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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN:
A CONTRAST IN POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

by

RUTH WOOLSEY FLORES

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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submitted by Ruth Flores in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of MASTER OF ARTS.

...... A. K. Davis ......

Supervisor

....

....

Date .13. October, 1983.

To the memory of my

politically minded father,

Jonathan Hillard Woolsey, a

Saskatchewan Farmer.

ABSTRACT

This study has been an attempt to analyze the differences which may account for the astounding differential political participation in two similar provinces -- Alberta and Saskatchewan.

One of the key differences which would seem to have explanatory value is the disparate political histories of the two provinces. Although they both embraced populism, it was a different brand in each province -- Alberta going right and Saskatchewan to the left. This may have been one of the first of the divergencies, but a more important one is the fact of Alberta opting for "direct" participation in government and Saskatchewan farmers choosing "indirect" or partisan politics. This choice is the accident in history which was to have such far-reaching effects as the near extinction of opposition of a major party in Alberta which in turn led to monopoly government and hence to apathy amongst the populace. In Saskatchewan the choice for partisan politics led to an active manipulation of political parties necessitating voting participation. These and other things discussed in the text lead me to conclude that the diverse political evolutions in Saskatchewan and Alberta are important factors in determining the political participation in the respective provinces.

Our treatment of the economic factors deals with differences experienced in the depression -- the co-operatives, natural resources, urbanization, the distribution of the labour force, and the gross domestic products. It is shown that there is a variance between Alberta and Saskatchewan in all of these categories. If it can be assumed that economic prosperity is related to political participation, as it seems

air to assume they are, then it is not surprising that Saskatchewan's voter turnout has been consistently higher than Alberta's.

The ethnicity factor has proven to be nebulous -- for this study, at least. More elaborate, empirically oriented studies are needed to clarify this dimension. It has been shown that there are different patterns of voting among the various ethnic groups but this does not necessarily explain the differential voting habits of the two populations given the heterogenous nature of the ethnic composition of <u>both</u> provinces.

It has been shown that there is a disparity in the levels of political participation in Alberta and Saskatchewan. Voter turnouts and membership is opinion-dispensing organizations have been shown to be quite different. In addition informal inquiries have revealed that many Saskatchewan people who have migrated to Alberta feel frustrated because not many Albertans seem interested in political discussions. There must be a reason for this.

This inquiry has led me to believe that the political history and culture of each of the two provinces, along with the economic base have had a powerful influence on the political participation of the populations of Alberta and Saskatchewan.

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A special debt is owed to my husband, Hector, who would not let me quit when the task seemed insurmountable.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION:

As a long time r_sident of both Alberta and `askatchewan I have

always been puz: ed by the different levels of political participation in

these two roughly simila: provinces. By "political participation" I mean:

(a) amount of paraticipation in party politics and other

opinion-dispensing groups; (b) percentage of voter turn-out; and (c) a.

demonstrated ability to vote pragmatically (ie. to be aware of the

political issuues, the stance of the various candidates and thier

respective parties -- both provincially and federally).

That there is a difference in the political participation of

Saskatchewan and Alberta, cannot be doubted. A comparison of voter

turn-out in Alberta and Saskatchewan provincial elections between 1932 and

1971 shows that Saskatchewan consistently has from 10 to 20 percentage

points higher turn-out than Alberta. As a matter of fact, the

Saskatchewan voter turn-out is consistently the highest in all of Canada

(Martin Robin, 1972). Furthermore, "the proportion of people in

Saskatchewan who are party activists or opinion leaders...was greater than

the proportion in any other province" (Ibid, p. 313). Courtney and Smith

sum it up nicely when they say that "by virtue of political participation

and involvement, Saskatchewan voters over the years have become aware of

various issues, policies, candidates, and parties, as well as their

alternantives" (Ibid).

Compare the latter point to the findings of Gurbachan S. Paul and

Carlo Caldarola in a study of "Voting in Edmonton" (1979) in which they

report a "high percentage (about 40 percent) of "no response/don't know"

or of "total distrust of all present political parties" (Caldarola, p. 324).

According to these researchers, this indicates "widely spread political apathy among the people" (Ibid). Political apathy would probably preclude both knowledge of and participation in political affairs. As for the discrepancy in voter turn-out between the two provinces, the difference in the "means" of voter turn-out for the years of 1934 - 1971 (Saskatchewan 83% and Alberta 57%) (Carlo Caldarola, 1979) is a good indicator of the different levels of political participation.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

I have established the fact that there is a difference in political participation between Alberta and Saskatchewan. The problem now is: Why is Saskatchewan more politically active than Alberta? On the surface, these provinces seem very much alike. They have a common boundary; their economies have until recently, been largely based upon agriculture. Historically, they have experienced a similar political and social milieu.

Saskatchewan and Alberta have always served as a "hinterland" to central Canada's "metropolis" (Davis, 1971) with all of the political and economic ramifications entailed in such a relationship. Alberta and Saskatchewan were both part of the Northwest Territories at the time of confederation and as such played a major part in John A. Macdonald's National Policy. They were to be the recipients of a heavy influlx of immigrants from Europe. These homesteaders were to produce staple products for the provinces to the east and in turn become willing consumers of manufactured goods from Central Canada. This plan seems to have been followed quite diligently to the point of creating a basic alienation (shared to this day) of the western provinces.

Saskatchewan and Alberta both became provinces in the same year, (1905) but neither received jurisdiction over their natural resources until 1931. This inferior position in confederation, which was resented by Alberta and Saskatchewan has since turned up again with Ottawa's attempt to control their oil.

These similarities in structure and experience make the two provinces suitable for comparison and it is within this context that I plan to examine the differences in Alberta and Saskatchewan: which may account for the disparities in levels of political participation. There are three areas which I would like to examine. The first of these areas is the "economic base" of each province. Although we have stated that the agricultural base of each province provides a similar economic background, upon closer examination it can be seen that there are important differences in this one dimension of economic base.

Saskatchewan (for the period 1910-50) had essentially a one-crop economy -- wheat. Alberta, on the other hand, had a more diversified agricultural base, such as mixed farming and ranching. When the drought occurred during the "hungry thirties" Alberta farmers were in a better position to deal with it. Not only did they have irrigation in southern Alberta but the use of this arid area was largely for ranching. This enabled the rancher to withstand the drought period by reducing the number of cattle to the acre. Alberta's share of the infamous Palliser Triangle -- an arid area in the southwestern part of Saskatchewan and the south-east corner of Alberta -- is much smaller than Saskatchewan's. Relatively then, Saskatchewan experienced more deprivation than did Alberta during the thirties.

