THIRD EDITION

Educational Administration

AN INTRODUCTION

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Preface

This third edition of *Educational Administration: An Introduction* continues our efforts to improve the book's utility for beginning courses in educational administration. Suggestions by professors and students have been incorporated in this revision, and we believe that the result is a practical and informative overview of educational administration as a field of study and practice. This text was strengthened by a change in the chapter format, the addition of new information, and the updating of all chapters.

We are pleased to include in this edition an improved discussion on administrative ethics, which is based on progress in this field since the publication of the second edition. Also included are fuller discussions of curriculum, educational finance, and changes in the roles that the states and federal government have played in administering programs. The discussions of administrative theory, structural arrangements, and the politics of education have been strengthened through the addition of relevant material and by the updating of the research reported since the second edition. The interrelationship of theory and practice is emphasized throughout.

Part I now contains three chapters. They provide an introductory discussion of educational administration. Much of Part II, which is devoted to formal organizational arrangements, has been rewritten and the latest information included.

Beginning with the first edition, we noted the almost universal agreement among professors that one of the principal attributes of a

profession of educational administration is a systematic body of theoretical knowledge that should be learned in college before one is licensed to practice. This edition provides students with a thorough introduction to the traditional and currently discussed concepts, knowledge, and practice of educational administration. Included in our discussion is the application of management concepts to practice and the relationship of practice and theory.

Part I reviews the development and current status, the essential tasks, and the cultural and social background of educational administration. Part II provides students with a full discussion of how education is administered through federal, state, and local governments, including reviews of court decisions, laws, and structural arrangements at these levels of governance. Part III discusses the application of management theories and key administrative concepts, and it demonstrates how practice and theory are interrelated. The reader will find a new discussion of administrative ethics and those key administrative functions upon which successful leadership depends. Part IV analyzes the politics of education. It contains a comprehensive discussion of the political process in the development of educational policy and ends with a chapter detailing the specific knowledge needed in collective bargaining.

Beginning with the second edition and continuing with this edition, we have included discussions of the organization and administration of colleges and universities. The basic functions of educational administration are becoming increasingly generalized; therefore, administrators of the public schools should have some understanding of how higher education programs are administered.

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PART I

An Overview of Educational Administration

Persons 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 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, understanding the tasks of educational administration, and functioning effectively within the cultural and social environment.

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. Schools and colleges are administered in an environment shaped by institutionalized norms, roles, and mores, as well as by socioeconomic forces. This is the subject of Chapter 3.

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

This 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.[1] 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 preparation needed, timing of the preparation in relation to experience, types of experience, and length of such experience.

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[1] For those interested in a review of the several prevailing theories of career choice and development, see Samuel H. Osipow, *Theories of Career Development*, 3rd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1983).

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. Schooling in America during the 1600s, in keeping with English and European traditions, was largely a parental or church prerogative. 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."[2] 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., multi-teacher schools, high schools, partial state financing of schools, the creation of local school districts) was there a felt need to employ "school administrators." As the reformers of the time argued,

> running a school system of hundreds of teachers and thousands of pupils required full-time professional administrators to deal with the public boards of education on one side and with the teachers on the other. This meant principals in the schools and a superintendent (with staff) at the head—in other words, a professional bureaucracy.[3]

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."[4] 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.[5] 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."[6]

By the late 1800s, school administrator positions were firmly

[2] Arthur B. Moehlman, *School Administration* (Boston: Houghton, 1940), p. 233.
[3] R. Freeman Butts, *Public Education in the United States: From Revolution to Reform* (New York: Holt, 1978), p. 98.
[4] John S. Brubacher, *A History of the Problems of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947), p. 576.
[5] Moehlman, op. cit. pp. 241–242.
[6] Ibid., pp. 237–238.

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."

Significant Influences for Professionalization

The term *profession* is used loosely by the members of many occupational groups. 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."[7] 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.[8]

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."[9] Thus in their view occupational groups may grow toward 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.[10] He noted that raising the educational standards in medicine during the 1910–1920 decade "required the expenditure of power, money, and friendship."[11] 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: (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.[12] Wilensky offered eight

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

[8] In Etzioni, ibid.

[9] 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.

[10] Goode, op. cit., p. 267.

[11] Ibid., p. 268.

[12] Theodore Caplow, *The Sociology of Work* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954), pp. 139–140.

