

*Ralph B. Kimbrough • Michael Y. Nunnery*

# EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

2nd  
Edition

**AN INTRODUCTION**

SECOND EDITION

# Administration

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# Preface

**A**LTHOUGH the first edition of *Educational Administration: An Introduction* was well received as a beginning textbook in the field, professors and students have suggested changes that we believe will greatly improve its utility in preparation programs. These have been incorporated in this edition. Through reorganization of the sections, the student may read an overview of educational administration and an extensive discussion of how educational functions are organized before the more abstract conceptual foundations of administration are presented. Numerous professors using the book felt that this arrangement would help students to comprehend better and make application of the material included in the part concerning the conceptual milieu of the educational administrator. Thus material in the first edition about job perspectives and educational administration as a profession has been reorganized as Chapter 1. This is followed by a rewritten discussion of the tasks of educational administration and then by Part II, which explains how formal educational activities are organized at the federal, state, and local levels. The result is a textbook that is appropriate for use with a wider range of graduate students.

In our first edition we noted the almost universal agreement among professors that one of the principal attributes of a profession is a systematic body of theory that people must learn in college before they are licensed to practice. Thus we incorporated in the textbook, along with the knowledge about administration, a rather extensive discussion of the conceptual bases of the profession. This has been strengthened and incorporated as Part III. In addition to some reorganization and extensive rewriting of these chapters, the chapter on ethics of educational administration was moved to this part. Also, the discussion about the application of management theories to educational administration is included as a part of each chapter in which the theories are discussed. This is intended to improve the understandability and the conceptual application of the theories.

The focus of the final part of the book is on the socioeconomic and political forces that influence how education is organized and administered. The internal arrangement of the first edition has been maintained; however, the material has been updated.

Those using the textbook will find that, although some of the material is reorganized and all chapters are brought up to date, we have not deleted any of the subject matter used in the first edition. Thus we believe we have retained those qualitative aspects included in the first edition and improved the readability and usefulness of the textbook.

In summary, Part I provides an overview of professional development, career patterns, professional opportunities, educational preparation, and the basic tasks of educational administration. How education is organized and administered, including discussion of some basic issues, is contained in the four chapters included as Part II. Part III is a rather comprehensive discussion of the basic concepts of educational administration, including basic management theories, the cultural perspectives of formal education, administrative functions or processes, values, and administrative ethics. Part IV describes the social and political forces that influence educational administration, including the collective-bargaining process.

Finally, readers will note more reference to the administration of colleges and universities in this edition than was included in the first edition. This is intended to improve the usefulness of the textbook for those colleges in which the preparation programs for higher education administration and the administration of K-12 schools are integrated into one department. Moreover, we believe that educational administration is becoming an increasingly generalized function in which administrators of K-12 schools should understand higher education administration, and higher education administrators need greater knowledge and understanding of school administration. From this beginning, and depending on the reception of this idea by profes-

sors and students, future editions may offer greater integrated discussion of all levels of educational administration.

R. B. K.  
M. Y. N.

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# PART ONE

## An Overview of Educational Administration

**P**ERSONS pondering a career choice are understandably interested in the opportunities that particular professions may offer them for personal advancement. But what a profession offers may depend upon the personal contributions one is willing and able to make to it. Sir Francis Bacon once observed, "I hold every man a debtor to his profession." Success may be greatly determined by how effectively one pays these debts in improving the profession.

Each year many persons prepare to enter the practice of educational administration. Their success depends upon many factors, such as professional training, ability, professional opportunities, career planning, and so on. Persons planning to enter educational administration should make careful plans and think seriously about their personal responsibilities to the profession, such as being well prepared, working toward improving the profession, and understanding the tasks of educational administration.

In Chapter 1 the discussion centers upon the importance of selecting a career and opportunities in

*educational administration. Persons will seldom be successful if they do not enjoy their work. Another aspect of professional success is educational preparation, which is also discussed here. An overview discussion of the tasks of educational administration is presented in Chapter 2. These tasks must be accomplished if the mission of an educational organization is to be achieved. Here the prospective educational leader can gain comprehension of the complex work that educational administration entails.*