With the discovery of oil in the Turner Valley in 1936 and the 1948 Leduc oil strike. Alberta surged ahead of Saskatchewan in terms of resource-related industries, such as the servicing, processing and extraction industries. During this time Saskatchewan's economy remained essentially agricultural and it wasn't until the late 1950's and 1960's when the potash industry began to flourish that the economic disparities between Alberta and Saskatchewan began to lessen.

It is apparent from the above discussion that there are differences in the economic bases of Alberta and Saskatchewan, despite certain general similarities. From the level of diversification in agriculture to the evolution of resource related industrialization in the two provinces, the differences in the economic category would seem to be significant.

The economic aspects, then, are worth investigating to discover whether they contribute to the respective disparities in political participation.

A second important difference between Alberta and Saskatchewan is their "political climates". The latter term refers to the well-documented and studied contrasting left-wing/right-wing leanings of the two provinces (from the 1930's on). Both provinces have had similar political structures and experiential patterns both before and after the attaining of provincehood in 1905. But with the rise of the protest parties in the early thirties, differences began to emerge -- Saskatchewan going left and Alberta eventually going right. Whether this was an accident in history (Johnson, 1978) or a result of economic factors, charismatic leadership, or many of the other ideas contained in the literature (Lipset, 1950; McPherson, 1962; Smith, 1969; etc.) is a moot point. The phenomenon that

I am investigating in this study is the surprising contrast in levels of political participation in the Saskatchewan and Alberta. The contrast in their political climates (left-wing/right-wing populism) are of interest only in as much as each contributes to the amount of political participation in each of the provinces.

In my initial research into this phenomenon, I have found that many of the variables which I have put forward as possible linkages in the chain leading to the differing levels of political participation in the two provinces have also been suggested (in the literature) as the reasons behind Saskatchewan going "left" and Alberta going "right" within the general frame of populism. Be this as it may, I intend to show that the variables I am suggesting are also correlated with differential levels of political participation in Saskatchewan and Alberta.

It is apparent that there is a difference in the political climates of these two provinces. Alberta has consistently elected conservative governments since 1940, usually with a strong majority. In fact, there has been a pattern of electing such strong majorities as to render the oppositions to be almost meaningless. There is no doubt that charismatic leadership has played a part in this. It started with Aberhart and Manning and is still apparent in the electoral appeal of the Conservative leader, Peter Lougheed. Aberhart's ascendency was indeed charismatic and seemed powerful enough to inspire a utopian dream amongst the Alberta populace. Manning followed in Aberhart's footsteps but was pale by contrast even though he did retain a strong following while continuing in the religious trend of his predecessor.

According to Caldarola and Paul (1979) the decline of the Socred's popularity was primarily due to Strom's lack of charismatic leadership.

On the other hand Saskatchewan voters have for many years favoured parties
more to the left with Liberal and, more significantly C.C.F. being
elected. These people seem to vote more pragmatically and, with the
possible exception of Tommy Douglas, seem little affected by charismatic
leadership. Furthermore, there has usually been a viable opposition in
the Saskatchewan legislature. The right-wing/left-wing dichotomy is the
most obvious difference in the political climates. But the phenomena of
support for charisatic leadership, strong majority government, and the
length of tenure of a particular party in Alberta is also in direct
contrast to the pragmatic voting and viable opposition by the Saskatchewan
electorate.

To summarize the discussion of the political climate, it can be said
that there is (and has been since the early 1930's) a clear difference in
the political climates of these two provinces. The very fact that
Saskatchewan has been left-wing and Alberta right-wing, both within the
framework of capitalism, makes a different political climate in which
people were living and in which they were deciding to participate or not
to participate in policies. While "political climate" is not to be
confused with "political participation", the former can certainly be
viewed as being a contributing factor in the evolution of the latter
phenomenon in the respective provinces.

There is evidence in the literature that ethnic and religious
enclaves may exhibit differing political participation from that of the
larger community. But this evidence is inconclusive and is related more
by inference than by actual evidence. The writers seem to be referring
more to interest in the community or the province as a whole. In writing
of ethnic enclaves in Alberta Caldarola (1979) claims that settlement of

immigrants into ethnic enclaves "militated against an integration of interests in the province as a whole". Lipset (1950), in discussing the agrarian social movement in Saskatchewan, declares it has hampered by the presence of ethnic enclaves, which in many cases were also tightly integrated within themselves and very loosely integrated with the larger society. The cleavages, according to Lipset (1950), obstructed or delayed the process of class consciousness in Saskatchewan. These statements are possibly related to but not necessarily referring to political particpation.

On the other hand, W.L. Morton (1955) states that the people who really developed Western Canada were overwhelmingly of Canadian birth and ancestry and that the West was particularly favourable to the development of Utopian ideas which were diffused throughout the English-speaking world.

So it can be seen that there is corroborating and sometimes conflicting evidence regarding the development of political participation in the two provinces. However, the thread that runs through these opinions and reports is that ethnicity and religion/ethnicity may possibly be linked levels of political participation. However, the evidence is inconclusive.

The discussion up to this point has focussed on establishing the existence of a disparity in levels of political participation in Alberta and Saskatchewan; and in examining three elements which could be affecting the latter.

The purpose of this study is to explore w.   effect, if any, economic patterns, political patterns, religious and ethnic patterns have on the development of political participation. The cases I am using are Alberta

and Saskatchewan but the results could conceivably be applied to other areas or states of the world. While always looking for and welcoming a significant solution or a causal link, I will be satisfied if I am able to illuminate the problem in a meaningful way.

I intend to present this as a sociological and historical study. Events and data will be presented in a roughly chronological order. Secondary data will be used with some utilization of government documents and census data.

CHAPTER II

DIFFERENTIAL POLITICAL PARTICIPATION DESPITE SIMILARITIES IN HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The phenomenon of a wide disparity between Alberta and Saskatchewan in terms of their level of political participation is quite apparent when one examines the voter turnouts in the two provinces for the past fifty years. Couple this with the fact that the two prairie provinces have a remarkably similar historical background, and the difference becomes more significant. Voter turnouts are one measure of political participation; another measure is the level of participation in opinion dispensing organizations.

Part 1 of this chapter will deal with empirical evidence and secondary evaluations of political participation in Alberta and Saskatchewan. Part 2 explores the historical evolution and political structures of these two similar political entities. Empirical evidence and theoretical concepts examined in this chapter will lay the foundation for the analysis of the difference in political participation.

