority agents could not immediately be conducted on a purely meritocratic basis. Unlike the private sector, where the law of the market has been able to punish inefficiency and push for rapid improvement in management and working methods, practices have developed more slowly in the public sector. This inertia has been exacerbated by the lack of means that could have provided for proper training for all public agents.

It is essential that this institutional heritage be taken into consideration in understanding the importance of the contemporary issues of training local public agents in these four countries. Nevertheless, the change recorded over the past few decades is significant. The standardisation of procedures, the adoption of ISO standards, the development of resources, the increased professionalism of civil servants, and the development of skills and expertise demanded by the complexity of the problems to be dealt with, especially in the context of conducting projects co-funded by the European Union, have allowed local agents to take on responsibilities regarding the development and future of their regional and local authorities.

II. The development of a legal framework for the training of local public agents

There were no decentralised regional and local authorities under the communist regime in the Viségrad Group countries. As such, the question of the status of local agents was never raised, as the regime rejected the existence of free regional and local authorities on principle. Legal frameworks for the training of local public agents are therefore relatively new. Although legislating in these four countries quickly recognised the principles of local autonomy, aspects relating to the training of local public agents emerged more slowly. However, article 6 of the European Charter of Local Self-Government, ratified by the four Viségrad Group countries, provides that *“the conditions of service of local government employees shall be such as to permit the recruitment of high-quality staff on the basis of merit and competence; to this end adequate training opportunities, remuneration and career prospects shall be provided.”*

The legal frameworks implemented for the training of local elected representatives differ considerably from one country to another, but it should be noted that the training of local public agents is now compulsory in the four Viségrad Group countries.

	Law rendering the training of local public agents compulsory
Hungary	Law n°199C- 2011 on public agents
Poland	Law of 2008 on local government employees
Czech Republic	Law n°312/2002 of 1 January 2003
Slovakia	Employment law n° 311/2011

In Poland, the first laws on the status of local public agents were adopted in the 90s. The status of local public agents in Poland was codified for the first time by the law of 22 March 1990⁹, several days after the re-establishment of the municipal tier. This law was widely criticised due a lack of clarity in its regulations, making it very difficult to read, as well as its omission of the issue of training for local agents. Despite its flaws, this law, which has been in force for eighteen years, played an important role in the emergence of regional and local authority officers in the initial phase of the political transformation in Europe. Although urgently adopted in order to meet the need for decentralisation after several decades of authoritarian communism, this status had the merit of quickly filling a legal gap and making it possible for the first regional and local authority officers to emerge.

The training of local public agents in Poland was regulated for the first time by a relatively recent legislative text, the Law on local government employees of 21 November 2008¹⁰. In the text in question, the legislator addresses both the initial and continuous training of local agents. With regard to initial training, the law created a compulsory “preparatory service”¹¹ for those who had no significant professional experience in regional and local authorities. In article 16, the law specifies that their employment contract is for a maximum fixed period of six months. According to article 19, the head of the organisational unit shall appoint an agent in charge of the “preparatory service” and determines the context of the initial training, taking account of the skill level of the person and the demands of their role. The duration of this “preparatory service” may not exceed three months and end with an examination, the successful completion of which is an essential condition for extension of the employment. The way in which the initial training and final examination are conducted are specified by an order from the head of the organisational unit. The aim of the “preparatory service” is the theoretical and practical preparation of the agent for the proper performance of their duties.

It should be noted that, per article 24 of the Law on local government employees of 21 November 2008, local agents have an obligation to ensure the “continuous improvement of skills and qualifications”. According to the first paragraph of article 29, local government employees must take part in various forms of training and activities that ensure their increased skills and professional skills. The same article states that the budget of the territorial unit allocates the financial resources for improving the skills and professional qualifications of its employees. If the training is conducted outside the workplace, the employer is obliged to reimburse all related travel and accommodation costs. The employee can therefore only refuse training if it is provided outside the official working hours or if they are obliged to contribute to it financially. In practice, training can only be conducted if the employees has the necessary funds. As a result, a regional or local authority is not actually obliged to provide a favourable response to its employees’ requests for specific training¹².

9. Law of 22 March 1990 on the employees of regional and local authorities (*Ustawa z dnia 22 marca 1990 r. o pracownikach samorządowych* (Dz.U. 1990 nr 21 poz. 124).

10. Law of 21 November 2008 on Local government employees (*Ustawa z dnia 21 marca 2008 r. o pracownikach samorządowych* (Dz.U. 2008 Nr 223 poz. 1458).

11. “*służba przygotowawcza*” in Polish.

12. Artur RYCAK, Magdalena RYCAK, Jakub STELINA, Jerzy STEPIEN, *Ustawa o pracownikach samorządowych: Komentarz Praktyczny* (Law on local public agents: comments), Lex a Wolters Kluwer business, 2013, p. 149-150 (ISBN 8326462322, 9788326462320).

13. Available online: natlex.ilo.ch/dyn

14. Available online: www.czechlegislation.com

15. "úředníci" in Czech

In Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Hungary, legal mechanisms to protect local autonomy were also adopted in the 1990s. The constitutions of these countries explicitly recognised this concept, but initially, as in Poland, they neglected the aspects relating to human resources.

In Slovakia, the training of agents was not regulated until Employment law n°311/2001 of 2 July 2001. This law, which is very general in its scope as it applies to all public and private sector employees, features specific rules for local public agents. There is no standardised initial training system for local public agents in Slovakia. As with all employees, local public agents are subject to the Labour code, specifically law n° 311 of 2001. Paragraph 47 of this law specifies the "*obligations incumbent on the employer*":

"By recruiting an employee, the employer is obliged to acquaint them with:

- *the work rules,*
- *the collective agreement,*
- *the legal regulations relating to work performed by him/her,*
- *the legal regulations and other regulations ensuring occupational safety and health,*
- *the provisions on the principle of equal treatment."*

As such, there is no specific law making initial training for local public agents compulsory, unlike state civil servants who must receive training in line with the law on public service n° 400 of 2009. New proposals, which would likely change the entire education system and also introduce compulsory initial training for local public agents, have been being drafted for several years now. On the other hand, agents exercising powers conferred by the state to regional and local authorities are obliged to complete the training provided by the ministries that organise specific training relating to the exercised powers. For agents exercising only the "specific" powers of the local authority, this authority is responsible for providing training pursuant to paragraph 47 of the aforementioned Labour code. These agents also have the option to undergo the training offered by Regional Training Centres (RTC). In practice, agents are trained in these specialised centres in 90% of cases.

In Slovakia, the law n° 311 of 2001, which is very general in scope as it applies to all workers, therefore relates to public agents, including in terms of continuous training. Paragraph 153 of this law provides that: "*The employer must contribute to the further qualification of their employees or its increase. The employer shall negotiate with the employee representatives measures aimed at improving their qualification, their further progress and their development*".

Article 54 of this law provides that "*the employee is obliged to systematically improve their qualifications for performing the tasks included in their employment contract.*" As such, the employer has the right to oblige the employee to take part in continuous training. During this training, employees receive their usual salaries. Under law n°311/2001¹³ of 2 July 2001 which applies to all civil servants, territorial public service staff, like their colleagues in state public service, are entitled to five training days per year.

In the Czech Republic, law n°312/2002, which entered into force on 1 January 2003, acts as a framework for the training of local public agents¹⁴ but only applies to administrative officers in local authorities¹⁵. The training of other local public agents is covered by the more general provisions of the Labour code. Czech legislation also makes an important distinction between specialised

and non-specialised regional and local authority officers. All regional and local authority officers must undergo initial “basic” training, which is compulsory but does not end with any accreditation of the skills acquired. Interior Ministry regulation n°512/2002 features a list of specialised regional and local authority officers who must sit an examination certifying their specific skills¹⁶ within eighteen months from when they take up their post. Preparation for this examination is not legally required, but it is nevertheless highly recommended. In fact, it is an integral part of the initial training for “specialised” officers. The local authority will only continue to pay the local public agent during this preparation if it is undertaken at the Institute for Public Administration in Prague or another accredited organisation. The agent can also take a week of unpaid leave to prepare for the examination.

In Hungary, the situation is radically different due to the new legislation on regional and local authorities from 2012, which completely changed the nature of local autonomy. This had substantial consequences on the relationship between the central state and regional and local authorities, and therefore also on the training of local public agents. The Constitution, as modified in 1990 following the fall of the Iron Curtain, determined the right to the free administration of regional and local authorities as fundamental to local voters. The highly detailed constitutional provisions relating to regional and local authorities were justified by the need to protect local autonomy, but this right is no longer recognised by the new Fundamental Law, only an organic law (*Mötv.*). The legal consequence of this is that the right to the free administration of regional and local authorities is no longer a fundamental one guaranteed by the Constitution, and is no longer under constitutional protection. The other major change in the interpretation of the right to free administration is the emergence of a number of obligations for regional and local authorities in the regulations. As such, the emphasis is on the responsibility of local citizens¹⁷ who, as “holders of the right to local autonomy”, must reduce communal burdens and contribute to the execution of communal tasks¹⁸. The position of regional and local authorities in Hungary was redefined by both the Fundamental and the organic law on Hungarian regional and local authorities. Now, according to the terms of the law, “regional and local authorities function as an integral part of the state body”¹⁹.

In this context, the concept of “local affairs” has been redefined with a focus on local services imposed by the law²⁰. From a formal point of view, the system of local powers has not changed. Some powers are therefore powers determined by the law, while others relate to local initiative. Alongside specific powers is the category of those conferred by state administration. In reality, the regulations on the distribution of specific and obligatory powers are what led to the profound changes. According to previous regulation, it was an organic law on local authorities that determined the basic powers of regional and local authorities. This allowed for a great deal of stability and protected their powers, as any changes required a law adopted by the majority, or two thirds of parliament. Now, this is no longer the case, and simple laws can change this distribution. In actual fact, local powers have been drastically reduced since the new constitutional regulations on local autonomy came into force.

In Hungary, these reforms marked a “return of the state”, deeply affecting the nature of the relationship between regional and local authorities and the central state. The training system for local public agents and elected representatives in Hungary was also affected by these developments, as it is now strictly regulated and structured by central government.

16. “zvláštní odborná způsobilost” in Czech

17. Organic law *Mötv.* 2. § (1)

18. Organic law *Mötv.* 8 § (1)

19. Preamble of organic law *Mötv.*

20. Organic law *Mötv.* 4. §

III. Operators and nature of the training provided

As with many other European states, to implement this training Viségrad Group countries call upon exclusively public structures (public administration schools and/or universities), or the private sector (private training bodies). In Hungary, the bodies that manage the training of local public agents are exclusively public structures. The National University of Public Service (NKE) is the main training operator for local public agents in Hungary, through its different faculties (including the Faculty of Law), departments, education services and contractually-appointed bodies for certain training programmes organised under the supervision of the National University of Public Service.

The concept of local autonomy is implicitly linked to the degree of latitude left to each local authority in managing the training of a local public agent when they take up their post. This, in turn, depends on local human resource management, which stems from the European philosophical concept of local autonomy. In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, regional and local authorities have a great deal of freedom in the training of their agents. It follows that, in Hungary, since the constitutional reform of 2012 and organic law on regional and local authorities which brought back the “centralising state”, the nature and content of training are more controlled.

The “employment” system is the model applied in Hungarian public service, and not only for financial and budgetary reasons. Since the regime transition of 1990, this system is above all intended to increase the flexibility of agents. An agent can be appointed to a public role, without necessarily being destined to spend their entire working life in public service. Nevertheless, the situation has been changing since 2010 with the arrival of the current government. Major sectoral career programmes have emerged in state public service, but not in local public service. The principal aim of the government’s public policy is to stabilise state public service, even if this makes regional and local public service less appealing.

Before 2016, working conditions – and especially salary – were determined by the same law and were not overly unfavourable to local public agents. However, since the new law on state public service²¹ was adopted, the subjects and level of initial and continuous training for local public agents have generally diminished. Previously, any inequality in the treatment of the same categories of civil servants was insignificant, except at times for rewards and bonuses. This situation was changed radically by the new law, which promotes the pay system for state civil servants by increasing their level and their legislative protection. However, the option to increase pay levels for local public agents was also raised, but without any funding solution being provided. This law therefore paved the way for a two-tier public service whereby local public agents could be put at risk and become “second class” civil servants. That said, it is interesting to note that after the local authority system was re-centralised in 2012 in Hungary, and despite the loss of specific powers, there was no significant drop in the number of local public agents.

For that matter, it should be noted that even though the current Hungarian government remains unconvinced of the merits of decentralisation, it is in its interest for public agents to be well-trained and well-treated in order to best manage local public affairs. The government is therefore making a continued attempt to reinforce the continuous training system for local public agents, but through a centralised system that it controls.

For example, the initial training of local public agents is compulsory by law, and without it an agent cannot be recruited. The aim is for the level of staff training to be beyond reproach, and for a connection to be made between the effectiveness of agents and the system's degree of decentralisation. A statutory distinction, in terms of training, between those with or without tenure is also no longer possible due to this strict legislative framework. However, the employment system is still dominant in regional and local public service, and often the agent is not incumbent in their position.

It should be remembered that the legislative legal framework, which makes initial training compulsory for Hungarian local public agents, is identical to that which applies to state public agents of the same category.

Due to this common legislation, local public agents' individual right to training is also protected by law. This right is exercised by local public agents and takes the form of specialised training. Certificates of aptitude and speciality, as well as the necessary university diplomas, are specified by ministerial decree.

The National University of Public Service was founded in 2012 to centralise initial and continuous training in both state and regional and local public service. This rather unique university has a very specific status compared to other university institutions, as it is supervised by a board of representatives of relevant ministries. In this system, the regional or local authority has no local autonomy in managing training when a local public agent takes up their post.

The Hungarian state controls regional and local public service with an iron fist, as with the collection of data on the conditions of the training and the distribution of participants. In this context, the various training programmes offered to local public agents are not necessarily in line with their needs and requirements, as they are directly influenced by the training available to state public agents. This way of managing the training for local public agents seems to contradict the independent local management of human resources espoused by the European concept of local autonomy and the philosophy behind the European Charter of Local Self-Government of 15 October 1985.

There is a link between local public agents' obligation to undergo initial training and their granting of tenure. Initial training cannot be conducted electronically. The costs of initial training do not make it a lucrative line of business in Hungary. As the employer, the local authority is responsible for these costs, but a normative state grant covers a large part of them. In this system of local public service, the evaluation of initial training is also centralised and performed across the board, but this cannot always be done electronically.

The continuous training of local public agents is a legal obligation and is carried out by central state institutions. As a result, there is no real competition in this field, and it is not much of a market in Hungary, even though optional and complementary training programmes do exist. The initial training of civil servants mainly covers subjects such as financial and legal management, as well as computing.

There are two types of continuous training for public agents in Hungary.

- The first is the type used for civil servants, which can be classed as external; it can only be developed by the National University of Public Service (NKE), under the direction of the government. There are three types of programmes, which differ in their subjects and objectives:
 - General knowledge of public administration, conducted electronically, and furthered through consultations (classes, e-learning, emails),
 - Knowledge of different directorates, conducted electronically or through workshops,
 - Classes on specialised knowledge.
- The second type of training is so-called in-house training, organised by the employer (the administrative body) for their own civil servants.

This category also has two types of training:

- “Simplified” training provided by the Institute of Executive Training and Continuing Education as part of a specialised accredited process.
- “Qualifying” continuous training, organised by the employer but provided by university institutions. These programmes must be qualified and accredited by the Institute of Executive Training and Continuing Education of the National University of Public Service.

The list of training is constantly evolving. Each programme offers a number of points that are counted up per agent with a view to obtaining the legally-prescribed quota required for the training to be approved.

The Institute of Executive Training and Continuing Education determines the point-based value of the programmes according to the following indicators:

- the duration of training course (number of hours),
- the type of training (in person or remotely),
- the proportion of theory and practical classes,
- the type of examination,
- the type of certificate.

The fact that the continuous training provided to local public agents is identical to that of national public agents can be problematic, as the continuous training programmes risk being overly general or overly technical, or even unsuited to the reality of local public policy.

The subjects and categories of continuous training in Hungary mainly relate to public management, public finance, computing, public law, public policy, economics and organisational studies.

The annual continuous training programmes feature a balance of managerial, computing, financial and legal themes, including public service law.

Continuous training programmes for local public agents relating to communications, education, sport and culture are fairly low in number since the re-centralisation of public policy in these areas. However, specific requirements for continuous training are increasing, especially in terms of economic development and the management of change.

Civil servants' personal motivation for undertaking continuous training in Hungary is to progress in their careers and receive higher salaries, but above all to retain their jobs, as taking part in this training is compulsory. As such, according to the regulations in force, public agents under the age of sixty must obtain 128 credits in four years by taking part in continuous training programmes. Individual motivation for taking part in this training therefore takes a back seat to legal obligation.

Public agents must attend continuous training courses in officially-designated training centres, usually outside their working hours, but "e-learning" for continuous training is highly developed in Hungary. The local public agent is paid or compensated for continuous training as if they were at work.

The employer – the local authority – is responsible for the cost of continuous training, but it is also covered by a central state operational grant. Continuous training is evaluated across the board, just after the training is conducted.

Continuous training is protected by local public agents' individual right to training, but this right is also a duty. This duty is implemented through a form of training that is strictly defined by legislation and regulations, and the same applies for the pedagogical methods used in professional training. Local public agents must attend any courses organised, and this is recognised by an aptitude certificate or university diplomas, which are issued according to the level of training.

The continuous training of civil servants in state administration was modified in 2016 by law n° LII of 1 June 2016. State civil servants must attend and validate courses entitled "general public administration studies" within two years of their appointment, as well as obtaining a certificate of specialisation. The same legislation obliges officers to attend "governance courses", which include the teaching of public management, institutions and administrative sciences and public finance, and to obtain a certificate within five years of their appointment.

These new courses and certificates are gradually replacing the old system that has existed until now; this system applied to all civil servants and included examinations to verify basic knowledge of public administration, as well as specialisation courses with a more practical dimension. Other civil servants, including those from regional and local authorities, must now take basic and specialist public administration examinations, in line with the common system in force since 1992.

The aim of the basic examination in public administration is to give local public agents fundamental knowledge of this subject.

The basic and specialist examination in public administration is essential to retaining the status of civil servant and advancing in one's career.

The so-called "specialisation in public administration" examination is compulsory for civil servants who have graduated from higher-education institutions. The aim of this examination is to acquire knowledge of law and administrative sciences in order to actively participate in the preparation and application of administrative decisions.

The administrative secretary examination must be taken within six months of the appointment of any employee performing auxiliary functions in public administration (clerk, typist, archivist, etc.). This system applies to public administration in its entirety.

In summary, before 2016 there was a single, compulsory system of continuous training for civil servants, which applied to public administration in its entirety. This was the system of the basic and specialist examination in public administration, and the administrative secretary examination. Since 2016, in state administration, this system has been replaced by a new system of “governance courses” for officials and “courses in public administration” for other civil servants; these are provided exclusively by the National University of Public Service. The old system still applies for other civil servants and for local authorities. The training system is therefore differentiated and divided in two due to the characteristics of the Hungarian public service system.

The Czech Republic and Hungary, which formed a single state until 1993, have several similarities in terms of local autonomy, as well as the training of local public agents. They differ significantly from the very centralised Hungarian model and offer regional and local authorities little room for manoeuvre. In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, the rules that govern the training of local public agents do not appear very restrictive. As such, there is a large number and variety of operators involved in the training of local public agents. Unlike in Hungary, it is not strictly controlled by central authorities, which explains why it is difficult to obtain precise information and statistics on this subject.

In Slovakia, local authorities (municipalities and regions) manage the initial training of agents individually and according to their requirements, except for agents exercising the powers conferred by the state to local authorities. For these agents, rules that make the initial training of state civil servants compulsory apply. These local public agents, whose work involves implementing conferred powers, must undergo both types of compulsory training for state civil servants.

Initial adaptation training is the basic training for newly-recruited public agents, the aim of which is to acquire knowledge on the work and organisational rules of the office in particular, as well as the principles of its administrative operations and internal techniques, and a full understanding of its basic operational procedures for file management.

This training takes place at the office, and is conducted through independent learning and the completion of tasks under the supervision of a superior (the trainer). The purpose of independent learning is to gain a knowledge of laws, regulations or specialist manuals relating to the role in question.

Professional preparation is the training provided to public agents who pass basic training. The aim is to obtain specific qualifications for working in a specific field of public administration. It is certified by an examination that tests the skills acquired, including the knowledge of the laws and regulations necessary for performing duties in the relevant field of public administration.

After a trial period, the training ends with an interview with the agent’s direct supervisor.

There is no standardised initial training system for local public agents in Slovakia. It is organised by the local authorities as the employers, in line with the Labour Code, and therefore on an individual basis. If the role requires expert training, particularly in the interpretation of the laws and regulations necessary for performing the relevant duties, local public agents undergo specific training at regional training centres or other local government training establishments. Regional and local authorities can also choose private training establishments for their training.

In Slovakia, regional and local authorities also manage the continuous training of their agents according to their requirements. According to the Interior Ministry working paper approved by a Slovakian government resolution on 23 August 2000²² entitled “The concept for training in public administration”, which has never been fully implemented in the absence of binding legislation, two types of continuous training can be identified.

The first type is called “Qualification improvement” and focuses on the retention, updating and perfecting of the knowledge and abilities required for performing the employee’s duties as part of their role. This training can take various forms. The most common of these is innovative training, whereby employees can prepare in order to be able to apply a new legislation, use new technologies, and implement new concepts relating to the development of public administration. It can also take the form of linguistic training in order to improve their foreign language skills for use in international cooperation, in particular.

Another form of continuous training, known as “specialised training”, is aimed at the acquisition of the knowledge, skills and abilities required for performing more demanding professional duties. Doing so allows for vertical and horizontal (professional) mobility throughout one’s career.

Continuous training was made compulsory by a legislation of general application (Labour Code, law on public service). The choice of training methods depend on each employee’s personal development plan, determined in agreement with their superior, their “tutor” and the human resources manager. As such, the continuous training of local public agents is not strictly governed; this leaves a great deal of latitude to the employer, who may opt for workplace training, distance learning or independent learning, through e-mail, working visits, field or study trips, attendance at conferences, involvement in workshops and projects, classes, consultations, etc.

The bodies that organise training can be public or private structures, but in some cases they must be ministry-accredited.

The public organisations that provide training are:

- regional training centres (established by the local authority training association), whose members are municipalities that pay a contribution, giving them the right to preferential rates for the training offered by the centres. These provide over 90% of training for public agents and local elected representatives.
- training establishments founded by central government authorities.

22. *Koncepcia vzdelávania vo verejnej správe – materiál Ministerstva vnútra SR schválený vládou Slovenskej republiky dňa: 23.8.2000 uznesením č. 663/2000*
Available online: www.google.sk

Other bodies are involved in the training of local public agents, including public administration schools, universities, groups of local authorities, associations, NGOs, etc. The most common areas of study and specialisation in continuous training and the professional development are public management, public policy, public law, organisational studies, geography, economics, public finance, computing and digital studies. Generally speaking, training lasts between half a day and three days, depending on the complexity of the subject.

In the Czech Republic, training for local public agents also differs from that of state public service. Training was made compulsory by law n° 234/2014 on state public services, in force from 1 January 2015, and its implementation decrees of 26 October 2015 changed the continuous training system. It comprises two aspects: basic training and specialised training.

The initial "basic" training culminates in a certificate, with no test of the knowledge acquired. This training is provided by different public (public universities, institutes, municipalities) and private structures (companies) authorised by the interior ministry, but only the Institute for Public Administration in Prague is approved to set the "exams of special professional competence"²³. The cost of initial basic training, which is covered by the regional or local authority, is relatively low, varying between 35 and 178 euros depending on the organisation providing it.

Initial "specialist" training culminates in a skills-based examination; those who pass receive a certificate. This training is provided by different public (public universities, colleges, regional councils, institutes and municipalities) and private structures (companies, individual firms or private universities) authorised by the interior ministry.

The motivation of local public agents mainly lies in their prospect of tenure, because a certificate of specialisation is essential in order to be granted tenure in regional and local public service. Initial specialist training costs 140 euros (258 with accommodation and meals), which is covered by the regional or local authority.

In the Czech Republic, local public agents have a recognised right to continuous training, and as such they are entitled to four training days (in addition to initial training) during their first three years. After that, they are entitled to a minimum of eighteen training days every three years.

Initial and continuous training for local public agents are managed by the same authorised organisations. Some of this training can be completed via e-learning. During these training periods, agents continue to receive their salary as if they were at work. Continuous training initiatives are evaluated by the state in the year after they are conducted.

In Poland, at least four types of operators can be identified as involved in the training of local public agents. The National School of Public Administration (*Krajowa Szkoła Administracji Publicznej* - KSAP) is unique in its category, as it is an establishment specialising in senior public service training; it can be likened to the French National School of Administration (ENA), but does not have the same gravitas in the political system. It should be noted that the KSAP mainly provided training for senior public service and central and decentralised government administration, while only a very limited number of agents from regional and local authorities attend.

The second group of operators includes graduate schools, particularly the top universities that offer master's and post master's-level study in addition to different specialised training programmes, principally in the faculties of law and administration, political science, management and economics. The Centre for Studies in Local Government and Development at the University of Warsaw is an example. The Institute of Political Science and Journalism at the University of Silesia in Katowice also offers specialist master's courses in public administration and self-government. Agents and elected representatives in regional and local authorities can also acquire new skills by undertaking training organised by the University of Silesia's Academy of Diplomacy.

Training for employees of regional and local authorities is also provided by non-government organisations (associations and foundations) specialising in this area. Among them, the Foundation in Support of Local Democracy (*Fundacja Rozwoju Demokracji Lokalnej*) occupies a prominent position, managing the fourteen training centres for regional and local public service and thereby covering all of Poland. The Foundation was founded in 1989 by the founding fathers of Polish territorial reform, Jerzy Regulski, government plenipotentiary for territorial reform, Jerzy Stępień, chair of the Senate territorial commission, Waldemar Pańko, chair of the special commission at the National Assembly, and Michał Kulesza, chair of the body of experts²⁴. The Foundation in Support of Local Democracy supports regional and local authorities in implementing their local development projects by promoting the participation of citizens and cooperation with other regional and local units. It has a very wide range of training programmes suited to the requirements of agents and elected representatives in regional and local authorities.

It is important not to overlook the involvement of the private sector in the training of local agents which, depending on the public procurement value, is subject to the public tender process. Opening public sector training up to competition has promoted the development of companies that specialise in training and consulting services for regional and local authorities. They regularly submit bids for tenders organised by these authorities, which must then verify their expertise. The municipality of Katowice provided a list of companies that have offered their training services to the city; the list featured forty-five entities, mostly from the private sector.

It should also be noted that, on a regular basis and particularly in regard to "preparatory service", regional and local authorities develop the skills of their employees through internal training, using the resources of their own organisation.

The content of the initial training for local public agents is determined at the level of a given regional or local authority. This compulsory training, recognised by an examination, can cover several areas, the choice of which is determined by the description of the role. Taking the city of Katowice as an example, the theory part of the "preparatory service" training is the same for all of the city's local public agents, and mainly relates to a knowledge of the laws and regulations that form the basis of regional and local authority operations and the execution of public services. The theory-based initial training therefore includes law and public policy, budget and finance-related issues for regional and local authorities, the document circulation system within the establishment, and electronic service provision. The practical part of the initial training is performed by department heads and involves familiarising the employee with their duties, the regulations relating to any tasks carried

24. *Dwadzieścia lat Fundacji Rozwoju Demokracji Lokalnej, FRDL, Warszawa 2009* (www.frdl.katowice.pl, online: 27.07.2016)

out as part of their role and ways of processing files and preparing the necessary documentation in order to do so.

It should be noted that the “preparatory service” covers all local agents who have not previously worked in a regional or local authority. The department head can exempt an agent from this obligation in some special cases, particularly if the agent demonstrates the skills required to perform their duties. During the initial training period, which cannot exceed three months, the agent is paid under a normal, but fixed-term, employment contract. Training is conducted both in the workplace and outside the establishment, and some training modules can be completed online.

Although the law on employees of regional and local authorities does indirectly mention the issue of continuous training for local public agents, it does so in very general terms. Continuous training is therefore less structured than initial training. The legislator has simply set local agents the obligation of continuously improving their professional skills and qualifications. As a result, regional and local authorities must set aside the appropriate funds for continuous training in their budget, but they are also free to define their own continuous training policy, meaning they are not obliged to meet specific training requests by local public agents. In practice, procedures for continuous training vary from one regional or local authority to the next, depending on their financial situations and the importance accorded to the issue of training in general by municipal authorities.

The case study conducted in the municipality of Katowice has shed light on continuous training practices for local public agents. First of all, it is important to point out that any training conducted is rarely part of a pre-defined programme, but rather a response to temporary requirements relating, in particular, to legislative changes in progress or the launch of new European Union funding instruments. It is difficult to generalise: the nature of training and its content, depending on the case, can take the form of classes or courses in the workplace or in external public or private organisations or associations. The most common training programmes are those lasting a day, which no doubt saves money on accommodation costs. The training subjects, meanwhile, are highly diverse and depend on the specific role and requirements. It is important to point out that agents continue to receive their salary during training, as if they were at work. In terms of motivation, the prospect of a promotion, or re-training for the private sector, constitute the principal sources. In most cases, the costs of continuous training are covered by the employer, but the person receiving the training can also be asked for a contribution.

In the Viségrad Group countries, the general and most commonly provided areas of continuous training are similar to European standards and mainly relate to subjects such as public management (including human resource management), public finance, public policy and public law. In Hungary, the general areas of continuous training have recently been redefined, but remain quite close to these standards: public management, public finance, public policy, law, computing, organisational studies and economics. There are also special training categories, such as the digitalisation of administrative procedures, IT security and strategic management. There is also optional training, but there are no official studies that provide an overview of themes and their scope.

IV. Insufficiently-structured training for local elected representatives

Although there is a protective legislative framework for the training of local public agents in Viségrad Group countries, the training of local elected representatives appears much less structured, perhaps apart from Hungary, which seems to be the exception in this field.

In Poland, the 2008 law on employees of regional and local authorities governs the training of local agents, which has become compulsory, but it bears no mention of the case of local elected representatives. They are elected through direct and universal suffrage by the residents of a municipality, and make up the municipal councils, with between fifteen and forty-five councillors depending on the geographic importance of a given regional or local authority. It should also be noted that, since the reform of 20 June 2002, mayors are also elected through direct and universal suffrage, which has a tendency to transform municipal administration into a monocratic body. Despite these modifications to the status and means of election of local elected representatives, the issue of their initial or continuous training has not been raised. As a result, elected representatives are not obliged under any legal text to undergo training, meaning it depends on the organisational culture of a municipality, and particularly on the office of the municipal council and its president.

In Katowice, for example, the municipal council budget has a specific allocation for the training of elected representatives. This is not a specific training programme reserved purely for new elected representatives; a training session is organised for all elected representatives (new and re-elected) at the start of each new mandate. This training, which could be qualified as “initial”, concerns the rights and obligations of elected representatives in particular, as well as the submission of property declarations and budget adoption and execution procedure. In the case of Katowice, the training of elected representatives has been contracted to the Foundation in Support of Local Democracy and its centre for regional and local public service. Aside from this initial training, which carries no examination or evaluation, there are few others, and those that exist are organised on an occasional and individual basis. This is the case for elected representatives of the municipal council of the city of Katowice, who are part of the review board, and for whom specific training exists subject to the agreement of the chair of the committee in question. The training of elected representatives is financed by the municipality; however, these representatives have limited interest in taking part in such training.

This lack of interest and funds allocated to the training of local elected representatives also applies to the Czech Republic and Slovakia, both of which have a very large number of local elected representatives given the high number of small municipalities. It is also worth noting that the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary are the most fragmented countries on a municipal level.

After the fall of the Wall, municipalities appeared as a fertile ground for a renewed democracy, and the “people’s councils”²⁶ were transformed into bona fide local authorities. The principle of local autonomy was, at times, reinforced with a law on municipal self-determination, which paved the way for a trend towards municipal dispersal through the increased number of municipalities²⁷. This was the case in the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary, where the number of municipalities increased significantly. The right to local autonomy then interpreted as the right of each municipality to have their own, autonomous

25. Law of 20 June 2002 on the direct election of village (wójt) or town/city mayors (burmistrz), district or voivodie presidents [*Ustawa z dnia 20 czerwca 2002 o bezpośrednim wyborze wójtów, burmistrzów, i prezydenta (Dz.U. z 2002r., nr 113, poz. 984 z późn. zm.)*].

26. Local structures of the communist party meant to help develop the programme but which, in reality, had only very minor political autonomy.

27. Lydia COUDROY DE LILLE, *Une nouvelle architecture territoriale pour les États d'Europe centrale et orientale*, Université de Lyon II, *Géococonfluences*-Dgesco, ENS-Editions, 2005.

28. European Council, *Size of Municipalities, Efficiency, and Citizen Participation*, Council of European Municipalities and Regions n°56, Strasbourg 1995, p.62.

29. Lydia COUDROY DE LILLE, *op. cit.*, n. 27.

30. Frédéric DELANEUVILLE, "Les stratégies de consolidation de l'échelon municipal en Slovaquie et en France: approches comparatives", *Revue de l'Institut du Monde et du Développement*, Paris 2011 (ISSN 2117-2633, ISBN 979-10-90809-00-0), p.139-149

31. Irène BOUHADANA et William GILLES, Université de Paris 1 Panthéon-Sorbonne, "L'autonomie locale en république tchèque", OLA, 2009, p.6. Available online: www.ola-europe.com

32. Figures published by the Council of European Municipalities and Regions, DEXIA, 2010, p.4. www.dexia-creditlocal.fr Consulted 13.07.2017

33. "vzdělávací zastupitel" in Czech

34. Available online: www.vzdelanyzastupitel.cz

administration, even the tiniest village. It was a natural reaction to the centralisation of the Soviet region and the arbitrarily-formed group. During this period of democratic rediscovery, creating or maintaining large territorial units was perceived as a violation of the principle of autonomy. The Czech Republic stands out as the most striking example of this. In 1952, the country had 11,051 municipalities²⁸. The Soviet regime reduced this number considerably through forced mergers during the so-called normalisation period and, in 1989, only 4,120 were left²⁹. When the Wall fell, the law on municipal self-determination led to a significant increase in this number, and in 2007 the country had 6,247 municipalities. On average, it is the country with the most municipalities in relation to its population in the European Union.

This large number of municipalities has often been cited as a positive factor for the development of local democracy. However, the efficiency of local autonomy is limited by a shortage of resources, which hinders the optimal implementation of its local powers. This observation could perhaps be made in the case of Slovakia³⁰. After the fall of the Wall, political autonomy was restored to even the smallest municipalities. Article 64 of the Slovakian Constitution states that "the basic unit of territorial self-administration shall be the municipality", but as with the Czech Republic, municipal fragmentation is an obstacle to the optimal and autonomous implementation of local powers. The Czech Republic is a unitary state, guaranteeing the autonomy of regional and local authorities in accordance with article 8 of its constitution, which also states that municipalities (obec) are the basic regional and local authorities³¹.

The Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary are therefore some of the most fragmented countries in the European Union on a local level. On average, its municipalities are smaller than the European Union average.

Average number of inhabitants per municipality in Visegrad Group countries³²

Average no. of inhabitants per municipality	Czech R.	Slovakia	Hungary	EU 27	Poland
	1680	1850	3,155	5580	15,390

In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, training systems quite clearly do not appear to meet the challenges of training these large numbers of local elected representatives.