# 1

## **Educational Administration: A Perspective on Development, Preparation, and Opportunities**

**T**HIS chapter and the one following are based on the assumption that many readers have made a tentative choice of educational administration as a career or are considering such a choice and that relevant information is important in the choice process. The process is complex and one can choose from a plethora of theories related to career choice and development.<sup>1</sup> The theories appear to have several common elements, including the significance of information about career opportunities and about oneself as a basis for more intelligent career choices. Therefore, we urge that an effort be made to understand the status of educational administration as a field of work, the nature of the preparation required to enter the field, the available opportunities, and the tasks associated with various administrative positions. With such information, an assessment should be made of personal assets, liabilities, desires, and circumstances. The result should be a more rational decision about a career in educational administration. If the choice is to enter the field, a career plan should be implemented that gives attention to the type and level of prepa-

<sup>1</sup>For those interested in a review of the several prevailing theories of career choice and development, see: Samuel H. Osipow, *Theories of Career Development*, 2nd ed. (New York: Appleton, 1973).

ration needed, timing of the preparation in relation to experience, types of experience, and length of such experience.

## Educational Administration As an Evolving Profession

In comparison to such professions as law, medicine, and theology and the fields of business, hospital, and public administration, educational administration is a relatively new field of study. As schooling became separated from the home and church, local communities "provided what minor finance was necessary, and elected a teacher, usually through a special committee of which the clergyman was a member."<sup>2</sup> This practice, which began in Massachusetts, was the basis for what was to continue for many years—direct management of public schools by lay persons. Only as the need for more schooling and more complex arrangements arose (e.g., multiteacher schools, high schools, partial state financing of schools, the creation of local school districts) was there a felt need to employ "school administrators."

The first state school superintendent was appointed in New York in 1812, as Brubacher observed, "largely out of the need to have someone administer the state common school fund."<sup>3</sup> The first school district superintendencies were created in the cities, with Buffalo and Louisville appointing superintendents in 1837 and Providence and St. Louis in 1839.<sup>4</sup> At the local school level, the "head" or "principal" teacher position emerged in the 1830s and 1840s with cities, such as Cincinnati and Detroit, appointing principal teachers for each of their "schoolhouses." The role of the principal teacher essentially was to handle clerical chores and look after the school building, in addition to his or her teaching duties. By 1870, in some large cities (e.g., Cincinnati, New York) the principal teacher had evolved into a full-time "supervising principal."<sup>5</sup>

By the late 1800s, school administrator positions were firmly established in the urban areas of the nation. However, in the small towns and rural areas, where one- and two-room schools remained the norm for several decades, full-time school administrator positions continued to evolve throughout much of the first half of this century. Thus it seems appropriate to characterize educational administration as an "evolving profession."

<sup>2</sup> Arthur B. Moehlman, *School Administration* (Boston: Houghton, 1940), p. 233.

<sup>3</sup> John S. Brubacher, *A History of the Problems of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947), p. 576.

<sup>4</sup> Moehlman, *op. cit.*, pp. 241–242.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 237–238.

### Significant Influences for Professionalization

The term *profession* is used loosely by the members of many occupational groups. On this point Goode stated, "An inclusive list of the occupations whose claims to professional status have been announced very likely would total as many as one hundred."<sup>6</sup> The U.S. Census Bureau lists numerous occupational pursuits as professions (e.g., accountant, architect, artist, attorney, clergyman, college professor, dentist, engineer, journalist, judge, librarian, natural scientist, optometrist, pharmacist, physician, social worker, teacher). Etzioni used the term *semiprofessions* in reference to many of these occupational pursuits.<sup>7</sup>

From their review of the development of professions, Carr-Saunders and Wilson concluded, "there can be no doubt that with the progress of science and the complexity of social organization, new intellectual techniques will evolve round which new professions will grow up."<sup>8</sup> Thus in their view there is progress in the growth of professionalism. How to achieve high professional status, however, is very complex. Goode saw the process as a competition among occupational groups for money, power, and prestige.<sup>9</sup> He pointed to the fact that raising the educational standards in medicine during the 1910-1920 decade "required the expenditure of power, money, and friendship."<sup>10</sup> Yet by virtue of their characteristics and status, many occupational groups may never achieve professional status. There are important traditions involved as well as great differences in the complexity of occupations.

Some writers have defined the sequential steps involved in the emergence of professions. Caplow identified four steps as follows: (1) establish a professional association with criteria for membership to keep out those unqualified; (2) change the name of the occupation to sever association with previous occupation; (3) develop and promulgate a code of ethics; and (4) prolong political agitation.<sup>11</sup> Wilensky offered eight steps to professionalization: (1) full-time pursuit of professional status; (2) university training established; (3) an organized national association; (4) redefinition of the work of the occupa-

<sup>6</sup>William J. Goode, "The Theoretical Limits of Professionalization," in Amitai Etzioni (ed.), *The Semi-Professions and Their Organization* (New York: The Free Press, 1969), p. 276.