PART 1

The most reliable indicator of political participation is voter

turnout in election. It is also the most accessible data to obtain. For

these reasons I have chosen to examine voter turnouts for Saskatchewan and

Alberta at the very outset.

Table 1 gives a breakdown of voter turnout for Alberta and

Saskatchewan for the provincial elections that were held between 1934 and

1971 in each of the provinces. As can be seen from these figures,

Saskatchewan has a consistently higher voter turnout for the years shown.

These differences spread from 2 percentage points to 24 points with an

average difference of 14.9 points. The lowest voter turnout percentage in

Sasktachewan was 78 percent in 1967; compare this to Alberta's lowest

which was 56 percent in 1963. Likewise the highest turnout in

Saskatchewan was 85 percent, with nine out of the ten elections shown

being over 80 percent. On the other hand Alberta's highest voter turnout

was 83 percent in 1935, and that was the only one over 80 percent with

only two elections reaching over 70 percent turnout. The average voter

turnouts for Saskatchewan and Alberta between 1934 and 1971 were 83

percent and 67 percent respectively.

These figures clearly show the considerable variance between Alberta

and Saskatchewan in the voter turnouts.

TABLE 1

Percentage of Voter Turnout in Saskatchewan and
Alberta Provincial Elections, 1932-72

	Saskatchewan		Alberta	
	Year	Percentage	Year	Percentage
	1934	85	1935	83
	1938	84	1940	75
	1944	81	1944	69
	1948	83	1948	64
	1952	83	1952	59
	1956	84	1955	68
	1960	84	1959	64
	1964	84	1963	56
	1967	78	1967	63
	1971	83	1971	73
Mean		83		67
Median		84		66

Sources: Martin Robin, ed., Canadian Provincial Politics: The Party
Systems of the Ten Provinces, (Scarborough: Prentice-Hall of
Canada, Ltd., 1972), p. 312; Howard A. Scarrow, Canada Votes: A
Handbook of Federal and Provincial Election Data (New Orleans:
The Hauser Press, 1962), pp. 214-223; Chief Electoral Officer,
Province of Saskatchewan, Regina; Clerk of the Legislative
Assembly, Province of Alberta, Edmonton; Professor T. Peterson,
Department of Political Science, University of Manitoba,
Winnipeg; Star-Phoenix (Saskatoon), June 24, 1971.

The only time they came close to being equal was in the 1934 and 1935 elections in which the Saskatchewan turnout was only 2 percentage points higher than Alberta. This exceptional case could perhaps be explained by the presence of a certain "populist fever" in Alberta during this period when Wm. Aberhart and the Social Credit party made their dramatic entry into Alberta politics, winning fifty-six of sixty-three seats in the legislature. Allowing for this exception, it is quite obvious that the differential in voting habits in Saskatchewan and Alberta is very significant and would indicate that in voting, at least, Saskatchewan inhabitants are more politically active than their Alberta counterparts.

This contrast is paralleled in federal elections as shown in Table II for the years between 1921 and 1958 inclusive. Again in this table it can be seen that, with the exception of the elections of 1921 and 1925 (when the two provinces were almost equal in percentage of voter turnout) Saskatchewan has a consistently higher voter turnout, amounting to 9 to 13 percentage points higher than in Alberta for all of the other years shown. In other words the difference between Saskatchewan and Alberta appears several years later.

Both Saskatchean and Alberta got involved federally with the Progressive Party. This party continued to thrive in Alberta while dying in Saskatchwan. Albertans have practically always voted with the opposition. Could this have led to disillusionment and perhaps account for the low level of political participation? Saskatchewan, on the other hand, has voted with the federal government supporting the federal Liberals through to the fifties and early sixties.

It is noteworthy, however, that Saskatchewan's voter turnout in federal elections is lower than their provincial election turnout.

TABLE II

Voter Turnout at Federal Elections in Saskatchewan and
Alberta, 1921-1958

	Saskatchewan	Alberta
1921	67.5%	63.5%
1925	56.8	56.9
1926	69.7	56.5
1930	80.8	66.2
1935	77.0	65.3
1940	77.5	64.3
1945	85.2	73.4
1949	79.4	69.3
1953	74.2	62.6
1957	81.0	73.0
1958	81.9	74.4

Source: Howard A. Scarrow, Canada Votes: A Handbook of Federal and
Provincial Election Data (New Orleans: The Hauser Press, 1962),
p. 238.

Perhaps the voters of Saskatchewan felt more able to·manipulate their
provincial legislature by pragmatic voting than would bе the case with the
federal government.

PART II

The logic of inquiry that is most relevant for this discussion is the comparative in historical perspective. In order to compare two entities meaningfully, it is important to delineate both the similarities and the differences in their attributes.

In our case we have two very similar provinces which show a remarkable difference in political consciousness. By first examining the similarities between Alberta and Saskatchewan we can perhaps discover the differentiating attributes that may be contributing significantly to this phenomenon.

One of the most obvious similarities is the fact that Alberta and Saskatchewan were both part of the Northwest Territories -- and administered by the federal government -- until 1905 when they became provinces. As a matter of fact, it was the desire of the Territorial Legislative Assembly to create one province of this area instead of two, but, Prime Minister Laurier and his government, rationalized that such a large province could become too powerful and "overshadow the position of the existing provinces within confederation" (David K. Elton in Calderalo, 1979). The boundary between the two provinces was set arbitrarily and did not represent significant cultural, political or geographical differences (Ibid).

Alberta and Sasktachewan achieved provincehood relatively late (1905), and even then, were denied full provincial autonomy. They did not have jurisdiction over public lands and natural resources; thus sharing an exceptional position in confederation. This lack of control over their own lands and resources was unacceptable to both provinces for they felt that little concern would be given to local conditions and needs in the

development of resources and in the settlement of the land. Each of the governments of Alberta and Saskatchewan protested vigorously to Ottawa but it wasn't until 1930 under depression pressures that they were granted control over their natural resources and public lands -- a privilege enjoyed by all other provinces, except Manitoba, from the outset of confederation. This position of inferiority in the federation and the fight to achieve rights, were a shared experience by these two provinces in confederation.

Two other grievances shared by Alberta and Saskatchewan were the presence of protective tariffs in Canada and the freight rate structure. Referring to the former, Vernon Fowke (1957, p. 67) states that, "the prairie economy grew up within a pre-established framework of tariffs which shaped, limited, and curtailed its development".