In the Czech Republic, there is no legal text making training compulsory for local elected representatives. They have the option of undertaking the training offered by different operators, but there is no overall training plan for elected representatives. There are some training programmes, such as the "trained elected representatives"³³ programme, co-financed by the European Social Fund. One could also cite the partnership with Norway, which enabled the "New Approaches to Training of Local Councillors" programme to be implemented until 2010. The aim of this programme was to create a methodology for training programmes for local elected representatives through a cooperation between the national association of Czech municipalities ("Svazměst a obcí ČR") and the association of Norwegian municipalities. These training programmes generally involve training attended in person in Czech municipalities, online training, free legal assistance and sometimes websites³⁴ for sharing best practices and guides for local elected representatives.

The situation in Slovakia is comparable to that of the Czech Republic. Despite a very large number of local elected representatives and glaring gaps, there is no overall training plan for elected representatives framed by legal texts. In fact, since the decentralising reforms, many mayors of small villages have had potentially vast powers but do not always had the technical skills to exercise them. The law does not make any training compulsory for local elected representatives, meaning it is only undertaken by those who wish to do so. A training system for local elected representatives was nevertheless created in 1996, formed of groups of trainers. Training media, publications, programmes, pilot courses and preparatory courses for training managers were produced. Training was conducted for newly-elected representatives, and a large support network for regional training centres (RTC) was formed. It is the RTCs and their association (the local authority training association) who provide almost 90% of training for elected representatives and local public agents today. The document “The concept for training in public administration”, mentioned above, was written in 2000, but it has not been developed or put into practice in the absence of binding legislation. Mayors make use of this option, however sporadically and non-systematically. Their training is provided by experts from different ministries, experts from the highly influential Union of Towns and Cities of Slovakia (*Združeni miest a obcí Slovenska*³⁵) and other professional associations such as the local authority training association and various non-profit organisations. This training takes different forms, including conferences, seminars, working meetings, consultations, independent learning, study trips, exchanges, etc. Local elected representatives can undertake training but are in no way obliged to do so, and as a result do not in any systematic way, despite the increasingly technical nature of public action. The absence of an overall training plan for elected representatives, like the one that exists in Hungary, is therefore regrettable.

Regarding the training of local elected representatives, Hungary is still an exception among Viségrad Group countries. The training of local elected representatives, as with public agents, is subject to strict regulation controlled by the central state. This is why the “training market for local elected representatives” is a better-documented sector here than in other countries, as the state plays a central role in its coordination and supervision. Basic training is compulsory for local elected representatives³⁶ and is provided by the Territorial Government Office within three months after they are elected. Political parties and federations of local authorities, as well as private training organisations, can all offer other complementary and optional training programmes. The government’s policy is to centralise the training of elected representatives and local public agents through the National University of Public Service. Thanks to this centralised system, the number of local elected representatives who undergo compulsory training in public administration is well-controlled, but the mandate only demands two days. The subjects of this continuous training are the powers of local authorities, legality control, electoral law, the status of local elected representatives, public policy, the organisation and functioning of the state and the organisation of public administration. The centralisation of the training system for local elected representatives allows the current government to set priorities for training, as well as to exercise a degree of ideological control over its content.

35. <http://www.zmos.sk>

36. 32.§ (2) j) of organic law N°5 CLXXXIX of 2011 on local authorities in Hungary, or *Mótv.*

37. Ludmila MALIKOVA, Frédéric DELANEUVILLE, "The process of regionalisation in Slovakia and in France: comparative approach", *In Emmanuel CHARRIER et Stéphane GUERARD (ed.), La Régionalisation en Europe. Regards croisés*, Ed. Bruylant, Brussels, 2014, (ISSN: 978-2-8027-4695-9), p. 697-702.

Conclusion

The reassertion of local autonomy seemed an integral part of the democratisation process in Central Europe. The prospect of joining the EU and receiving European funding undoubtedly played an accelerating role, but it also helped import models that were little suited to the socio-historical realities of these centralist-suffused countries³⁷. In this specific context, the training of local public agents was very broadly insufficient. These four countries quickly enacted institutional decentralisation by restoring political autonomy to municipalities, then creating regional and local authorities. Local autonomy and its guiding principles, as recognised by the European Charter of 15 October 1985 ratified by these countries, have legislative and sometimes even constitutional protection, but the hasty implementation of these reforms increased their formal nature. In Central Europe, human resource management was probably neglected in favour of an overly legal-based approach to the transition. The adoption of formal legal rules for local autonomy by Viségrad Group countries did not trigger an immediate change in practices. The over-representation of legal practitioners in European bodies and their key role during the joining process perhaps goes some way to explaining this negligence. Nevertheless, the management and training of human resources are major factors in any process of change. These institutional decentralisations overlooked the importance of managing and training human resources in making local public action operational. Hungary, which since the 2012 reforms has implemented a training system for its public agents and local elected representatives that is managed by the central state, is now an exception, but the cost of this is that regional and local authorities have lost autonomy in the management of their human resources.

In the first instance, these four states even often neglected to include a specific legislative framework for the training of local public agents, who would be subject to either the rules of state public service or even the Labour Code. More generally, it should be noted that, in the Viségrad Group countries, the specificity of regional and local public service is not clearly apparent in training systems. It should also be noted that, although legislation in these four countries has made training for local public agents compulsory and this legal framework is apparently a protective one, the training of public agents was and still is largely inadequate in these countries where administrations operated according to a centralised, tiered model for several decades. Therefore, in many ways, the training of local public agents does not seem "up to the challenge".

Nevertheless, some systems that appear interesting.

The most unique example is that of Hungary, where recent "re-centralising" reforms have tended to reject the specificity of local public agents and underestimate their central role in the development of regional and local areas. That said, despite the inherent flaws in limiting the autonomy of regional and local authorities in implementing their own training systems, the Hungarian system, whereby public service is being managed in an increasingly centralised way, has highly detailed and protective national legislation on human resource management, and the conditions for recruitment, progress, salary and the training of agents in particular. This system has undoubtedly reduced the degree of latitude of regional and local authorities and can be criticised in view of the very philosophy of local autonomy, which is based on the principle of subsidiarity. It does, however, have the advantage of reducing training-based inequalities, given its standardising nature. It is thanks to this

strict legislation that equality has nearly been achieved in Hungarian regional and local public service, and that pay gaps unfavourable to women can no longer exist, as the pay scale is also determined by law.

The training of local public agents in Poland also has some strong points, most notably the regulations imposed by the law on employees of regional and local authorities of 21 November 2008. This mainly refers to the compulsory “preparatory service” for agents starting their career, and the general obligation of local public agents to continuously improve their professional skills and qualifications. It should nevertheless be noted that, in performing these tasks, local public agents can only partly count on their employers, who have to allocate training funds in their budgets. As such, the training undertaken depends, both in content and frequency, on the willingness of municipal authorities and on the allocated funding.

In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, regional and local authorities have a great deal of latitude in training their agents. This freedom may seem appealing from a local autonomy point of view, as it potentially means that systems can be implemented in line with regional and local needs, but in practice the lack of means limits the efficiency of this system. The lack of precision of the means for implementing training in legal texts, and the absence of any real overall training plans, are other weaknesses in the training systems for local public agents in these two countries.

In general terms, the training systems for local public agents do not appear to be in line with requirements in Viségrad Group countries. It might be worthwhile to consider new regulations that would make training more regular, meet the needs of local public agents themselves and contribute to their professional development in line with the concept of lifelong learning. Currently, in Poland, Slovakia and the Czech Republic, apart from initial training, any other training remains irregular and designed more to meet temporary external changes – legal ones in particular – than an agent’s needs in terms of their efficiency, the development of their professional skills or their long-term personal development. Solutions, such as the development of annual training programmes or mechanisms imposing compulsory minimum spending thresholds proportionate to the budgets of regional and local authorities, could be envisaged. It would also appear beneficial to improve the mechanisms for evaluation and the systems for validating skills acquired through training. Generally, it could be wise to create the equivalent of a senior state public service body for local public agents, as they require a special status and skills that differ from those of state public service agents. Initially, the training of local public agents was very broadly inspired by existing mechanisms in state administration. Regional and local authority agents need to have their status consolidated, and this requires specific training linked to the nature of their unique duties in particular.

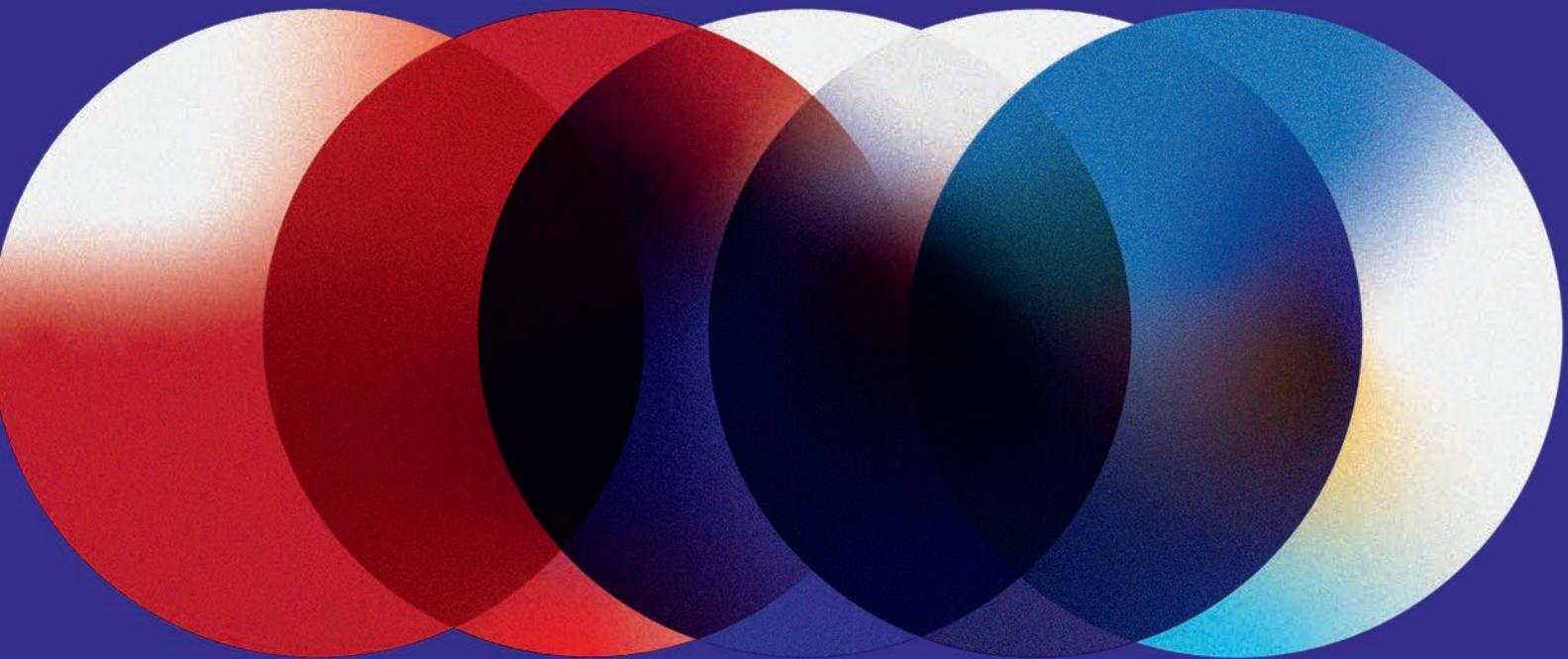
In Poland, Slovakia and the Czech Republic, overall training systems for elected representatives appear inadequate, representing a major challenge that must be met for the developed and lasting autonomy of regional and local authorities. Nevertheless, given this principle, the solutions envisaged must always seek out a balance between recognising the freedom of the representative, capable of identifying their own needs, and the essential nature of training due to the growing complexity of the public matters they are confronted with due to the many decentralising reforms, which make regional and local authorities the principle operators of territorial development. A potential system could be one that includes compulsory basic training for local elected representatives,

complemented by an optional training offer encouraged through incentive systems in order to increase their appeal.

The success of decentralisation in Central Europe will require the modernisation and valuing of its essential servants and promotes that are elected representatives and local public agents. The strengthening of skill-recognition systems enabling genuine, merit-based career development would help combat cronyism and nepotism, culturally accepted all-too-regularly accepted on a local level, and make regional and local public service more attractive. Currently, qualified young people generally prefer to work in the private sector, where the skills they have acquired are more highly valued and their career development prospects are less uncertain. It is the low salary level in particular that explains the public sector's lack of appeal. All too often, institutional legacy forces young agents to conform to outdated operating methods. New recruits to regional and local authorities are often unknowingly joining a cultural legacy of subordination by the regional or local authority to central state. Finally, local public agents in Viségrad Group countries are the "victims" of several decades of administrative centralism in Central Europe. The training of local elected representatives is also a challenge facing these countries, with their numerous municipalities and lack of human resources with the adequate training to best implement their potentially vast powers.

TRAINING FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS AND ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES IN THE NORDIC COUNTRIES

Jean-Baptiste Pointel



I. Introductions

When it comes to lifelong learning, the Nordic countries are again exemplary². Indeed, they have a long tradition of continuing education. Dynamic since the 19th century, this practice has become widely accepted, blurring the distinction with initial training. This theme is closely linked to the very idea of the welfare state, in which the main danger to be prevented is the lack of qualifications adapted to the job³. Thus, equal opportunities in access to lifelong learning is a cardinal value in Nordic societies. While this approach is logical in the private sector for these open economies that play the game of globalisation to a large extent, the question arises as to the relevance of lifelong learning in the public sector, since job security is quite often associated with it. However, the Nordic countries are also unique in this respect. In order to be able to study the continuing training of local public servants (II) and local elected representatives (III), it is important to set the context in three stages: firstly, an identification of the countries studied and their homogeneity (A); secondly, an explanation of the central role played by local authorities in public action (B); and finally, a reminder of how the public sector is integrated into society (C).

It is important to state at the outset that the article does not systematically address all the criteria of the joint research. Indeed, due to the lack of accessible data, the questionnaires offer only partial answers to the questions asked, especially because of the porosity between the public and private sectors.

A. Presentation of the Nordic countries

The term “Nordic countries” seems obvious, yet its geographical scope is unclear: which countries are we talking about? The Scandinavian language area and the Scandinavian peninsula do not coincide. However, “there is undeniably a Nordic region, materialised by the numerous exchanges, circulations and cross-colonisation processes, then by the constitution, after 1945, of a Nordic Council opening the borders to workers and citizens of the different countries”.⁴ The easiest thing to do is to assume their self-qualification. Within *Norden* there are five countries, Denmark, Iceland, Finland, Norway and Sweden. They are the only members of the Nordic Council, an international organisation that aims to achieve social, cultural and legal convergence. National parliaments and governments are represented and it is a forum where common problems can be discussed in order to define a common strategy. Moreover, this cooperation is enhanced since the comparison between these different countries is a systematic prerequisite in any impact study accompanying the draft laws of each State. Thus, while each State remains sovereign and has its own specific laws, these appear as variations on a common theme. These adaptations are largely understandable because each country has its own contextual particularities.

1. This article was written in 2017, with data collected in 2017. Some of the data has been updated, but most of it remains unchanged.

2. See e.g. in French: Alain Lefebvre and Dominique Méda, «Performances Nordiques et flexicurité: quelles relations?» *Travail et Emploi* No. 113, January-April 2008, pp. 129-138; Institut Montaigne, *Étude comparée des différents systèmes de formation professionnelle*, 2010, 57 p. Online] www.institutmontaigne.org/res/files/orderfile/benchmark_formation_professionnelle_OCDE.pdf

3. Gøsta Esping-Andersen, Duncan Gallie, Anton Hemerijc and John Myles, *A New Welfare Architecture for Europe*, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2002.

4. Yohann Aucante, *Scandinavian democracies. Des systèmes politiques exceptionnels?* Paris, L'Harmattan, coll. «U Science politique», 2013, p. 9.

5. On this subject, see Erik Gløersen, *La Finlande, la Norvège, la Suède face au projet d'une Europe polycentrique*. La centralité à la marge de l'Europe, Rennes, PUR, 2012.

6. Yohann Aucante, *op. cit.*, n. 3.

Table 1 – Geographical data of the Nordic countries compared to France

	Population	Capital	Area	Density
Denmark	5 822 763	Copenhagen (623,404 inhabitants)	43 094 km ² (metropolitan) 2 220 579 km ² (total)	135 inhabitants/km ²
Finland	5 522 015	Helsinki (655,395 inhabitants)	338,145 km ²	16 inhabitants/km ²
Iceland	362 860	Reykjavik (131,136 inhabitants)	103,125 km ²	4 inhabitants/km ²
Norway	5 391 369	Oslo (693,494 inhabitants)	385,207 km ²	14 inhabitants/km ²
Sweden	10 313 447	Stockholm (851,155 inhabitants)	449,965 km ²	23 inhabitants/km ²
France	68 014 000	Paris (2,240,621 inhabitants)	551,695 km ² (metropolitan) 672,051 km ² (total)	118 inhabitants/km ² 107 inhabitants/km ²
Rhône-Alpes (e.g. region)	6 448 921	Lyon (496,343 inhabitants)	43,698 km ²	148 inhabitants/km ²

Source: official national and Eurostat statistics between 2018 and 2021 and 2014 for the Rhône-Alpes.

As can be seen from the geographical data, the Nordic countries differ significantly from each other. For example, Denmark corresponds in terms of population, area, density and capital to the former Rhône-Alpes region. With the exception of Denmark, the other four Nordic countries are the countries with the lowest density in Europe. While Finland, Norway and Sweden each have an area close in size to that of France, the density is ten times lower - the northern part of the Scandinavian peninsula beyond the Arctic Circle is the least dense in Europe. Similarly, Denmark, Finland and Norway have a population of about 5.5 million, while Sweden has just under twice that. Iceland, because of its location as a volcanic island with a sparsely populated centre, is systematically atypical. This makes it difficult to compare the different Nordic countries and the specificities in relation to other European countries are significant⁵. The proximity of geographical indicators between Denmark and the former Rhône-Alpes region, or the small difference between the surface area of Sweden and France, render arguments based on prejudices null and void, making any comparison impossible.

For the sake of understanding, it is important to point out that the Nordic countries are often subdivided into two sub-areas based on historical ties: Denmark, Iceland and Norway, which formed a single state until 1814, form the Western Nordic area, while the Eastern Nordic area consists of Sweden and Finland, which were also separated after the Napoleonic wars. Nevertheless, they all share a common philosophy, based on the concept of 'Nordic democracy'⁶, which leads to a strong decentralisation of public action.

Despite the great geographical diversity within the Nordic countries, their administrative system and territorial structure are relatively similar. In this respect, culture and political will appear to be decisive. It is therefore possible to conceive of an explanatory model in which the two poles of public action are a strong central state and municipalities that carry out the essential tasks of the welfare state.

B. “Welfare municipality”

The state level remains extremely important: the Nordic countries correspond to the Westminster tradition, where the central Parliament has all the power. However, while the government and parliament are the democratic cornerstone of the Nordic countries, local issues are the driving force of political interest. The fact that all segments of the population, thanks to proportional representation, meet and talk about local matters has undoubtedly contributed to the spirit of balance and cooperation that characterises Nordic parliaments⁷. This territorial organisation contributes strongly to the administrative structure: most of the public spending is done by the local authorities. The importance of policies exercised at the local level in *Norden* reveals the central role of municipalities in the expression of the Nordic welfare state. The geography and demography of the Nordic countries vary greatly from a deserted north to a densely populated south. However, the demands on public services are the same. In order to manage such diversity appropriately, decentralisation closer to the citizen has become necessary. Thus, the traditional structure of the administrative organisation is at three levels: State-Region-Municipality.

6. Siv Sandberg, «Decentralized Unitary Welfare States. The Role of Local Government in Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden», in Stein Kuhnle, Yinzhang Chen, Pauli Kettunen and Klaus Petersen (eds.), *The Nordic Welfare State. A Basic Reader*, Shanghai, Fudandaxue, 2010, pp. 236-253.

7. Because of the bilingualism, the names are given in Finnish and then in Swedish.

8. The island of Åland is not included in the units below NUTS 1.

Table 2 – Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS) and Local Government Units (LGUs). In bold, the regional level of local self-government, in blue box, the municipal level.

	Nat.	NUTS 0	Denmark	Finland ⁸	Iceland	Norway	Sweden	SNUTS 0	Faroe Islands	Greenland
Level of the nomenclature	Regional	NUTS 1		Mainland Finland and Åland (Manner-Suomi/Fasta-Finland; Ahvenanmaa/Åland) 2			Group of regions (Grupper av rikso mråden) 3	SNUTS 1		
		NUTS 2	Region 5	Province ⁹ (Suuralue; Storumråde) 5		Province (Landsdel) 77	Region (Riksområde) 8	SNUTS 2		
		NUTS 3	Province (amt) 13	Region (Maakunta; Landskap) 19	Statistical region (Hagskýr slusvæði) 2	County (Fylke) 11	County (Län) 21	SNUTS 3		
Local	ALU 1	Municipality (Kommune) 98		Country (landsvæði) 8	Economic region (Økono miskregion) 89		SNUTS 4	Region (Sýsla) 6		
	UAL 2	Parish (Sogn) 2158	Commune (Kunta; Kommun) 311	Municipality (Sveitarfélög) 73	Municipality (Kommune) 356	Municipality (Kommune) 290	SNUTS 5	Municipality (Kommuna) 29	Municipality (Kommune) 5	

Source: Eurostat, Nordregio and ESPON, 2020-2021

The second important level is the municipality. Unlike the Latin countries, where the relevant level is the region, the Nordic countries favour a municipalization of the territorial structure. The municipalities are very large, with large populations, as a result of the regroupings and mergers that have taken place over the last forty years.

10. See also Jean-Baptiste Pointel, «État des lieux de la régionalisation des pays nordiques», in Sylvia Calmes-Brunet and Arun Sagar (Dir.), *Fédéralisme, Décentralisation et régionalisation de l'Europe. Perspectives comparatives*, Paris, Épitoge, coll. «Académiques», pp. 165-176.

11. Oddbjørn Bukve, Henrik Halkier and Peter de Souza (eds.), *Towards New Nordic Regions: Politics, Administration and Regional Development*, Aalborg, Aalborg University Press, 2008.

Table 3 – Population distribution in municipalities in the different Nordic countries, compared to selected European countries

	Number of municipalities	Average population	less than 1 000	From 1 000 to 5 000	From 5 001 to 10 000	From 10 001 to 50 000	50,001 to 100,000	More than 100,000
Denmark	98	56 943	0 %	3,1 %	1 %	58,2 %	30,6 %	7,1 %
Finland	320	17 035	4,4 %	39,4 %	28,7 %	21,3 %	3,4 %	2,8 %
Norway	431	11 063	6,7 %	48 %	21,1 %	21,1 %	1,9 %	1,2 %
Sweden	290	33 191	0 %	5,2 %	21,7 %	57,2 %	11 %	4,8 %
Netherlands	403	34 900	0 %	1,2 %	6,7 %	73,4 %	11,2 %	7,4 %
Italy	8 101	7 424	24,2 %	47,1 %	14,6 %	12,4 %	1,2 %	0,0 %
Spain	8 117	5 798	60,7 %	24,3 %	6,8 %	6,8 %	0,9 %	0,7 %
France	36 681	1 794	76 %	19 %	2,7 %	2,1 %	0,2 %	0,1 %

Source: official national statistics between 2014 and 2017

The regional level is the poor relation¹⁰. Traditionally called counties, the trend is to merge these authorities to create 'regions' according to European criteria. Nevertheless, behind these mergers, the scope of their competence has not changed. Because of the predominance of the central and municipal levels, little space is left for the regional level. The latter has always provoked mistrust in Scandinavians, who see it essentially as a fashionable phenomenon imposed by European organisations¹¹. In Finland, the regional level is, in reality, a public establishment for inter-municipal cooperation. The Norwegian reform initiated in 2017 led to the disappearance of the regions in 2020, to the benefit of the counties, which were merged and strengthened in their competences, following the example of the European regions.

Table 4 - Regional structure of local self-government in the Nordic

	Number	Type	Specificity
Denmark	5	Region	
Iceland	0	/	Regional level for central government
Finland	19	Region	Regions are communities of municipalities
Norway	11	County	
Sweden	21	County	

The territorial structure of the Nordic welfare state is therefore as follows: the objectives are defined at the national level, the concrete implementation is the responsibility of the municipalities. For this reason, they account for two-thirds of public employees and public expenditure as a share of GDP. In this way, it is possible to speak more of a 'welfare municipality'.

Table 5 - Local government expenditure as a % of GDP, for the year 2013

Denmark	36,3 %
Finland	23,9 %
Norway	20 %
Sweden	25,3 %
Spain	5,8 %
Italy	14,8 %
France	11,9 %

Source: Eurostat, OECD and official websites of each state

For these reasons, the study of the training of local government officials and elected representatives is particularly relevant in the Nordic countries. Because of their importance, the focus of this study will be on municipalities.

C. A public sector embedded in society

Finally, it is worthwhile to make an important reminder, which also explains the difficulty encountered in obtaining answers to the various questionnaires on continuing training practices in the municipalities: the practice is very largely decentralised, poorly regulated and, above all, not very distinct from that in the private sector. Indeed, one of the main vectors of differentiation of the administration from the rest of society is linked, traditionally as in France, to the status of civil servants. With a special status, the administration isolates itself in its recruitment, its functioning and the mentality of its members. In Norden, the administration is considered as an employer like any other: it is a worker who works for the State, but who could just as easily work for a private company¹². This practice is largely justified by the functioning of the central state as an agency, by a high degree of decentralisation and by a very high level of trust in citizen control linked to the transparency of recruitment. Consequently, the status of people working in the public sector is subject to a 'classic' employment contract, similar to that in the private sector¹³. As such, the status of civil servant no longer exists, with rare exceptions in the regalian domains of the civil service. Public servants are recruited on the basis of a profession, and therefore according to a know-how that must meet the demand initially defined.

This practice conceals the disparities between the public and private sectors, giving the appearance of equal treatment. However, the difference, apart from the employer, is essentially marked in the particularities attached to the collective agreements. Those applicable in the public sector constitute a real protective status. It is for these reasons that the results of the survey carried out here should always be related to practices in the private sector. This will give a better understanding of the specificities of the Nordic countries with regard to the continuing training of local government employees (II) and local elected representatives (III).

II. Continuing education for local government employees

Given the strong presence of the public sector in society, there is a great deal of similarity between the general system of continuous and professional service and the specific system for local public employees. For this reason, it is necessary to give a brief overview of the general situation in the Nordic countries before we can discuss the particularities that apply to the local public sector.

A. The general system of continuing and vocational training

The Nordic countries are known for their "flexicurity"¹⁴. This is largely based on a highly developed system of continuing and professional training. Indeed, the objective in the fight against unemployment is to empower individuals by enabling them to improve their training throughout their lives. The idea is that of social ascension, not generational but individual. However, this is not a selfish or solitary approach, but rather an individualism of solidarity¹⁵: the individual gains autonomy through his or her inclusion in society. Whether through the state, trade unions or other groups, the individual can choose his or her life. The direct consequences in terms of training are that trade unions are closely involved in the setting of vocational training, which remains state-controlled. Finally, the individual can choose from this catalogue of training, supported by counsellors and high compensation¹⁶.

12. In general, refer to Gerd Engelsrud, *Styringogvern. Arbeidsrettiof fentligsektor*, 5th ed, Oslo, Cappelen Damm Akademisk, 2013.

13. The issue of public sector employment is thus dealt with in labourlaw textbooks

14. Alain Lefebvre and Dominique Méda, «Performances Nordiques...», *op. cit.* no. 1; see also Jean-Claude Barbier, «Au-delà de la 'flex-sécurité', une cohérence sociétale solidaire au Danemark», in Serge Paugam (Dir.), *Repenser la solidarité*, Paris, PUF, coll. «Quadrige» 2011, pp. 473-490

15. V. Michel Hastings, «Is God Nordic?», *International Journal of Comparative Politics* vol. 13, 2006 No. 3, p. 388. See also the position of Henrik Berggren and Lars Trågårdh on the radical individualism of the Swedes as constitutive of the Nordic model: «Social trust and radical individualism», in Global Utmaning (Dir.), *The Nordic Model. Official translation of The NordicWay. Shared Norms for the New Reality* distributed at the Davos meeting, January 2011, pp. 11-34. This idea is further elaborated in their book in Swedish: Henrik Berggren and Lars Trågårdh, *Årsvenskenmänniska? Gemenskapochberoende i detmodernaSverige*, Stockholm, Norstedts, 2006

16. V. Alain Lefebvre and Dominique Méda, *Faut-il brûler le modèle social français*, Paris, Seuil, 2006

17. There is a version of this Act specifically for cooperation within municipalities (*Lakityönantajajähen kilöstönvälisestä yhteistoiminnasta*, Act No. 2007/449, as amended by Act No. 209/2017 of 7 April 2017) and within the State (*Lakiyhteistoiminnasta valtionvirastoissa ja laitoksissa*, Act No. 2013/1233 of 30 December 2013).

1. Denmark

In Denmark, it can be said that continuing education is financed by the state and that collective agreements determine the right to training. The public concerned by continuing training is both employees and the unemployed. As is the Danish practice, the social partners are closely involved in all entities and at all levels in the content and development of continuing training (in Danish “*Voksen- og Efteruddannelserne*”). In concrete terms, all employees are entitled to one week’s paid training. After 9 months of service, an employee is entitled to 2 weeks of paid training. The basic principle is that the collective agreement should allow adults to take reimbursed training time in order to be able to attend training courses offered by the state. The legal basis is mainly to be found in three texts:

- The Open Education (Adult Vocational Training) Act (*Lov om åbenuddannelse (erhvervsrettet voksenuddannelse)*), consolidated version No. 777 of 23 June 2016;
- The Vocational Training and Higher Education (Further Education) for Adults Act (*Lov om erhvervsrettet grunduddannelse og videregående uddannelse (videreuddannelsessystemet) for voksne*), consolidated version no. 881 of 8 August 2011 ;
- The Universities Act [*Universitetsloven*], consolidated version No. 960 of 14 August 2014.

There is no legal provision for an individual right to training, which is provided for in collective agreements. The role of the social partners is to determine the programmes and the main directions of the continuing training programme. They are present in the commissions of the entities offering the training. The main providers of training are public institutions, education centres and private individuals (about 5,000, divided between profit-making companies and private organisations, such as trade unions). However, few private providers are certified. Therefore, they do not issue a diploma and their training does not give right to compensation. Most of the compensation is therefore provided by the public sector. Financially, the State contributes about 2/3, while the remaining 1/3 is paid by the employer (*Arbejdsgivernes Uddannelsesbidrag*, the employer’s contribution to training) or directly by the user.

The social partners and the government consider this to be an essential complement to flexicurity. Indeed, a developed system of continuing training is necessary to keep Danish companies competitive in a globalised economy.

2. Finland

As in Denmark, trade union dialogue is central in Finland. Its influence is mainly to be found in the participation of the social partners in the management of training centres and, in particular, in the Advisory Committee for Training [*koulutusasiainneuvottelukunta*]. The law requires employers to provide training when it can prevent the loss of a job, while access to further training must be considered feasible and reasonable by both the employer and the employee. The latter requirement means that employee training must be carried out with the aim of improving the productivity, profit and motivation of staff. The legal basis is to be found mainly in :

- The Employment Contracts Act [*Työsopimuslaki*], Act No. 55/2001, as amended by Act No. 204/2017 of 7 April 2017;
- The Act on Cooperation within Enterprises [*Lakiyhteistoiminnastayrityksissä*], Act No. 334/2007, as amended by Act No. 208/2017 of 4 July 2017¹⁷.

The latter law stipulates that every company must allow its employees to keep up to date and that companies with at least 20 employees must provide an annual training plan. The State finances 90% of training courses that lead to certificates, and the entire theoretical part of apprenticeships. Where training is provided in the workplace, the State covers 50% of the costs. Due to collective agreements, companies receive subsidies if they set up internal training centres. These are not regulated by the state, but by collective agreements, works councils and employee representatives. However, the local labour administration must be kept informed of training and the content of bipartite agreements.

Collective agreements provide that the directly associated costs and loss of income of an employee, who undergoes training, must be fully reimbursed. If the training is given outside working hours, then the salary is paid to the employee. Finally, any employee, who has at least one year's seniority, can obtain training leave, with a maximum of 2 years' leave for every 5 years of work. There is no legal obligation for the employer to pay wages during training leave.

3. Iceland

There is no specific legislation on continuing education in Iceland. Most of it is contained in the Secondary Education Act and the University Act. From a financial point of view, evening classes and distance learning are paid for by the state, but adults attending these courses contribute to the tuition fees.

The Icelandic government aims to facilitate access to continuing education for adults, with priority given to those who have not obtained a qualifying qualification. Insularity increases this state interest compared to other Nordic countries, as it is also more complicated to find labour. However, the concept of lifelong learning is an all-encompassing one in Iceland: it covers all learning in an individual's life, be it short or long term, related to further education, seminars and even hobbies and leisure.

As in all the Nordic countries, degree training is provided by public universities and popular education schools. Trade unions also provide support by providing courses and other forms of education for their members. Finally, a great deal of training is provided by private companies.

As in Denmark, a cooperation committee on vocational training has been set up in secondary and higher education institutions. In Iceland, it consists of 18 persons. It aims to plan strategically the vocational training provided, in conjunction with industries, to meet their demands. These councils define the knowledge and skills needs of companies in order to establish the objectives of the training provided. They can also make proposals for the overall structure and direction of education on subjects relevant to the professions represented. For example, the University of Iceland offers a three-semester course on business management, or a one-year course to train in the management of fishing companies and the fish trade, which is particularly important in Iceland (the fish trade accounts for 60 % of exports and over 18 % of national GDP including indirect contributions).

Iceland is quite heavily involved in e-learning and relies heavily on the Internet to enable every citizen to obtain quality training. However, in order to provide local training for all, a *Centre for Livslanglæring* has been set up in each of the country's eight regions. These centres work together with secondary schools, higher education institutions, municipalities, trade unions and em-

ployers' organisations and private companies. Some of the courses are open to distance learning, allowing training to be provided by the University of Reykjavík or the Akureyri Vocational School. The Pedagogical University of Iceland (*ÍslandsPædagogiskeUniversitet*) has adapted all its courses so that it is possible to attend courses while having a part-time job. In this way, the school offers a mixture of distance and face-to-face learning.

4. Norway

In Norway, continuing education is based on the idea that every adult has the right to basic education (up to baccalaureate level), to partial or full educational leave for a maximum of three years (as long as he or she has worked for at least three years, the last two of which were for the same employer), and, if he or she is over 25, to enter university by validating professional experience (which is encouraged by a grant system that makes it possible to take non-linear career paths into account). Unlike the other Nordic countries, the system in Norway is directly dependent on each company (but not on the individual right to training). The legal basis is to be found in :

- The Working Environment Act [*Arbeidsmiljøloven*], Act No. 62 of 17 June 2005;
- The Education Act [*opplæringslova*], Act No. 61 of 17 July 1998;
- The Universities Act [*Universitets- og høyskoleloven*], Act No 15 of 1 April 2005.

At the same time, collective agreements require employers to present their development objectives, in order to identify the skills they will need, with a view to establishing appropriate training.

The social partners are also very active, either by participating in the definition of skills development programmes (notably in the National Council for Continuing Education [*Samarbeidsrådet for yrkesopplæring*] and the education councils [*Fagligeråd*]), or by financing training bodies, for example *Arbeidernes Opplysningsforbund* (AOF), which is very close to the workers' union (LO). Unlike in Denmark, the social partners have not reached agreement on funding, which explains why training is largely taken by adults outside of work.

Many actors, both private and public, provide training, the vast majority on a part-time basis with work experience. Adult organisations provide open and online training [*Voksenopplæringsorganisasjoner*]. They are partly financed by the state.

5. Sweden

In contrast to the other Nordic countries, the Swedish system relies almost exclusively on the social partners, in accordance with their traditional management of employment policy. There is therefore no co-ordinated system of training, which is largely decided by the employer and the employee in ways that seem appropriate to them. The training structures are the public authorities (formal training with a diploma), or the private sector (so-called informal training, not providing a diploma). Depending on the collective agreement, the employer may or may not be responsible for all or part of the funding. Some collective agreements, such as those for engineers, provide for an individual right to training [*Individuellutveklingsplanering*], sometimes linked to a right to a salary increase (as in the financial and banking sector).