<sup>7</sup>In Etzioni, *ibid.*

<sup>8</sup>Alexander M. Carr-Saunders and Paul A. Wilson, "The Emergence of Professions" in Sigmund Nosow and William H. Form (eds.), *Man, Work, and Society* (New York: Basic Books, 1962), p. 206.

<sup>9</sup>Goode, *op. cit.*, p. 267.

<sup>10</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 268.

<sup>11</sup>Theodore Caplow, *The Sociology of Work* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954), pp. 139-140.

tion; (5) internal conflict between the old-guard leaders and new persons desiring to upgrade the occupation; (6) competition with closely allied occupations; (7) political agitation to gain legal protection; and (8) adoption of a code of ethics.<sup>12</sup>

Goode objected to defining the rise of professions through sequential steps. He expressed the view that, "Most of these social processes are going on simultaneously, so that it is difficult to state whether one actually began before another."<sup>13</sup> He felt, for example, that a code of ethics may be written very early.

Goode amplified the condition observed by others concerning the professional-client relationship in professions such as medicine, law, and theology. This is the need for the professional to have knowledge of private information about the client that is potentially dangerous to the client.<sup>14</sup> Goode contended that this access to the privacy of individuals heightens the need for the profession to enforce a code of ethics to protect its members thus producing cohesion within the profession. Moreover, there is the need for autonomy of the profession to protect the professional-client relationship. This is well-established in the legal and medical professions.<sup>15</sup>

As the development of educational administration is reviewed, many of the professionalization processes identified have obviously been given attention. As educational administration became a full-time activity, preparation programs were being established in some of the large universities, and by the onset of World War II these programs were moving toward maturity. Yet the number of programs and underlying knowledge base that focused on scientific management concepts (see Chapter 8) was inadequate. (We make no distinction between *administration* and *management*. Administration has often been used in connection with governmental and other nonprofit organizations and management with profit-making organizations; yet both have come to be defined essentially in terms of the coordination and integration of people and material to accomplish objectives.) Following World War II there was a significant expansion in the number of preparation programs, yet the concern for their quality remained. Under the leadership of some veteran practitioners, especially large-city superintendents, and some persons associated with educational administration degree programs, efforts were made to deal with some of the preparation program concerns and other problems seen as critical in developing a profession of educational administration. The principal mechanism used was organizational activity.

<sup>12</sup> Harold Wilensky, "The Professionalization of Everyone," *American Journal of Sociology*, 70 (September 1964), 142-146.

<sup>13</sup> Goode, *op. cit.*, p. 275.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 297.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 297-304.

In the forefront was the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), whose major concern was the superintendency and whose leadership during the late 1940s demonstrated much interest in the improvement of preparation programs. Also significant was the first national meeting of professors of educational administration held at Endicott, New York, in 1947. The result was the formation of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA), which has since met annually. This event was significant because, for the first time, college professors were talking to each other on a national basis, and fresh concepts were being developed about the training of educational administrators.

During this same period important conversations were also being held among leaders of the AASA, the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, and persons associated with the academic preparation of educational administrators. Moore described the activities that eventually led to the development of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation-supported Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA).<sup>16</sup> In his description of the discussions concerning the best way to proceed in improving the professional status of the field, Moore included some points that the student of educational administration today may well ponder. Some of the leaders thought that what would best accomplish professionalization in the field would be a strategy consistent with the Flexner Report. Flexner's analysis of the poor state of affairs in the schools preparing physicians was instrumental in upgrading the professional status of that field.<sup>17</sup> The W. K. Kellogg Foundation CPEA centers were visualized by many of the leaders in educational administration as a means of reaching the same objectives as those achieved in the movement headed by Flexner.

As a result of five regional conferences during 1948 and 1949, the W. K. Kellogg Foundation funded the CPEA with eight regional centers. The centers were funded initially as five-year programs, and funding was continued for some programs at reduced amounts for four more years. These regional programs provided stimulation for research and development of training programs and influenced knowledge development in the field. The programs provided an opportunity for professors, practitioners, and advanced-level graduate students to examine the conditions under which school administrators practice and the programs that should be developed to prepare persons for practice.

The AASA created the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration in 1955 to seek improvement of the preparation and

<sup>16</sup>Hollis A. Moore, Jr., *Studies in School Administration* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1957).