The Dominion high tariff was enacted in 1879 and other tariffs were added in subsequent years. These were designed to protect industry in the central provinces, and the goals of the National Policy were propagated by the central provinces with the settlement of the west. With the burgeoning population of the prairie provinces, the demand for secondary products grew, and because the manufactured goods of the central provinces were protected by tariff barriers, the settlers were forced to buy products at a higher price than might have been paid for foreign goods without tariff protection. This situation naturally galled the people of Alberta and Saskatchewan, and this anger was perpetuated by the freight rates they were forced to pay on goods consumed.

Transportation costs are of vital concern to the western provinces in the interior of Canada. Not only do the prairie provinces pay more for transportation of goods because of the great distances involved, but the

national transportation policy has initiated a discriminatory freight rate structure. This issue has created perhaps more western regional discontent than any other (T.D. Regehr in David Bercuson, 1977, p. 115). The freight rate concern has been a binding factor in the relationship between Alberta and Saskatchewan since confederation, and the issue is as much alive today as it ever was. It is indeed an element of the similarity of political and social culture in the provinces being examined. Similarity -- cultural, economic and social -- leads one to wonder at the great dissimilarity in political participation.

To many Canadians the idea of the "National Policy" is associated primarily with the protective tariffs instituted in 1879. It was actually much more than that. It encompassed the aim of settling the west with vast numbers of agricultural immigrants (and central Canadians) for the purpose of preserving this territory for central Canada against American expansionism. Even more importantly, it would enchance the economic well-being of the merchants of Ontario and Quebec by providing consumers of manufactured goods.

Of course, the protective tariffs were an important ingredient of the latter plan and the building of a transcontinental railway was essential to its inauguration. In the context of this plan, the colonized settlers of the west were indeed merely the instruments for the successful implementation of a grand imperialist plan which would augument the wealth and power of the central provinces. It is not surprising therefore, that western alienation was and is an important factor in the social and political fabric of the prairie provinces. A.K. Davis sums it up nicely when he describes Canadian society in terms of the Metropolis/Hinterland dialectic. In this perspective the Prairie Provinces can be viewed as the

"Hinterland" to Ontario's "Metropolis". Certainly, this is an unenviable position for Alberta and Saskatchewan in the economic and cultural structure of Canada. Saskatchewan and Alberta share an overwhelming experience of alienation as they dwell in the economic resource oriented hinterland of Canada.

This unequal union is inherent in the roots of Canadian society. It began with the union of Upper and Lower Canada and the domination of the British element over the French Canadians (Ryerson, 1968). It spread to the structural relationship of Central Canada (or perhaps only Ontario) to the Prairie Provinces. This was most apparent in the economic union.

Although I have indicated that the economic bases of Alberta and Saskatchewan are being put forward as an important difference between them, it is to be noted that there are certain basic similarities on this dimension. Historically, these two provinces have had an essentially agricultural economy and to this day agriculture is an important element of their economics. Table III shows the dominance of agriculture in both Alberta and Saskatchewan for the years of 1929 to 1935. It can be seen however, that agriculture occupies a larger proportion of Saskatchewan's economy then it does that of Alberta. This difference will continue to emerge and will be analyzed in more detail in Chapter IV on the economic dimension.

TABLE III

Percentage of Agriculture and Manufactures of the Total
Value of Net Production in Saskatchewan and Alberta,
1929 - 1935

| Year | Saskatchewan | | Alberta | |
	Agriculture	Manufactures	Agriculture	Manufactures
1929	72.5%	12.3%	54.0%	18.6%
1930	57.9	19.9	46.9	22.0
1931	53.5	26.3	55.6	19.6
1932	77.8	15.1	63.4	17.1
1933	77.4	15.2	65.2	16.5
1934	76.1	13.6	66.8	15.5
1935	79.1	12.5	62.9	18.6

Source: Canada, Department of Trade and Commerce, Dominion Bureau of
Statistics, General Statistics Branch, Survey of Production in
Canada, 1930, 1932, 1934, 1935.

Furthermore, one must add that there has been a scarcity of
manufacturing in both provinces due to geographic position and to the
freight rate policy. Table III gives evidence of the relatively small
share of the net production that manufacturing holds in each province. As
will be shown in Chapter IV the economic bases of the two provinces at the
beginning were much alike, but the differences became more visible with
the discovery of oil at Leduc, Alberta in 1948.

The geographic similarities of Saskatchewan and Alberta are well
known -- the southern prairie land, the parkland farming area in the
central regions and the forested logging country in the northerns areas.
These similar geographic areas give rise to corresponding economic
activities and consequently, comparable types of people engaging in these
activities.

It can be seen from Table IV that agricultural occupations dominate
the labour force in both Alberta and Saskatchewan although they are a
higher percentage in Saskatchewan. This difference is quite significant
-- ranging from a percentage difference of 9.4% to 14% for the census
periods between 1911 and 1951 -- and will e discussed in Chapter IV.
This is not to deny that the economics of both provinces depended heavily
on agriculture, especially in the early years. Blue collar workers are
the second largest part of the work force in both provinces but in this
case Alberta has the highest percentage ranging from 6.5% to 9.9% for the
years shown. The gap isn't so wide in the other categories shown but
Alberta is consistently higher in all of these than Saskatchewan.

The presence of the Rocky Mountain range has of course added to the
diversity of Alberta's economy with it's mining potential and it's
powerful attraction to tourists.

TABLE IV

Occupational Distribution of the Labour Force,
1911 - 1951 (In Percent)

	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951
Alberta					
Professional managerial	7.9	10.5	9.9	10.6	14.0
Other white-collar	6.4	9.6	9.3	9.4	14.7
Agricultural	49.9	52.8	50.9	49.0	32.0
Blue-collar	29.6	20.0	22.4	22.1	28.3
Not Stated		0.1		0.1	0.6
Saskatchewan					
Professional managerial	6.0	9.7	9.2	9.8	12.9
Other white-collar	5.2	8.0	7.6	7.7	11.7
Agricultural	63.9	65.2	60.3	59.3	48.8
Blue-collar	19.7	11.3	15.9	14.4	18.6
Service	5.3	5.6	7.1	8.8	7.7
Noted Stated				0.2	0.5

Source: Peter R. Sinclair in Carlo Caldarola ed., "Society and Politics
in Alberta: Research Papers," Agincourt: Methuen Publications,
1979, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Census of Canada, 1961.

A case can be made for the similarity of ethnic composition in Alberta and Saskatchewan. Table V shows each province's immigrant population for the years between 1931 and 1951 inclusive.