In this legal limbo, the Act 1974:981 on workers' rights to training leave [*om arbetstagersrätt till ledighetförutbildning*] of 13 December 1974 provides that every employee with 6 months' seniority has a right to training leave, without any time or theme limit, at the discretion of the employee. According to the law, he/she is not paid and, when he/she returns from leave, he/she has the same working conditions as if he/she had not been absent.

18. These statistics do not include Åland Island, which has 2,342 employees, or other public organisations with a total of 29,470 employees.

Despite its non-formalisation, the current system seems to meet with the overall satisfaction of the social partners.

After this general picture of continuing education for private sector employees in the Nordic countries, it is now appropriate to highlight the specificities of the public sector with regard to their education.

B. The specificities of local staff training

Because of the public sector's place in society, the rules governing public sector employees are very similar to those governing the private sector. This proximity makes it difficult to access data specific to the local public sector alone. This explains the difficulty in collecting relevant data in this survey. Nevertheless, it is possible to highlight some specific elements, but the reader should always bear in mind that these are only marginal adjustments.

This is all the more so because, given the importance of the welfare state and its extensive decentralisation in the northern countries, the staff of local authorities represent a substantial wage bill, about two-thirds of the total public sector, or on average a quarter of total employment. This is why the vocational training of local public employees is of great importance in the overall training of the population.

Table 6 - Number of public employees in the public sector in the Nordic countries, by employer

Country	Total	Central Government	Regions or Counties	Municipalities
Denmark	709 538	172 618	121 544	415 376
Finland	586 222	110 474	N.C.	475 748 ¹⁸
Iceland	approx. 43,567	21 567	N.C.	approx. 22,000
Norway	814 020	294 121	44 978	474 921
Sweden	1 328 458	247 247	255 168	826 043

Source: national statistics between 2015 and 2017

1. Denmark

In Denmark, 90% of the staff of local authorities are recruited on a contractual basis. As the right to training depends on collective agreements, it appears that the entire public sector is covered by this right. However, this right is never mentioned in collective agreements in the public sector, even though it is clearly stated in the private sector.

Table 7 - Number of employees in local authorities in Denmark by status in 2007

Employer	Officials	Contractuals
Municipalities	41 253	397 314
Regions	6 130	110 209
Total	47 383	507 523

Source: KL, 2007
Retour sommaire ≡

The level of education of municipal staff is quite varied and corresponds to the many tasks performed by the municipalities. In contrast, the average level of qualification is higher at the level of the regions, because their task is mainly hospital management and specialised care, which requires expertise.

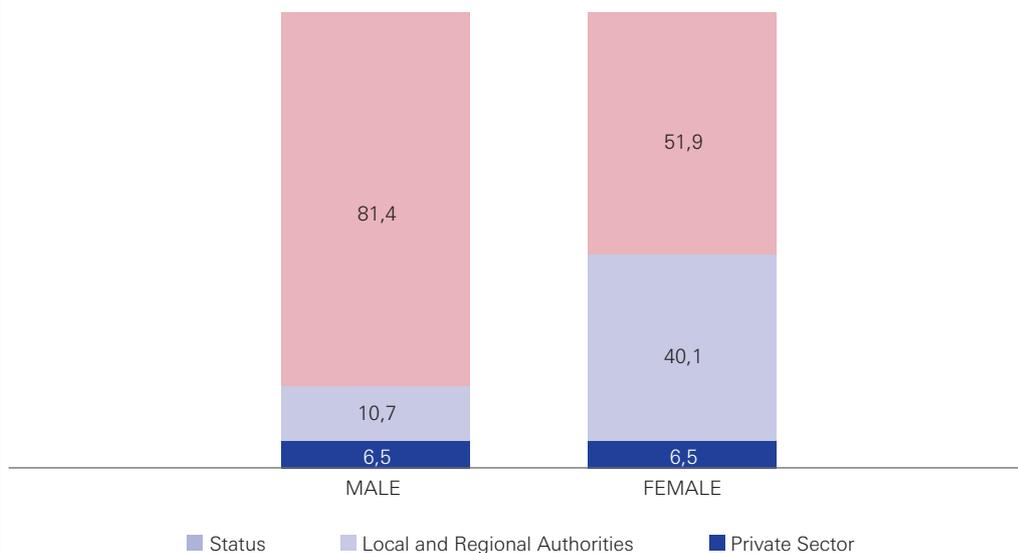
Table 8 - Qualification of municipal staff in Denmark in 2007

University level	21,7 %
Average education	30,7 %
Short education	38,4 %
No special education	9,1 %

Source: KL, 2007

Unsurprisingly, public employees are very largely women in local authorities (around 78%), whereas they represent only 45% of the workforce in the central state. This situation is largely explained by the fact that tasks relating to the welfare state, and more specifically health, are areas of activity in which women are very active (80.2% in 2011, compared with the European average of 73.9%). This should be seen in the context of the fact that in 2012, 70% of Danish women had a job (compared to 75.2% of men)¹⁹, which is well above the European average (58.6%). Therefore, vocational training for local government employees is mainly for women.

Figure 1 - Percentage of employed women and men, by employers, in Denmark in 2010



Source: Det Nationale Forskningscenter for velfærd, 2010

Training for local government employees is free, but one player in particular is the Centre for OffentligKompetenceudvikling (COK). The Centre for OffentligKompetenceudvikling (COK) is responsible for providing all the necessary training for Danish local authorities. Prior to 1 January 2003, training was provided by the Centre for Training in Local Government Skills, the Kommunom programme and fourteen regional training centres. They have all been merged into this independent institution, owned by the Association of Danish Local Authorities [*KommunernesLandsforening*, KL]. The task of this training organisation is to identify learning needs and to develop and deliver practical training courses leading to a qualification. This can take the form of courses, curricula, conferences, seminars or workshops. COK also provides training for local authority staff in line with the individual strategies of each municipality.

More specifically, COK provides the “*Kommunom*” training programme, which is equivalent to 60 ECTS, over a period of 2-3 years on a part-time basis, one day per week. The training is provided at the centres in Aalborg, Vejle, Esbjerg, Aabenraa, Odense, Aarhus, Herlev, Næstved and Holstebro. If enough participants are enrolled, it can be held at other locations closer to the learners’ place of work. The course is only open to working professionals or people with at least two years’ experience in the sector - although the main target group is local government employees, employees of private companies can also attend. “*Kommunom*” is subject to a final examination, supplemented by a personal project of the trained individual. The overall cost per participant, including training and costs, materials and examinations, is DKK 75,000, or approximately €10,000²⁰⁻²¹. In concrete terms, the course consists of five modules (10 ECTS each), three of which are compulsory for completion. These are :

- Public Administration of Local and Regional Authorities, which includes 50% political science (historical and political frameworks, citizen participation, functions of local and regional authorities, etc.), 15% economics (local public finance, public procurement, accounting, etc.), and 35% public law (specific rules, from the Public Administration Acts on administrative procedure, on the Ombudsman, etc.), 15% economics (local public finance, public procurement, accounting, etc.), and 35% public law (specific rules, derived from the Public Administration Acts on administrative procedure, on the Ombudsman, on access to administrative documents and on the protection of personal data, applicable unwritten rules and principles, and above all the way of dealing with files [*sagsbehandling*]²²);
- Psychology and communication, which includes psychological training both on the individual (personal development; attitudes, values and prejudices; motivation and need; the psychological influence of the work environment, etc.) and on the group (role and group dynamics; team management; cooperation and relationships; change management, etc.)) and on the group (group role and dynamics; team management; cooperation and relationships; change management, etc.)) and training on communication, mainly individual and not institutional (communication model; transactional analysis; teamwork as a communication process; method for creating a constructive dialogue, etc.).). The aim is for students to understand how and why people behave the way they do, as well as reaction and positioning strategies through communication, including ethical issues;
- Social and organisational science method, which focuses more on organisational management and human resource issues. The module is divided in two, 70% is devoted to understanding organisations (the organisation and the individual, the organisation and the group, the organisation and society). The next 30% is dedicated to methodology (formulation of a problem, drafting a project, design of a study, implementation of a study, validation, analysis, conclusion and perspectives, etc.). Unlike the two previous modules, this one is not assessed by examination, but by the presentation of an individual project.

To this must be added two (or three) elective modules (Table 9 training programme *Kommunom*”, two sub-modules must be taken to validate a group of modules), and then a final project (10 ECTS). The order of all modules is free,

20. The rate is approximately 1 DKK for 0.13€ or 1€ for 7.44 DKK.

21. Prices increased by 2% on 1 January 2018.

22. This issue, which is largely procedural, is considered to be of primary importance and is largely derived from the Ombudsman’s recommendations. This includes e-government and digital issues.

however, the final project can only be started once all compulsory and elective modules have been validated.

Table 9 - Optional training courses offered as part of the “Kommunom” training programme

Group of modules	Sub-modules
Administration, law and economics	Budget and accounting
	Processing of files
	Legal Affairs - Everyday administrative law
	Economic governance
	Tax collection
	Schools and administrative communities (type of public institutions)
	Knowledge and tools on information control
Citizens, digital and communication	Communication and information dissemination
	The citizen at the heart of the Danish administration
	Digital in the workplace
Employment and social affairs	Social theory
	Social policies
	Employment agency: complex cases
	Employment agency: support for citizens
HR, leadership and innovation	Employment agency: cooperation with companies
	Conflict in the workplace
	The innovative employee
	Leadership concretely
	Projects - management and leadership
	HR and personnel law
Health in the region	Daily innovation strategy
	Psychology and communication
	Health data and the medico-economic classification system (DRG)
	Supervisor of internship training for medical secretaries
	Data processing and control

There is also a ‘*Kommunom Health*’ pathway, where the compulsory modules are different. These are: clinical approach, communication and psychology; health system - missions, structures and economics; quality, patient safety and social science methods.

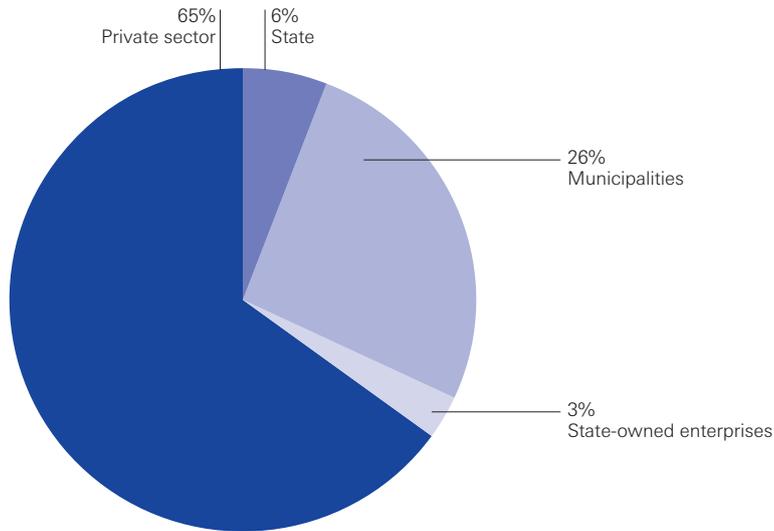
Finally, other courses are offered, depending on the needs. For example, there was a course entitled ‘Are you up to speed on the 2017 municipal elections? Practical instruction’, which involves expert practitioners from the municipalities of Odense and Copenhagen and the Ministry of the Interior. The aim is to get up to date with changes in electoral law, but also how to streamline the electoral process. For example, how many public officials and volunteers are needed, how to coordinate them properly, and how to prevent complaints after the elections.

A full catalogue of courses is available in Danish at: www.cok.dk/kataloger

2. Finland

In Finland, the public sector accounts for 35% of total employment and local authorities alone account for 26%.

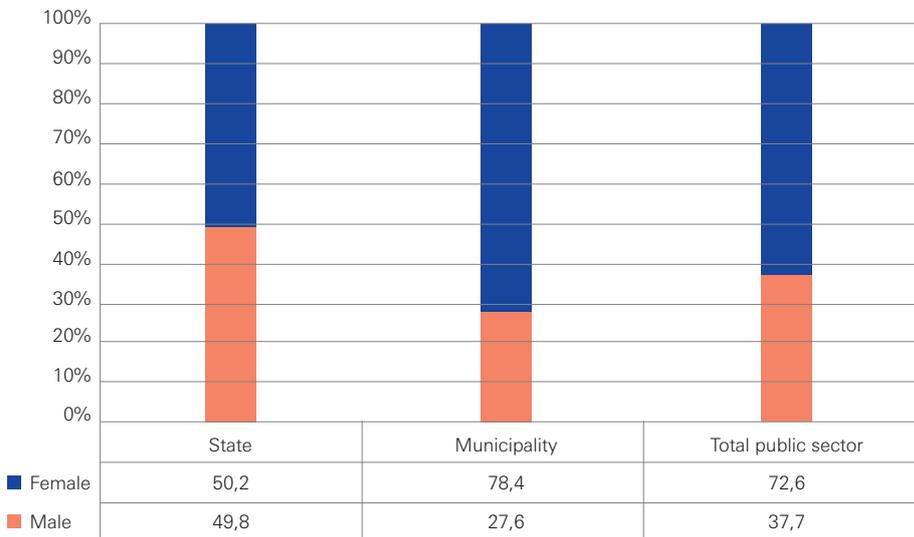
Figure 2 - Public sector employment in Finland as a percentage of total employment



Source: StatisticsFinland, 2014

Like its neighbours, Finland has a high rate of female employment in local government (78.4%), while in state employment there is a balance. In addition to the usual reasons for the high proportion of women among local government employees, it should also be borne in mind that local authorities take on the jobs associated with the welfare state (mainly in the social and health fields), which are still predominantly female.

Figure 3 - Percentage of women and men working in the public sector in Finland



Source: StatisticsFinland, 2016

Finnish local government employees undergo initial training. The training consists of concrete lessons on public management in order to make them operational. Thus, the orientation of the initial training is on the acquisition of the administrative method, in general, and also on more specific subjects of expertise, such as water management or economic development.

In terms of further training, each public administration is responsible for preparing its own annual training plan. This annual professional development programme has to be approved at national level. Communication on this plan is then ensured by different means and can be found on the official documents published on the public administration's website. In accordance with Decree No. 201 of 11 March 2009, the Chancellery establishes a national plan, which coordinates all these training courses. The subjects usually covered are classically related to public management, public law, public economy and finance, and digital issues.

Following the example of Denmark, where the Center for *Offentlig Kompetenceudvikling* has been set up to bring together all training bodies, the Association of Finnish Local Authorities has created a specific entity, the Finnish Consulting Group (FCG). This private company is taking advantage of its expertise to expand into Sweden and Norway. Its training arm, FCG Training, is now the largest provider of training to Finnish local authorities. Each year, FCG Training provides the "ICT for Health Days", the Economic and Financial Forum of the Association of Finnish Local Authorities, and the Municipal Managers Forum. It organises numerous training courses, which are provided by one of its three departments: Social and Health; Management and Economics; Human Resources. Of these, the Social and Health Department is the most developed, so that it is the leader in terms of the number of participants. It offers generic, on-demand and online training courses, especially in the area of data security. To determine the training courses, the three departments are in close contact with the Association of Finnish Local Authorities and the networks of experts in their sector. In 2016, FCG Training offered a wide range of courses in the following areas: management and leadership; early childhood, education and culture; administrative and legal affairs; human resources; economic, financial and accounting governance; infrastructure and environment; social and health services; communication and customer service. Many of these courses are also available through e-learning, and all can be delivered on demand. Similarly, FCG Training also offers coaching, both individual and group.

3. Iceland

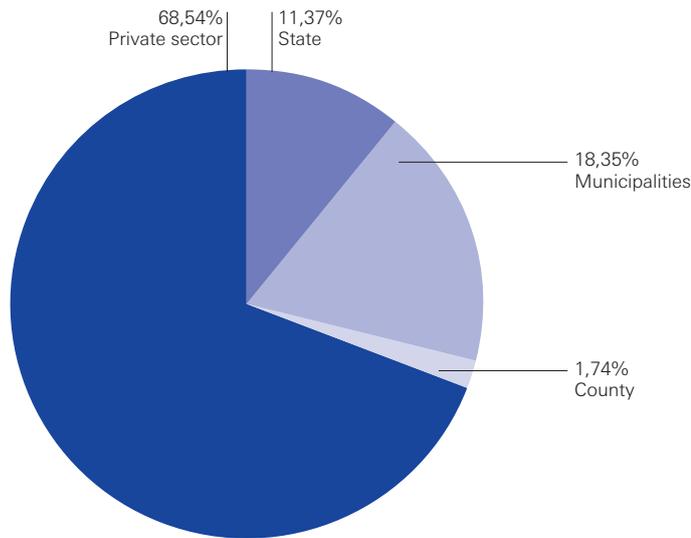
In Iceland, the number of public employees is relatively small, both at national and local level. Local government staff must first undergo an initial training programme of 36 hours. The aim of this initial training is to make them operational by teaching them the necessary public management basics.

Subsequently, the in-service training of local public servants in Iceland corresponds to a large extent to the Danish model.

4. Norway

In Norway, the data on women's employment in local government is in line with the other Nordic countries.

Figure 4 - Public sector employment as a percentage of total employment in Norway



Source: Statistisksentralbyrå, 2015

Yet Norway is different in several ways. It is to some extent the most centralised of the Nordic countries. Indeed, local authorities represent the smallest share in the public sector. Above all, there is little differentiation between local public employees and national public employees.

Figure 5 - Percentage of women and men working in the public sector in Norway



Source: Statistisksentralbyrå, 2015

The main specificity is the existence of compulsory initial training for local civil servants, as in Iceland. However, this does not differ in any way from that for national civil servants.

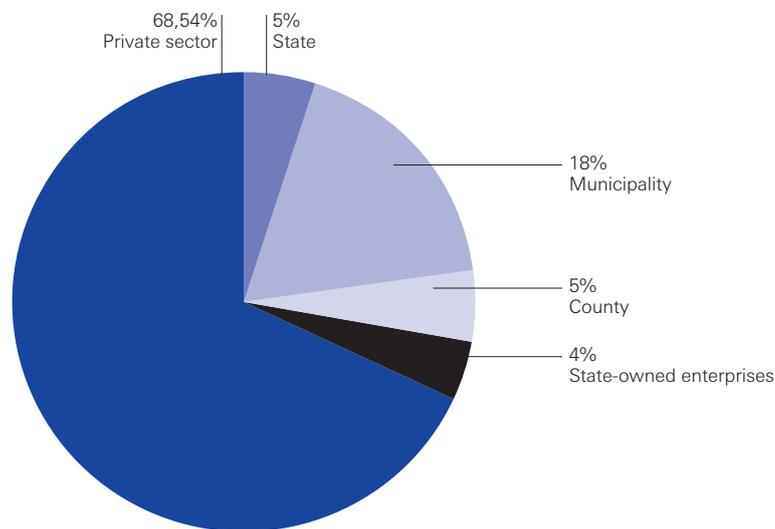
As in Denmark, the entire public sector is covered by collective agreements on continuing education. Thus, a continuous training plan is established collectively. In addition, there is an individual right to 40 hours of training. The Association of Norwegian Local Authorities [*Kommunesektorensinteresse-*

ogarbeidsgiverorganisasjon, KS], like its Nordic counterparts the Center for *Offentlig Kompetenceudvikling* and the FCG, provides training for both elected representatives and local authority staff. However, it is noteworthy that there is another organisation that has been providing training for the public sector since 1898, Delta. This is the union of employees in the public sector. It provides, in conjunction with academic institutions, degree courses for all types of public sector employment. In addition, Delta also helps its members to obtain funding for training. These grants cover a maximum of 40% of the cost of the training programme, up to NOK 5,000 (just under €540).

5. Sweden

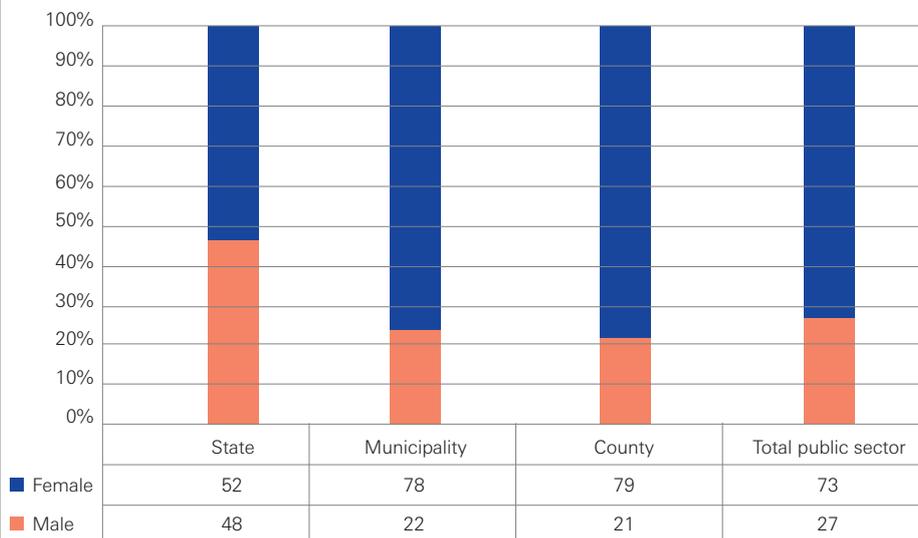
The public sector in Sweden presents a relatively similar picture to that of Denmark, both in terms of its representation in the national labour market and in terms of the number of female employees.

Figure 6 - Percentage of employment in the public sector and state-owned enterprises in Sweden as a proportion of total employment



Source: Statskontoret 2015

Figure 7 - Percentage of women and men working in the public sector in Sweden



Source: Statskontoret 2015

As in Denmark, all municipal and county public employee unions are covered by collective agreements, but these do not explicitly provide for a right to further training.

Local civil servants, recruited as civil servants – tjänsteman – first undergo an initial training course after being hired. This lasts up to three months and ends with an examination, with a jury, which certifies the level of competence of local civil servants.

As for continuing education, the training offer appears to be more competitive than in the other Nordic countries, in the sense that there is no dominant actor for the training of local public servants. Of course, local government unions and associations do offer training. For example, the Swedish Association of Local Authorities [*Sverige Kommuner och Landsting*, SKL, also known as SALAR for *Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions*] offers many training courses, but for the most part they are mainly for elected officials and, by implication, for public servants. Many consultancies also offer training for public officials. However, it is possible to highlight *Offentliga Utbildningar i Sverige*, a private company specialising in training for the public sector. Their catalogue is very broad and similar to what is offered in Denmark (economics and management; leadership and communication; law and administrative procedure, etc.) and in the private sector (use of the Internet.) and in the private sector (use of the Office suite in the public sector; freeing up time with Outlook; using Excel to its fullest, etc.). More specifically, the courses are aimed at both deepening and exploring the subject matter (“economics for non-economists” cycle) with a practical focus (“leading without being the boss”; “planning, structuring and prioritising”, “stress management”, etc.).

C. Partial conclusion

At the end of the questionnaire, it appears that the Nordic countries have important similarities with regard to the vocational training of local public employees. First of all, it is a very important market (public employees represent about a quarter of the labour market). Despite this importance, the legal framework for training differs only slightly from that of the private sector, both in the requirement for initial training and in relation to continuing training, and remains largely deficient in the public sector. The rules are fairly flexible and those relating to the public sector are mainly to be found in collective agreements. This is because training is more a form of custom, which does not necessarily need to be defined in the texts. In fact, there is a very long tradition of continuing training, which is rooted in the Nordic countries at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries. Thus, training is largely provided by means of training leave or with a view to the professional development desired by the public servants themselves. It is of course possible for each local authority to offer its employees training according to its needs.

Although not very formalised in the texts, the training market is very competitive, with many players: mainly consultancy firms, but also national public agencies, trade unions and public higher education establishments. These players provide a variety of training courses, both degree and non-degree. In spite of this abundant offer, as far as the continuing education of local public servants is concerned, the associations of local authorities in the Nordic countries have in most cases created a dedicated training company. As the company sets up its training programme in conjunction with these associ-

ations, which also represent the public employers, this training company is dominant on the market. Only Denmark has a comprehensive training programme, the “*Kommunom*” programme. The specificity of this programme is that it offers compulsory courses in psychology, so that public employees learn how to deal with both difficulties within the administration and those that may arise from contact with citizens.

Apart from this specificity, the training catalogue is relatively similar in the five Nordic countries: public law and political science, economics and financial management, human resources and personnel management, project management and leadership. A specific curriculum for social and health issues exists, as local authorities provide these functions, whereas in France there is a public hospital service.

Although local public servants are in a situation relatively similar to that of various employees in the private sector, local elected representatives are not trained in the context of the working world. Their training is therefore subject to other circuits and mechanisms.

III. Training for local elected representatives

Local democracy is very much alive in the Nordic countries. The municipal electoral term is uniformly four years in all Nordic countries and is held at the same time and in the same offices as the national elections for representatives to parliament. Many elected representatives serve only one term. Therefore, there is a very high demand for training for elected representatives, whether they are ordinary councillors or those with executive functions, such as mayors. As Table 10- Number of elected representatives in the Nordic countries shows, a significant proportion of the population is elected throughout the country, with a distribution of approximately 1 national elected representative for every 5 local elected representatives. Female representation is around 40% (falling to 30% for Denmark following the 2007 mergers, but rising steadily). The particularity is Norway, which has a very large number of municipalities in relation to its population, resulting in a very high level of representation: about twice that of Sweden!

Table 10 - Number of elected representatives in the Nordic countries

Name of the State	Number of elected national officials	Number of elected municipal officials	Of which Number of 'regional' elected officials	Total
Denmark	179	2 444	205	2 828
Finland	200	8 999	/	9 199
Iceland	63	504	/	567
Norway	169	10 621	720	11 490
Sweden	349	12 780	1678	14 807

Source: Official national statistics

This high level of representation can also be explained by the vibrancy of local democracy in the Nordic countries. In this respect, Norway is a topical example and will be presented more specifically to illustrate the idea of “civil conscription” that prevails there. Next, the continuing education of elected representatives will be discussed by country, according to the data collected.

A. A logic of “civil conscription”

Whether it is because of the large number of elected representatives in relation to the population, or because of the fact that there is a high rate of renewal of local elected representatives, it appears that the function of local elected representative is part of an “rite of passage”, or even of “civil conscription”. By this we mean that every citizen is widely expected to get involved in local elections at least once in his or her life. The experience gained is sometimes reintegrated into the creation of a company or association that meets a need identified during the mandate. This approach fosters the feeling of democracy and the importance of the local level.

Approximately every four years, one Norwegian per 500 voters gets a local elected office. The probability of becoming a local official is relatively high. Moreover, the proportional electoral system allows for the existence of “non-partisan lists” or “local interest lists”, inserting a more diverse population into municipal councils. Indeed, during the 1970s, local politics was dominated by men from the public sector, with a high level of education and between the ages of 40 and 60. The main challenge of the next twenty years was to reverse this domination and bring in a new population. A survey in 1993 was carried out in Norway to analyse the determining criteria for holding a local mandate²³. The most stable variables are still gender and level of education. This still leads to an over-representation of male graduates. However, the key determinants of engagement are political efficacy, interest in local politics and the perception of its importance. The size of the municipality is a very important factor: the smaller the structure, the more vocations appear. Finally, trade union membership and level of education have a strong impact on the desire to engage in politics.

In Norway, about 65% of local councillors are not re-elected. This high rate could be interpreted as a crisis in local government, either because elected officials are punished for not meeting the expectations of voters, or because they do not stand for re-election after becoming tired of politics. It turns out that, in general, it is more a matter of self-selection of councillors: 70% of outgoing councillors do not wish to exercise a new mandate. The most frequently given reasons are related to the time invested. Only less than 15% of councillors refer to the lack of influence of the assembly or dissatisfaction with local political life. There are few negative explanatory factors. There is no outright rejection of the work done in the local authority. Overall, the task is not pursued not because it is not interesting or rewarding, but because other activities are perceived as more important or compulsory.

It is generally considered that 15-20% of voters consider running for office. Far from being a crisis in local democratic life, it would appear to be an opportunity. “For many elected representatives, sitting on a municipal council is seen less as a stage in a political career than as a duty corresponding to a kind of conscription²⁴. 42% of Norwegian elected representatives in 1993 said that the feeling of obligation to run was an important reason for their new candidacy.

About 50% of local elected representatives consider that their work has had a significant effect. Their interest in politics - local and national - is increased. The main positive effect highlighted is the knowledge and learning about local politics and the ability to influence. Personal relationships and friendships were regularly made as a result of the experience. Most of the outgoing members even intend to continue their involvement in politics, usually within the

23. The results are presented, with broader analyses, in: Vincent Hoffmann-Martinot and Francesco Kjellberg (eds.), *Décentraliser en France et en Norvège*, Paris, Pédone, 1997. The following discussion reports on the results of this research.

24. Audun-Offerdal, «Carrière ou conscription? La sélection du personnel politique municipale en Norvège», in Vincent Hoffmann-Martinot and Francesco Kjellberg (eds.), *Décentraliser en France et en Norvège*, Paris, Pédone, 1997, p. 231

25. Defence has been a major contributor to technical vocational training for many years. Even today, it offers a training opportunity for young people with few qualifications. This is one of the points regularly put forward by the French Armed Forces-Youth Commission in its reports. In this respect, the Army is a strong vector in the fight against illiteracy and provides access to training courses leading to qualifications and to courses run by the Association for the Professional Training of Adults.

local party branch. They usually receive honorary titles in their political party at the end of their mandate, which encourages them to continue to participate.

In this respect, and following the example of military conscription, participation in the functions of local elected representatives allows for individual human development, notably through the acquisition of skills that can be used for other professional activities²⁵.

B. Summary presentation of training for elected representatives

Because of the number of local elected representatives and the rate of renewal, their training is also an effective means of providing lasting training for the entire population, enabling them to learn new skills and strengthen the democratic feeling. This training is more structured than that of local public servants. The public concerned are not 'recruited' for their skills, but for their interest in their municipality. There is therefore a greater expectation and need for training than for professionals working in the municipalities.

1. Denmark

In Denmark, it is customary to consider that an elected municipal official has never completed his or her training, but on the contrary must always renew himself or herself. The training of local elected representatives is thus perceived as a strength of local democracy. It is always problematic to know whether an elected official should have a degree or not. In reality, few are trained in the specific problems of municipal management, and even fewer in the complex and specific problems that arise in municipal committees (by sector of action). Only about 30% of local elected representatives are comfortable with the amount of documentation required to deal with these issues. The professionalism of the municipalities has increased the workload required. In the end, experience is more important than initial training for local elected representatives. It is a question of mastering concrete techniques and methods rather than theoretical knowledge on the subject. And by the end of their term of office, local councillors have often developed skills similar to those of public servants.

When it comes to training for elected representatives, the answer is "*Kattegat*". Indeed, '*Kattegat*' is a training programme that has been offered every four years for new municipal councillors for almost 40 years. Provided today by the Political Academy [*Politikerakademiet*] of the Center for *offentlig kompetenceudvikling* (COK), it is an intensive course for newly elected officials, dealing comprehensively with the political work of the elected mandate. In 2014, approximately three quarters of newly elected members attended the programme. The 11,200 Danish kroner (about €1,485) registration fee covers the course, various fees and materials provided, meals and accommodation during the training. It is an intensive three-day training course, which takes place from January to April the year after the elections (in November, for a January start). Usually, elected representatives from the same municipality are divided into different training groups, so that they can learn about other issues, but also build up their own network. The aim is to familiarise the newly elected members with the work of the municipal council, what municipal work is all about, how to get to know the local area and how to determine their political influence (both with the citizens and the administration and teamwork between elected members). The training is called "*Kattegat*", the name of a fictitious municipality in which the newly elected officials will de-

ploy their skills, in the form of a role-playing game. As COK is owned by the Association of Local Authorities (KL), the training also takes the time to introduce the association, its tasks and organisation, and the practical help it can give to newly elected officials. The training is provided throughout Denmark, which is divided into 14 territories with 25 different teams.

Other training is provided. In the previous mandate, COK provided about 110 training courses, with more than 2,400 participants, i.e. about 70% of local elected representatives. There are also other training courses for mayors, presidents of municipal committees, and those of the regions. For example, there was a training course on the influence of the European Union on the municipal political agenda, and another on collaborative work between the mayor and the director general of municipal services. Several of these specific training courses take place directly at the workplace, rather than in a training centre.

Finally, an activity should be added: an introductory meeting for new election candidates. The idea is that elections are about a change of elected personnel and that it is always better to ensure smooth transitions than to make them in fits and starts. Therefore, a current elected municipal official becomes an ambassador and, together with the Political Academy, establishes the different areas that will be addressed, so that the introduction is in line with the specific work of the municipality. Then, for about 3 hours, the new candidates will be able to find out what a local councillor is and discuss his or her role.

2. Finland

For Finland, the small amount of data collected is not sufficient to provide an adequate presentation of the training of municipal politicians.

As with the continuing education of local government employees, the bulk of training for elected representatives is provided by FCG. Between 2015 and 2016, approximately 14,000 local councillors and deputies received training. Traditionally, political parties and associations that select candidates organise information programmes. The municipalities themselves can pay for consulting, training and information for their elected representatives.

3. Iceland

As in the case of Finland, the small amount of data collected on Iceland makes it impossible to give a specific picture.

In principle, municipalities pay the cost of the training, which traditionally takes place during the first year of the mandate, for a maximum of two days. It is not compulsory or even systematically organised. The association of local and regional authorities is aware of the demand and is considering making it more regular.

4. Norway

As for Finland and Iceland, the data collected is not sufficient to provide a detailed specific treatment.

Like its Scandinavian counterparts, the Norwegian Association of Local Authorities provides a large part of the training for local politicians. The training must be paid for by the local authority, as well as other related costs.

5. Sweden

Although the training market is very competitive, and like its Scandinavian neighbours, most training for local elected representatives is provided either by the political parties - or the associations that draw up the electoral list - or by the Association of Swedish Local Authorities (SKL or SALAR). SKL, being the representative of local authorities and especially of their elected representatives, is by definition the organisation that best represents and defends the interests of local authorities in Sweden. This is why it offers basic training to all local elected representatives, especially new ones. This takes place between early autumn and late spring of the year following the elections. The programme is as follows – unless customised by the client:

● The basics

1. Local self-government (presentation of decentralisation and main issues),
2. The competence of local and regional authorities (bases of public law applied to local and regional authorities, in particular with the regulation of state aid and rules stemming from European Union law),
3. The organisation of the municipality/county (the different functions, the council, the committees, the auditor, the public associations, the public and mixed economy companies, public procurement, etc.),
4. The elected representative [(in-)eligibility, financial advantages, right of initiative, votes and decisions, the elected representative-public agent relationship, delegation of powers, etc.],
5. Meetings (holding a council session, participation in council meetings, participation of external council members, replacement and proxy, decision making, motions, interpellations and questions, etc.)
6. Financial management and accountability (mismanagement and discharge),
7. Administrative transparency (presentation of the law and good practices);

● Advanced courses

1. Deepening of municipal competence (clarification of all municipal competences and special laws),
2. Meeting techniques in practice (preparation of the meeting, the role of the chairperson, members' rights, different types of procedural motions and complaints, acceptance of a proposal, etc.),
3. Transparency, secrecy and freedom of expression,
4. The most important rules in the Public Administration Act (the obligation of public service, oral procedure, the right to information, motivation of decisions, notification of decisions, etc.),
5. Audit and review of municipal accounts (the roles of the auditors and the audited accounts, the audit report),
6. The different types of responsibilities (political, managerial, criminal).