<sup>17</sup>Abraham Flexner, *Medical Education in the United States and Canada*, Bulletin No. 4 (New York: Carnegie Foundation, 1910).

in-service assistance of administrators. The committee also worked with those associated with CPEA centers and provided advice and assistance in these programs. The interest of AASA in the in-service needs of educational administrators has continued. Its numerous publications and conferences provide the opportunities for practitioners to keep abreast of knowledge developments in the field. In 1968, AASA brought into existence the National Academy for School Executives, which serves the continuing education needs of practitioners through the many programs it sponsors each year at various locations around the nation.

In 1956 the leaders in the CPEA center at Teachers College, Columbia University, proposed the organization of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA). This proposed organization was to include in its membership the universities with larger programs in educational administration. The functions envisioned for the UCEA were (1) to seek improvement in programs for the preparation of school administrators, (2) to stimulate research and knowledge development, and (3) to provide for dissemination of ideas and practices. The work of the UCEA in program development has been noteworthy. Of particular merit has been the development of instructional materials. The UCEA became, for example, the primary producer and distribution agent for simulation materials for programs in educational administration. Through its research seminars, other conference activities, and its several journals, the UCEA has been active in knowledge development and its use in professional development. In the late 1970s, the UCEA created a university-school system partnership in a further effort to enhance linkages with practitioners in the dissemination of knowledge in educational administration.

The foregoing account of organizations and their efforts at professionalizing the field is by no means exhaustive. For example, the National Association of Secondary School Principals and National Elementary Principals Association have long maintained interests in the development of the principalship; AASA has developed a code of ethics for school administrators; and the federal government, through its financing of research and providing fellowships for those desiring to be educational administrators (e.g., Education Professions Development Act of 1967), has made a contribution to the professionalization of the field.

From the end of World War II through the 1970s there were many activities that were intended to enhance the professional status of the field, yet there were some counteractive forces. For the most part those interested in higher professional status did not have a political strategy. Professional maturity comes through the exercise of political influence to legitimize the monopolistic rights of the profession to con-



trol those who enter and to provide criminal prosecution for the "quacks" who attempt to practice without qualification. Other countervailing problems also existed. Even though the efforts of AASA to establish higher standards were laudable, there were serious divisions among administrative groups, which worked against cohesiveness and solidarity of effort.

### Professional Attributes and Educational Administration

The body of literature about the attributes of a profession is considerable.<sup>18</sup> With the assistance of his students, Greenwood reviewed available sociological literature concerning these attributes and distilled them into five categories. According to Greenwood, "all professions seem to possess: (1) systematic theory, (2) authority, (3) community sanction, (4) ethical codes, and (5) culture."<sup>19</sup> Let us examine these attributes in terms of their meaning for educational administration.

**Systematic Body of Theory.** According to Greenwood, one differentiating factor in professions is that the "skills that characterize a profession flow from and are supported by a fund of knowledge that has been organized into an internally consistent system, called a *body of theory*."<sup>20</sup> Amplifying this point Greenwood observed, "And so treatises are written on legal theory, music theory, social work theory, the theory of the drama, and so on; but no books appear on the theory of punch-pressing or pipe-fitting or bricklaying."<sup>21</sup> The abstract nature of this theory requires a formal educational program to gain the conceptual knowledge as a basis for task performance or skill development. According to Greenwood, this suggests a program of preparation involving both intellectual achievement (learning the theory) and apprenticeship (learning the skills of the profession). (The nature and functions of theory are detailed in Chapter 8.)

To what extent has a body of theory been developed and disseminated through formal educational programs in educational administration? From the previous discussion on significant influences for professionalization there obviously has been much effort in this area. Numerous theories have been developed that borrow heavily from relevant basic disciplines and other fields of administration. However,

<sup>18</sup> Illustrative literature includes the following: Alexander M. Carr-Saunders and Paul A. Wilson, *The Professions* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1933); Everett C. Hughes, *Men and Their Work* (New York: The Free Press, 1958); John A. Jackson (ed.), *Professions and Professionalization* (London: Cambridge University Press, 1970); Philip Elliott, *The Sociology of Professions* (New York: Herder, 1972).

<sup>19</sup> Ernest Greenwood, "Attributes of a Profession," in Nosow and Form, op. cit., p. 207.

<sup>20</sup> Ibid., p. 208.

<sup>21</sup> Ibid.