This table reveals the general similarity in numbers and percentages of the whole for each of the ethnic and racial groups represented. As stated earlier, we intend to investigate this phenomenon more thoroughly and the results will be reported in a subsequent chapter. Suffice it to say at this time that both Alberta and Saskatchewan contain an ethnically heterogeneous population giving yet another reason to conclude that these two provinces are similar enough to be comparable.

We have shown the wide disparity in percentage of voter turnout between Saskatchewan and Alberta. This, in my opinion, gives rise to serious questioning regarding the dynamnics of this phenomenon. In addition, it has been demonstrated that these provinces have enough similarities to be comparable. The balance of this thesis will be devoted to an historical comparison of Alberta and Saskatchewan examining other aspects of their culture which may have influenced the voting behavior of their respective residents.

TABLE V

Immigrant Population by Racial Origin

1931	Saskatchewan	%	Alberta	%
British	128,607	42.1	148,561	50.4
N. European	40,715	13.3	33,667	11.4
W. European	76,880	25.2	56,609	19.2
E. European	54,450	17.9	50,901	17.3
Asian & Other	4,201	1.4	4,773	1.6
TOTALS	304,854		294,511	
POPULATION	932,785		731,605	

1941				
British	96,186	36.9	123,298	51.4
N. European	30,031	11.5	30,231	12.6
W. European	59,244	22.7	38.746	16.1
E. European	51,953	19.9	44,068	18.3
Asian & Other	2,959	1.1	3,602	1.5
TOTALS	260,383		239,945	
POPULATION	895,992		796,169	

1951				
British	51,163	32.6	73,818	33.6
*U.S.A.	39,482	25.2	55,504	25.3
N. European	11,662	9.4	15,147	6.9
W. European	10,143	6.4	16,332	9.4
E. European	42,406	27.0	54,736	24.9
Asian & Others	2,005	1.2	3,748	1.7
TOTALS	1156,861		219,285	
POPULATION	831,728		939,501	

Source: Compiled from tables in Statistics Canada 1931, 1941, 1951.

*Note: This category is not available in the 1931 and 1941 figures. It is included because it is felt that it is useful to compare Alberta and Saskatchewan for this period at least on the U.S. immigrant population.

CHAPTER III

THE POLITICAL HISTORY OF SASKATCHEWAN AND ALBERTA

"Though the neighbouring provinces" of Alberta and Saskatchewan were pencilled out of the Northwest Territories simultaneously...the two provinces were to evolve as individual entities whose respective characteristics would emerge beyond the fact of almost identical constitutional beginnings" (Wright, 1955, p. 123). These characteristics merged on a number of different dimensions each evolving concurrently and concommitantly with one another.

In order to discover why and how this divergence occurred, it is necessary to examine each of these dimensions separately, tieing them together at appropriate points. The first dimension I will discuss is the evolution of divergent political cultures, always remembering the earlier definition of "political culture" as the political environment or milieu within which the populations live and operate. This does not necessarily include their levels of participation in politics but would probably exert an influence on their tendency to participate.

In order to meaningfully investigate the political cultures of Alberta and Saskatchewan, it is necessary to scrutinize the historical evolution of the various parties in each of the provinces being discussed. While one of the old line parties -- the provincial Liberal party -- exerted a powerful influence on the political culture of Saskatchewan, three new parties were to become important factors in the political life of each of the two provinces. In Alberta, the United Farmers of Alberta in the 1920's and the Social Credit party in the 1930's and onward helped shape its political culture. In Saskatchewan the Cooperative Commonwealth

24

Federation (re-named in 1961 the New Democratic Party) served correspondingly. However, at this point I would like to go back to the beginnings of provincehood for Alberta and Saskatchewan to trace their respective political development.

When Alerta and Saskatchewan achieved provincehood in 1905, each was given a Liberal lieutenant governor by the reigning Liberal government in Ottawa. Each, in turn, appointed a Liberal premier to form a cabinet and thus captured the institutions of each of the new provinces. In Alberta, Premier Rutherford was appointed. He governed in a constructive, rather conservative way (Thomas in Caldarola, ed., 1979) until 1910 when he resigned over the Alberta and Great Waterways scandal. This scandal broke the hold of the Liberals over Alberta and they only remained in power until 1921 because of the powerful personality of A.L. Sifton, the new premier (Ibid). After the scandal Alberta voters no longer believed in the old-line parties; especially the Liberals, who have not recovered in Alberta to this date.

Saskatchewan's first premier was Walter Scott, who governed the province until 1916. Saskatchewan's electorate was mostly composed of farmers and Scott actively sought their views. He appointed personnel from the Saskatchewan Grain Growers Association and set a pattern which they were to follow successfully for a long period of time for, with the exception of the depression period between 1929 and 1934, they remained in power until 1944. For this and other favours the farmers eschewed direct political action and opted for partisan politics (Courtney and Smith in Robin, ed., 1972, p. 294). Thus the Liberals had discovered a means of staying in power. They continued to cater to the farmers demands even when it led to disassociation from federal Liberal policies.

This courtship of the Saskatchewan farmers by the Liberal party, and the response it evoked at the polls, marks one of the most important distinctions between the political cultures of Alberta and Saskatchewan. Saskatchewan voters learned how to manipulate the government, became adept in pragmatic voting and through the process became more politically sophisticated and aware. Eager (in Ward and Sapfford, eds., 1968, p. 3) touches upon this when she says that "in Saskatchewan...political parties must conform to agrarian demands. The parties know it and the voters know it". It is contended that this exercise of political competence would lead naturally into a higher level of political participation through the avenue of political awareness and interest. It is noteworthy that all provincial parties in Saskatchewan since 1905, have catered to the farm voters and their manipulative ability.

Alberta farmers, on the other hand, chose a different route by which to achieve political influence. Farm groups all across the prairie had been using collective pressure to induce the government to regulate freight rates, marketing practices at grain elevators, and to remove protective tarriffs on farm machinery (Betke in Caldarola, ed., 1979, p. 15). The United Farmers of Alberta functioned as any other farm group until a political alternative arose with the election of Henry Wise Wood to the presidency in 1916. Wood was able to express the ideas and aims of the U.F.A. within the context of a social theory (Ibid). He saw society as a community existing by the co-operation of each of the economic groups; and each of these groups needed to be strongly represented in order for the co-existence to succeed.

The U.F.A. turned to direct political action in 1918 and Wood, anxious that the organized farmers not lose their unanimity through the

transition to politics, began a series of speeches, interviews and articles, preaching the doctrine of group movement by instructed delegation (Ibid). In other words the direction for government would come from the party convention and/or from instruction from the economic group which each delegate represented. This form of government is not compatible with the two-party parliamentary system and cabinet government. Hence, needless to say, it gradually deteriorated to a more cabinet governed form (McPherson, 1953, p. 4).