This training must be commissioned and the venue is at the discretion of the sponsor. The cost of bringing in two speakers for two days is 45,000 kroner (about €4,690) for two days in a row; 35,000 kroner for one day and 50,000 if the two days are separated (about €3,650 and €5,210 respectively). The course is designed for 50 participants, but if the number of participants is high, it will cost 300 (one day) or 400 kroner (two days) per additional participant (about €31 and €42).

Unlike in Denmark, where the training programme is very clearly established, training for local elected representatives is not as fixed in terms of date, price

(on request) and, because of the importance of the sponsor, content (adaptable to local specificities). Indeed, the training given is very decentralised, so the municipalities and political parties determine their own dates. Therefore, no generic answer can be given on this point. Also, due to this strong disparity, the content of the training can be very varied and it can theoretically take place anywhere in Sweden. In practice, three types of training can be distinguished: those organised by political parties and associations traditionally take place in their own premises, often the headquarters of the parties, or in offices provided especially for this purpose; those decided by the municipalities themselves are usually carried out on the territory of the municipality, except in the case of collaboration with other local authorities; Finally, those organised by SKL, which take place either in regional centres (almost two-thirds in Stockholm, but others in Alvesta, Borlänge, Gälve, Göteborg, Karlstad, Linköping, Lund, Malmö, Örebro, Östersund and Umeå), particularly for conferences, or at the discretion of the sponsor. Recurrent training cycles include those on sustainable gender equality and effective governance.

SKL also offers four free and one paid e-learning courses on :

- Management of elderly diabetics (2 hours training, based on web pages);
- Dialogue with citizens and the public;
- In the context of the “finding the right tone in politics” (relating to the way elected officials speak, respect in democracy, and good management of speech, in particular);
- The fight against corruption ;
- Collective agreements and labour law (SEK 1 000, or about €105, for access to up-to-date data on web pages and training of about 2 hours).

Finally, according to the information collected, there is no coverage of training costs for local elected representatives in general.

C. Partial conclusion

The Nordic countries are characterised by a strong renewal of their elected representatives. Having attracted the participation of the entire population, it seems essential to provide, *at the very least*, specific training for newly elected officials. The latter are, for the most part, neophytes and discover the political reality of the country. This is why the local government associations in each Nordic country systematically offer training to newly elected officials. This training is more or less developed, more or less long, but it aims to provide the minimal bases of their work: applied public law, management of meetings and speaking in the municipal council, responsibility, relationship with the population and with the public agents.

These training courses are often taken care of by the municipalities themselves, and some even organise a day for candidates before the elections. This logic corresponds to the cooperative and consensus-based mentality that prevails in these latitudes. It corresponds to the consociative approach, highlighted by Arend Lijphart²⁶. It is not a depoliticised society, but a society characterised by an open decision-making process, tending to create a dialogue and to identify oppositions and diverse political postures, in order to achieve a politically committed but accepted²⁷ public action. The logic of “Open Government” is essential in this system and is also based on a strong continuous training approach.

26. Arend-Lijphart, *Democracy in Plural Societies. A Comparative Exploration*, New Haven, Yale University Press, 1977; see Miroslav Novak, «Les concepts utilisés dans le modèle consensuel de la démocratie : entre Sartori et Lijphart», in Céline Thiriot, Marianne Marty and Emmanuel Nadal (Dir.), *Penser la politique comparée. Un état des savoirs théoriques et méthodologiques*, Paris, Karthala, 2004, p. 148 and following.

27. David Arter, *Democracy in Scandinavia. Consensual, majoritarian or mixed?* Manchester, Manchester University Press, 2006, p. 21 and pp. 260 ff. See also Leif Lewin, «Majoritarian and Consensus Democracy: the Swedish Experience», *Scandinavian Political Studies* vol. 21, 1998 No. 3, pp. 195-206.

28. Jussi Kurunmäki and Johan Strang (eds.), *Rhetorics of Nordic Democracy*, Helsinki, Finnish Literature Society, «Studia Fennica Historica» No. 17, 2010. For a presentation in French of the concept of 'Nordic democracy', see Jean-Baptiste Pointel, *Le système administratif des pays nordiques, un modèle pour la France?* Thesis, Normandie Université, 2015, p. 107 and following.

29. Alain Lefebvre and Dominique Méda, «Performances Nordiques...», *op cit.* n° 1, p. 137.

Indeed, the pragmatic logic makes it possible to dissociate the political idea from the tools and means to accomplish the action. In this respect, continuing education corresponds to this mentality where one never knows enough, nor better than one's neighbour. Experience is valued, but it is also acquired, thanks to expert guidance. For the Nordics, democracy is also a process of personal development of citizens, through education and ethics, which again allows the empowerment of individuals. This is one of the characteristics that make it possible to specify the concept of 'Nordic democracy'²⁸.

IV. General conclusion

In the light of this study, it is clear that the issue of training for local public servants and local elected representatives is in line with the overall societal strategy of the Nordic countries expressed by the "flexicurity": "Lifelong training is a principle in the Nordic countries, and everyone should be able to benefit from it at any time in their career, whether they are unemployed, employed or in the education and training system. Vocational training is a public responsibility, even if in terms of organisation, expenditure and financial aid, the social partners are heavily involved in identifying needs and choosing the content of training courses." This is confirmed in terms of training for the local public sector. The social partners - mainly the associations of local authorities, also acting as employers of local public employees - are involved in identifying training needs and in developing and deciding on the content of training for pupils and teachers. A broad catalogue is offered, which covers a wide range of behavioural, ethical and communication issues. Programmes are sometimes established, as in Denmark, to provide coherent study paths. In this respect, the Center for *Offentlig Kompetenceudvikling* is an example to be looked at closely, particularly through its '*Kommunom*' programme for local public servants and its '*Kattegat*' programme for local elected representatives.

Traditionally, the Nordic countries devote a large share of their GDP to spending on training. Lifelong learning is not a slogan, but is fully integrated in the Nordic culture. For them, it is a social investment strategy to increase their performance and global competitiveness. More specifically, for the elected representatives, it is also a tool for *empowerment* and the development of a democratic feeling. This also shows the strong attachment of Scandinavians to local democracy. Moreover, these training courses offer new qualifications to elected representatives, who can thus develop new goods and services according to the needs they have identified during their mandate. This feeds a virtuous circle that is economic, social and democratic.

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B. Association of local and regional authorities

Denmark: *Kommunernes Landsforening*, KL: www.kl.dk

Finland: *Suomen Kuntaliitto*, SKL: www.kuntaliitto.fi

Iceland : *Samband Islenskra Sveitarfélaga* : www.samband.is

Norway : *Kommunesektorens interesse- og arbeidsgiverorganisasjon*, KS : www.ks.no

Sweden: *Sverige Kommuneroch Landsting*, SKL: skl.se

C. Main training institutes for public officials and local elected representatives

Denmark: *Center for OffentligKompetenceudvikling*, COK: www.cok.dk

Finland: *Finnish Consulting Group*, FCG: www.fcg.fi

Norway : *Delta* : delta.no

Sweden: *OffentligaUtbildningariSverige*: www.offentligautbildningar.se

D. Institute for National and European Statistics

Denmark: *DanmarksStatistik*: www.dst.dk/da

Finland: *Filastokeskus*: www.stat.fi

Iceland : *HagstofaIslands* : hagstofa.is

Norway: *Norsk Statistiskentralbyrå*: www.ssb.no

Sweden: *SvenskaStatisiskacentralbyrån*: www.statistikdatabasen.scb.se

European Union: *Eurostat*: ec.europa.eu/eurostat/fr/home

INITIAL AND CONTINUOUS
TRAINING OF LOCAL
PUBLIC SERVANTS AND
THE GENERAL TRAINING
AND DEVELOPMENT OF
LOCAL ELECTED OFFICIALS

Dr. L.J. Zwaan

THE DUTCH CASE. CONTINUOUS DEVELOPMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF ERODING BORDERS BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR.

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Looking at education, training and development of local public servants, the Dutch case presents an interesting contrast to the European career model. Not only does the Dutch public sector have an employment model, but also the labour relations and legal status of public servants are growing more and more close to those of the private sector. This is also reflected in the Dutch approach to training and development within the public sector.

In this paper we will focus on local public servants and elected officials. In the Dutch case that means mainly municipalities, but also water authorities¹ and joint arrangements (in which municipalities take on tasks in collaboration). Of these three categories the municipalities are far out the largest employer. Most joint arrangements follow the legal statues, regulations and labour conditions of municipalities, so we will not give special attention to this category.

Setting the stage

Before we turn our attention to the topic of education, training and development we must give a short introduction to the Dutch public employment model within a brief historical perspective. The employment model entails that there is no specific initial education for the public sector. To obtain a job one applies for a vacancy. Education, competences and experience will be assessed based on your resume, references, job interview, assessment etc. No exams (such as the French “concours”) to enter public service exist. Career steps are not based on seniority, but on performance and applying for vacancies in competition with other applicants. Although public and private employment are alike as far as education and recruitment are concerned, there is a difference in legal status. This difference however is gradually eroding.

The Dutch state and territorial organization and the public administration were formed in the 19th century. The French occupation (1794 – 1813) marks the transition from the former republic of the seven united Netherlands to the kingdom of the Netherlands. In 1813 the Northern Netherlands became a sovereign monarchy, soon to be reformed into a constitutional monarchy (Blom & Lamberts, 2014). The current territorial organization and division of powers between central and decentralised authorities is largely the result of the revision of the

1. Water authorities are fully democratic governed bodies with a territory with legislative powers and the right to impose taxes. Contrary however to the three main tiers of government, national, provincial and municipal, their scope is functional (flood protection, regional water management and treatment of urban wastewater) (Raadschelders & Toonen, 1993)

constitution in 1848, as designed by the statesman Thorbecke (1794 – 1872). There are three tiers: national, provincial and municipal (Breeman, Van Noort & Rutgers, 2015). The same period the territorial makeup of the Netherlands was formed, a process of professionalising the civil service gradually took place. First entry-exams for the civil service on national level were introduced. Gradually this career system was introduced on provincial and local level. In the first quarter of the twentieth century big leaps were made in improving the educational system, making education accessible to larger parts of the population. Also, quality and exit terms were standardised. This can be seen in the light of the political aim to educate, enlighten and emancipate the lower and middle classes. Aside ideological considerations this movement to improve and raise up the people was largely motivated by the entrepreneurial spirit of the nation. The Netherlands was not ruled by the aristocracy, but by merchants and businessmen that needed a better schooled population. Socialists with ideals of emancipation of the worker and liberals that recognised the need for an educated population to advance the nation found each other on this issue (Blom, 2014).

Once school diplomas became a reliable proof of education these replaced the clerical entry exams, which were abolished in 1934. De professionalization of the civil service (national as well as local) and of the recruitment based on diplomas developed parallel with the normalization of the remuneration. In 1918 the first decree on remuneration of civil servants on a national level was passed, creating a remuneration level competitive with the private sector. The territorial and local level soon followed (Raadschelders, 1995).

When in 1907 the first law on employment contract was drafted there was no distinction between employments in the public or private sector. At that moment there was no clear definition of civil servant. In the final text an article (1637 BW) was included that excluded public servants from this law. This was due to the lobby of a union of public servants (Rechtstoestandbond) that advocated a special status for civil servants. In 1929 a law on civil servants (Ambtenarenwet) was passed creating a formal status for civil servants and regulation their rights and duties as employees of public bodies (Lanting, 2014).

This division between public and private labour law has slowly eroded during the twentieth century. The two systems have grown more and more towards each other. Already in 1958, a state committee report on the status of civil servants (Rapport-Kranenburg, 1958, p. 11) contained a minority position that a civil servant should be considered an employee like any other. Around 1980 the debate on the abolishment of the special status for public employees was raised and has continued since. In steps (1983 and 2006) and with some restrictions the right to strike was extended to civil servants. Since 1989, salaries are no longer imposed unilaterally, but negotiated with the unions. The law on employee participation was extended to the public sector in 1995. The systems of social security for the public and private sector were unified in 2001 (Lanting, 2014). And in 2014 parliament has passed a bill on normalisation of the legal status of public employees. November 8, 2016 the bill was ratified by the Senate (Eerste Kamer der Staten-Generaal, 2014) and became active January first 2021².

Before we move our attention toward the education for public officials, we present a few key figures. In 2016 the Dutch population passed 17 million inhabitants³.

In 2014 there were 915,531 persons (775,817 full time equivalents) employed in the public sector. The total cost of wages for the public sectors above for 2014 is estimated at 49,901 million euros (Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties, Directoraat-generaal Bestuur en Koninkrijksrelaties, directie Arbeidszaken Publieke Sector, 2015).

There are (2016) 12 provinces, 390 municipalities and 23 water authorities.

Table 1: Public employment 2014⁴

Sector	Persons	Full time equivalents
Government	289,046	263,309
National	116,883	109,487
Provinces	10,868	9,883
Municipalities	147,827	131,258
Water authorities	9,986	9,414
Justice	3,482	3,267
Education and science	503,332	393,532
Defense	59,123	(here A6 to A8)
Police	64,030	60,603
TOTAL	866,904	775,816

Initial education in The Netherlands

Having set the stage, we can turn our attention towards education. We prefer the broader term ‘education’ whereas ‘training’ in the Dutch approach to development refers to just one of the possible ingredients within an educational or development program.

We already noted that the public sector in matters of initial education, recruitment relies on the same educational system as the private sector. There are no special schools or universities dedicated to the preparation for a life of public employment.

The Dutch initial education is regulated through law and by the ministry of education. Anyone can start a school or university but must comply with certain standards to obtain a licence, funding and the right to issue recognised diplomas. So a “special school” such as an Islamic school, a Roman Catholic school or a school based on the principles of Montessori will get the same (state) funding as a public school. It will have certain freedoms to organize the educational program within its own tradition but will have to meet the same end standards. Public schools used to be initiated and governed by the state (state universities) or municipality (primary schools and secondary colleges), but today all public schools are governed on the same governance principles as “special” school by independent boards and not by state or municipality. School is compulsory by law from five to seventeen. For those who have not obtained a recognized start qualification (havo or vwo diploma or mbo diploma on level 2 or higher) at that age school will remain part-time compulsory until the age of 24.

Most Dutch children will go to primary school at an age of four (from five this is compulsory). The first two years are a form of preschool. Grade two to eight are the regular classes.

After primary school children will go to one of five school types (secondary education). Practical education is aimed as a relatively small group for whom regular education is too difficult (ca. 27,000 pupils). The others will choose between vmbo, havo or vwo. The first year and in some cases first two years there are still possibilities to switch between these three columns. Vmbo takes four years and prepares for intermediate vocational education (mbo). Havo takes five years and prepares for higher vocational education (hbo). Vwo takes six years and prepares for academic education. A special variety of vwo is the so called “Gymnasium”, which has the same end terms as vwo, but includes Latin, Greek and classical culture. After a vmbo exam there is a possibility to enter havo 4. After a havo exam there is a possibility to enter vwo 5. About 60% of the children will attend vmbo. Havo and vwo attract each around 20%.

Intermediate vocational education (mbo) takes one up to four years, depending on the desired exit level. Higher vocational education (hbo) on bachelor level takes four years and a fifth year can be added to obtain a master’s degree.

To obtain an academic (wo) bachelor’s degree it takes about four years, although some disciplines (for instance medicine) can take longer. An academic master’s degree will take another one or two years depending on the discipline and whether it is a research master. After mbo 4 there is a possibility to enter hbo and there is a possibility to enter university after a bachelor or master’s degree on hbo level.

Although there are differences in quality between educational institutes, the regulation and inspection by the ministry ensures that these stay within relatively narrow bands. Quality is well monitored.

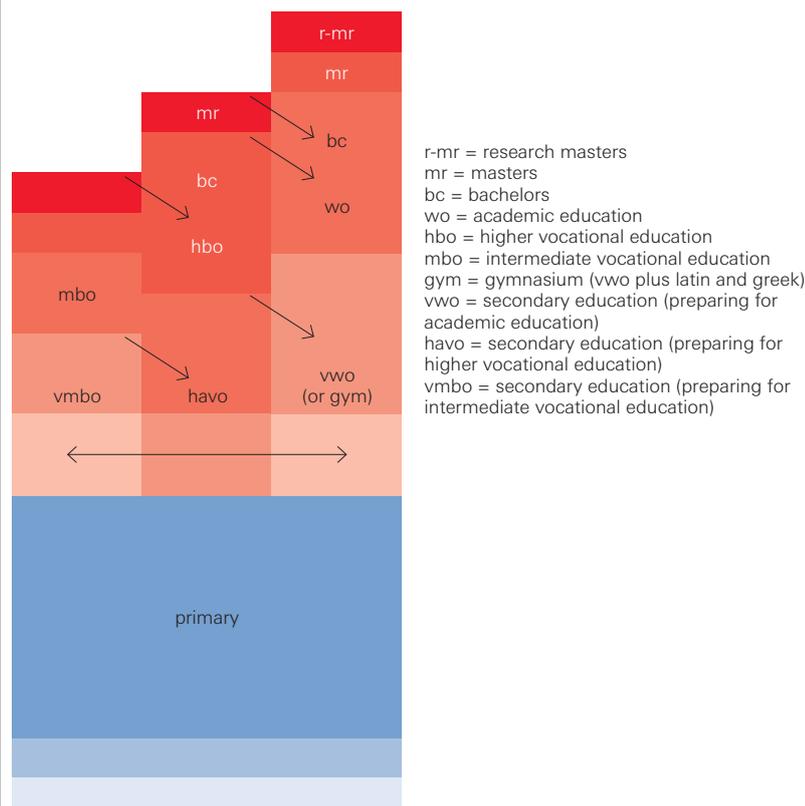


Figure 1, The Dutch educational system

All these educational lines are neutral in the sense that they do not prepare especially for the private sector nor for a life in public service. The choice for a career in the one or the other is in most cases made after the initial education is completed and often the course into public service or private employment does not have to be a lifetime choice. Switches during a career from one sector to the other is not uncommon.

Initial education for local public servants

In the previous paragraph it was shown that there is no special initial education for local public servants or any other civil servants. There are some interesting relatively new developments however when it comes to traineeships, preparing newly graduated students for a public career. Some larger municipalities have set up such a trainee program.

The four largest municipalities, Amsterdam⁵, Rotterdam⁶, The Hague⁷ and Utrecht⁸ offer a two-year trainee program. But more and more municipalities are following the example of the big four, although these are in general still larger municipalities (>100,000 inhabitants). The city of Utrecht also offers a regional program in collaboration with the province and eight other municipalities in the region⁹. This gives the opportunity for some smaller municipalities to participate in such a program. To support those municipalities that are too small to organize a complete trainee program on their own the association of municipalities (Vereniging van Nederlandse Gemeenten - VNG) has stepped in. They organize on a national level a similar program and then place the trainee with one of their member municipalities¹⁰.

With some variations these programs follow the same format. The program is open to graduates from university or higher vocational education (hbo) with a maximum of two years' work experience. The trainee is posted in a regular job within the municipality and combines this job with special program activities. The program activities are a mix of "on the job" work assignments, individual as well as with other trainees, in different departments of the municipality and a training module aimed at development of personal skills, such as leadership, communication, project management and advisory skills. Each trainee has a mentor.

These initiatives are partly an answer to a recruiting problem. Municipalities have increasing difficulties recruiting younger officials. The average age of local public servants is rising and the number of younger officials dwindling.

Table 2, Municipal officials - age (2014)¹¹

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Average age	45,8	46,3	46,9	47,5	48,1
Percentage over 55	24%	25%	27%	27%	31%
Percentage under 35	16%	15%	14%	13%	11%

5. www.amsterdam.nl
6. www.rotterdam.nl
7. www.denhaag.nl
8. www.utrecht.nl
9. www.utrecht.nl
10. vng.nl/producten-diensten/ondersteuning-programmas/vng-trainees/trainees-jong-talent
11. A+O fonds gemeenten, 2014

Continuous education for local public servants

Present day continuous education or in other words lifelong learning is important regardless of if one looks at the private or the public sector. Employers, private and public alike, are generally very aware that the rapidly changing environment demands that their staff remains up to date and works continuously on development and employability, updating knowledge and skills. Also, individual employees and the unions by which they may be represented are aware of this. Where traditional labour agreements treated mainly issues like pay levels and working conditions nowadays personnel development is one of the hot topics on the agenda.

So, what do local administrations offer their employees in continuous education once they have entered the local public service? And how is this regulated?

Working conditions, including on terms of continuous education and personal development, are regulated in collective labour agreements. For each sector, a sectoral labour agreement is negotiated. The two main sectors in local public service are the municipalities and the water authorities, each with their own sectoral labour agreement. A third large categories are the joint arrangements, but these are mostly inter-municipal organizations that fall under the municipal labour agreement.

We will first go into the municipal arrangements and then into the arrangements concerning the water authorities. The third group of local or territorial officials are those employed by so called joint arrangements. Mostly these follow the municipal provisions.

Municipal

Chapter 17 of the municipal labour agreement (CAR-UWO) is dedicated to education and (career) development. This chapter was extensively revised in 2012, taking effect from January 2013 (Loga, 2013, January 9).

The first article sets the tone. The official himself is the first responsible for his own employability and career perspective to improve his own position on the external labour market (art. 17.1-1). Article 17.2 states that the municipality should support the official in his development aimed on employability and mobility. To this end the municipality should develop a policy on personal development. Article 17.3 states that the official has a yearly right on € 500 budget for (career) development and schooling (“Individueel loopbaanbudget”), which can be saved over a period of three years to fund schooling that costs more. Article 17.4 states that the official and his manager should make a personal development plan. This plan must be updated and evaluated at least every three years. According to article 17.5 the official has a right to seek professional advice concerning his development once every five years.

The budget in the labour agreement is a guideline. The actual amounts reserved by municipalities differ from one to the other municipality. Most municipalities reserve a larger amount in their yearly budget. Larger municipalities reserve more than smaller ones in absolute numbers, but in percentage of salaries the differences get smaller. The actual expenditure on schooling and development however is lower than the budget.

Table 3, Municipal schooling budgets 2014¹²

Inhabitants	Budget per official	Spend per official	% salaries (spend)
Largest 4	€ 1,074	€ 1,045	1,9%
> 100,000 (ex. L4)	€ 1,146	€ 1,038	1,9%
50,000 – 100,000	€ 1,121	€ 976	1,8%
20,000 – 100,000	€ 996	€ 840	1,7%
10,000 – 20,000	€ 972	€ 787	1,6%
< 10,000	€ 881	€ 831	1,7%
Average	€ 1076	€ 965	1,8%

In a survey (A+O fonds gemeenten, 2014) municipalities were asked for the reasons they spend more or spend less on schooling. (The overall percentage of schooling on salary was 2.0% in 2010, 1.8% in 2011, 1.7% in 2012, 1.8% in 2013 and 1.8% in 2014.) The top five reasons to spend more where:

- 1) New developments in the municipal organization
- 2) More demand for schooling
- 3) The introduction of individual (career) development budget (January 2013)
- 4) Sustainable investment in human resources
- 5) Budget cuts

The top five reasons to spend less where:

- 1) Training activities suspended or postponed.
- 2) Lack of time due to work pressure, illness, pregnancy, elections, reorganization etc.
- 3) Less interest in extensive education and/or more demand for short courses
- 4) The introduction of individual (career) development budget (January 2013)
- 5) Reduction of staff

The introduction in 2013 of the individual (career) development budget is seen as a reason to spend more as well as a reason to spend less. Unfortunately, the survey report does not explain this contradiction. Also remarkable is the mentioning of budget cuts as a reason to spend more on development. Maybe this can be seen in the light of downsizing where municipalities try to do the same with less but better qualified officials.

We have information regarding the contribution of municipal officials themselves in the cost of schooling although the data are from five years back (A+O fonds gemeenten, 2012).

Table 4, Finance of schooling (2011)

Type of schooling	Employer	Employee	Together
Professional schooling applicable in present job	98%	1%	2%
Sector specific schooling with chance of another function within the organization	79%	2%	19%
Nonjob related schooling with chance of a job outside the organization	20%	12%	68%
20,000 – 100,000	38%	11%	51%

Water authorities

In contrast we look at the water authorities. With 23 water authorities (in 2014/24) and under 10,000 officials this is a much smaller sector.

Where in the municipal sector the focus seems to be on individual responsibility, the water authorities tend to emphasize more on joint responsibility. The collective labour agreement for the water authorities dedicates chapter five to “activating personnel policy”. It states that the organization and official are jointly responsible for sustainable employability and personal development (5.1.4). The organization must make a schooling plan with a budget of at least 1% of the total cost of salaries (5.1.5). In articles 5.2.1 to 5.2.4 the yearly cycle of HR-talks between manager and official is regulated, stating that aside work-related tasks and targets also personal development, schooling and career should be a topic. Article 5.3.1 grants a five-year personal schooling and development budget of € 5,000 to each official. Article 5.3.2 to 5.3.4 suggests auxiliary means to support this development through a personal development plan, employability scan and an array of methods and instruments. Other articles focus on other aspects of sustainable employability other than schooling and development such as work conditions, health, support in finding other work if a job becomes obsolete etc. The larger emphasis on joint responsibility and the more elaborate and generous arrangements might be explained from the traditional financially more sound position of the water authorities.

Chapter 3 of the labour agreement for the water authorities (SAW) is titled “Individueel keuze budget” which means “individual choice budget”. This chapter was introduced in 2012. Part of the budget is based on collective claims, part on individual claims. De budget is built up based on age, percentage of salary special rewards etc. Within certain bounds the official can deploy the budget for:

- union membership contribution
- education and development
- vacation
- cash

In addition, chapter 5 states that employer and employee are jointly responsible for sustainable employability and (career) development. The employer is responsible for an activating human resources policy. The “individual choice budget” in combination with the yearly cycle of development and performance reviews. Article 5.1.5 states that there should be a schooling plan with a minimum of 1% of the wage bill. In addition, article 5.3.1 states that there should be a five-year personal schooling and development budget of € 5000. According to article 5.3.2 the official and his manager should make a personal development plan.

In 2014 68% of the “individual choice budget” was cashed in, 26% was used on vacation, 11% on union membership and less than 3% was deployed for education and development. Given a choice, officials seem to prefer cash over schooling. However, the water authorities as employers invest more in schooling and development than the municipalities. Where municipalities in 2014 spend 1.8% of the wage bill on schooling and development, the water authorities spend 2.7%, which is above the 2.5% that would be expected based on the norms of the labour agreement (SAW). On the other hand, the amount actual spend is lower than the budget which was set at 2.9%. And the trend is downwards. In 2008 the budget was still 5%, in 2010 3.3% and

in 2012 3.2%. On average in 2014 each employee has followed 1.5 training or course. Schooling in the areas of management, finance and ICT whereby far the most frequented (A+O fonds waterschappen, 2015).

Personal development through competence management

We see how in municipalities as well as water authorities the HR-cycle of development and performance reviews as well as the personal development plan play a key role in determining what schooling or other development activities an official will follow. Competence management is in most cases an important ingredient in the development and performance review. Most organizations will work with a fixed set of (behavioural) competences and for each function or role within the organization a set of key competences will have been determined. Since 2011 HR21 is the municipal sectoral system for job description and classification¹³. In 2012 the competence set was developed to complete this instrument (A+O fonds gemeenten, 2013). Now about one third of the sector uses HR21¹⁴.

Continuous education for local elected officials

Local elected officials are municipal councilman and alderman for the municipalities and “heemraden” (council members) and “hoogheemraden” (members of the executive board) for water authorities. The mayor (municipality) or “dijkgraaf” (water authority) acts as chairman of the executive board but is not elected but a civil servant by commission of the crown.

Table 5, Number of local elected officials (2016)

Function	Number
Alderman (municipality)	1,449
Council member (municipality)	8,931
Hoogheemraad (water authority)	73
Hemraad (water authority)	453

Local public servants will be selected by skills and experience. The presence thereof will be determined by their diplomas, resume, assessments etc. The position at hand will determine the qualification demands. For elected officials no such demands can be made. Getting elected is a question of getting enough votes.

Most seats in the municipal council are usually obtained through party lines. This means that politicians from larger parties with more seats will obtain their seat not because so many votes were cast on them personally, but on their party. (For the water boards until 2004 it was not possible to enter a party list. Only individual candidates were permitted.) Political parties could take educational qualifications into account when assembling their list for the elections. This does not really happen. Therefore, the educational and career background of the elected officials (councillors) can differ greatly.

The position of a municipal councillor is not considered a full time paid job. Nevertheless, a councillor in 2014 spend on average 15.9 hours a week on council work, 12.0 hours in the smallest (<14,001 inhabitants) municipalities up to 24.7 hours in the largest (>150,000 inhabitants) municipalities (De Jager de

13. www.hr21.nl

14. HR21 was commissioned by the VNG and developed by Leeuwendaal and Buitenhek plus. These two consultancy firms also contributed to the development of the A+O HR21 competence management toolbox.

15. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties, 2017

16. A monthly compensation of € 239.11 for the smallest up to € 2,242.41 for the largest municipalities. (Ministerie van Binnenlandse zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties, DGBK/Directie Arbeidszaken Publieke Sector. (2015, November 24). Circulaire 2015-0000636309. *Per 1 januari 2016 geïndexeerde bedragen voor politieke ambtsdragers voor gemeenten*. Den Haag)

17. www.wshd.nl

18. vng.nl/files/vng/20141218-persoonlijke_gegevens_raadsleden_2014_na_verkiezingen.pdf

19. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties, 2017

20. www.verkiezingsuitslagen.nl

21. www.vngacademie.nl

22. Rechtspositiebesluit raads- en commissieleden, artikel 13

23. vng.nl/files/vng/20141218-persoonlijke-gegevens-wethouders-2014-na-verkiezingen.pdf

Lange, Flos & Van Rens, 2014). There is a modest compensation dependent on the size of the municipality¹⁶. The time spend is not relevant for the height of the compensation.

For member of the council of a water authority the monthly compensation is € 448.41¹⁷ regardless the size. (In 2014 there were 641 council members.) We have no figures concerning their time spend but considering that the water authorities are functional bodies with a limited character (water management) it is safe to say that this will be on average less than for municipal councillors.

After the 2014 municipal elections there were 9,018 councillors¹⁸. In 2014 67.8% of the councillors had a regular paid job (of which 3.1% combined with an education). 2% had no job but combined the council work with an education.

The other 30.3% had neither a job nor where in training (De Jager de Lange, Flos & Van Rens, 2014). In 2016 the percentage of councillors without a paid job had dropped to 26%¹⁹.

The education formerly mentioned is not particularly related to the council work. The education for councillors is limited. Larger national political parties will offer their candidates orientation courses. However last decades local political parties have gained importantly in popularity and size (Derksen & Schaap, 2010). Since 2006 they are (on average) locally the largest political factor and in 2014 they obtained 27.77% of the votes²⁰. These relatively young and locally organized parties do not have the training facilities that the established national parties can offer.

The municipal council itself is supported by the council secretariat which can organize or refer to schooling. The association of municipalities (Vereniging van Nederlandse gemeenten, VNG) has its own educational institute that offers mostly short training modules for councillors. In 2016 the website shows eleven workshops such as finance for councillors, debating skills, citizen's participation, social media and others²¹. There is an ongoing debate if councillors should invest more in education or that an open mind is more important (De Koster, 2014). Non-political party orientated education directly related to the council work is to be financed by the municipality according to their legal status²².

Depending on the size of the municipality and political setting the council will appoint 2 up to 9 aldermen (maximum 11 if some are part time). The board of a water authority has around 5 board members. The position of alderman or member of the water authority board is often a full-time job although in smaller municipalities it can be a part time position. Sometimes the position is part time to create more positions to involve more parties in the coalition. In 2014 there were 1,481 aldermen²³. An alderman can and often will be elected from the council, but the function of councillor and alderman cannot be combined. Once appointed an alderman one will have to vacate one's seat in the council. This is different for the water authorities where most members of the board will be and remain councilmembers.

As for educational background the same applies as with the councillors. There are no educational requirements. The position is obtained through political support from the political majority in the council.

Suppliers of continuous education

In the previous paragraph we saw that the association of municipalities

(Vereniging van Nederlandse gemeenten, VNG) offers some educational options for local elected officials. Their “academy” also offers training modules and workshops for local public servants.

Most forms of education and training will be bought of the market. Suppliers can be universities, educational institutes but also private training organizations. Some suppliers aim exclusively at the education for the public domain. Three specialized suppliers are Bestuursacademie, NSOB and PBLQ-ROI.

The “Bestuursacademie Nederland”²⁴ has a broad offer, including complete programs leading to a bachelor or master’s degree as well as shorter specific training aimed at specific topics.

The NSOB (Nederlandse school voor openbaar bestuur)²⁵ is associated with several Dutch universities and offers a range of post-doctoral education in the domain of public administration. The Master of public administration (MPA) is a more intensive two-year program. Other examples are the program strategic leadership in the public domain (10-month part time for top managers in the public domain) and the interdepartmental management course (15-month part time) for higher management at ministerial departments.

De PBLQ-ROI (Dutch institute for public administration) is an independent training foundation but originated as the Dutch educational institute (ROI), founded by the Dutch ministry of the interior and kingdom relation, with which there are still strong relations. Its core task is the development and implementation of training and development programs for civil servants and other public sector employees²⁶. PBLQ-ROI offers a range of courses aimed at public officials.

Forenamed suppliers have programs that are aimed specific at the public sector. But also, many of their programs treat specific public issues, such as public law, policy making etc. For more generic topics or skills a wide array of suppliers of education and training is available.

Innovation and trends

Municipalities get more creative in development initiatives. The ‘labour market and education fund’ municipalities (A+O Fonds gemeenten)²⁷ is a foundation founded in 1993 by the social partners (unions and employers) in the municipal sector to contribute to and stimulate innovative initiatives that will make municipalities attractive employers with a healthy work climate with employees that take responsibility for their personal development²⁸. The foundation since has supported numerous development programs in the field of human resources. Recent initiatives are for example a survey on the developments in on E-learning, aid with the implementation of generation pact (in which older officials can work less hours for the same pay to make room for younger generations), subsidising trainee ships for young professionals, inspiration sessions where municipalities can share knowledge on strategic personnel planning, development of a tool to prevent integrity breaches, development of a competence management toolbox etc.

Municipalities focus more on (behavioural) competences than on knowledge when it comes to continuous development. A stronger focus on talent development and competences is not specific for the public sector. It is the changing character of work and the workplace in the Dutch knowledge-economy demands flexibility and the need, not so much to acquire more knowledge, but competences to move with the changing demands and to apply the ever

24. www.bestuursacademie.nl

25. www.nsob.nl

26. international.pblq.nl

27. There are similar foundations for the national sector, the sector provinces and the sector water authorities as well as for several profit sector. The foundations for the public sectors work closely together.

28. www.aeno.nl

faster changing knowledge, that is more and more accessible. Hence personal development and attention to competences gets even more priority over traditional learning (Kessels & Poell, 2011).

Many municipalities have, based on a system of competence management, identified for each job the core competences. These are evaluated in the regular HR planning and evaluation talks between manager and employee. Municipalities that have already implemented the sectoral system for job classification (HR21) job description and classification can use the aligned competence profiles developed on initiative of the fore mentioned A+O foundation²⁹. (The 31 competences are divided into four dimensions, conceptual, operational, relational and personal. Examples of competences are decision making, quality awareness, coaching, networking etc. Each competence is defined and build up in behavioural examples in four levels.) In the personal development plan that each official makes these core competences play a significant role in determining which development activities should be undertaken.

The A+O foundation stimulates municipalities to share knowledge and best practices in the field of working conditions, development and employability. Sometimes this goes beyond sharing information. Municipalities form networks for mobility to create a more regional approach to development and work mobility. The nature of the networks varies. Most often they share resources and information concerning recruitment as well as the replacement of superfluous personnel because of downsizing. There are examples however where the municipalities work together on (talent) development programs. A survey by the A+O foundation in 2012 shows that municipalities are still experimenting and looking for the best ways to cooperate on such themes (Koning, 2012). The cases show that there can be advantage in not considering each other as competitors on the labour market but as partners. The regional approach enlarges the scope and opportunities for officials that want to make their next career move. The communal approach creates budget for more professional development and career counsellors. The joint offer of training facilities or joint procurement of educational activities can be cheaper.