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 occupation, (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.[13]

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."[14] 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.[15] 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 group. Moreover, there is the need for autonomy to protect the professional-client relationship. This is well established in the legal and medical professions.[16]

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) were inadequate. (We make no distinction between *administration* and *management*. The former has often been used with governmental and other nonprofit organizations and management with profit-making organizations; yet both words 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

[13] Harold Wilensky, "The Professionalization of Everyone," *American Journal of Sociology,* 70 (September 1964), 142–146.
[14] Goode, op. cit., p. 275.
[15] Ibid., p. 297.
[16] Ibid., pp. 297–304.

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.

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 discussions 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).[17] In his description of the discussions concerning the best way to proceed in improving the professional status of the field, Moore reported that some thought that it would be best to follow 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.[18]) The W. K. Kellogg Foundation CPEA centers were seen 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 an opportunity for professors, practitioners, and advanced-level graduate students to examine the conditions under which school administrators practiced. As a result, both the development of training programs and the knowledge base of the field were enhanced.

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

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[17] Hollis A. Moore, Jr., *Studies in School Administration* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1957).

[18] 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 CEPA´ centers and provided advice and assistance to these programs. In 1968, the AASA established the National Academy for School Executives, which continues to serve the in-service education needs of practitioners through the many programs it sponsors each year at various locations around the nation. Additionally, each year the AASA sponsors an annual conference and publishes a wide variety of reports and monographs intended for the further professional development of the field and the individual practitioner.

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. 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. In 1985 it created the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration to examine preparation programs, certification, and continuing education of educational administrators.

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 the National Elementary Principals Association have long maintained interests in the development of the principalship; the AASA has developed a code of ethics for school administrators; and the federal government, through its financing of research and its provision of fellowships for those desiring to be educational administrators (e.g., Education Professions Development Act of 1967), has made contributions to the professionalization of the field.

Since the end of the World War II, there have been many activities intended to enhance the professional status of educational administration, yet there have been some counteractive forces. For the most part, those interested in higher professional status have not had the political influence to legitimize the monopolistic rights of the profession to control those who enter and to provide criminal prosecution for those who attempt to practice without qualification. Also, even though

the efforts of the AASA to establish higher standards have been laudable, there has been division among administrative groups, which has worked against cohesiveness and solidarity of effort.

Professional Attributes and Educational Administration

The body of literature about the attributes of a profession is considerable.[19] 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."[20]

Systematic Body of Theory.   According to Greenwood, "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*."[21] 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."[22] The abstract nature of this theory requires a formal educational program to gain the conceptual knowledge needed 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, the utility of many of the theories is questionable, and many writers have doubts about whether the theories constitute a *systematized* body of conceptual knowledge. (As discussed in Chapter 10, there is the possibility that "systems theory" might serve as a systemizing frame-

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[19] 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: 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); Robert Dingwall and Philip Lewis, *The Sociology of the Professions* (New York: St. Martin's, 1983).

[20] Ernest Greenwood, "Attributes of a Profession," in Nosow and Form, op. cit., p. 207.

[21] Ibid., p. 208.

[22] Ibid.

work.) Furthermore, there are wide variations among the preparation programs for educational administrators in the conceptual knowledge taught and how it is related to practice by means of clinical experiences.

Professional Authority.   In explaining professional authority, Greenwood suggested the difference between customers and clients. Nonprofessional occupations have customers. In this relationship the customers are the authorities about the services desired. However, in the professional-client relationship, the professional is the authority for what the client needs relative to the professional's area of specialization.

The client derives a sense of security from the professional's assumption of authority. It is this authoritative air that is the principal source of the client's faith that the relationship he or she is about to enter contains the potential for meeting his or her needs.[23]

Numerous writers have observed that achieving this relationship presents problems for educational administrators, particularly of public schools, because the concept runs counter to the idea that educational policies (or what the clients need) should be determined through democratic participation. Superintendents are expected to recommend or suggest policies to the board of education. Should the community and the board not have enough confidence to follow any of the suggestions of the superintendent, the relationship is soon severed either through the purchase of or nonrenewal of contract.

There are individuals who achieve an authoritative relationship with a board of education and the community. They are often referred to as "the true professionals"; their superior achievements in influencing communities in the adoption of educational policies consistent with the norms of their admirers have won them a special place. The important question is whether the influence of the professional can be generalized.

Sanction of the Community.   Sanction of the community relates to the formal or informal control of a profession over its training centers, licensure, confidentiality of client-professional relationships, and powers to police the profession. As Greenwood noted, "By granting or withholding accreditation, a profession can, ideally, regulate its schools as to their number, location, curriculum content, and caliber of instruction."[24] Admission to practice is controlled by the profession through required graduation from an accredited school and through a screening process controlled by the profession.

Educational leaders have long recognized that they were weak

[23] Ibid., p. 210.
[24] Ibid., p. 211.