The most important thing that can be learned from the tenure of the U.F.A. in Alberta is the fact that the farmers of Alberta opted for indirect political action in electing their farm organization to govern the province. By doing this, they abdicated direct responsibility in influencing and/or controlling the government through voting or lobbying. The farmer voters could relax and let their organization do the job for them. It would seem that they would need less accurate knowledge of what was happening in the government if they felt that they could rely on their own organization in government. Likewise, participation in the voting would probably seem less compelling under these circumstances. This argument is perhaps hypothetical but somewhat supported in the literature (Robin, pp. 300, 294, 290).

Saskatchewan voters, on the other hand, would need to keep abreast of current events in order to manipulate the political party in power. It is recorded that they became quite adept at doing just that (Courtney and Smith in Robin, 1972, p. 290-291). This exercise would probably keep the farmers more well informed and would influence them toward more political participation than would be the case of Alberta farmers who could afford to become politically indolent whilst their farm organization functioned in office.

This split was the first major difference to appear between Alberta and Saskatchewan in their political culture. This feeling of dependence on one party to make their decisions for them seemed to epitomize the attitude of the Alberta voters from that time hence. This attitude was quite readily transferred from the U.F.A. to the Social Credit movement under William Aberhart. Alberta, in the mid-thirties was suffering from the economic depression which gripped all of Canada. This was the period of the rise of the protest parties -- the Social Credit in Alberta, the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (C.C.F.) in Saskatchewan.

In Alberta, the factor which made the 'Socreds' so successful was the ability of the party to serve as a social movement as well as to offer a solution for the economic crisis (Caldarola, 1979, p. 35). Aberhart, himself was a Messianic figure with his combination of religious fervor and economic zeal. The Alberta electorate was gripped with populist fever and charmed by the charismatic leadership of Aberhart. An important ingredient of the Socreds success was their ability to provide a movement which could command the loyalty of an ethnically diverse population. The movement provided a new sense of social bonding and collective identity to an otherwise diverse collection of ethnocentric communities and enclaves (Ibid).

The rise of the Social Credit in Alberta demonstrates two important aspects of the political culture of Alberta -- the entrancement with a political party to the literal exclusion of all others, and the susceptibility to the appeal of charismatic leadership. This tendency toward monopoly government started with the U.F.A. and has continued to present time. Aside from the brief periods of transition (1971) from Socred domination of the legislature to the even greater Conservative

domination (1975 election) the Alberta legislature has been consistently dominated by one party to the near extinction of the opposition.

There have been various explanations of this phenomenon in the literature, notably C.B. McPherson (1953) who states that the Canadian west has a tradition of non-partisan politics and that the alternative party system is not indigenous to the west. The problem with this theory is that it lumps the prairie provinces together. It can be seen from our earlier comments that Alberta and Saskatchewan have many similarities, one of which is their inferior position in confederation until 1905, and even then without control over their public lands or natural resources until 1930. However, it has been shown that their political cultures have taken divergent paths since the advent of the U.F.A. party in Alberta. I must reiterate that the pattern of monopoly government is unique to Alberta (in this comparison), and thus provides us with one possible explanation for the disparity in voter-turnout percentages between this province, Alberta and Saskatchewan.

The experience of living under a monopoly government would pr obably have the effect of rendering a feeling of helplessness amongst the voters. Indeed, Paul and Caldarola (1979) have found widespread apathy among Edmonton voters which could perhaps be attributed to this feeling of powerlessness -- the perception of not being able to change anything with their one vote. Even the example given by their Government of governing without opposition would seem to leave the voter with a feeling of impotence. Albertans must watch their government performing in an atmosphere impervioius to opposition with the possible exception of a lone N.D.P. member protesting like a "voice crying in the wilderness". Is it any wonder that they seem little interested in politics? They probably

probably feel that it is a hopeless endeavour to try to change anything in government.

It would be a fair question to ask, at this point, why the Alberta voters do not vote in an opposition. There are three reasons for this in my opinion. Firstly, their apathy would prevent them from voting. Secondly, Albertans have shown a tendency toward conservatism and in this province there is no viable alternate party. The only feasible opposition party seems to be the N.D.P. and they are obviously too far to the left for socialist-fearing Albertans. Thirdly, it seems that Albertans are now accustomed to one-party dominance in their government. These would seem to be the reasons for continuing what was begun by the U.F.A. and perpetuated and intensified by the Social Credit monopoly. Today, we are witnessing an even greater monopoly by the Conservative party which bears out the points made above -- this type of one party dominance seems to perpetuate itself to the point of furthering the monopoly with each election.

Although this trend started with the U.F.A., it was perfected by the Social Credit party. The Social Credit party under Wm. Aberhart was a populist religio-political movement. The social theory of the movement and the charismatic leadership of Aberhart inspired unqestioning loyalty among the population. This loyalty amounted almost to a religious faith and would account, not only for the high majority of Socreds elected, but for the implicit trust the people put in their government which negated the need to participate actively in politics, even to the extent of not getting out to the polls on election day.

The evidence of charismatic leadership and monopoly government is a strong perpetuator of low political participation. In Alberta this

manifested itself as an almost religious faith in a utopian paradise where participation was not needed. On the other hand, monopoly government can lead to a feeling of powerlessness among the electorate negating the urge to vote or participate in other ways. This phenomenon is a very important factor differentiating Alberta and Saskatchewan in political participation.

Saskatchewan, on the other hand, shows a history of active participation in politics. Their decision for partisan politics in the early years of provincehood demanded participation through voting. At the same time the Provincial Rights party (later the Conservative party) provided a viable opposition, monopolizing the position of principal minority party and thus preserving the two-party system in Saskatchewan (Robin, 1972). Later, of course, the C.C.F. occupied the opposition until elected to govern the province in 1944.

The C.C.F. is a party which grew largely out of the "left-wing" movement of the Farmer's Union of Canada. Although, particularly in the early years, the party was for the most party geared toward the farmers needs and aspirations, they were not elected to office until 1944. The farmers were not about to put their faith in even their own party until they had proven themselves. The C.C.F. party stayed in power until 1964 when the Saskatchewan electorate again demonstrated their versatility by electing the Liberals to govern. Saskatchewan voters seem less concerned if a political party be 'left' or 'right' than if they operate in what they consider to be in a productive way. Courtney and Smith (in Robin, ed., 1972) explain that:

the acquiesence of early Liberals government in the

farmers' demands for public regulation of the economy

accustomed the citizens to active government; as a result

transfers of power between "free-enterprise" and "socialist"

governments failed to precipitate major reversals of policy.