Some municipalities go as far as organizing collective pools of officials that can be deployed on a flexible basis in projects throughout the collective or create temporary job switches. In the last example officials from different municipalities will switch jobs for a short period to gain new insights.

Conclusions

Civil servants, regardless of the level (national provincial or local) follow the same path in initial education as any employee in the private sector. This may be partly due to the accessibility and regulated quality of education and diploma's, regardless which school or institution. There is no tradition of special schools or institutes to prepare for public service like for instance the "grandes écoles" in France.

On the one hand this can be explained by the character of the nation. France for instance, despite the shift to a republic, has traditionally a strong central state originated in an aristocratic tradition and controlled by the administrative elite. Here the need to maintain this control and centralized order may explain the need for training of the elite officials that will ensure this. The Dutch state on the other hand, despite being a monarchy, has no aristocratic

roots and is a decentralised unitary state. There is less emphasis on centralized power and control. Traditionally the Netherlands is a merchant state. This led to the development of an educational system aimed at the emancipation and education of the population, because it is good business. Also, a mercantile approach tends more to equality and organizing even matters of government based on consensus and not on hierarchy and control.

On the other hand, one could simply say that the employment model of public employment, in contrast to the career model, demands no special preparation for public service. Furthermore, the legal framework for public and private employment are growing ever closer to each other.

In this light the relatively new occurrence of traineeship programs for municipalities seems at first glance contradictory. However, these programs are not so much initiated out of a need for special preparation for public service but foremost as an answer to a problematic labour market in which the public sector has difficulty competing with the private sector in recruiting young professionals. Also, this can be seen as another example of the growing similarity between public and private sector in labour relations. Traineeship as a form of recruitment is a proven recruitment strategy in larger companies.

It comes without surprise that for the continuous education of public officials the same applies. Labour agreements, like what we see in the private sector, play an important role in defining the individual right to be supported and facilitated in one's individual development. In Dutch labour relations this is regarded a mutual responsibility between employer and employee. The employer has a responsibility as sponsor, but much emphasis is laid on the individual responsibility of the employee on his or her development. On average municipalities spend 1.8% of the cost of salary on education. The budget per official is near the budget prescribed in the labour agreement, although larger municipalities tend to lightly over budget whereas smaller municipalities tend to slightly under budget. The average yearly budget is € 1,076 per official. The actual expenditure is around 10% lower.

The water authorities invest more in education and development compared to the municipalities, but because of a downward trend in the spending by the water authorities the gap is gradually closing.

The attention for continuous education amongst elected officials is relatively low, especially for councilmen. Since they often combine their work for the council with a regular job there is little time for educational activities. Members of national political parties do profit from the possibilities to follow certain short courses or workshops, but the growing number of councilmen for local parties lack such support.

For local public servants however development is high on the HR agenda. In the Dutch case the focus lies more on personal development than on training as such. There is much attention towards matching the individual talents of officials with the demands of the office. Recognising individual talents and developing these is key, which gives little room for ridged, pre-specified and uniformed training programs.

Since individual development is central, the primary responsibility lies with the official him- or herself. We see this echoed in the way labour agreements describe the right for development. But municipal employers are aware that

development is important to remain a vital organization. The focus lies on development of (behavioural) competences rather than on knowledge and technical skills. The largest municipalities can cope on their own but smaller municipalities recognize that they must work together on a regional scale to remain an attractive employer that can offer career opportunities and facilitate personal development of its officials.

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TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PRACTICE IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND

Dr. R.K. Auluck

This paper explores the range and types of training and development in Local Government in England and considers some of the particular changes to local government training and development over the past decade. The paper will begin with a brief overview of Local Government in England and its role and functions. It then examines the concept of training and development, and specifically its application to local government in the UK. The paper will specifically describe the type of training and development typically prevalent in Local Government and the needs it is intended to meet. The paper considers both training and development for Local Government Officials and for Elected Members (local government political office holders). It also identifies the providers of this training and development provision, and makes some recommendations in terms of the current and future needs of local government in terms of capability building needs.

Local Government in England

There are a variety of terms, some interchangeable, to describe local level public administration and government in England. These include Local Government, Local Authority/Local Authorities, Municipality, and Council and so on. This paper will not dwell on a discussion of these terms given the limitations of this paper and, for purposes of practicality, will make use of the terms Local Government, Local Authority and Council and will treat these three terms as inter-related. Local Government will be treated as the broad sectoral structure that is differentiated from Central Government in that its focus is on provision of local level public services. The terms *Local Authority* and *Council* are seen as broadly interchangeable and are used to refer to the individual, geographically specific public agency responsible for local public policy priorities and public service administration and delivery.

As of 2017, there are 353 Local Authority administrations (Councils) in England and these vary in terms of the size of population they serve as well as the local services they are responsible for providing. In terms of structure, some parts of England have a two tier system of local government, namely County Councils (upper tier) and District or Borough Councils (lower tier) with each tier responsible for different types of services. In some parts of England, there is only one (Unitary) tier of Local Government providing all the local services.

There are¹:

- Metropolitan districts (36)
- London boroughs (32) plus the City of London
- Unitary authorities (55) plus the Isles of Scilly
- County councils (27)
- District councils (201)

Further details about the size of Councils, electoral size and number of elected members for these Local Authorities are summarised in the data set available on The Local Government Boundary Commission for England website (www.lgbce.org.uk).

The Isles of Scilly Council is the smallest local authority by population with 2,259 residents (2017 figure) and Kent County Council is the largest local authority by population with 1,554,636 people (2017 figure) (lgiu.org/local-government-facts-and-figures-england).

Local Authorities in England are responsible for administering a wide variety of responsibilities and services. These include education, public health, local environmental and consumer protection, social services, emergency social housing, local roads, planning applications, licensing taxis and premises that sell alcohol, waste collection and disposal and local economic development. The delivery of these services relies on effective local government administration and front line service delivery in accordance with national and local policy priorities and service standards. More specifically, different types of Local Authorities are responsible for the following types of services:

County Councils

These are responsible for services across the whole of a County/region such as:

- education
- transport
- planning
- fire and public safety
- social care
- libraries
- waste management
- trading standards

District, borough and city councils

These cover a smaller geographical area than County Councils and are usually responsible for services such as:

- rubbish collection
- recycling
- Council Tax collections
- housing
- planning applications

Unitary authorities and London and metropolitan boroughs

In some parts of England one single tier of Local Government provides all the local services listed above. In London and Metropolitan areas some services, like fire, police and public transport, are provided through 'joint authorities'.

Parish, community and town councils

These operate at a level below District and Borough Councils and in some cases, Unitary authorities. These tend to focus on supporting the provision of very locally centred issues and service, such as providing allotments, public clocks, bus shelters, community centres, play areas and play equipment, grants to help local organisations, and consultation on neighbourhood planning. Also, they have powers to issue fixed penalty fines for public infringement such as littering, graffiti, fly posting and dog offences (Gov.UK, 2017, available at www.gov.uk/understand-how-your-council-works).

Combined Authorities

As part of the UK government's devolution agenda and following new legislation (Local Democracy, Economic Development and Construction Act 2009, amended by the Cities and Local Government Devolution Act 2016) England saw the introduction of an additional type of regional authority, namely, Combined Authorities (www.local.gov.uk/sites). This regional level body (which functions alongside the local authority structures discussed above) comprises two or more Councils and have the aim of collaborating on collective policy making and decision making on issues of regional interest and

across individual Council boundaries (www.local.gov.uk/topics/devolution).

Combined Authorities are intended to be a regionally focused structure comprising a number of local administrations that agree to collaborate strategically and to share responsibility for a number of important delivery areas in the interests of promoting economic development and growth, including in the areas of transport, skills development and economic regeneration.

Ten combined authorities have been established so far with the Greater Manchester Combined Authority being the first to be set up. Details of all powers and funding that have been devolved to these bodies can be located on the Devolution Register as well as on the individual CA sites:

Cambridgeshire and Peterborough (@CambsPboroCA)
Greater Manchester (@Greatermcr)
Liverpool City Region (@LpoolCityRegion)
North of Tyne (@NorthTyneCA)
Sheffield City Region (@SheffCityRegion)
Tees Valley (@TeesValleyCA)
West Midlands (@WestMids_CA)
West of England (@WestofEnglandCA)

The next section considers the definition of a local public servant and offer a brief overview of their role and functions.

Defining Local Government Public Servants

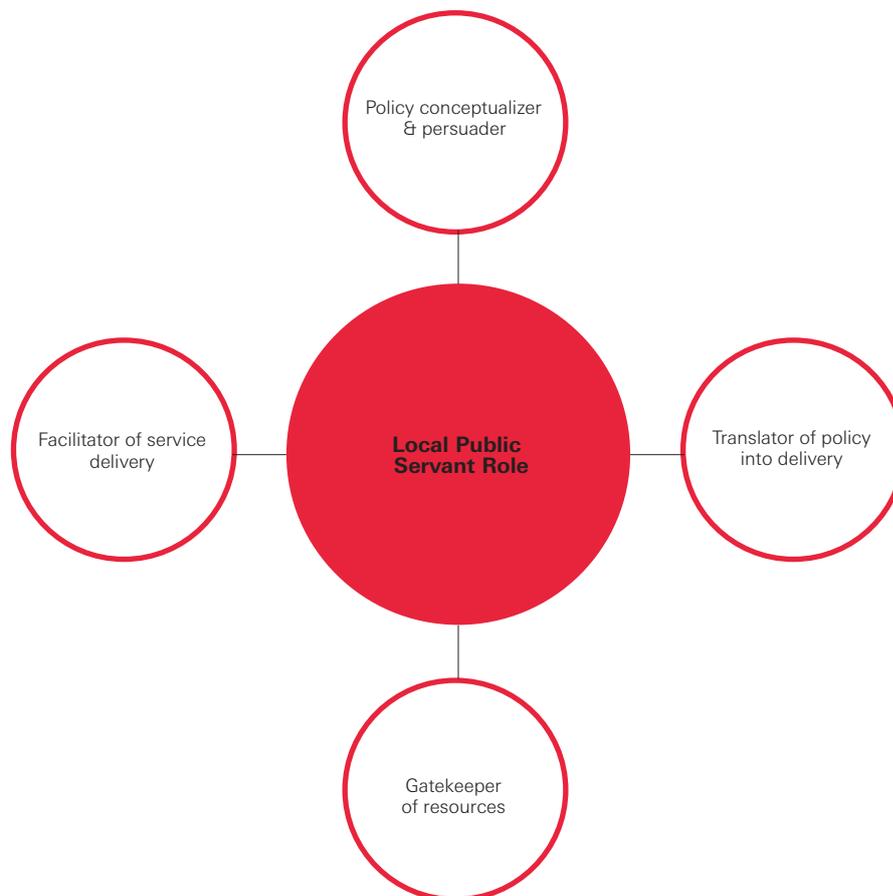
Defining a Local Government public servant is challenging given the complex nature of local level public service provision. According to Needham and Mangan (2014) local public servants would be, typically, seen as those who work in a local government institution. However, argue Needham and Mangan, the increasingly mixed, multi-agency nature of the provision of many local public services means that many public service providers work in profit or not-for-profit organisations outside of the formal employment structures of Local Government (Needham and Mangan, 2014). For purposes of this paper, albeit rather simplistically, a Local Government official will be taken to mean anyone who is employed directly by a Local Authority and who works in a Local Authority setting of the types listed in the previous section in a public policy, public administration and/or public service delivery capacity.

The Changing Context of Local Government in England

Local government in England has been subject to wide and deep levels of change and reform over the past several decades. One notable shift, and one that seems to have gained increasing momentum, is the apparent reframing of the role of Local Government from one of 'rowing' to one of 'steering' and from being a 'provider' of services to being 'an enabler' of service provision. Another notable feature of recent debates about the role of Local Government has been the increasing emphasis on 'local governance' (Bailey & Woods, 2017) which has been variously linked to wider trends including changing pressures on local service provision, reduction of public service resources, and participatory demands and the place of citizen voice.

Given this context, Needham and Mangan’s definition of a local public servant as a municipal entrepreneur undertaking a wide range of roles and a steward of scarce resources (Needham and Mangan, 2014, p.) would appear to be in alignment with the functions performed by local public servants in England. The other features of the role of the 21st Century public Servant identified in the report of the same name include System Architect, Navigator, Broker, Commissioner, Story-teller and Resource Weaver (Needham and Mangan, 2014). This undoubtedly captures the main aspects of a local public servants role in local authorities in England. Another way to conceptualise the role would be as Inward Facing (Policy Conceptualiser & Persuader, Translator of policy into service delivery/Resource Allocator) and Outward Facing (Facilitator of service delivery, Frontline service delivery provider) – *Figure 1.*

Figure 1: Dimension of the local public servant’s role



Within the context of the local government arena, there is a dynamic, negotiated co-dependency between public service officials and the elected members that influences, directly and indirectly, policy and service delivery priorities. This places a requirement on local government officials to be skilled in managing this ‘relationship interface’ (‘handling local politicians’) and while there are some training courses aimed at local government officials improving their skills in working with elected members/local government politicians, this is not necessarily something that can be formally ‘taught’ but may well be learned through experience, harnessed through practice and nurtured through coaching and mentoring by seasoned officials and public service managers.

As mentioned earlier in this paper, it is widely recognised that local public service delivery increasingly relies on multi-agency working and delivery partnerships which transcend organisational boundaries and this is not with-

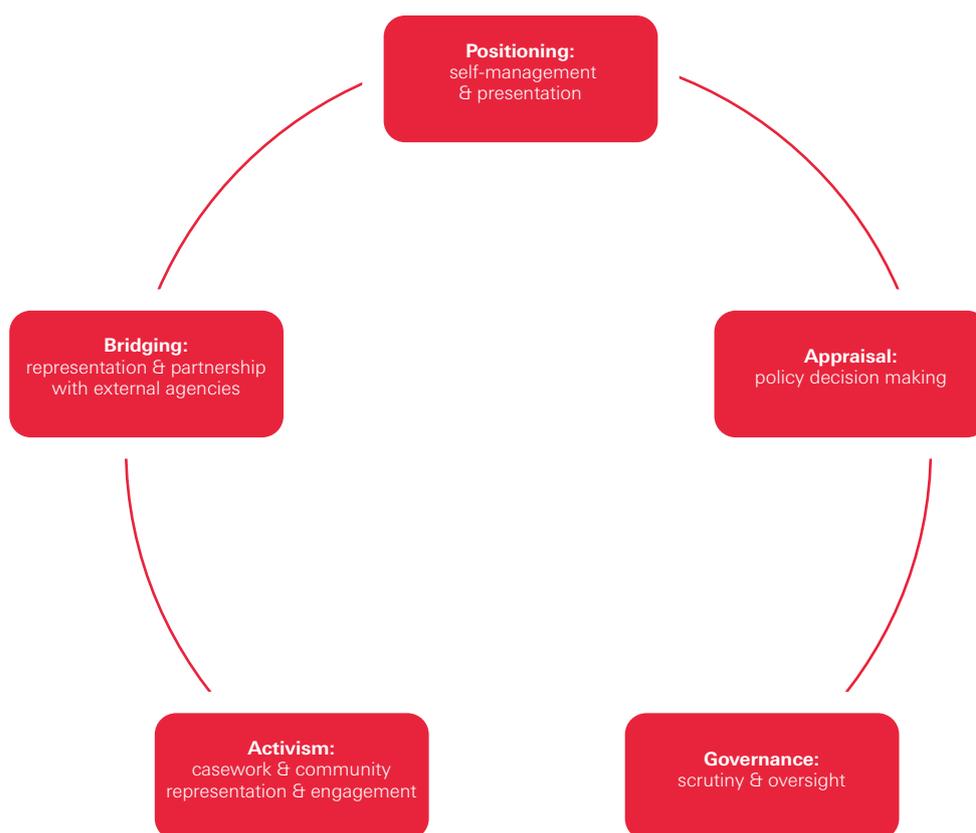
out its own operational challenges. This also requires a reconsideration of the notion of ‘local public service deliverers’, capability and capability building. One pressing question about capability building is the extent to which there is joint/shared training and development provision for multi-agency partners. While there may be a basic level of shared training particularly around common policy priorities (for example, local public servants taking part in joint training with local police officers and health workers on domestic violence services and child protection services) this tends to be sporadic and sometimes crisis driven, that is, in the wake of public scrutiny of a critical incident such as a child death like Daniel Pelka (Roger, 2013) and others (NSPCC, 2013).

Defining Local Elected Members

Another important and influential group in the Local Government arena is local politicians, also known as ‘Elected Members’ or ‘Councillors’. In this paper the term ‘Elected Members’ is used interchangeably with the term ‘Councillor’. Elected members are those individuals who have been elected by a particular district/area to serve as a Councillor to represent residents in that area on the County, City or District Council for a specified term (that is, period of time, typically four years).

Various analyses suggest that the role of local Elected Members is broad and wide ranging. One way of conceptualising this role is as framed in Figure 2. This identifies the key dimensions of the Councillor role as Bridging (representation and partnership working with external agencies), Activism (casework and community representation and engagement), Governance (scrutiny and oversight), Appraisal (policy decision making) and Positioning (self-management and presentation of self).

Figure 2: A Framing of the Role of the Councillor



Many of these strands are picked up the report ‘The 21st Century Councillor’ (Parker et al, 2014) which examines the range of roles that Councillors in England are required to perform, related capabilities and the types of training required to support these capabilities. The report discusses the ways in which the ways in which public service change is impacting elected members in Local Government in England. It notes that, as is the case with local public servants, the roles and skills of Councillors are changing in response to a number of challenges, including austerity, devolution and changing citizen expectations. Parker et al (2014) identify Elected Members in Local Authorities has having the following roles:

- Political representative: connecting the community and representing everyone fairly, balancing local concerns with the wider council priorities and with the political demands of the group manifesto.
- Community advocate: involving people from different backgrounds, cultures and values and having the confidence to speak freely and challenge the executive.
- Community leader: supporting local projects and initiatives and encouraging participation.
- Service transformer: understanding how local government works with the ability to hold service providers to account, work in partnership and use knowledge strategically.
- Place shaper: identifying priorities, and working with officers and service providers to address local issues and manage delegated budgets.
- Knowledge champion: the Councillor as a primary source of local intelligence flowing between community and Council.

In line with these capabilities, the All Party Parliamentary Local Government Group report *The Role of Councillors: report of an inquiry* (LGiU, 2007) emphasises the vital role of Councillors as community champion, looking beyond the services of the Council to act more widely as an advocate of their ward and its residents. Among other observations, this report argues that a good level of provision for Councillors to develop their skills and knowledge they need is essential, and that there should be a minimum level of training entitlement defined for each Councillor. The report further recommends that all Councils should ensure Councillors have access to regional and national opportunities, including conferences, seminars, and a wide range of learning and development approaches. The extent to which this happens is debatable and dependent on local level training budgets, delivery priorities and political preferences, among other factors.

Another point of note is that Local Government practice is constantly scrutinised by the public and the media, and there is a widely accepted baseline assumption that the public is entitled to expect the highest standards of conduct from all those who work for and in local government, be they local government officials or elected politicians. It has been suggested that the public is entitled to expect an even higher level of conduct from elected members. Johnston argues that the public judged actions more critically when performed by those acting in public roles than by people acting in a purely private capacity (Johnston, 1991) and that such judgements can influence public trust in local government and those who work in it or take on a representative role within it. Although “*Perceptions of the integrity of public office holders appear, in short, to be closely tied to a general disdain and distrust of elected and appointed representatives*” (Newell, 2008, cited in Allen & Birch 2011 p.64)

This would suggest that the performance and conduct of those who work in Local Government is a vital ingredient in determining the level of confidence and trust citizens and service users have in the institution and related role holders. This adds further weight to the rationale for Local Government investing in the training and development of officers, service delivery providers and elected members to ensure that their capability and conduct is professional and beyond reproach.

Part of the challenge that arises is that entry into Local Government in England for elected members is different from that of local government officials. Local government officials are usually recruited and selected for employment through a structured procedure with clear elements that attempt to assess capability as part of the selection process. For Local Government officials this process can include a formal interview and competence testing (from in-tray exercises, problem solving tasks, psychometric assessments and Assessment Centres) and is typically overseen by a central Human Resources function or unit. Senior level appointments may have Elected Members taking part in the selection and/or ratification of the appointment. Those taking part in selection processes are usually required to complete some form of mandatory recruitment and selection training to ensure compliance with employment regulations.

The process of recruiting and selecting elected members is different and sits outside the control and influence of the Local Government Human Resources unit or function. It is typically the political party that selects its candidates (and each political party will have its own methods of identifying and recruiting and selecting prospective candidates) which may or may not be based, solely or even partially, on the person's 'technical competence' to 'do the job'. Political party 'gate-keepers' in terms of candidate selection may well take into account a wider range of factors such as party loyalty/loyalty to a specific section of the Party ('toeing the Party line'), campaigning commitment and experience, and so on, alongside role related competence.

On the latter it is interesting to note that some political parties have attempted to take a robust approach to the selection of candidates and include, in addition to a Panel Interview, a series of written case study based assessments designed to identify how candidates approach a series of problems that an elected member might routinely encounter in their role within local government. This goes some way to assessing prospective candidates' understanding of the role and related capabilities.

Having said this, this does not guarantee that all those who go onto hold roles as elected members have a common set of baseline competences and capabilities when they take on the role. This is why training and development plays a vital role in ensuring that they have a least some basic support in developing and/enhancing some core skills and knowledge to enable them to carry out their duties appropriately, ranging from dealing with constituents queries, understanding policy making, scrutiny and participation in decision making structures like Committees.

Defining Training and Development

There has been considerable debate over many decades about definitions of training and development (Stewart & Cureton, 2014; Harrison, 2009; Garavan, 1997; Buckley & Caple, 2010). This includes comparisons between 'training' and

'learning', formal and informal learning, planned, intentional and incidental learning, workplace learning and learning outside the workplace (Sambrook, 2006; Maor, 2010) and so on. This paper will not go over this well-trodden path apart from to highlight that 'learning' is not fixed to a specific method or process or any single point in time or place and recognises that learning can occur inside and outside the workplace.

In this paper, learning and training and development will be treated as synonymous, and taken as any activity or process that is aimed at developing or enhancing the knowledge, skills and/or broader capability of an employee or group of employees or organisation. The range of activities that fall into this category are many and varied and include instructor/trainer led face-to-face workshops, seminars, on-the-job training, coaching by line managers or peers or external experts, e-learning courses/ digital learning/blended learning (such as combining training-led training with online learning), and formal, award bearing educational courses (CIPD, 2015).

It is well established that organisational success and effectiveness depends on a competent and skill workforce (Garavan, 1997; Stewart & Cureton, 2014; CIPD, 2015). It is also widely recognised training and development provision is essential in building and improving skills and capabilities of the workforce (Harrison, 2009), regardless of sector, size or geographical location of the organisation. This proposition holds true for those who work in local government be they local public servants or elected local politicians.

Training and Development in Local Government

It is worth noting that training and development (T&D) of local government officials and Councillors in Local Government in England is decentralisation to individual Local Authorities - on the whole, there is no nationally or regionally co-ordinated provision unless it forms part of professional training for specialist practitioners in Local Government such as teachers or social workers. Apart from the exceptions mentioned, there is little standardisation in terms of Local Government training provision, that is, the types of training made available to local public servants and Councillors, the duration and mode of training provision, and training providers (including whether or not training provision is in-house or externally commissioned/outsourced). This makes direct comparisons across the sector difficult.

There are some reports that provide useful insights into important and relevant aspects of workforce practice in Local Government institutions in England. This includes the Local Government Workforce Survey which is conducted annually by the Local Government Association's (LGA) Research and Information team. For purposes of this paper, it is worth considering the findings of the Local Government Workforce Survey report of March 2015 (LGA, 2015). These findings were based on an overall response rate of 43% (153 Local Government Councils). The highest response rate was from Metropolitan Districts (38%/76 Councils) and the lowest from Shire Districts (36%/16 Councils). The figures referred to include school support staff, but exclude teachers and previous surveys in the series can be found on the LGA's website.

According to the Local Government Workforce Survey 2015 report (LGA, 2015):

1. The median gross training expenditure per full time equivalent employee was £134.+
2. The median gross training expenditure on Elected Member (Councillor) development per Councillor was £91.
3. On average 0.8 days were spent on off-the-job training per employee.
4. The most common capability or capacity skills gap and skills priority across England was reported as being in relation to commerciality.
5. There was median average of 13% employee turnover rate and a median average vacancy rate of 7%.
6. 93% of respondents indicated that it was their Council’s policy to increase flexible working.
7. On average, 3.8% of days were lost due to sickness and 8.5 days per FTE employee.
8. The common reported cause of sickness absence was stress, depression, anxiety, mental health and fatigue (22% days lost).
9. 71% of Councils reported use of ‘time-served’ as the system for individual pay progression for the majority of staff.
10. A total of 44% of Councils reported carrying out an employee engagement survey.

It is worth making a couple of observations on this data. To begin with, it is accepted that a directly equivalent comparison of training expenditure is problematic given some figures of training spend include the direct cost of training provision (e.g. cost of trainers, facilities, and so on) and the indirect cost to the organisation of employees being absent from their jobs while undertaking the training, others might only include the direct costs of training provision.

Although, it is not possible to be precise about total level of annual expenditure on training and development activities in the UK (Keep 2005), according to the UK Commission for Employment and Skills report Investment in Training Survey 2015, the UK spent £45.4bn overall on employee training. This was a reported six per cent increase on the £43.0bn spend in 2013, and a four per cent increase on the 2011 figure of £43.8bn. The report indicates that for the UK overall, employers’ total investment in training was equivalent to around £2,610 per person trained and £1,640 per employee (UKCES, 2016). The figure for England was an overall investment in training of £39bn in 2015, a six per cent increase from the equivalent spend in 2013. More specifically, the reported 2015 spend in England per employee trained was £2,700 and spend per employee was £1,700.

Table 1: Levels of Expenditure on Employee Training in UK and England in 2013 and 2015

Source: UK Commission for Employment and Skills Investment in Training Survey 2015 Report, March 2016, available at: www.gov.uk/government/Investment_in_Training_May

Region	2013			2015		
	total	Spend Per employee trained	Spend Per employee	total	Spend Per employee trained	Spend Per employee
UK	£43.0b	£2.6k	£1.6k	£45.4b	£2.6k	£1.6k
England	£36.4b	£2.6k	£1.6k	£39.0b	£2.7k	£1.7k

It is worth noting that the latter figure for England as a whole, that of £1,700 per employee, is significantly greater than the reported median spend in Local Government of £134 per employee (Table 2) and only £91 per Councillor (Table 3).

8. www.yerelnet.org.tr
last consultation on
June 5th, 2017.

9. The Association of
Local Administrations
www.mahalliidarelerdernegi.org.tr
the Association of
Technological Research
and Development of
Local Administrations
www.miargem.org
the Association of Local
Government Inspectors
www.kontder.org.tr;
last consultation on
June 5th, 2017.

10. wald.org.tr/egitim;
last consultation on
June 5th, 2017.

Table 2: Levels of Expenditure on Employee Training in Local Government in England in 2015

Source: LGA, Local Government Workforce Survey 2014/15, March 2015

Gross Training Expenditure Per Local Government Employee			
Response	Shire District	Single/Upper Tier	England
Mean £	223	111	172
Median £	199	89	134
Base	69	58	127

Base: all respondents (127)

Table 3: Levels of Expenditure on Elected Member Training in Local Government in England in 2015

Source: LGA, Local Government Workforce Survey 2014/15, March 2015)

Gross Training Expenditure on Elected Member Development Per Councillor			
Response	Shire District	Single/Upper Tier	England
Mean £	79	167	123
Median £	68	135	91
Base	58	58	116

Base: all respondents (116)

The LGA Workforce Survey Report (2015) indicates that for the 48 Councils in England that responded to the question, the median number of days of off-the-job training per employee was 0.8 and the mean figure was 1.0.

Training and Development of Local Government Officials

Having looked at the level of expenditure on training in Local Government, it is worth considering the specific skills and capabilities local public servants are seen as needing in terms of fulfilling the requirements of their roles in Local Government now and in the future. According to an LGA report (LGA, 2015), and set in the context of the changing demands on local public servants, the top three capability skills gaps across Local Government in England were identified as ‘supporting commerciality’ (77%), ‘supporting digitisation/use of technology’ (68%) and ‘managing performance’ (63%). The top three skills priorities across England were ‘supporting commerciality’ (48%), ‘managing change’ (47%), and ‘managing performance’ (44%) – see Table 4.

Table 4: Reported Capability/Skills Gaps & Priorities in Local Government in England in 2015

Source: LGA, Local Government Workforce Survey 2014/15, March 2015

Reported Capability/Skills Gaps & Priorities in LG in England 2015 (LGA, 2015)				
Capability/Skill	Gap %	Rank	Priority %	Rank
Supporting commerciality	77	1	48	1
Supporting digitalisation/use of technology	68	2	40	4
Managing performance	63	3	44	3
Talent management/spotting	63	4	28	6
Coaching/mentoring staff	63	5	31	5
Managing change	62	6	47	2
Motivating staff	50	7	18	8
Engaging staff	49	8	27	7

Recruiting staff	31	9	17	9
Understanding equalities & diversity	27	10	16	10
Base: all respondents	134		153	

It not surprising that ‘*supporting commerciality*’ was identified as a capability gap and priority area for development in Local Government given the increasing recognition that Councils need to become more commercially astute in in order to maintain appropriate levels of service provision in the face of shrinking resources. The reshaping of service delivery models as part of a broader service transformation agenda has become a significant feature for most local authorities in England over the past decade or so. For example, in keeping with the broader trend in Local Government in England, and as a response to significant and continuing reductions in public expenditure and the imperative to have and sustain a ‘balanced budget’, Coventry City Council’s transformation agenda has dramatically restructured and reshaped the Council’s service delivery channels.

As part and parcel of this process, most if not all Local Authorities are exploring ways in which services can be provided more cost effectively including as contracted out provision, outsourced provision, and multi-agency partnership provision. Effective commissioning and procurement of services has become an important capability within local authorities. Also, as part of the broader commerciality agenda, many local authorities in England have been considering options for generating income through investment. For example, some local authorities have entered into joint commercially based partnerships with private sector business in a way that has the potential to generate a return on investment. All of this is consistent with the identified capability development need of ‘commerciality’.

‘Supporting digitalisation/use of technology’ is also identified as an important capability gap and development need. Again, this is not surprising given advancements in technology and the pressures on local authorities to find more streamlined and efficient ways of delivering services. Local Authorities like other organisations in other sectors have been exploring opportunities for harnessing technology in relation to both internal management processes as well as external service delivery priorities. For example, service users are encouraged to make use of e-government provision in a variety of areas, including online payment for services (for example, Council Tax, refuse and waste collection), for reporting problems (for example, fly-tipping, anti-social behaviour, consumer health and safety concerns, and so on), petitions, and for requesting services (for example, planning applications, adult social care services, bereavement advice, and so on).

‘Managing performance’ is identified as another important capability gap and priority, and again this is not surprising. Local Government as a sector as a whole has been squeezed in terms of significant reduction in resources and funding allocation from central government. This has added to the pressure on Local Authorities to deliver quality services that meet the needs of citizens, especially vulnerable service users, alongside the layering of management structures and a general reduction in workforce numbers. Having to deliver high quality, timely and user centred public services with fewer and fewer resources has meant that managing performance has become even more of an imperative for Local Authorities. The well-used mantra ‘delivering more with less’ recognises that Local Government is having to grapple with the

continuing increase in demand for services in the face of a parallel decrease in the level of resources available.

Another point of note is the reported level and causes of sickness absence in Local Authorities. The LGA report (LGA, 2015) highlights that the single biggest cause of sickness has been stress, depression, anxiety, mental health and fatigue (22.2%). Given this, it is interesting to note that many Councils are increasingly investing in wellness, well-being and personal resilience training.

Training and Development of Elected Members in England

Moving on to briefly consider the training and development of Elected Members in Local Government in England, there is limited data about their development and capability needs and the types of training provision they receive. The report 'The 21st Century Councillor' (Parker et al, 2014) examines the types of training required to support the Councillors and notes that the skills of collaboration and leadership are becoming increasingly important for Councillors in their various roles.

Most Councils have a budget for Councillor development which often includes provision for Induction Training for newly elected Councillors, mandatory training such as safe-guarding training, and specialist training for those sitting on various committees including quasi-judicial committees like the Licensing and Regulatory Committee and Planning Committee. More generic professional and personal development training is also available both in-house and by a variety of external providers, notably the Local Government Association and LGIU, and a myriad of other training providers and consultancies.

It is suggested that good practice includes not only the provision of opportunities to attend training and development activities geared to the needs of Councillors, but also individual reviews of training and development needs, and the provision of individual personal development plans for Councillors (LGiU, 2007). The Role of Councillors report (LGiU, 2007) highlights a variety of interesting examples of the different types of Councillor training and development provided by Councils. This includes Kirklees Council's programme of development support which includes:

- role profiles underpinned by skills and knowledge frameworks, used as a basis for personal development discussions
- a personal development plan for each Councillor
- a flexible programme of development activities
- tailored induction training for new and returning councillors

Staffordshire County Council's Elected Member development strategy includes personal development plans (PDPs) completed by all 62 members. The council leader developed a PDP using an interview by an external peer member, then Cabinet Members and Scrutiny Committee Chairs 'cascade' the interviews to all Councillors as a means of ensuring they all have a programme to develop skills and knowledge based on their own assessment of their needs.

Carlisle City Council has a cross party Elected Member Learning and Development Working Group which has designed a comprehensive training programme, including specific modules on the representative role of Councillors. There is a fund delegated to political groups so each Councillor

can have a tailored training package. All Elected Members have annual Personal Development Reviews and access to mentoring.

In addition to a range of internal Elected Members skills training, a number of Local Authorities provide Councillors with access to a variety of non-accredited development programme as well as undergraduate and postgraduate qualifications related to the field of local governance (LGiU, 2007). By way of examples, Halton Borough Council's Elected Member Development Programme secured the Institute of Leadership and Management (ILM) award and the Liverpool Councillorship Programme was set up in partnership with Chester University, leading to a Certificate in Higher Education award.

Alongside this, the national body, the LGiU (Local Government Information Unit) offers a wide range of training and development provision for Councillors including the following:

- Skills for effective Councillors
 - Community leadership skills for councillors
 - Confident public speaking
 - Influencing skills
-
- Mentoring
 - Personal effectiveness, interpersonal communication and behaviour
 - Personal resilience for elected members
 - Personal safety for Councillors
 - Reading for speed and retention
 - Resilience: having difficult conversations and delivering bad news
 - Resilient groups, interpersonal and group cohesion
 - Time management and coping strategies

By way of another example, the Local Government Association (LGA) runs a long standing modular based residential course for senior Councillors covering various aspects of leadership, community engagement and self-management.

Other factors that are influencing the role of Councillors and their work include developments in technology and since 2019, the covid-19 pandemic. Councillors have had to adapt their way of working in response to the changed environment resulting from the emergence of the covid pandemic. This includes how they have engaged with local communities in periods of lock down there were serious limitations placed the level and types of engagement with their constituents and members of the public.

The necessity of working from home/remotely has meant that Councillors having to take part in Committee meetings using online communication platforms (such as Zoom and Teams) and this has meant a rapid learning curve for some in terms of skills in technology and digital literacy. Councils have by necessity had to provide both equipment and training to equip Councillors to fulfil their functions during this challenging period. For example, Full Council meetings are now regularly live streamed with Councillors taking part remotely (www.youtube.com). Another example is the quasi-judicial Planning committee taking place remotely (www.youtube.com) with Councillors being provided with specific guidance and training to ensure that they were confident and capable of taking part in the proceedings effectively.

All in all, and particularly against the background of the fallout from the 2019 pandemic, digital tools and methods (including better use of data) have rep-

resented a significant opportunity to improve the way Local Government Councils work. For many Councils the Covid-19 response to delivery of essential services- necessarily using remote communication technologies - has accelerated awareness of the potential of technology in terms of the work of local authorities.

Local Government Training and Development Providers

On the issue of training providers, Councils will have some level of on-the-job/in-house training provision. Alongside this, there are a variety of training providers including the Local Government Association, LGIU, SOLACE, universities and a wider range of independent training suppliers. Councils can directly commission external training suppliers or, particularly for high value training provision, put a contract for training provision out to tender. By way of an example, Coventry University was invited to design and deliver a short five day non-award bearing (non-accredited) leadership development training programme for senior local public servants in Scarborough Borough Council, and by contrast, also ran a year-long accredited course on legal and governance issues for Elected Members in Coventry City Council.

Training Impact Evaluations in Local Government

Clearly, evaluating the impact of any investment in training and development is important as a means of understanding the extent to which that provision has been ‘fit-for-purpose’ and actually met the intended learning outcomes in terms of building or strengthening recipients’ knowledge and capability sustainably. There is considerable and long standing debate about various mechanisms and tools for measuring and evaluating learning (Blume et al, 2010; Getha-Taylor et al, 2015). However, in practice, organisations, and local authorities in particular given their ever shrinking resources and ‘shoe-string thin’ budgetary allocations for training and development, tend to be limited in the extent to which they conduct impact evaluations of training and development provision. Given this, it is hard to be conclusive about the extent to which training and development provision in Local Authorities contributes to sustainable knowledge and/or skills building.

Similarly, empirical studies of the systematic evaluation of training provision in local government are limited. Early studies of training evaluations include Dawson’s examination of equal opportunities training in London local government organisations (Dawson, 1995). A notable feature of this study was that it took a ‘co-operative enquiry approach’ and was one in which the Local Authority trainers were engaged as active participants rather than passive recipients of the evaluation.

Concluding Thoughts

Local Authorities in England are facing unprecedented challenges in terms of local service provision and balancing budgets. There has been widespread and significant reduction in the numbers of local public servants and this together with deep cuts to Local Government funding has put the sector under considerable strain. Given the pressures of those who remain within Local Government to manage increasing service delivery demands with fewer and fewer resources (financial and people resources) this gives training and development for local public servants even more significance. Also, given that responsibility for training and development for public service officials is decentralised and very much a local consideration this can be seen as a positive feature, that is, it allows for local flexibilities that correspond and respond to local demands. It can also be seen as a potential risk where there is limited requirement for mandatory training provision beyond fundamentals like health and safety training, equalities training and safe-guarding training. This risks limiting the level of investment in training and development especially in the face of cuts to Local Government, to such an extent that over time it erodes the local public servants' capability in all but some of the specialist professional areas like social work or teaching.

It is widely recognised that Councils are having to strip back expenditure. Given this, in order for Local Government institutions to safe-guard and nurture current and future capability, key decision makers must remain mindful of the value of training local public servants professionals and Councillors, and to be highly vigilant in protecting training budgets against indiscriminate cuts. Finally, it is imperative that Councils and the Local Government sector considers more inventive ways of developing their officials and Councillor and to look for development tools beyond stagnant 'class-room' training - there are a myriad of development methods and tools in the marketplace including peer-to-peer development, collaborative learning, open source/online learning provision, and learning in and with the communities Councils serve. More imaginative use of learning opportunities can be of enormous value in an era where training budgets are shrinking and capability needs remain.

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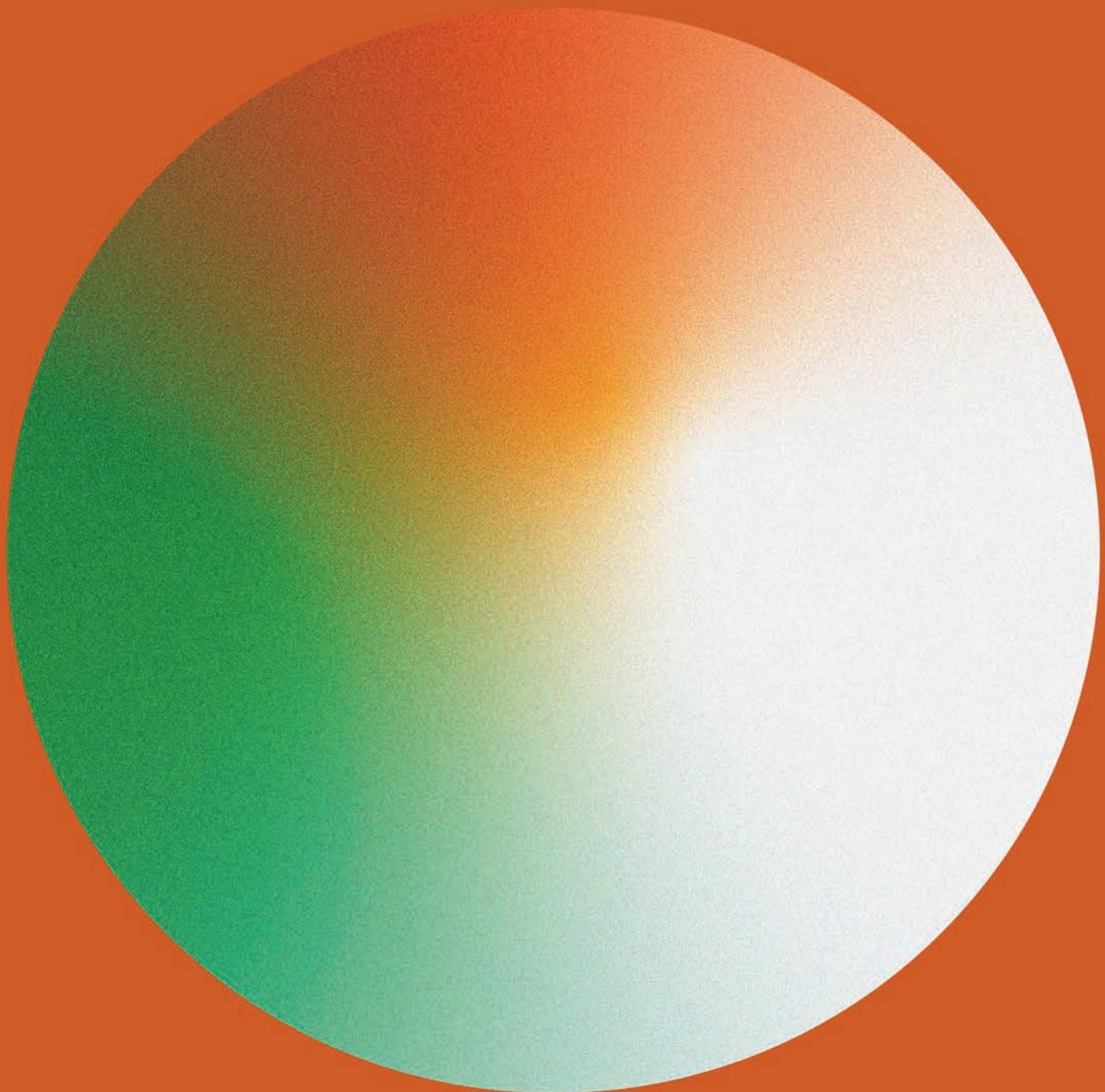
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II – The 16 reflexive/in-depth studies | D. Examples of unitary state employment systems

TRAINING OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS – IRELAND

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Local government is a long-standing feature of Irish civic life. Irish local government began under rule from the United Kingdom, and many of the essential features of the current system were established by the end of the 19th century. There have not been major changes to the structure of local government in Ireland since the foundation of the State in 1922,¹ albeit some recent developments of note have occurred. In recent years, the structure of local government has been consolidated through the adoption of a constitutional provision on the status of local government and the gradual development of regionalised authorities (and the abolition of smaller town councils), while the economic crisis has meant a reduction in funding. Citing the official report *Putting People First*,² Boyle & O’Riordan identify the following recent trends in the local government sector in Ireland:

...reorganisation of political and executive structures; alignment of community and enterprise functions with the local government system; greater impact and involvement in local economic and community development; service efficiencies; and revised funding arrangements.³

They note the climate of cutbacks and non-recruitment as a response to the final crisis, with the result that staff reduced by almost a quarter after 2008. This has impacted negatively on knowledge transfer within local government.⁴ The County and City Managers Association (CCMA) decided that there was a need to examine the capacity and competency requirements of the local government sector, and requested the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) to undertake a study of the issue. The present chapter will draw significantly on Boyle & O’Riordan’s work (the IPA study), while also adding more recent data from local authorities. Boyle & O’Riordan’s study was based on recent policy documents and on interviews with county manager and human resources managers from local authorities.

Boyle & O’Riordan understand capacity as:

Capacity is a wide ranging and challenging concept. It asks the question of whether local authorities are fit for purpose, whether they have the ability to address challenges, adapt to new roles and demands, follow through on commitments, and achieve valued outcomes for citizens. The question of capacity can be applied to local government as a sector, to individual authorities and if desired to functions or sections within any local authority.⁵

Training then is about building capacity to carry out duties and responsibilities. It is also useful to identify degrees of capacity and consequently of training: doing the job can be understood in a basic sense of doing what is essential, whereas capacity and training can also be understood in a more developmental way as being about continuing growth and improvement. A recent development has been for local authorities in Ireland to be seen as important facilitators of the development of the local community, especially concerning enterprise.

Section 63(4) of the Local Government Act 2001 states (of particular relevance to the present study) that, subject to law, the functions of a local authority shall be performed for or on behalf of the local authority and in its name by the elected council or the manager as may be appropriate in accordance with

1. The current framework was largely established in the 19th century by successive Acts of Parliament: the Town Commissions Act 1828, the Poor Law Act of 1838, the Municipal Corporation Act of 1840, and especially the Local Government (Ireland) Act 1898. For discussion of more recent developments, see, e.g. M. Callanan, ‘Reforming local government: Past, present and future’, 68(4) *Administration* 201-214 (2020).

2. Department of the Environment, Community and Local Government, *Putting People First: An Action Plan for Effective Local Government* (October 2012).

3. R. Boyle & J. O’Riordan, ‘Capacity and Competency Requirements in Local Government’, *Institute of Public Administration Local Government Research Series No. 05* (2013), p. 2.

4. *Ibid.*

5. *Ibid.*, p. 3.

6. There is relatively little information on the training of elected officials. Boyle & O’Riordan focus on appointed officials.

7. For discussion of the latter, see G. Turley & S. McNena, ‘An Analysis of Local Public Finances and the Local Government Reforms 2014’, 47(2) *The Economic and Social Review* 299-326 (2016).

8. See databank.per.gov.ie/Public_Service_Numbers (last accessed 16th July 2017).

Part 14. Thus, both the elected and appointed personnel may be responsible for carrying out local authority functions. In practice, policy positions are taken by elected council members collectively, while the execution of policy is generally for appointed officials. Elected officials rely on appointed officials for both knowledge and expertise – and thus the training – as well as for implementation. For the purpose of this study, therefore, the training of both elected and appointed officials is examined.⁶

Legal and Constitutional Framework for Local Government

Local government is provided for in Article 28 of the Irish Constitution:

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

ARTICLE 28A

- 1 The State recognises the role of local government in providing a forum for the democratic representation of local communities, in exercising and performing at local level powers and functions conferred by law and in promoting by its initiatives the interests of such communities.
- 2 There shall be such directly elected local authorities as may be determined by law and their powers and functions shall, subject to the provisions of this Constitution, be so determined and shall be exercised and performed in accordance with law.
- 3 Elections for members of such local authorities shall be held in accordance with law not later than the end of the fifth year after the year in which they were last held.
- 4 Every citizen who has the right to vote at an election for members of Dáil Éireann and such other persons as may be determined by law shall have the right to vote at an election for members of such of the local authorities referred to in section 2 of this Article as shall be determined by law.
- 5 Casual vacancies in the membership of local authorities referred to in section 2 of this Article shall be filled in accordance with law.

This provision of the Constitution was inserted following a referendum in 1999 (twentieth amendment of the Constitution). However, prior to the twentieth amendment, Article 15.2.2 provided a constitutional basis for the delegation of power by the Oireachtas (Parliament) to local authorities. Article 15.2.2 states that “Provision may however be made by law for the creation or recognition of subordinate legislatures and for the powers and functions of these legislatures.” Article 22.1.2 also envisages local authorities.

Local government has recently been reformed, with the current legislative framework being the Local Government Act (LGA) 2001 (‘the 2001 Act’) as supplemented and amended by the Local Government Reform Act 2014.⁷ There are currently about 26,860 employees in local governments in Ireland.⁸ The Local Government sector in Ireland consists of 31 Local Authorities and three Regional Assemblies. The three Regional Assemblies have an essentially representative function; they are not responsible for services provided directly to the public.

There is currently no legislative provision for training to be given to local authorities. Local government officials attend or have access to ongoing training courses that may also be attended by other officials (e.g. through the

Civil Service Training and Development Centre), but there is no single mandatory training for officials that both local and national government officials must undertake.

Section 225 of the LGA 2001 regulates the right of local authorities as legal persons to associate as follows:

- (2) A local authority may hold membership of an association of local authorities.
- (3) An association of local authorities may carry out such activities as are necessary to represent the collective interests of the local authorities which constitute its membership, including –
 - (a) the undertaking of research and other studies,
 - (b) the promotion of education and training, ...

This provides a legal basis for the training activities of the Association of County and City Councils of Ireland, the Association of Municipal Authorities of Ireland, the Association of Irish Regions, the Local Authority Members Association and the County and City Managers' Association/Local Government Management Agency.

The training needs of local government officials, both elected and non-elected, are naturally related to the functions or competences of local authorities. The functions or areas of competence of local government in Ireland are set out in Part X of the 2001 Act. Section 63 states that the functions of local government are:

- (a) to provide *a forum for the democratic representation of the local community*, in accordance with *section 64*, and to provide *civic leadership* for that community,
- (b) to carry out *such functions as may at any material time stand conferred on the relevant authority by or under any enactment* (including this Act and any other enactment whether enacted before or after this Act),
- (c) to carry out *any ancillary functions under section 65*, and
- (d) to take such action as it considers necessary or desirable to promote the community interest in accordance with *section 66* (s. 66 is broadly framed and relates to expenditure regarding: works of any kind; providing, maintaining, managing, preserving or restoring land, structures of any kind or facilities; fitting out, furnishing or equipping any building, structure or facility for particular purposes; providing utilities, equipment or materials for particular purposes; providing any service or other thing or engage in any activity that, in the opinion of the authority, is likely to benefit the local community upon and subject to such terms and conditions as the authority considers appropriate; providing assistance in money or in kind [including the provision of prizes and other incentives] in respect of the organisation or promotion of competitions, seminars, exhibitions, displays, festivals or other events, or organise or promote such events); and providing assistance in money or in kind to persons engaging in any activity that, in the opinion of the authority, benefits the local community).

Section 63(2) of the 2001 Act goes to refer to certain Acts which set out functions primarily the responsibility of Ministers, but which also confer functions on local authorities, which are set out further in Schedule 12. Perhaps the most

important of these is planning matters, which have been conferred on local authorities pursuant to the Local Government (Planning and Development) Acts 1963 to 1999 and Planning and Development Acts, 2000 and 2001.

Section 63(3) of the 2001 Act states that subject to law, a local authority is independent in the performance of its functions.

Section 65 of the 2001 Act is a general, ancillary competence clause relating to all such functions as may at any material time stand conferred on the local authority by or under any enactment and to the general administrative capacity of local authorities.

Section 66(3)(b) of the 2001 Act defines a measure, activity or thing as deemed to promote the interests of the local community if it promotes, directly or indirectly, social inclusion or the social, economic, environmental, recreational, cultural, community or general development of the administrative area (or any part of it) of the local authority concerned or of the local community (or any group consisting of members of it).

Subsequent sections of the 2001 Act go on to identify competences more specifically. Section 66 concerns expenditure or assistance for the promotion of the interests of the community.

Section 67 of the 2001 Act, headed ‘amenity, recreation and other functions’, provides for local governments to act concerning: (i) general recreational and leisure activities; (ii) sports, games and similar activities; (iii) artistic, linguistic and cultural activities; (iv) civic improvements; (v) general environmental and heritage protection and improvement; (vi) allotments, fairs and markets, and related amenities, facilities and services; (vii) the public use of amenities (both natural and made or altered by human intervention); and (viii) the promotion of public safety.

Other functions regulated specifically in the Act are: ceremonial functions (s. 74), entertainment (s. 76), library and archival functions (s. 77), assistance regarding non-public roads (s. 81), sanitary services (s. 82). Part 14 of the 2011 Act is headed ‘The Local Government Service’ provides for both the elected and appointed personnel. Other significant provisions of the Act relate to ethics (Part 15), land (Part 16), the passing of bye-laws (Part 19), and local inquiries (Part 20), for example. Since 2006, local authorities have some involvement in policing from their participation in joint policing committees established at local authority level to enable consultation between the police and local authorities and community (established under the Garda Síochána Act 2005).

To summarise these functions, many aspects of the regulation of local life are within the competences of local authorities. It is perhaps easier to identify the main aspects of civic and community life at local level that are not within local authority competence, chiefly the following:

- law and order,
- education,
- healthcare,
- most aspects of social welfare.

The range of local government activities requires a wide range of technical expertise regarding housing and development, urban design and planning,

libraries, effectiveness and auditing of expenditure (funding shortages mean that staff need to be competent in resource management and achieving value for money⁹), public amenities, local trade, heritage, the environment, and civil defence. *The Report of the Review Group on the Constitution 1996* provided the following summary of local government competences in Ireland:

A 1988 Council of Europe survey found that a range of functions and services, which are probably better performed at local rather than national level, were the responsibility of most European local government systems. Core functions of local government in at least fourteen of the fifteen European countries surveyed include: construction and upkeep of primary and post-primary schools; roads; local planning; building and demolition permits; refuse collection; social assistance; homes for the elderly; library services; tourism promotion; sports facilities; fire service; water supply; sewage disposal; waste disposal; cemeteries; cultural and artistic heritage conservation; subsidised housing; museum services; parks and recreation facilities. Local authorities in Ireland perform all of these functions (except those related to primary and most post-primary schools) but can raise only limited local taxes¹⁰.

A later Council of Europe report summarised its recommendations as follows:

This is the second report concerning the monitoring of local democracy in Ireland since 2001. It expresses satisfaction that Ireland has made important changes since then, and stresses the commitment of the Irish authorities to move from an almost fully centralised system to a certain level of decentralisation, through an ambitious Action Programme adopted in October 2012. The report notes, however, that the constitutional protection of local self-government is rather weak, local governments can still not be said to manage a substantial share of public affairs, the administrative supervision of their activities by the central level remains high and consultations with local authorities and their associations are not systematic or sufficiently regulated. The report also draws attention to the very limited powers of local authorities to levy taxes or to set rates within the limits of the law¹¹.

The same report noted that “Eurostat gives the share of local government in the total public debt for 2011 as less than 5 %. This cannot however be interpreted as a positive sign, given that local government in Ireland is heavily centralised and is funded by central grants.”¹²

Although it cannot be assumed that Council of Europe standards always represent an ideal form of governance standards, the above quote helps give content to the current situation of local government in Ireland and, therefore, of the training needs of officials, both elected and appointed.

Recent Policy Context in Ireland

In October 2012, the Minister for the Environment, Community and Local Government published *Putting People First: An Action Plan for Effective Local Government*. In terms of governance, Boyle & O’Riordan summarise it as follows:

9. Boyle & O’Riordan, op cit, p. 13.

10. Under the heading Local Government in the section on New Provisions.

11. Chamber of Local Authorities of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe, Local Democracy in Ireland, 25th SESSION Strasbourg, 29-31 October 2013 CPL(25)5FINAL.

12. Ibid, para. 13.

13. Boyle & O’Riordan, op cit, p. 10.

14. Ibid, p. 11.

15. Ibid, pp. 12-15.

16. National Oversight and Audit Commission, *Report on Local Authority Corporate Plans 2015-2019* (November 2015).

17. Local Government Management Agency, *10th Report on Service Indicators in Local Authorities* (2013), p. 98.

The structural reform of local authorities, including the abolition of all 80 town councils and the merger of Waterford City and County Councils, Tipperary North and South County Councils, and Limerick City and County Councils. The total number of elected local councillors will commensurately be reduced from 1627 to around 950. A new model of municipal governance within counties is to be introduced. The eight regional authorities and two regional assemblies are to be replaced by three regional assemblies.¹³

Further, some services have tended to be outsourced to new specialist agencies – e.g. student loans, water supply, and driving licences – while local governments are increasingly focused on local economic and community development.¹⁴ However, coordination with the various other agencies working in the sphere of economic development has been identified as a significant concern in this context.¹⁵

Recruitment and Appointment Process for Local Government

Recruitment and appointment is variable according to the practice of individual local authorities.

The process is not mandatory on a national basis. However, the National Oversight and Audit Commission (NOAC), a statutory body (that is part of the Department of the Environment, Community and Local Government) makes recommendations on good practice. It has highlighted, in its Report on *Local Authority Corporate Plans 2015-2019*,¹⁶ that some authorities do not in their corporate plans for 2015-2019 make provision for recruitment and appointment. The Local Government Management Agency, a national body tasked with providing professional services to local authorities, has noted that:

The periodic corporate / strategic plans provide a base on which an effective performance regime can be developed. These plans are intended to set out the longer-term organisational goals and service delivery priorities for each LA’s business unit and, by means of the annual business / operational plans, to inform annual team / individual objectives and targets which, together with the attendant staff training and development needs, are allocated under the Performance Management and Development System (PMDS). The IAP [Independent Assessment Panel] has noted that the implementation of the PMDS varies significantly from authority to authority and that, in many instances, it is not in effect being applied.¹⁷

Recruitment and training vary according to the practices of individual authorities. Some positions will involve on-the-job experience rather than any formal training.

Three categories of vacancy or appointment exist in local authorities: 1. administrative, 2. professional, 3. technical. Professional and technical grades include: Planner, Quantity Surveyor, Engineer, Architect, Fire Officer, Solicitor, Financial Management Accountant, and Librarian. ‘Professional’ indicates an appointment for which a qualification in a recognised profession, such as surveyor, engineer or architect. For some positions, a person will be required to be fully qualified to a recognised professional standard in order to be appointed. In other positions, there may be on-the-job training that forms part

of the professional qualification, especially for less senior positions. Certain professional-level appointments tend to be recruited on a national basis by the Public Appointments Service (PAS).¹⁸ PAS tends to recruit for senior positions in local authorities, such as County Manager, Director of Services and other senior professional and specialist posts. For other positions, individual local authorities recruit themselves.

Any formal training tends to involve short practical courses, rather than a systematic programme, examples are provided below. The Local Government Management Agency or LGMA, which is a national statutory body, assists with the organisation of training. Other associations that provide are self-organised by local government, e.g. the Association of Irish Local Government (AILG), and also seek to provide training resources through national cooperation.¹⁹ The AILG is a networking, policy development and training resource for the elected members of Ireland's thirty-one County and City Councils.

18. See www.publicjobs.ie (last accessed 16th July 2017).

19. Further information is available here: www.aileg.ie last accessed 28th April 2021).

20. Laois County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 7.

21. Ibid.

22. South Dublin County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 37

Current Training Issues and their Legal Context

Evidence of current practice:

Reporting and practices vary across county councils; examples here are not meant to be consistently representative of all councils, but they do provide an overall indication of current approaches and practices.

Local authorities tend to allocate a specific portion of their human resources budget to training and development. For example, Laois County Council allocated 3.59% and 4.53% of its Human Resources budget in 2014 and 2015 respectively and provided 2, 575 training days for 472 employees (exclusive of Fire Service training), with total expenditure on training of €379,317 (inclusive of expenditure for Fire Services).²⁰

Local authorities identify training and developments as an important activity. For example, Laois County Council stated in its Annual Report 2015:

The annual training programme is primarily based on the individual training needs identified through staff Personal Development Plans as part of the Performance Management Development System process. The Programme also incorporates Health & Safety requirements, National FETAC Programme, Third Level Open Learning Programme and various Seminars/Workshops as they arise.²¹

South Dublin County Council reported on its training in 2015 as follows:

2015 Corporate Training Plan: Corporate training needs are identified through the PMDS process, the health and safety training needs analysis and the workforce planning process. The 2015 Training Plan delivered training to 2520 employees and some of the highlights included Health and Safety Training for 1395 staff; a comprehensive training and development programme for all frontline management staff (Grade 6 level and analogous) as well as ongoing departmental training e.g. Effective Communication Across Language Barriers and Excellent Customer Care and Telephone Techniques training.²²

23. Limerick City and County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 43.

24. Dublin City Council, *Annual Report 2013*, p. 63.

25. Meath County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 23.

26. Limerick City and County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 91.

27. Waterford City and County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 53.

28. *Ibid*, p. 59.

Limerick City and County Council reported on its overall approach to training in 2015 as follows:

The training and development of our employees is a priority within the organisation and allows for the achievement of Corporate, Team and Personal objectives. In 2015 the Council focused on providing mandatory health and safety training and any essential training requested. The training unit provided funding for a number of further education courses, including the IPA Local Government programmes. The training unit provided 190 training courses in 2015 with 1091 employees in attendance.²³

Dublin City Council (the largest single local authority) has a Performance and Development Unit (P & D Unit) that runs training courses for staff. In 2013, it ran over 150 courses to 820 employees. The programme included operational training, information technology, third level and internship programmes, and best practice initiatives in work skills programmes. The P&D Unit also customised programmes for departments who identified upskilling requirements and new demands. The overall number of training days delivered corporately during the year was 7,233.²⁴ Meath County Council also has a Training Unit, which in 2015 “continued to review training requirements and in particular, Health & Safety training throughout the organisation. Significant progress has been achieved in terms of record-keeping, identification of training gaps, and provision of training and reporting methods.”²⁵

Local government sometimes provides training to other stakeholders and community organisers, and this training provided in conjunction with other relevant practitioners can also help inform the work of county councils themselves, e.g. Limerick City and County Council reported in 2015 concerning its promotion of culture:

In 2015 a programme of training that originated in partnership with the Limerick National City of Culture 2014 Visual Art Legacy and Commissioning, was extended and delivered to festivals and cultural practitioners across disciplines. Training was provided in partnership with the Association of Irish Festival Events, Visual Artists Ireland, Limerick School of Art and Design, Music Network, Limerick 2020, Glenstal Abbey School and Limerick and Clare Education and Training Board.²⁶

The above are examples of self-reporting where reasonably systematic information is provided, but this is not always the case. For example, Waterford City and County Council said relatively little in its annual report for 2015 on training, referring to training for fire services and civil defence.²⁷ It did also list amounts of expenses of elected officials for attending training (but not detailing the training).²⁸

The standard civil service Performance Management Development System (PMDS), which is becoming a more widespread practice by which each employee and their supervisor prepare an individualised development plan each year, can work to identify training needs. For example, Offaly County Council reported that it allows staff to identify their own training needs as part of PMDS:

TRAINING & STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The new PMDS scheme was fully embedded throughout the organisation in 2015. The 2015 staff training plan was delivered based on the following priorities:

1. Mandatory Health & Safety Training
2. Identified corporate needs and priorities
3. Training needs identified by staff in the Personal Development Plan

The following is a summary of the diverse range of training delivered during the year across the organisation:

- Court Room Skills
- Safe Pass
- Leadership in Local Government
- Manual Handling
- Media Skills
- Occupational First Aid
- Debt Collection
- Driver Competency
- Interview Competency Skills
- CSCS Signing, Lighting & Guarding
- Mindfulness
- Forklifts
- Middle Management Development
- Telescopic Handlers
- Specialised Water/Waste Water training
- Mobile Elevated Work Platforms
- Cardiac First Responder
- Abrasive Wheels
- Safety Rep Training
- Chemical herbicides and pesticide²⁹

Most of this training involved specific technical knowledge, but softer skills were also addressed, e.g. mindfulness.

At national level, a Civil Service Training and Development Centre provided some general training resources. It was mostly concerned with planning, but it did make online some resources available.³⁰ The Local Authority Services National Training Group has been set up by the national Department of the Environment, Community and Local Government to provide training in specific areas. It has a network of five regional training centres at which local authority officials can receive training: water,³¹ roads,³² and the environment.³³ As mention in the previous section, the association of Irish Local government, which is run by elected councillors, runs a variety of training events that cut across the range of local government activities. Its Web site listing includes the following training courses: property rates and valuation, property development, national planning, regional assemblies, emergency planning, housing, finance and budgeting, panning, library provision, safety services, culture and heritage, water, pollution, road transport, and auditing.³⁴

29. Offaly County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 89.

30. Previously available at www.cstcdc.gov.ie (last accessed 17th July 2017). The Department of Public Expenditure & Reform takes a general role in civil service training, see, e.g. www.ops2020.gov.ie/networks/learning-and-development (last accessed 28th April 2021).

31. See www.lasntg.ie (last accessed 28th April 2021).

32. See www.lasntg.ie (last accessed 28th April 2021).

33. See lasntg.ie/estg (last accessed 28th April 2021).

34. See www.aillg.ie/training-education (last accessed 28th April 2021).

35. Boyle & O’Riordan, *op cit*, p. 24.

36. *Ibid.*, p. 27.

37. *Ibid.*

38. *Ibid.*

39. See generally P. Ward, *Tort Law in Ireland* (Kluwer Law International 2010), p. 115 et seq.

40. Laois County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 5.

41. *Ibid.*

Key or Core Skills:

Boyle & O’Riordan identified the following very specific competencies as needed to a very high level in local government:

- The development, management and monitoring of service level agreements (SLAs)
- Contract management including writing tender documents, procurement, project management and contract supervision
- Associated financial management and contract management skills
- Risk management and corporate governance

A range of entrepreneurial, managerial and business and project management skills, and innovation are needed especially given the increasing emphasis on economic and community development in local authority work.³⁵ Further, “Given the need to be more pro-active in fields such as enterprise and community development, and the need for more critical review of services (as noted under change management), there is a requirement for enhancing research, analytical and ICT capacity in local authorities.”³⁶ Authorities have a continual need for a range of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) skills. Political skills and legislative knowledge are identified as more traditional, but continue to be important skills.³⁷

In the context of staff reductions, one manager quoted by Boyle & O’Riordan referred to “the loss of ‘deliberative capacity’ – the ability to take evidence and assess and weigh its importance and relevance to the issues they are facing.”³⁸ This reflects a more considered and developmental attitude to competence, rather than one focused on basis delivery of service needs to a local population.

Legal Liability of Local Authorities (i) under the Law of Tort and the Requirement to Satisfy a Standard of Care and (ii) Public Law:

Although they have constitutional recognition, local authorities are “creatures of statute” and have legislative duties that fall under public law and therefore the procedures of administrative law – i.e. judicial review of administrative action. Local authorities can breach both their legislative and constitutional duties and be challenged for doing so in a judicial review action in the High Court by an affected citizen.³⁹ Although the Constitution contains quite minimal provisions on local authorities, local authorities in their decisions and activities are bound to respect constitutional rights. Local authorities are also under legal liability from both general common law principles under the law of negligence and specifically under legislation, e.g. legislation on health and safety. Laois County Council, for example, in 2015 prioritised obligations relative to statutory safety training.⁴⁰

Knowledge of relevant legislation is traditionally a key competence of local public servants, and now an online database of legislation is publicly available.⁴¹ To take just two examples, section 35 of the Employment Equality Act 1998 applies to all treatment of employees in local government, while data protection legislation applies to local authorities and consequently requires training to inform employees and officials of their duties.

Optimising training through coordination between different authorities

A reasonably concerted national effort through the National Oversight and Audit Commission (NOAC) is being made to streamline procurement and reduce duplication and costs across county councils,⁴² while individual councils are also working on this through training.⁴³ For example, as part of efforts at cost reduction, a practice has developed of particular councils taking a lead role for a particular service provision, which other councils then rely on, in the interests of avoiding unnecessary duplication across councils. As noted above, the Local Authority Services National Training Group has established a network of five centres shared between various local authorities. A number of recent reports have recommended the use of a shared approach to services, for example, fire, homelessness, higher education, building, internal audit, and motor tax services.⁴⁴

Differences in approach to training for appointed and elected officials

In general, in the sources consulted, information is not given or is only partially given on training specifically for elected local representatives. For example, South Dublin County Council lists the following training events attended by elected councillors in 2015, but does not set out any difference of approach to training for elected and non-elected officials:

Conference Venue Date

Engaging with the Oireachtas

Chartered accountants House 10 February 2015

AILG Training Castlebar,

Co. Mayo 26 February 2015

AILG 2nd Annual Conference

Nuremore Hotel, Carrickmacross,

Co. Monaghan 12 – 13 March 2015

LAMA Spring Conference

Ard Ri Hotel, Miltown Road, Tuam,

Co. Galway 10 – 11 April 2015

AILG Training

Celbridge Manor Hotel, Celbridge,

Co. Kildare 14 April 2015

AILG Training

Kilkenny 7 May 2015

MacGill Summer School

Glenties, Co. Donegal 19 – 24 July 2015

Biennial Social Housing Conference

Tullamore Court Hotel, Tullamore,

Co. Offaly 16 – 17 September 2015

AILG Autumn Conference

Inchydoney 1 – 2 October 2015

LAMA Autumn Training

Hotel Kilkenny, College Road, Kilkenny 9 – 10 October 2015

AILG Training

Red Cow Hotel, Dublin 22 18 November 2015⁴⁵

42. NOAC, *Local Government Efficiency Review Reforms* (April 2016), p. 4.

43. e.g. South Dublin County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 33; Limerick City and County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, p. 47.

44. Department of the Environment, Community and Local Government, *Report of the Local Government Efficiency Review Group* (2010); Local Government Sectoral Agreement.

45. South Dublin County Council, *Annual Report 2015*, Appendix 3.

However, it is possible to glean from the overall references to training in its annual report for 2015 that some courses are provided specifically for elected officials, e.g. on interacting with the Oireachtas (i.e. Parliament).