The practice of pragmatic voting through manipulation of partisan politics

was shown again when Saskatchewan elected the C.C.F. again in 1971 and

then the Conservatives in 1982. There would seem to be little or no

regard given to the leftist or rightist leanings of these parties, but

only the pragmatic demand for results. There is none of the monopoly

government and perennial party power shown in Alberta. In a province

where there is always the possibility of electing an alternate party, the

electorate is more likely to be aware of the issues and to turn out at the

polls. This seems to be the case in Saskatchewan.

It has been argued above that the political cultures of Saskatchewan

and Alberta have emerged over the past seventy-eight years in quite

different directions. That this would affect the political participation

of the inhabitants of the respective provinces is beyond doubt. It is not

intended here to measure the depth and content of the effect, but merely

to note that the difference is there and to point out the likely effect on

the voter. Political culture is one dimension in the diversity between

Alberta and Saskatchewan. Another is the economic base of each province,

which will be examined next.

CHAPTER IV

THE ECONOMIC BASES OF ALBERTA AND SASKATCHEWAN

Although I made the decision to discuss separately the three given
dimensions which could be affecting political participation in Alberta and
Saskatchewan, it must be stressed that the economic dimension is
inextricably interrelated with the political culture of a society. The
biases of a governing political party have a tremendous effect on the
economic functioning of its industry -- be it manufacturing, farming or
the service sector. Indeed, the actual decisions taken by the legislative
assembly, cabinet ministers, or their deputies can manipulate the
day-to-day decisions of management and the working environment of the
salalried employees.

In any case, I shall discuss the economic dimensions as a separate
entity, linking it with the political factor when the occasion warrants.
Needless to say, it will be assumed that the reader will be aware of the
political element inherent in all economic fluctuations.

In Chapter II the basic similarities of the economies of Saskatchewan
and Alberta were discussed. Both provinces have had an economy largely
based on agriculture coupled with the logging industry in the northern
parts of each province. The differences began to emerge with the advent
of the great depression of the 1930's.

Although the depression of the 1930's was nationwide -- indeed world
wide -- it was doubly experienced in the prairies because of the severe
drought during that period. This is where the differences in Saskatchewan
and Alberta became apparent.

In the south-east corner of Alberta and the south-west part of
Saskatchewan is a territory know as the Palliser Triangle. In the good

years when there is adequate rainfall, this area can support farms which produce thirty to forty bushels of wheat to the acre. This is enough grain to support a family on a half or three-quarter section of land. However, when a period of drought strikes, as it did in 1929, the area becomes like a desert.

During the period of drought from 1929 to the middle thirties, a high percentage of the farmers were driven to accept "relief" from the government. Conditions were so bad that many farms didn't produce crops at all. Others produced some grain, but the price was so low that farmers would make a net profit of as little as one half a cent per bushel.

During those years of drought topsoil was blown from the land by the relentless prairie winds. With no grass to anchor the soil the topsoil was literally stripped from the land. On many days it would be extremely difficult to find one's way with the drifting soil obliterating the sun and bringing the visibility down to zero distance. The soil would drift up against fences and in many cases the fences were completely buried under the piles of topsoil. These conditions caused great hardship amongst the farmers and in many cases they abandoned their homesteads to seek better land in a more northerly area. Of course, some farmers stayed to rebuild their land by planting legumes and learned the art of contour plowing to prevent soil drift.

Saskatchewan's portion of the Palliser Triangle is much greater than Alberta's so that the number of people affected by the drought in Saskatchewan was relatively higher than that in Alberta. For this reason alone one could say that there were more people in Saskatchewan likely to be discontent with their economic condition and prospects.

However, there were other ways in which the two provinces differed. Saskatchewan farmers used their land to produce wheat with little else upon which to base their economy on. In fact, Saskatchewan has been described as having a one-crop economy up until a few decades ago. Alberta's rural population, on the other hand, utilized their land in a different way. Of course there were the wheat farmers, but there was also extensive use of the dry prairie in the south for ranching. These ranches were very large and during a drought the ranchers could weather it out by raising the ratio of acres per head of cattle. When the price of wheat came crashing down, the ranchers were still in a position to market their beef albeit at a lower price than formerly. In addition the land on the ranches was not cultivated so there was no problem of soil drifting. An additional bonus for the farmers of Alberta was the presence of irrigation canals in southern Alberta. This, of course, enabled the farmer to raise better crops and to diversify his products into such areas as vegetables and seeds as well as enchancing the raising of livestock.

The economic base of a province can be important in determining the political consciousness of the residents. It may be particularly important in this case because the provinces we are comparing share a common border and are similar in many other ways. Thus any disparity in economic conditions is readily observed by the researcher and, more importantly, by the people themselves. Relative deprivation can be a powerful energiser of political activity.

\ There are two dimensions of relative deprivation; firstly, deprivation relative to former prosperity and secondly, deprivation relative to an adjoining or neighboring territory. Both of these dimensions would apply in this case although the second is more applicable

to this study. Both Alberta and Saskatchewan experienced deprivation relative to their former economic conditions at the onset of the depression of the 1930's. However, the degree of deprivation may have been quite different in each province. Land use patterns in Alberta lessened the effect of the depression in that province.

Upon examining Table VI it can be seen that for the years from 1925 to 1930 Saskatchewan had a substantially higher number of acres under cultivation, with a correspondingly higher value than did Alberta. What is noteworthy here is that from 1931 to 1934, although Saskatchewan's stayed roughly the same (and much higher than Alberta's), the value of the crops produced were much lower than that of Alberta. Surely this reflects the contrasting effects of the drought and the depression in Alberta and Saskatchewan and perhaps also the results of different land use in Alberta (such as the production of sugar beets, fall wheat, and grain hay -- crops not grown in Saskatchewan during those years at least).

However, from the figures shown here it would seem that the drought did have a severe effect on the income of farmers in both provinces, although far greater on Saskatchewan farmers. Between 1929 and 1931 the value of field crops in Saskatchewan fell from $235,248,000.00 to $70,347,100.00 while in Alberta it fell only from $157,254,000.00 to $98,916,600.00, always keeping in mind that Alberta had only between 54 and 61 percent as much acreage under cultivation as Saskatchewan.