Offaly County Council lists the following information on training for elected officials in 2015:

Association of Irish Local Government: Module 1 - Governance (Part 1)
Arklow 21st February 1

Regenerating Local Spaces through Effective Community Planning
Dublin 26th February 2

Association of Irish Local Government: Annual Conference
Carrickmacross 12/13 March 6

Local Authorities Members Association Spring Training Seminar
Tuam 10/11 April 6

Association of Irish Local Government: Module 2 - Local Economic Development & The Role of the Local Authority
Limerick 14th April 1

Association of Irish Local Government: Module 3 - Local Community Development & LCDC's - A new Role for Local Authorities
Portlaoise 21st May 2

Association of Irish Local Government: Autumn Seminar
Clonakilty 1 - 2 October 8

Association of Irish Local Government: Module 5 - Roads, Transportation & Safety - A Key Function for Local Authorities
Tullamore 6 October 3

Local Authorities Members Association Autumn Training Seminar
Kilkenny 9 - 10 October 11

Realising the Hidden Potential of Ireland's Towns: The Heritage Council
Kilkenny 5th November 2

Association of Irish Local Government: Module 6 - Ground Water, Drinking Water, Surface Water, Septic Tanks & Water Pollution; Registration of Lobbying Act 2014
Dublin 14 November⁴⁶

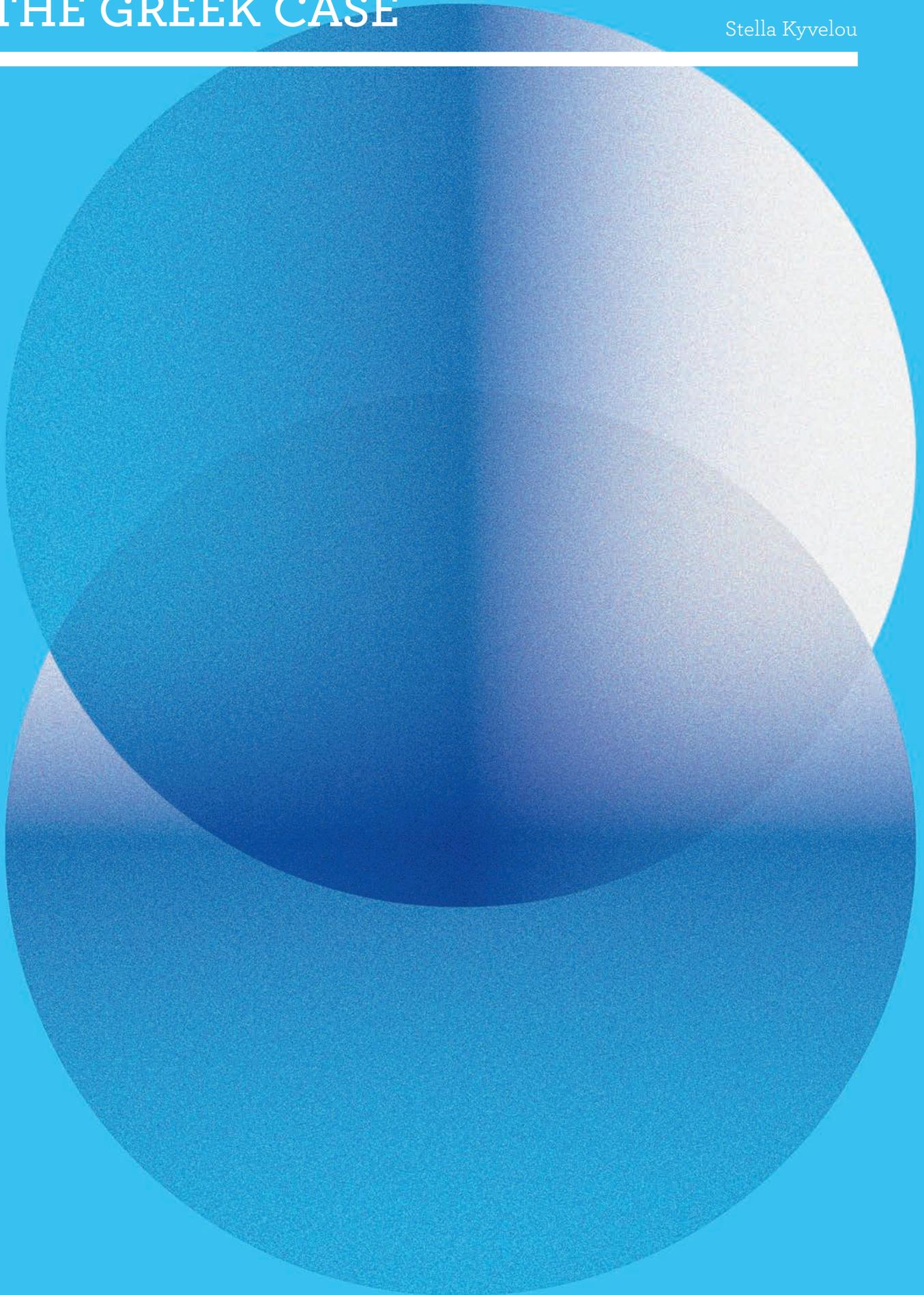
Final Comments and Conclusion

It is clear that although there is a move toward common service provision and standards across councils and local authorities in Ireland in an attempt to reduce expenses, e.g. in the area of procurement, training and development are still decided essentially by each individual local authority. Approaches vary across local authorities. Annual reports consistently refer to training for fire services and civil defence, but do not in a consistent way provide detailed or full information on training. Some authorities appear to take a more comprehensive approach, e.g. South Dublin. However, there have been some attempts to coordinate training, e.g. through the establishment of regional training centres. This development appears to be in its early stages. Nonetheless, it is clear that in Ireland, local government is a space in which ongoing training is seen as important and necessary, and quite a comprehensive range of training courses are available, whether or not they are consistently taken up on by elected officials.

II – The 16 reflexive/in-depth studies | E.

THE GREEK CASE

Stella Kyvelou



1. Setting the scene: the system of territorial governance and its current challenges in Greece

Greece is a unitary parliamentary republic with the nominal head of state the President of the Republic, who is elected by the Parliament for a five-year term (Constitution of Greece, article 1, 30). The current Constitution (issued in 1975, last amendment 2019) sets out the division of powers (legislative, executive and judiciary) and supports civil freedoms and social rights. The executive powers are being exercised by the President of the Republic and the Government. The first one, though, has limited powers since the Constitutional amendment of 1986 (Constitution, article 35-49) and the executive power is exercised by the Prime minister and government. Before the economic and financial crisis, the electoral system favoured the single party governments whereby the figure of Prime minister usually coincides with the leader of the majority party. Since the burst of financial crisis of the Greek economy in late 2009, there has been evident a distrust in the political system. Gradually, the two dominant parties, namely the socialist one (PASOK) and the conservative New Democracy (ND) which monopolised Greek elections and Greek political system have lost their dominance and public impact. As a consequence, coalition governments were risen, for the first time, to Greek political stage (Vasilopoulou, S. & Halkiopoulou, D.: 2015).

2009-2019 is a decade where political liquidity prevailed and old political parties were disbanding while new ones emerging in the political arena. However, it is of political and sociological interest that the New Democracy, the right-wing party managed to come out unscathed and not be “sucked” by the political crisis. In fact, at the end of the decade in 2019, ND won the elections. ND gained once more the absolute majority in the Greek parliament while Syriza was left behind as a strong opposition and new parties got into the political scene (Day 25). At that time, Greek economy is timidly taking its first steps towards normalcy with the complete withdrawal of capital-controls. However, in 2020, Greek society is experiencing the largest multilevel crisis in its modern history. Health, economic, social crisis, due to the COVID-19 led to a deep pandemic-related recession. Unfortunately, on the same time political instability has risen due to the concentration of large flows of migrants at Greek borders, at the urging of the Turkish government, which threaten the territorial integrity of the country.

Some argued that the large public sector and the hindering of the private sector led the Greek economy to bankruptcy (Alogoskoufis: 2012). Irrespectively, of the validity of these arguments, the state, its administration and its governance were severely criticized. It is not surprising, therefore, that a radical effort to reform of the public governance in Greece took place at the beginning of financial crisis. At the dawns of the Greece’s entry to the rescue programme, a decentralization process of the Greek state began, taking an imperative character at that time, even though it was on the political agenda for a decade (Kyvelou, Marava, 2017). Besides, the prevailed arguments for enhancing democratic participation and efficacy, a need for efficiency was also obvious. With the implementation of Law 3852/2010 (entitled “Kallikratis reform”), a re-structuring of territorial governance in Greece was in force through obligatory mergers of municipalities and the introduction of regional self-governance. From the regional and local elections in 2010, the local elected representatives were reduced from 18.458 to 9700 persons (Papaggelis: 2014; Kyvelou, N. Marava: 2017).

1. Salaries, especially public-sector salaries and pensions, were significantly reduced, in some cases as much as 50 percent. The Greek government abolished the two extra monthly salaries given each year, known as the 13th and 14th salaries.

2. According to KEDE (2016), Greek municipalities in 2011 have average population six times larger from the average population of the municipalities of EU 28 and its size of their area was eightfold larger than the average size of EU municipalities.

On the same time, the abolishment of a number of municipal enterprises expressing a key aim of *rationalization of the local governments' functions to Kallikratis programme* (Akrivopoulou, Ch., Dimitropoulos, G. & Koutnatzis, St.: 2012, pp.677) led a number of municipal employees to unemployment.

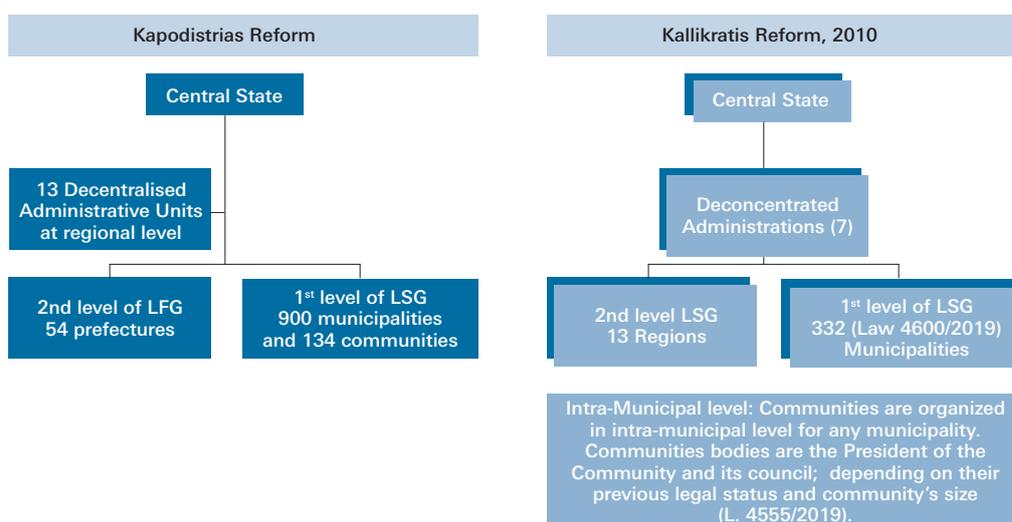
The ongoing crisis triggered a series of additional measures putting serious challenges to a successful local governance. There was a continuous sharp decrease in the number of local employees (void of the renewal of contracts, employment contracts were reduced and even employees with civil servants 'status were obliged to leave their posts e.g municipal policemen), sharp cuts in public sector salaries¹, decreasing subsidies to local government which found themselves with new responsibilities without personnel and funds and on the same time the introduction of rigid procedures for procurement and assuming expenses purposes (Cohen, S. & Hlepas, N: 2017).

Thus, municipal employees have then to work for a differentiated larger (in terms of population, residential, administrative, economic, etc. sizes) area², that it could be characterized in a lot of cases as urban, rural or mountainous at the same time (Beriatos: 2013).

The critique of Kallikratis reform was largely linked with the lack of resources needed for the transferred responsibilities (Rallis, G: 2017). KEDE (Central Union of Municipalities in Greece) has been constantly criticised these distortions found in its architecture. Indicatively, from the implementation of Kallikratis onwards, there was a reduction of state subsidies to the Municipalities (reduction of over 60% from 2009 until 2013), as well as of public spending for them, urging for a new reform. Kleisthenis Reform (L. 4555/2018), took place but it was not so evolutionary, as it was envisaged (i.e. mostly related with the adoption of simple proportional system of elections, reduced term of tenure and intra-municipal organisation).

Ten years later, this issue has been on forefront again, i.e the redistribution of responsibilities and competences between state and local governance. There is an ongoing dialogue that reflects the desire for a radical decentralization of the Greek state; and the adoption for the first time of a multi-level governance approach into the Greek administrative system. This approach entails a large-scale transfer of responsibilities from the decentralized administrations to the elected regions and on municipalities. Still, this is an ongoing process and on hold due to pandemic crisis (Ministry of Interior: 2020 about the Synopsis of Kontiadis's Committee Work on Reform of Local Government).

Figure 1. Territorial Governance in Greece before and after the Kallikratis Reform



The economic crisis and its persistence soon led to social crisis and fragmentation of the social tissue related phenomena, that is still more accrued due to pandemic nowadays. Greece faced severe demographic and societal challenges following the financial crisis of the Greek State, as the available figures show. Greece's population was 10,816,286 according to 2011 housing census (see Annex I, Table 6), a population steadily increasing up to 2010. From 2011, however, and for the first time after the 2nd World war, the Greek population began to decline. According to United Nations estimations Greece's population in 2020 is estimated at 10,423,054 people at midyear (www.unfpa.org/data/world-population/GR)

Following the latest statistical figures, Greece is ageing, (the ageing ratio is continuously deteriorated and risen to 152.5 in 2018 from 132.9 in 2011), with decrease in fertility (its total fertility rate from 1.5 in 2011 accounted to 1.3 in 2018), and with a new increasing trend of rising migration of younger highly educated people ("brain drain") at least prior to pandemic (Hellenic Statistical Authority :2020). Today, the ND government took measures for increasing "brain-in" of young Greek who live and work abroad but there is no evidence so far, of a significant decrease of NEETs phenomenon in Greece.

Unemployment rates were also increased, more than doubled within the first years of austerity and reached 26.5 percent in 2014. More than half of the young population between 15–24 years old is unemployed (41.3% in 2015), while thousands of jobs have been lost under conditions of insufficient social protection. In 2016, figures were slightly improved and local authorities could accept the credit for this improvement as they are the key institutions of exercising social policy in Greece (Hellenic Statistical Authority: 2020).

Finally, from 2015 and up to now, Greek LGs either in island regions or in frontier areas but now on in urban areas as well should cope with the new challenge of hosting, receipting and integrating refugees and immigrants.

3. OECD (2011), *Greece: Review of the Central Administration*, OECD Public Governance Reviews, OECD Publishing.

4. The first attempt to fix contracts was made by PASOK with the then ministers Vasso Papandreu and Costas Skandalidis at the end of the 1990s. Approximately 30,000 contract officers were established by law but also in accordance with the famous Law 2839/2000. Later on the mid 2000s with the PD 164/2004 (Pavlopoulos, Legislation Act) more than 35000 employees were gained permanent status in public administration.

2. Public administration and the current challenges for human resources management

2.1. About the Greek public sector

The number of relatively high levels of unemployment in the previous decades led the political system to encourage the recruiting of public employees through a clientelistic relationship between the political parties and the citizens³. Most of them were hired under fixed term contracts and historically parties tried to find solutions – in order not to lose their electoral clientele- by giving them the status of “permanent public employee”⁴. Even today, the current government is considering how to convert – of at least 17,500 fixed-term contracts in central organizations of State – and most importantly of the Municipalities – for an indefinite period.

Nevertheless, for budgetary reasons, restrictive measures on hiring personnel in the public sector have been introduced, already by the beginning of the 80s. With the financial crisis on 2008 and the consequent conditionality, these measures have been further tightened. Since 2010, several exceptional measures have been taken to reduce the cost of the overall public administration employees. According to Article 11 of Law 3833/2010, the number of annual recruitments and hiring could not be higher than the ratio of 1:5 (one recruitment per five exits) and for local authorities was even higher (1:10). This provision contained in 2013-2016 Medium-Term Fiscal Strategy Framework (MTFS) (Kyvelou, N. & Marava, N: 2017) has changed with the MTFS 2018-2021 to the ratio 1:4 that is one out to four exits and currently 1:1 ratio. On 2019 with the law 4590/2019 there was a significantly change in public recruitment process, i.e the introduction of strategic planning of human resources of public sector. According to this law, all entities (ministries and local government unities) should elaborate of an annual and four-year recruitment strategic plan to better plan, upgrade and simplify the process of recruitment, harmonized with the financial program, but also with the key other structural changes in the human resources management system of the Greek State. These referred to the introduction of digital organisation chart of Public Administration and local government in Greece where the structure and staff of all public bodies are presented (see related law 4440/2016 or the website of digital chart hr.apografi.gov.gr/organizations/browse?3) and the linked unified Mobility System (ESM) based on the use of digital skills (L.4440/2016; L:4465/2017).

In terms of numbers of public servants in Greece, it is obvious that it has shrunk over time. According to official data, in December 2012 there were 629.114 tenured civil servants (including employees of the central, regional and local government, but excluding employees of the state-owned enterprises and the elected representatives). Four years later there was a decrease of 10% to permanent status personnel, namely 565.000 persons as counted in December 2016. Despite the reform and the abortion of the strict ratio of new recruits, there is still a significant decrease in 2019. In relation to the working population, the public service employees with permanent status reach 6% in Greece, which is not a high percentage from a comparative perspective.

Table 1: Number of public employees in the “Core Public Sector”⁵

Year	31.12.2012	31.12.2013	31.12.2014	31.12.2015	31.12.2016	31.12.2017	31.12.2018	31.12.2019	% change 2012-2019
Permanent Personnel (ordinary staff)	629114	599207	576856	566913	565671	566861	565324	572324	-9%

Source: Official census of the Ministry of Administrative Reform and Electronic Governance, available at interops.ydmed.gov.gr accessed on 26.04.2021

Nevertheless, the actual number of public employees is considered to be larger (OECD:2011). In fact, the total number of people working in the public sector is higher. This is due to the following facts: a. the amount of temporary personnel has steadily increased during the same period. These are public employees working with fixed terms contracts, project contracts and non-tenured employees, appointed to ministerial cabinet offices, who can be dismissed at any time without special guarantees and compensation. b/ there isn't any official data for the employees in the state affiliated enterprises. In 2020, this number is higher due to the recruitment in staff involved in the treatment of COVID-19.

By setting strict quota for public recruitment there were two serious impact to public administration of Greece after the crisis. First, there was a steadily but obvious increase of the temporary staff leading to the discontinuities of performing efficiently every day duties.

Secondly, the composition of employment shows an ageing public workforce with a high representation of women. According to official data, the average age of public servants of the Greek State increased from 43.1 years in 2012 to 45.3 years in 2016 (Ministry of Administrative Reform:2017; National Strategy for Administrative Reform 2017-2019).

Under staffing is a key challenge of current public Administration in Greece. Strict quota and the brain drain phenomenon in Greece, imply a significant threat to the human resource of public administration. Mobility has just not been really fruitful in filling the gaps for different reasons, so far. First and foremost, has been on board from 2017 and onwards on a pilot basis first, revealing key distortions. Some of them were handled by the new legislation in 2018 (i.e. the conditions of dismissal of public servants from their posts or the transferring of relevant funds) but it needs time to be fully evaluated. A key component of this mobility of public officials continues to be the training of its public servants, especially nowadays of a severe digital transformation of Greek state.

2.2. The municipal administration in Greece and its staff

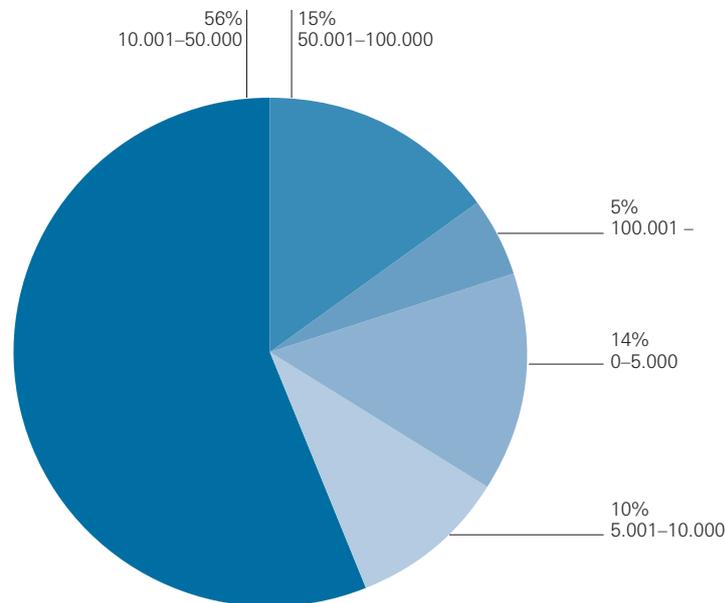
With the Kallikratis reform, only 14% of municipalities presents less than 5000 inhabitants, most of them are insular municipalities⁶ or mountainous ones. A percentage of 56% of municipalities has a population of 10.001-50.000 inhabitants, (179 Municipalities), while in the 1st merging programme (namely the Kapodistrias reform) the corresponding percentage (53%) were the municipalities-communities with a population of 0-5,000 inhabitants (see figure 1), giving the false image of urban areas. However, reality is different because the new Municipalities are the sum of agglomerations of less than 2000 or

5. The table includes data for the ordinary staff of the public sector, i.e. permanent employees/officials, employees under private law contracts of indefinite duration, employees with a salaried mandate and employees appointed for a term in office who become permanent after the expiry of the term (teaching and research staff-DEP, doctors of the NHS, special guards).

6. According to legislation the principle established by Kallikratis is one municipality per island (apart from Crete, Evvoia and the very small islands), which determines important differences in size and population, from the island of Gavdos (158 inhabitants – the smallest municipality in Greece) to Rhodes (157.635 – the largest island municipality in Greece and 9th in total).

less than 5000 inhabitants of mostly rural nature (Vezyriannidoy, S.: 2015). Obviously, the new municipalities that resulted from the amalgamation process are suffering in their integrity from a series of spatial inequalities that they have to tackle with.

Figure 2: % Distribution of Greek municipalities by population (2011)



Source: EETAA, 2014

On the same time, with the Kallikratis reform, the responsibilities of local authorities increased both quantitatively (from 192 to 284) and qualitatively (Hlepas, N: 2014). Existing municipal responsibilities were expanding considerably, for example in environment, urban planning, quality of life, education, social protection and solidarity, and almost all local professional activities are licensed and controlled by the Municipalities. The primary sector (rural development, livestock farming and fisheries) is now a new and important scope of competence. Still, this transfer of responsibilities in some policy domains such as building, technical infrastructures and social services was postponed up, as it was quite difficult all municipalities to come along with the needed resources (article 77 Law. 4445/2016.).

Kleisthenis reform (2018), had envisaged to handle this issue. There was an effort to recognize the diversity of the country's municipalities, by dividing municipalities into six categories based on their population, degree of urbanization, geo-economic characteristics, and their position in the administrative map of the country. Following this division, areas of public policy in which they can be exercised are identifying and different resources will be granted from the central state. Yet, this approach of Kleisthenis reform was merely dealt with the division of municipalities in these categories and ignored the key issue of overlapping and conflicting responsibilities between central state and local governance in Greece (Greek Ombudsman: 2018).

Apparently, municipal staff had from Kallikratis reform and up today to cope simultaneously:

- a) with the impact of the crisis to their personal status (decreasing salaries, insecurity, exodus of expertise not permanent staff),
- b) with the new arising problems for their citizenry

- c) With the effectively management of the local affairs taking into consideration the different scale of organizing tasks.
- d) With getting familiarised with the legislation in force, with added duties and the all too often supplementing and adjustment of legislation
- e) With a severe reduction of municipal employees due to increased number of retirements and the mentioned suspension of appointments and recruitment (see more on Table 2)

7. According to the personnel education level we can divide the personnel in four categories (University graduates (PE), Technical Institute graduates (TE), High School graduates (DE) and elementary school or junior high school graduates (YE)) (Spiliotopoulos et al, 2013).

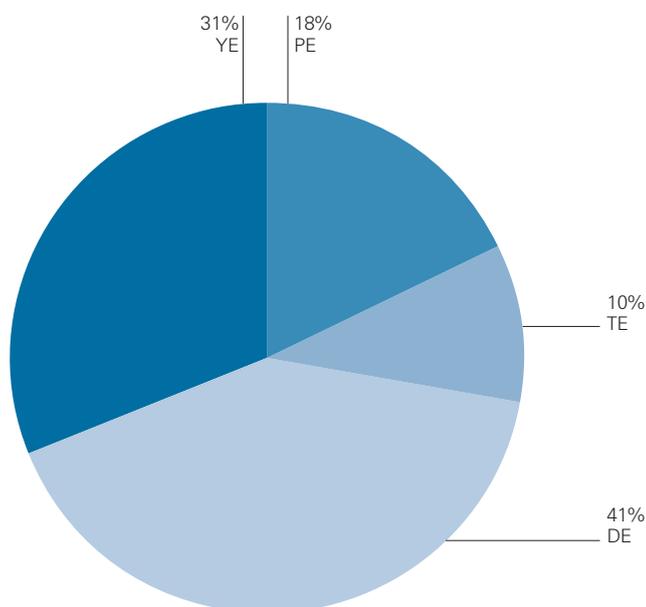
Table 2: Evolution of Local Public employees, 2012-2019

Year (month December)	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	% change 2012-2019
Total	629114	599207	576856	566913	565671	566861	565324	572324	-9%
Local Government	94386	84541	81810	82556	82796	83528	83183	89049	-6%
% of LG to total	15.00%	14.10%	14.20%	14.60%	14.60%	14.7%	14.7%	15.6%	

Source: Official census of the Ministry of Administrative Reform and Electronic Governance, available at interops.ydmed.gov.gr accessed on 26.04.2021

The professionalization of municipal staff in order to manage new local government tasks efficiently through obligatory mobility of staff didn't work (Cohen, Hlepas: 2017). On the other hand, with the most relevant data in 2014, the majority of ordinary personnel of the new larger municipalities still were less qualified in terms of their educational level⁷.

Figure 3: Ordinary staff of Las per educationa level, 2014



Thus, local self-employees should call upon embarking on a series of training programs to cope with these challenges, especially during times of changes and concrete challenges. This is still, a difficult effort particularly nowadays due to pandemic impact, besides the undoubtedly needed a lot of effort, money and time. (Xyroteri-Koufidou: 1997).

3. Education and training of local public servants in Greece

3.1. Continued Training and lifelong learning in Greece: An introduction

The training of self-government officials is regulated by article 54 of Law 3584/2007 and the article 47 of updated Code of Civil Servants and is divided into;

- a) initial education and training
- b) continuing education and training
- c) further education e.g through Postgraduate studies (Updated Code of Civil Servants, Ministry of Administrative Reform; 2015).

The initial education and training include preliminary and introductory training for officials, while continuing education and training includes training throughout the official's career enabling its further specialization.

More specifically, preliminary training is provided by the National School of Public Administration and Self-Government following entrance examinations. *It is mainly addressed to individuals who are interested in working in the public sector, but also to public officials who have acquired the status of official and wish to follow a career as senior executives in the public sector* (Panayiotopoulos, G. et al: 2017, pp.53).

This training has the status of a postgraduate diploma for its participants and is organized usually every two years. It is carried out through a difficult procedure of selection through written/oral exams and interviews carried out by a Central Examining board. Up to now, 21 introductory exams have been held for National School of Public Administration, 4 competition exams for National School of Local Government and 2 for National School of Public Administration and Self Government. The last one was held in 2016, for 160 students in eight different departments.

Continuous training is an obligation of every organisation and is addressed to all self-government officials. Most training programs are held by the National Centre for Public Administration but also *from universities, institutes and private bodies that allow certification of the knowledge acquired by the officials following certification examinations* (Updated Code of Civil Servants, Ministry of Administrative Reform; 2015; Panayiotopoulos, G. et al: 2017). Still, the most relevant authority for continuing education and training of Local Public Servants in Greece is the National Centre for Public Administration and Local Government (EKDDA). All the subjects covered by the programs from EKDDA are free from charge to Local Civil Servants, all are certified for their content and furthermore LPS could justify their absence from their duties.

3.2. The competent Institutions

The Greek strategic agency for the training and education of public servants and local government employees is the **National Centre for Public Administration and Local Government (EKDDA)**. It was established in 1983 with European and national funding and is aiming at the continuous modernization of the Greek public sector and especially :

- a) organizing and contributing to the operation of public services, both central and regional ;
- b) organising the “wider” public sector that is organisations that are legal persons under public law ;
- c) organising and modernising the entities of first and second tier local government.

The Centre constitutes one of the **major reforms, regarding civil servant training in Greece** founded under the supervision of the Minister to the Presidency of Government, in 1983. Its main scope, according to its founding law, was the creation of public administration executives, for the central and decentralized government, local government and other legal entities of public law. (L.1388/1983).

Today, the Centre is the national strategic agent for the development of the Human Resources of Public Administration and Local Government. It is a Public Entity supervised by the **Minister of Interior and Administrative Reconstruction**. Its main mission is the improvement of the functioning and effectiveness of the public services and of the public agents through research on the documentation and through consulting support, the upgrading of the PA's HR through life-long learning and through certified training on knowledge and skills, as well as the delivery of specialized officers of rapid promotion. This mission is realised through a series of targeted actions and initiatives that are implemented by the National School of Public Administration and Local Government (ESDDA), the Institute of Training (INEP) with its decentralized annex in Thessaloniki (PINEPTH), and by its Documentation and Innovations Unit (MOTEK).

The Centre's administration is governed by its President and the Governing Board consisting of EKDDA's President and the Directors of its Training/Scientific Units, the Director of the PA HR status of the Ministry of Interior and Administrative Reconstruction, five specialized Experts, and the representatives of the Union of the Regions of Greece, the Central Union of the Greek Municipalities, the Senior Administration of the Public Servants' Association and the Pan-Hellenic Federation of Local Government Employees.

The scientific and research work of the Centre is assisted by a Scientific - Educational Board that provides evaluation and consultation to the Governing Board regarding the guidelines of EKDDA's study and research actions, the educational and training programmes, as well as the scientific field definition for the implementation of these activities.

EKDDA's Teaching Staff consist of: the educational staff working for the Greek Universities and Technological Education Institutes, senior and high rank officers of the central and decentralized public administration, specialized scientists and experts of both the public and the private Sector. They are constantly evaluated through an open Registry, in order for them to respond flexibly, with the appropriate specialization and mainly with high quality services throughout EKDDA's educational activities. Registration applications are submitted via the Centre's website (www.ekdd.gr) on the Teaching Registry link.

The Centre has a good reputation having to do with providing flexible, specialized and experienced team of scientific and administrative executives, quite successfully responding to the needs of the public institutions and their employees.

3.2.1.The Institute of Training (INEP)

The Institute of Training (INEP) and its decentralized structure in Thessaloniki (PINEPTH) and its decentralized sections in the 7 decentralised units of the state aims to train both the newly appointed Public Sector's employees and the already serving staff of the Public sector and the Local Government through specifically designed certified programmes. INEP's training actions

were recently redesigned to support the effective implementation of the public policies concerning the administrative reform and decentralization, the effectiveness and transparency, the sustainable development, E-Governance, health, social policy and social solidarity.

The new training design empowers EKDDA's cooperation with the public services and institutions towards the elaboration of operational training designs, through a modern system of detecting the training needs and assessing the results of the training provided.

Moreover, innovative problem-solving workshops are established, substantial training decentralization is strengthened, the Trainers' Registry is redesigned so as to relate each trainer's expertise to the training programs' subjects and electronic communication is adopted for all the training services provided.

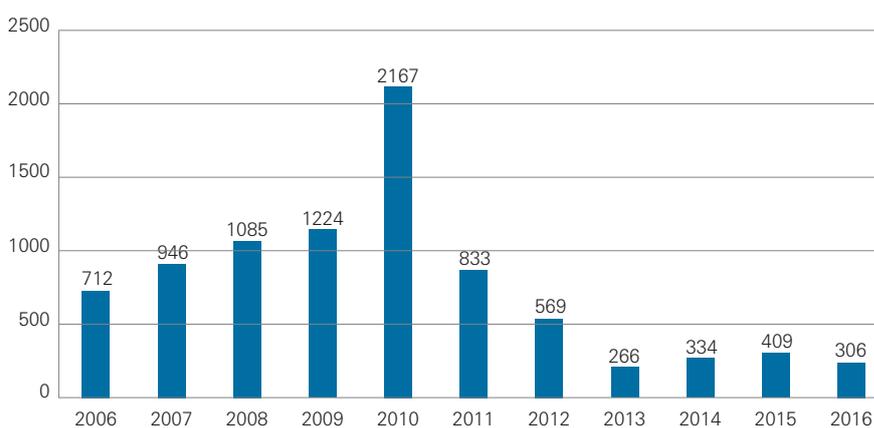
3.3. Initial training of local public servants in Greece

The initial training of local public servants in Greece, is mandatory and must be done during their two-year probationary service. Even though it is not related with their status as permanent staff, it is a prerequisite for their promotion to the next grade (45 and 54 of Law 3584/2007 - Code of Status of Municipal and Community Employees). INEP is the only competent institution for carrying out the induction training program. The purpose of the program is to provide the newly recruited civil servants with the appropriate knowledge and skills to carry out their duties more effectively in matters such as: organization of the state, strategic priorities of the country, exercising fiscal policy, the principles of legality and transparency, eGovernment techniques and writing public records.

In 2009, INEP proceeded with a redesign of its initial training program for civil servants, differentiating its content by category of employees. e.g. local public servants. Furthermore, its content is differentiated between LPS with a bachelor degree or not. Since then, the program lasts for 35 hours, with the new content mentioned above giving emphasis on E-governance and principles for a modern less bureaucratic public administration. Applications are submitted electronically by LPS to the Directorate of Initial Education at INEP which is responsible to inform the affiliated Department of the LPS which then it submits his request officially.

In ten years' time, a total of 8851 LPs have participated in induction programs. The redesign of the program coincides with increase of the participation of LPs as now, they can participate in programs designed exclusively for them and focusing on issues of local government. Because of the crisis and the restriction of hiring LPS, there is obviously a reduction on 57% participation of LPs in a decay.

Figure 4: LPs participation in initial training, 2006-2016



Source: Trainee Register EKDDA-INEP, 2017 and own elaboration by authors

3.4. Continued education and Lifelong training programs for LPS

INEP is responsible not only for initial training that is obligatory for all civil servants in Greece but for drafting, organizing and implementing training programmes for all public servants and of course for local public servants (LPS).

These training programmes which are certified according to a relevant Ministerial Decision (Greek Official Gazette 1592 of 30/09/2010), are either 'open' to all public servants or they are 'closed' that is exclusively addressing to the personnel of a specific organization, for example for a certain municipality that has made such a request.

Every employee has the right to apply to up to 4 thematic training programmes per training period (a) September - December and b) January -July) relevant with their training needs or/and associated with their duties and responsibilities of his / her position or the tasks assigned to him / her. Overall, every year each public servant can participate in five (5) topics (INEP: Trainer Guide; 2015).

The training activities of INEP are developed through a system for detecting educational and training needs of public administration employees from two groups e.g. the Trainers' Team and Expert Groups in each policy area. The highly qualified and experienced teaching staff which is being used throughout the range of training actions of INEP, is selected through an open registry of EKDDA Trainers. The current registry is now under evaluation following new more strict rules for choosing the appropriate training staff that is ranked according to his / her qualifications in A 'or B' or Priority scales (BC decision no 4163/22-12-2016, GG 4489/16). For the time being, registration applications are submitted in www.ekdd.gr to the Teaching Registry link which is open to public with the relevant qualifications. From 1.1.2018, a new teaching registry will probably be developed.

The training activities of INEP are currently (second semester of 2017) categorized in seven public policy areas:

- Efficiency and Transparency in Public Administration
- Administrative Reform and Decentralization
- E-Government and Applied Technologies
- Sustainable development
- Economy and Financial Policy
- Social policy and
- Initial training as discussed previously.

As the selection of educational topics is also done by public employees, the training programmes organized per thematic policy vary in number. Thus, for the second period of 2015, the thematic policy in most training programmes was that of “economy and fiscal policy” with 175 programmes, followed by the cycle of “e-Government and Applied Technologies” (124 programmes) (EKDDA: Circular 5585/24.7.2015).

Since 2010, the above thematic categories are more or less the same. What differs are the topics included in each of them, according to the needs of public servants. Every LPS can be informed, apply and be evaluated and approved (as far as his/her participation is concerned) via the EKDDA website.

Local public servants can apply to participate in the thematic categories above. In some of them, they are specific titles only for local civil servants (see table below).

Table 3: Key Indicative Specific topics and number of participants – exclusive participation of LPS

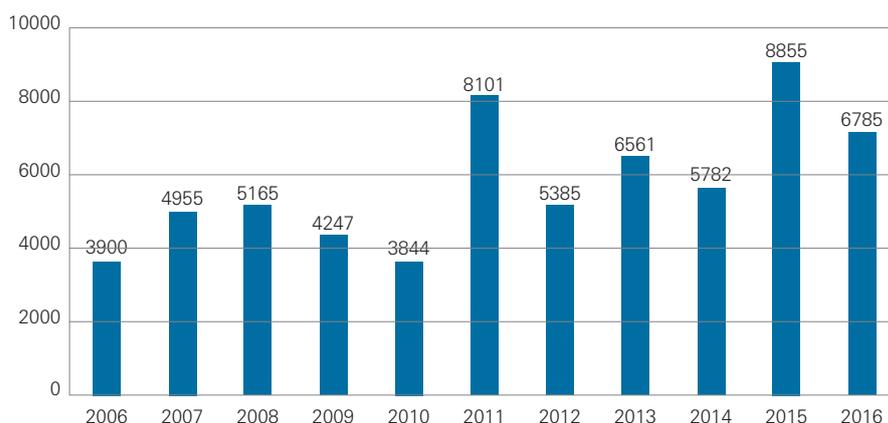
Title	Number of Participants
Organizing Local Services and Local Development Policy	866
Withdrawal of authorizations as a reduction in the official weights	367
Quality service of Public Sector to citizens	1506
One Stop Shop Services (Ermis gov.)	1388
Information and Training For Kallikratis	3246
Kallikratis program	555
Transparency in Public and Local Administration	1342
Municipal Code	1140
Municipal Finance	2135
Municipal Budget	497
Organising and Administrating the Social Services at Local Level	518

Table 4: Most Popular training programmes in 2016

Organisation of services and development policy in municipalities	415
Legality and transparency in public administration and local authorities	220
Organization and administration of the programme socio solidarity income (CRL)	215
Code status of municipal officials	184
Compilation, publication and management of public documents	167
Conference objective the open data	154
Quality of public sector services to citizens	146
E-governance and citizens	137
Commissions-services of local authorities first extent	124
European programmes: search other for proposals and writing a grant proposal	112
Organization and administration of social services at local level organizations	109
Building the efficient team	102
Implementation and monitoring of the tail of the works under the antagwnistikwn programmes of the european union	96
Culture and innovative approaches in the service of the citizen	93

During the last decade more than 63,000 PLS participated in different topics of the above policy cycles to INEP programs.

Figure 5: LPS participation in life-long training programmes of INEP per year



Source: Trainee Register EKDDA-INEP, 2017 and own elaboration by authors

The crisis has triggered an increased interest and finally a remarkable positive shift countering up to 74 % of the number of participating local public servants to the training seminars of INEP from 2006 to 2016. This shift is due to the discussed bill- for several years now- for the National Register of Civil Service Executives and the associated ranking system for promotion in Public Administration in Greece. According to the Law 4369/2016, the certified training from INEP counts for ten (10) points per training course, a high grade compared with the second bachelor degree which in total could take thirty (30) points. It is obvious that for local public servants the training as such is really related to their professional development and career development in the public or local administration.

4. Training of local elected representatives in Greece

4.1. The status of local elected representatives in Greece

For the first and second level local authorities, elections are held simultaneously every five years and local elected representatives are elected by direct universal suffrage in a secret ballot every five years. The age threshold for standing in local elections is 18 years old for Councillor and 21 for Mayor or Regional Governor.

The “Kallikratis reform” has changed the territorial governance in Greece as it introduced new institutions aiming at increasing the accountability, the transparency and the participation of the citizens in local /regional affairs (e.g. consultation committee or the Ombudsmen at regional or local level etc.). Moreover, it had changed the intra-municipal structure and organisation of the municipalities mainly through the introduction of the Economic Committee, the Quality of Life Committee and the Executive Committee at local or regional level. The last one, composed at the local level by the Mayor and the deputy mayors, is intended to support the Mayor or Regional Governor so that he/she exercises his/her coordinating role (Kyvelou, S. & Marava, N: 2017; Inspectorate of Local Government, 2011).

Another key impact of the aforementioned reform was the reduction of local elected representatives either at local level or at supralocal level (prefecture or region) (see tables below). In last elections in 2019, the Mayors was increased up to 332 while on the same time we had the election of sub-municipal representatives.

Table 5: local elected representative prior and after Kallikratis Reform

Elected Officials	Prior to 2010	2011	%
Mayors	914	325	-64%
Deputy Mayors	2298 (included to municipal councillors)	1498	-35%
Municipal Councillors	16310	9375	-43%
President of Communities	120	-	
Community Councillors	1114	-	
Total	18458	9700	-47%

Elected Officials	Prior 2010	2010	2014
Prefect/Regional Governors	54	13	13
Prefectural/ Regional Councillors	1496	723	713
Total	1550	736	726

As an example, the Municipalities and Mayors decreased - compared to 2010 – from 914 to 325 (-64%), the Deputy Mayors from 2,298 to 1,498 (-35%), municipal councillors from 16,390 to 9,375 (-43%) and so on.

With Kallikratis reform, the role of councillors in the municipal life has also changed. Besides their political role they should also take a more proactive development and social role. The latter was even more important in times of political and social instability.

The profile of local councillors in Greece represents some key challenges such as the low participation rate of female from political posts and its ageing character. According to the last available survey from KEDE (Inspectorate of Local Government, 2011), the overwhelming majority (81%) of them were mostly middle-aged men. In 2010, only eight of the 325 mayors were women, and there was no female elected governor in any of the 13 regions. Furthermore, only 11 women were elected as vice governors and 115 women were elected as regional councillors, out of 713. In 2014, the figures are slightly improved. There are actually sixteen (16) female mayors in a total of 325, and two (2) female regional governors. The proportion of female councillors at municipalities increased also from 16.7% (1,558 posts to a total of 9,375) in 2010 to 18.09% (1,669 in a total of 9,228) in 2014.

Despite this improvement, women are still absent from the political scene of local authorities even though they present a better educational and work experience profile.

Figure 6: Number of councillors per gender at the municipalities 2014

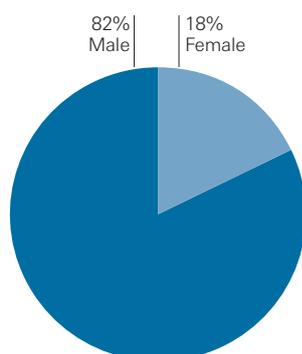
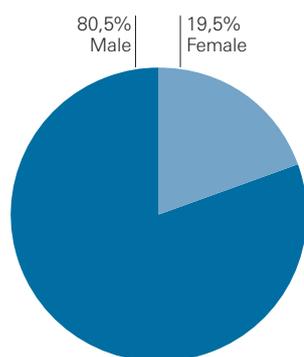


Figure 7. Number of councillors per gender at regional level, 2014



As far as the level of education is concerned, the municipal councillors' educational level is lower than the one of the Mayors (only the 36% of them have a bachelor degree whereas the 73% of the mayors have completed undergraduate studies). In terms of professional profile, the heterogeneity increases as we can distinguish teachers (18%), public servants (10%), engineers (9%) and so on. The same applies more or less to the mayor's profile.

The Greek Mayors are not only well educated for their job but they have usually gained also experiences to work in a public authority or even have experience from a political post. In both of the last municipal elections, the 44% (2010) or the 34,6 (2014) has been re-elected (Inspectorate of Local Government, 2011; EETAA : 2014) to the same post. The overwhelming majority of Mayors (94%) has gained previous experience at political post in local authorities. Local councillors, on the other hand, almost half of them (46,7%) were elected, for the first time, during the elections of 2010. Taking into consideration the new legislation imposed at that time and their new role and important responsibilities, the burden to cope with new challenges was huge. That's why, as it will be discussed below, there was for the first time a massive effort towards training local councillors to the new reality of Kallikratis era.

4.2. Training for elected local representatives of Greece

Offers of training courses for elected local representatives are rare and usually related with administrative reforms such as Kapodistrias (Ministry of Interior:1997) and Kallikratis or any other reform of the legal framework of local authorities (e.g. the issue of the new Municipal Code in 2006).

The competent bodies for holding training programmes are:

- a) The Institute of Training (INEP).
- b) The Union of Municipalities ("Central Union of Municipalities of Greece" (KEDE) and the "Regional Unions of Municipalities" (PED). Amongst their objectives is the training of municipal or regional staff and the elected representatives at both levels.
- c) The Union of Regional Self-Governance in Greece (ENPE) (P.D. 74/2011 (FEK 181A/22.8.2011) which aims to continuous education and training activities for the regional elected representatives. Its training role is rather limited so far and concerns the organisation of info-days and one or two-day conferences.

The Central Union of Municipalities is more proactive in training local elected representatives through organising at its premises seminars about key issues of local governance or through collaboration with its two affiliated institutes:

- a) the “Hellenic Agency of Local Development and Local Government” (EETAA) ;
- b) the “Information - Training - Local Development” S.A. (PETA), which provides consultancy services and training services as well.

The Hellenic Agency of Local Development and Local Government (EETAA) was the competent Institute for training local elected representatives before entering their post after the local elections in 2010. The objective of the training programme was to enable the newly elected local/regional officials in producing public policies and in developing local and regional actions that would meet the new responsibilities of regional and local self-government. EETAA organised at that time thirteen (13) training workshops addressing to regional elected officials and sixty-two (62) training workshops addressing to municipal councilors across the whole country, especially in insular and mountainous municipalities. These training programmes lasted usually for half-day and the content of the training programmes cover thematic areas such as the new architecture of local and regional governance, the status of local /regional elected officials and their role, the developmental role of regions and cities, local finance and human resources and their management, sustainable development and e-governance. The programme ran from Autumn 2010 until winter of 2011, and it was funded through Greece’s National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF).

Obviously, EETAA has assumed the role of INEP during that period. INEP was the one which had trained the local elected representatives for the new Municipal Code in 2006. During 2006, 994 local elected representatives were informed and trained in the institutional changes of the new code e.g. on the role and drafting of Strategic and Operational Municipal Programmes.

PETA SA, with the contribution of the General Secretariat for Gender Equality (GSGE), ran also a training course for targeting women elected at a local or regional level, women candidates in local or regional elections and municipal and regional officers in social services. This training programme was also part of the Kallikratis programme and was funded through the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF), as well (web site supporting the participation of women in positions of political responsibility (in Greek): www.airetes.gr). By the end of the project, about 1,500 women had undergone training all over the country.

The seminars were organised over two days in the capital city of each of the 13 regions, with a class size of up to 30 persons.

The following five sessions were delivered:

- Session A: National, regional and local policy on gender equality
- Session B: Gender perspective, social construction of gender roles, reconciliation of professional and family life, women’s participation in local authorities
- Session C: Self-empowerment and time management
- Session D: Communication and negotiation techniques and skills (verbal and non-verbal communication, public speech, interviews, etc.)
- Session E: Networking and social dialogue

Summing up, what can be concluded from this overview is that training for local councillors is time bounded and related to the administrative reforms

of Greek local governance, rather than focusing on topics relevant with the day-to-day activities of elected local representatives.

Nevertheless, KEDE or EETAA or the Institute of Local Government (ITE) organize half day seminars about topics or challenging issues of local governance e.g. green supplies, the covenant of Mayors or the e-governance but they are not organized based on a strategic orientation of the actual needs of local elected representatives. A more strategic approach and further training for councillors has been discussed from senior executives of the EKDDA but there was obviously lack both of the political will and the human resources that could enable their effective organisation.

5. Concluding Remarks-Perspectives

Historically and in terms of Greek government human resources management (HRM), a lack of **strategic vision** is evident and of **short-term focus on stand-alone reforms**, especially in local government HRM.

Entering into the financial crisis, the Greek HRM was focused only to freezing and lowering salaries and HR development, putting quota in recruitment. Thus with these hiring limitations alongside with social security policy in force, Greece was led to **a considerable ageing public servant population and a lot of vacant statutory posts**.

Even though a more holistic approach to HRM policy has been adopted as part of the Operational Programme “Administrative Reform 2007-13” (Priority Axis 2), these actions were not completed efficiently up to the end of 2016-2017. During these years, the legislative framework has been gradually developed, namely : a) the Law 4354/2015 & 4369/2016 for de-linked career development with the salary rating of public officials and b) the Law 4440/2016 with provisions for developing the **Unified mobility System for Public Officials**, which has started to operate through a procedure of declarations from state organisations of their vacant posts or the new system **of job profiling in public administration** was promoted which included and integrated elements such as the recruitment and selection process, training, career planning, mobility of the workforce and job evaluation.

All these steps were gradually impact positively on the management of the Human Resources of Greek State, either centrally or locally. Clearly, crises posed different opportunities and challenges on the process of status of public officials on one hand and on their opportunities in training and life-long learning. For example, the Kallikratis program, despite its impact on the number of the public servants, promoted the endorsement of strategic approach in local administration at municipal or regional level. The financial crisis led to a strategic approach in Human Resources Management and the endorsement of an open data of available posts in the digital organisational chart. On the same token, pandemic led to the strengthening of digital governance which has been intensified and further explored. More specifically, in the last 12 months, the results of this strategy are significant and are reflected in the increase of digital services provided but also in the organization of projects and actions for their adoption by the Public Administration and civil servants. As an example, the unification of existing information systems where 501 public services were integrated with success to one simple website, i.e. www.gov.gr is a key component of this process. However, the country needs to

further improve the efficiency and effectiveness of its Public Administration and its know-how of using digital services, by further enhancing the “digital performance” of their public servants.

As, the digital transformation is a key core of the new Recovery and Resilience Plan of Greece submitted recently in EU (Hellenic Republic: 2021), the life-long learning of public servants and increase their digital skills is very crucial.

Still, this digital transformation is more prominent in the local /regional level but the ones with more problems. Mobility has not been sufficient for mobilising the expertise personnel needed by the local governments. Following the key figures of mobility in the last 5 years and its evaluation from the relevant ministry revealed that local governments had been less favourable receipting organisation from public servants (Ministry of Administrative Reform:2019). It is also evident that the need for **local public servants** especially in remoted mountainous and insular municipalities will not be solved via the mobility of civil servants. This has never been successfully implemented, despite some similar efforts in the past.

Obviously, **continuous education and training is an important factor to develop the new system of job profiling**. It is not surprising therefore, the increase of participants in the training programmes of the two major relevant institutions (EKDDA and INEP).

ANNEX 1:

KEY DEMOGRAPHIC FIGURES OF GREECE

Table 6: Population by gender and age group in 2011

Description	Total				
	Total	Men	Women	Men	Women
Total In Country	10.816.286	5.303.223	5.513.063	49,0	51,0
Region of East Macedonia & Thrace	608.182	299.643	308.539	49,3	50,7
Region of Central Macedonia	1.882.108	912.693	969.415	48,5	51,5
Region of West Macedonia	283.689	141.779	141.910	50,0	50,0
Region of Epirus	336.856	165.775	171.081	49,2	50,8
Region of Thessaly	732.762	362.194	370.568	49,4	50,6
Region of Central Greece	547.390	277.475	269.915	50,7	49,3
Region of Ionian Islands	207.855	102.400	105.455	49,3	50,7
Region of Western Greece	679.796	339.310	340.486	49,9	50,1
Region of Peloponnisos	577.903	291.777	286.126	50,5	49,5
Region of Attica	3.828.434	1.845.663	1.982.771	48,2	51,8
Region of North Aegean	199.231	99.984	99.247	50,2	49,8
Region of South Aegean	309.015	155.865	153.150	50,4	49,6
Region of Crete	623.065	308.665	314.400	49,5	50,5

Source: ELSTAT (2014), Demographic and social characteristic of permanent population in Greece according to revised data from 2011 Census.

8. Age dependency ratio: the ratio of the number of economically non-active persons (aged 0–14 and 65 years and over) compared with the number of economically active persons (aged 15–64 years).

9. Ageing ratio: the number of persons aged 65 years and over per hundred persons under the age of 15.

10. Total mortality rate: the number of deaths per 1,000 people.

11. Infant mortality rate: the number of children dying at less than 1 year of age divided by the number of live births that year. The ratio is expressed by 1,000 live births.

Table 7: Demographic indicators, 2014-2018

Indicators	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Age dependency ratio ⁸	54.5	55.2	55.9	56.5	56.9
Ageing ratio ⁹	141.8	145.5	148.3	150.3	152.5
Mean age of mother at birth	31	31.3	31.3	31.5	31.5
Total fertility rate	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3
Total mortality rate ¹⁰	10.4	11.2	11	11.6	11.2
Infant mortality rate ¹¹	3.7	4	4.2	3.5	3.5

Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2020), Greece in figures October-December 2020 available at dlib.statistics.gr/Book/GRESYE_01_0004_00001.pdf

Table 8: Evolution of the unemployment rates, 2009-2019

Evolution of the percentage of the unemployed for total population, male – female and for persons				
Year	Total	Male	Female	Persons aged 15–29 years
2009	9.6	7	13.3	18.8
2010	12.7	10	16.3	24.4
2011	17.9	15.1	21.5	34.8
2012	24.4	21.5	28.2	43.7
2013	27.5	24.5	31.3	48.7
2014	26.5	23.6	30.2	45
2015	24.9	21.7	28.9	41.3
2016	23.5	19.9	28.1	38.4
2017	21.5	17.8	26.1	35.6
2018	19.3	15.4	24.2	32.3
2019	17.3	14	21.5	28.9

Source: Hellenic Statistical Authority (2020), Greece in figures October-December 2020 available at dlib.statistics.gr/Book/GRESYE_01_0004_00001.pdf, pp. 108

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EUROPEAN COMPARISONS OF TRAINING POLICIES FOR PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES FIRST CONCLUSION

Stéphane Guérard

According to Article 6(2) of the European Charter of Local Self-Government of 15 October 1985, *“The Staff Regulations of local authorities shall provide for high-quality recruitment based on the principles of merit and competence; to this end, they shall provide adequate conditions of training, remuneration and career prospects”*.

The above-mentioned European provision is very interesting in four respects, not only with regard to the subject of our conclusion, which is exclusively concerned with the future of initial and/or continuing training actions and policies for public officials in European local authorities.

On the one hand, it emphasises *“quality recruitment”* which may involve an *“upstream”* conception of initial training or *“basic training”*, as favoured by some states, in particular and for example Germany, Estonia¹, Flanders (Belgium), Greece, Ireland, Romania, Russia and Wallonia (Belgium).

The fact remains that, although residual, positive discrimination aimed at favouring the recruitment of people with disabilities, people who have failed at school and/or are socially excluded, or people of ethnic diversity, can continue to be maintained, even if it has to be accompanied by active and dynamic vocational training policies from the moment they enter the civil service, and this *“throughout the career of the civil servant”*.

On the other hand, it would seem that *“training”* is understood, in an ideal European vision of the local civil service, as an *“intrinsic”* element of the career; in a word, the training of the local civil servant must take place *“throughout the professional life”* of this agent.

This is because *“the initial and continuing training of agents must fully play its role as a privileged instrument for the professional development of agents, and for the adaptation of their qualifications to the evolution of missions and professions”*².

Secondly, this European provision highlights a particular difficulty of some European states, systematically favouring the state civil service to the detriment of those working for local authorities.

This explains the difficulty in finding reliable and usable data on local public servants, because such data often only exists for national public officials. Moreover, the same causes lead to the same effects: when there are some financial means for the training of public agents, they are generally devoted only to agents working for the State and are therefore allocated only

1. The 3 Baltic States (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania) have a common history (independent in 1918, forcibly integrated into the USSR after the Second World War and independent again in the early 1990s) which has led them to be pro-EU states since 2004. Moreover, they are three decentralised states with a single level of local government, the commune.

2. Rocard Circular of 23 February 1989 on the renewal of public service.

3. Crozier (M.),
*L'État moderne, l'État
modeste au service
de la société*,
Éditions du Seuil,
Collection «Points essais»,
n°223, 2nd ed., 1991.

4. Merrien (F.-X.),
L'État-providence, PUF,
Collection «Que sais-je?»,
n°3249, 3rd ed., 2007.

to the central administration. However, when it comes to satisfying essential collective needs, particularly educational and social needs, which are taken care of by public services, the most effective public action is democratic, citizen-based and local public action, as the five Scandinavian countries forcefully illustrate, knowing that such action is above all organised and carried out by local authorities, and therefore carried out on a daily basis by local public agents!

Finally, point 2 of Article 6 of the Charter insists on the “career prospects” of local public servants, which, incidentally or even implicitly, seems to question a large number of reforms aiming to challenge the status of permanent staff in favour of contractual staff, especially when this consists of favouring “fixed-term”, or even especially “short”, contracts to the detriment of “open-ended” contracts. It is, moreover, one of the unexpected conclusions of this European and comparative study on training that confirms this European provision, namely that the massive recourse to fixed-term contractual staff diverts continuing training from this public to the almost exclusive benefit of civil servants and, to a lesser extent, of permanent contractual staff. Indeed, why invest in a public that is volatile by nature, and therefore at a loss? In this respect, the situation favouring the use of fixed-term contractual employees under private law illustrates this even more clearly, because this “example” also “erases” any specificity of public action and tends to impose the idea that there is no specificity of the public service. However, this is also a backlash, perhaps a logical one, to the over-extension of the scope of public services in the twentieth century, which was certainly supported by a favourable economic and financial situation in the post-World War II period.

Today, and to plagiarise Michel Crozier, the ‘modern State’ must be a ‘modest State’³, in terms of public activities, and consequently and by the same token, economical. The ‘welfare state’⁴ must now be replaced by a ‘useful but efficient state’. The fact remains that the search for more targeted public action, which in a way excludes private activities of general interest [or ‘service of general economic interest’ (SGEI)], and therefore more economical, should not be allowed to prevail, should perhaps not, however, imply the absence of specificity of this same action, at the risk of considering that education or health care are any kind of ‘service’ managed just as well by the public sector as by the private sector, at the risk of reducing to nothing the very idea of general interest or even that of ‘social services of general interest’ (SSGI) and ‘universal service’.

To return to the study in greater detail, it is clear that the training that is of most interest, and on which there is the most data, is the continuing education of LPAs; the training of local elected representatives is, in some states, embryonic, and there is little information on it and, finally, little knowledge of its modalities and modes of financing.

However, contrary to what is often thought, political parties are not so much involved, at least not as much as in the supervision and training of national politicians.

The fact remains that the status of LPAs and that of local elected representatives is the victim of many grey areas in European states, which does not facilitate the democratic promotion of an ambitious European statute for local elected representatives, nor the promotion of a general European legal

framework for the rights and obligations of LPAs. LPAs and local elected representatives are, in fact, much less regulated and treated by their national law than are elected representatives and public officials.

Finally, LPAs and local politicians are logically “victims” of several centuries of administrative and democratic centralism in Europe.

However, the success of decentralisation or local autonomy depends on the modernisation and enhancement of its indispensable servants and promoters, namely elected representatives and local public servants.

Therefore, to develop and promote comparative studies in Europe on the latter is to directly serve the success of the decentralised administration of the 21st century and of better governance at the local level, which is as much a political objective as a legal challenge, both of which are indispensable and unavoidable.

Finally, this must include the development of an offer in terms of initial and continuing training, both in France and in Europe, for elected representatives and local public servants, even if it means using the European Social Fund (ESF) for the benefit of certain European States that are worse off than others, such as the States of the Baltic, Central and Eastern Europe.

Overall, in Europe, it is clear from this study that local public servants are the ‘unloved ones’ of public action in a very large number of European States, even developed ones, even though their number and quality undoubtedly determine the success of decentralisation in their States!

Thus, in terms of rights, and especially remuneration and other social benefits, public servants in local, municipal or inter-municipal, regional (where they exist) or even intermediate (where they still exist) authorities are extremely badly off. This is also evident from this study and confirms other European scientific studies.

The ‘local civil service’, whether or not it exists as a separate legal entity from the ‘state civil service’, is in any case at a great disadvantage compared to the latter.

This explains why a large number of European local authorities are struggling to attract well-trained public servants, in the sense of graduates, who are willing to make a lasting and useful commitment to the service of their local authorities, and therefore to the users of local public services.

This skills gap, often due to a lack of remuneration and/or other social benefits, is directly and severely detrimental to the success of decentralisation in Europe.

Curiously, this phenomenon affects states in financial difficulty (such as England, Spain, Estonia, Greece, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia, for example) as much as those in full employment, such as Germany.

Indeed, in Germany⁵, as in Scandinavia, in a period of labour shortage due to ‘full employment’, the administration is facing difficulties in attracting committed and competent staff, in particular due to competition from the private

5. In 2018, the latter state launched a campaign to attract talent to the public service. Faced with recruitment difficulties, the federal government launched a «retrain yourself» communication campaign at the highest level to raise awareness among people working in the private sector. There is no age limit for applying and employers must treat internal and external candidates equally, selecting them on the basis of qualifications and experience alone (DGAFP, Vision RH, February 2018, N°. 2, p. 2; see also: www.bundesregierung.de/Content/DE/StatischeSeiten/Breg/Oeffentlicher-Dienst/quereinsteiger.html?nn=1679370)

6. *Towards a harmonisation of rights civil servants and contractual workers in Germany*, DGAFF, Vision RH, February 2018, n°2, p. 2.

See also:

www.bundesregierung.de/Content/DE/Mitschrift/Pressekonferenzen/2018/03/2018-03-12-bpk-koalitionsvertrag.html

7. Guérard (S.), *The ideal image of the Local Autonomy, as described and promoted by the Council of Europe (Congress of local and regional authorities), can it become reality? A goal or a dream of a perfect «local world»? in Astrauskas (A.) and Guérard (S.) (eds.), Local Autonomy in the 21st Century. Between Tradition and Modernisation. L'autonomie locale au XXI^e siècle. Entre tradition et modernisation*, LGDJ Lextenso éditions, Institut universitaire Varenne, Collection 'Kultura', June 2016, p. 39-60.

sector. This is why, against all odds, Germany has decided (2018) to harmonise the 'statutes' of contractual employees and civil servants, so that the former have as many rights (and therefore more) as the latter⁶ and thus above all restore the attractiveness of the civil service and of public careers!

It is therefore necessary to break through the glass ceiling and open up senior positions in public administration to women, and not only for gender equality reasons.

Moreover, it is not the least of the paradoxes to realise that, in such a configuration of full employment, the status of contractual employee is an obstacle to recruitment.

This justifies demanding, in addition to the European Charter of Local Self-Government, the adoption not only of a European Charter of Local Financial Self-Government⁷ but also of a European Charter of the Rights and Obligations of local public servants, in which training would have an important place, as well as professional ethics, as essential conditions for the success of a democratic, close and efficient local self-government, but also to evolve in the long term towards a European model of local democracy.

EUROPEAN COMPARISONS OF TRAINING POLICIES FOR PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES SECOND CONCLUSION

Pierre Camus-Lutz

In the various European and neighbouring countries, it is clear that local action is becoming more complex.

Local authorities, perceived as the most relevant institutions for democratic governance, tend to concentrate an increasing number of responsibilities, ranging from urban management to finance, through the provision of key public services and investments. Local elected representatives, who have been given real responsibilities for administering their territories, must be able to mobilise a range of knowledge and skills to deal with increasingly technical and multi-level issues.

As a direct effect of the various decentralisation movements, the desire to bring political decision-making closer to the population has been accompanied by a rise in the level of recruitment of local elected representatives. Studied by Daniel Gaxie¹ and Michel Koebel² for the French case, these two researchers have shown that the social origin of elected representatives is directly correlated to the size of the community involved. The larger the size of the community, the more discriminating social origin becomes in access to positions of power.

And as there is nothing to indicate that this 'level of responsibility/social selection' equation is exclusive to the French political system, it is quite possible to postulate that in France, as in Europe, the technical nature of local public action works against political representativeness. At the European level, this idea is confirmed by questionnaire No. 3, distributed by the Observatory of Local Self-Government network, in which the countries participating in the survey declare an over-representation of elected representatives from well-to-do socio-professional categories.

Indeed, 38% of European local elected representatives declare themselves to be members of the higher intellectual professions, compared to 3.7% of blue-collar workers³.

Local authorities, far from being socially open institutions, are invested by a privileged male population, relatively old and qualified, socially and professionally predisposed to exercise local public functions.

In view of this, the ability of local elected representatives to access training becomes a central issue for the legitimacy of European democracies.

If we do not take note of the oligarchic monopolisation of the exercise of political power and accept electoral abstention as the expression of a

1. Gaxie Daniel.
«Les logiques du recrutement politique».
In: Revue française de science politique,
30^e année, n° 1, 1980.
pp. 5-45.

2. Koebel, Michel.
«Le profil social des maires de France»,
Pouvoirs, vol. 148, no.
1, 2014, pp. 123-138.

3. Sources: analysis
of questionnaire n° 3
of the Observatoire de
l'Autonomie Locale
(OLA).

4. Gaxie Daniel.
«*Le cens caché*».
In: Réseaux, volume 5,
n° 22, 1987. L'opinion
publique. pp. 29-51

5. Lefebvre Remy,
«*Se conformer à son
rôle*», *les ressorts
de l'intériorisation
institutionnelle*.
In: Offerlé Michel (dir)
et Lagroye Jacques (dir)
«*Sociologie de l'institution*»,
Éditions Belin, Paris,
2010,
pp. 219-247.

6. Bourdieu Pierre.
«*Les rites comme
actes d'institution*».
In: Actes de la recherche
en sciences sociales.
Vol. 43, June 1982.
Rites and fetishes.
pp. 58-63.

7- Douillet Anne-Cécile,
Lefebvre Rémi,
«*Sociologie politique
du pouvoir local*»,
collection U Sociologie,
Armand Colin, Paris,
2017, p. 271.

8. Lefebvre Rémi,
«*La démocratie
participative absorbée
par le système politique
local*», Métropolitiques,
29 October 2012.
[www.metropolitiques.eu
/La-democratie-
participative.html](http://www.metropolitiques.eu/La-democratie-participative.html)

censal vote that does not say its name⁴, training, as an apprenticeship during the term of office, of the knowledge and skills necessary to ensure the conduct of public policies, presents itself as one of the rare alternatives to the inequality of political access between social classes.

Because traditionally, the socialisation of newly elected officials is above all thought of as an exercise that takes place 'of its own accord', almost naturally; newly elected officials encounter a complex institutional functioning and conform to it by successive adjustments, guided by the 'calls to order' of their peers⁵ and the rites of institutions⁶ that function as integrating functions for agents who are 'strangers' to the universe of local politics. Except that, in reality, at least for large communities, the integration of new members corresponds more to the materialisation of a cooptation reproducing a social inter-society between local elites of the same territory (members of associations, political parties, municipal offices, etc.).

The forms of eligibility, i.e. the social dispositions that can be converted into symbolic titles of political legitimacy⁷, give access to positions of power to elected representatives who have already mastered the skills expected of their mandate or who are objectively predisposed to learn, by imitation and self-taught, the functioning of the legal and institutional instruments of governance and the conduct of public policies with which they are more or less familiar. The various 'participatory democracy' initiatives do not succeed in reducing the distancing of an increasingly important fringe of the population, which tends to abandon local issues marked by technical complexities and political strategies that are difficult to understand⁸.

Knowledge about the management of local affairs, instead of being a knowledge reserved for certain social classes, could be 'democratised' through training provided either as a civic education course for the whole population or as an 'institutional rite' for newly elected local representatives.

Assured of knowing the different institutional and legislative workings of local politics, an initial or continuous training could compensate for the social and professional inequalities of access to the management of common goods in favour of the populations least predisposed to do so, while encouraging a true citizen's involvement in local debates and issues.

The institutionalisation of training for local elected representatives could also provide some answers to the problem of power-sharing and decision-making between elected officials and local administrative officers. As full-time professionals in the conduct of public policy, local civil servants control all activities related to the formulation, design and implementation of public action.

The independence of elected officials with little training, and without the possibility of doing so during their term of office, is an issue. The unequal mastery of institutional knowledge and tools places temporarily elected staff in an unfavourable power relationship with permanent local staff, trained to occupy their posts. Without wishing to glorify 'technical' elected officials who are capable of everything, even a brief knowledge of the principles of bureaucracy would help to clarify the political decisions of elected officials without the latter being controlled by it. The same applies to ensuring the existence of political opposition.

Whether it is local versus national or, in elected assemblies, opposition versus majority, the lack of training is now criticised. In terms of scale, local governments are recognised (in France at least) as politically autonomous institutions from the national power.

The capacity of local elected representatives to intervene in local affairs must be guaranteed to ensure the free administration of communities. Access to training thus takes on the characteristics of the independence of territories from the power of the States. Similarly, within assemblies, the position of elected representatives in the general configuration strongly varies their capacity for action.

Whether they are elected in the majority with delegation, without delegation or in the opposition, local elected representatives are not all integrated into the political game in the same way. Being part of the political opposition at the local level often means being excluded from the main decision-making processes and in particular from the means necessary to fulfil one's role properly. Extended to the question of the unequal size of local authorities, training for elected representatives, as a guarantee of political plurality, cannot therefore be thought of in a homogeneous way.

There cannot be “one” training but “many” trainings that respond to the different situations that exist in the administrative architecture of States.

However, despite all the issues at stake in the training of local elected representatives, its existence at European level seems modest and its knowledge very low. *Questionnaire No. 3*, distributed by the Observatory of Local Self-Government network to some thirty European and neighbouring countries, indicates that the majority of States are not involved in the reflection and organisation of this training. This low level of involvement and the poor results that emerge mean that only one definitive conclusion can be drawn: there is no Community position on the training of local elected representatives today.

On the contrary, the few policies in favour of training for local elected representatives remain embedded in state logic and are inextricably linked to national legal and administrative histories. For the rest, the training of elected representatives is a very attractive market for organisations of all kinds. Given the weak will of states to legally regulate the training spaces dedicated to their elected representatives, no assurance of probity, quality or accessibility can be certified or demanded. This means that it is currently impossible to present an exhaustive summary of training organisations, the training they provide or even the interest they have in practising their activity. In other words, the majority of European local councillors have no guarantee of finding training led by qualified staff that meets their needs.

But these issues are put into perspective by the actual capacity to access training in general.

Indeed, the legislative disengagement of States is often confused with a financial disengagement. The costs of travel (transport, accommodation, catering) to attend training courses that may last several days are rarely covered for local elected representatives.

The right to professional absence and its compensation also handicaps a significant proportion of elected representatives who hold both a public

9. Belloubet-Frier, Nicole. «*Vers un modèle européen d'administration locale ?*», *Revue française d'administration publique*, vol. 121-122, n° 1, 2007, pp. 5-18.418418

10. *Charte Européenne de l'Autonomie Locale*, Série des traités européens n° 122, Conseil de l'Europe, Strasbourg, 15.X.1985.

office and a salaried job. In view of these findings, which are not very favourable overall, it is possible to propose prospects for the recognition of training for local elected representatives on a European scale. Firstly, the subject of training for local elected representatives could easily be taken up within the framework of the European Charter of Local Self-Government by the European Union as a project to strengthen convergence between territories and the European identity.

Given the increase in international and European issues and the movement to bring the different national models of administration closer together⁹, the idea of training for local elected representatives, defined at supranational level, which would articulate the consideration of local particularities with European ambitions, is relevant.

This would undoubtedly require the existence of a central structure, such as the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR), but with national branches supported by national structures, staffed by national agents whose role would be to “hybridize” training between local realities and community issues, thus enabling European standards to be disseminated at local level.

Secondly, free from national inertia, the development of training at European level could, by way of directives, propose an overcoming of the current contradictions of the democracies previously expressed. By proposing a clear definition of what constitutes training for elected representatives, by protecting the market through a priori control of training organisations other than those managed at European level, by establishing financial compensation and a right of absence for elected employees, the European Union could play an important role in the fight against the social closure of political arenas, and build bridges to encourage a European politicisation of the Union's citizens, making it possible to attenuate the crisis of representativeness as well as abstention.

In the meantime, the role of bodies such as the Local Autonomy Observatory (OLA) is crucial. Objective knowledge and data on the national and local situations are essential elements in order to envisage such a convergence between such diverse national situations. The collection of data must therefore continue, and be encouraged, to enable Europe to better perceive itself and to continue to build itself through promising and structuring projects.

In conclusion, local self-government is defined as “*the right and effective capacity of communities to regulate and manage, within the framework of the law, under their own responsibility and for the benefit of their populations, a significant part of public affairs*”.¹⁰ The right to training for local elected representatives falls fully within this definition.

THE TRAINING OF PUBLIC OFFICIALS AND ELECTED LOCAL OFFICIALS IN EUROPE

*Different perspectives
from 33 European states*