Table VII shows the total acres under cultivation and the percentage of wheat crop acreages. Again Saskatchewan has a higher percentage of wheat grown. It should be noted however that Alberta's wheat acreage shown here includes both spring wheat and fall what. Saskatchewan's includes spring wheat only as winter wheat was not grown. This would

TABLE VI

Total Acreages and Values of Field Crops in
Saskatchewan and Alberta, 1925 - 1934

	SASKATCHEWAN			ALBERTA		
	Acres	Value for Acre Averages	Value $	Acres	Value $	Value for Acre Averages
1925	18,758,491	19.63	368,274,521	8,516,917	157,227,282	18.40
1926	19,388,609	15.94	309,128,000	10,705,948	202,149,000	18.88
1927	19,527,971	17.82	348,005,000	10,971,761	272,743,300	24.86
1928	21,063,678	16.55	348,586,000	11,727,830	220,786,000	18.83
1929	22,420,232	10.49	235,248,000	12,432,595	157,254,000	12.64
1930	22,868,300	5.26	120,215,000	12,561,400	95,828,400	7.63
1931	21,973,954	3.20	70,347,100	13,420,980	98,916,600	7.37
1932	22,333,900	4.40	98,216,900	14,028,700	95,913,000	6.84
1933	21,306,000	3.88	82,708,000	13,909,400	86,499,000	6.22
1934	19,771,820	4.78	94,440,600	12,929,000	108,499,000	8.39

Source: Compiled from figures in the Canada Year Books 1931 and 1934 - 35.

TABLE VII

Area Under Cultivation in Field Crops and
Percentage Planted to Spring Wheat,
Alberta and Saskatchewan, 1929 - 1931

	Saskatchewan	Alberta
1929		
Total Area	23,031,870	12,628,134
% Wheat	62.7	59.8
1930		
Total Area	22,868,400	12,808,400
% Wheat	62.7	55.9
1931		
Total Area	21,946,342	13,168,502
% Wheat	68.2	60.3
1933		
Total Area	21,306,000	13,909,400
% Wheat	69.0	56.7
1934		
Total Area	19,771,760	12,929,000
% Wheat	67.1	58.0

Sources: Figures compiled from Canada Year Books, 1929,
1930, 1931, 1933, 1934 - 35.

inflate Alberta's relative percentage of wheat. Another factor is that grazing lands (or ranch acreages) are not shown in these tables.

Saskatchewan residents then, not only suffered greater deprivation in relation to their past than did Albertans, but they may also have experienced deprivation in relation to their neighbouring province of Alberta. It is probable that economic discontent of this type would have led to greater political activity on the part of the people of Saskatchewan.

No discussion of rural Saskatchewan would be complete without mention of the cooperatives. "The cooperative movement, which today includes the majority of Saskatchewan farmers, is an indication of the desire to stabilize rural economy by eliminating the middleman" (Seymour Lipset, 1950). Cooperation is particularly strong in Saskatchewan, in fact "it has been said that 'Saskatchewan is simply one big co-op': (Lipset, 1950). This is not to negate the cooperative movement in Alberta but simply to say that the movement may be stronger in Saskatchewan. However, unfortunately, there is a lack of figures for Alberta co-operatives. Saskatchewan has the largest co-op movement on the continent. In 1950 there were 125,000 farmers in Saskatchewan who held 500,000 co-op memberships (Lipset, 1950, p. 54), an average of four memberships per farmer.

The cooperative movement in Saskatchewan arose out of sparse settlement and lack of urban centres with its accompanying lack of amenities and social services. Farmers united to obtain cooperatively .such things as telephones, roads, medical and hospital facilities, not to mention their grain and produce marketing associations. Twine tractor fuel, fertilizer and other means of production were purchased in bulk

through cooperatives. "Widespread community participation and political interest...developed in Saskatchewan in response to environmental and economic problems" (Lipset, 1950, p. 265).

Lipset (1950) states that political action usually arises out of a depression or a major social crisis whereas cooperative movements usually occur during a period of prosperity. It is noteworthy that Albertans responded to the depression with political action in the form of electing the U.F.A. in 1921 and subsequently in 1935 the Social Credit. Then Albertans seemed to relax and let the government do all. Saskatchewan residents, on the other hand, went along with the Liberals, although controlling them through pragmatic voting, and threw themselves into cooperativism wholeheartedly. Cooperativism is an indication of agrarian class unity and the C.C.F. in Saskatchewan grew largely out of this movement.

McCrorie (1964, p. 118) agrees that "there is not question of the role of co-operatives in the (Saskatchewan) Movement," but he qualifies this in stating that the function of the Movement has been to provide individual agrarian entrepreneurs with a means by which to adjust to a capitalist system. Saskatchewan farmers were able to transpose their movement into a poliltically viable party.

Experiences in participating in co-operatives have made the Saskatchewan farmer more adept in politics. Because of the high degree of organization there has been a more rapid acceptance of new ideas and the constant stimulation has led to a high degree of political interest and participation. Moreover membership in co-operatives have given good training in leadership. In Saskatchewan, in the co-operatives, the ratio of members to officials runs from five to one, to twenty to one.

Community participation and leadership have proven to be important factors in the political life of the residents of Saskatchewan.

Prior to the discovery of oil in Leduc in 1948, agriculture was the basic industry in Alberta and Saskatchewan. Table VIII shows percentage value of net production for Saskatchewan and Alberta for the years of 1929 - 1935 inclusive. As can be easily seen, agricultural production is much higher than any of the other categories in both provinces. More than 72 percent of the output of Saskatchewan, and 54 percent of that of Alberta were obtained from farming in 1929. In 1931 the proportions were Saskatchewan 77.8 percent and Alberta 63.4 percent, while in 1935 they were: Saskatchewan 79.1 percent and Alberta 62.9 percent.

Even so the relative importance of agriculture was declining at that time in the Prairie Provinces. Agriculture contributed 70.3 percent of the total output in 1921, 80.3 percent in 1925; in 1930, 56.2 percent, and in 1931, 53 percent. In 1932, agriculture contributed 60.6 percent and in 1935, 61 percent of the total net production of the Prairie Provinces. Manufacturing held second place in Saskatchewan and Alberta in 1935. Mineral production, consisting chiefly of coal mining, held third place in Alberta (Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Survey of Production in Canada, 1929-36). Information for later years is given in tables XI - XIV inclusive and will be discussed at that time.

Although natural gas and naptha were discovered in Turner Valley, Alberta in 1914, it wasn't until 1936 that light conventional crude oil was discovered there. Of course, this discovery had a certain impact on the economy but it was the blow-in of Leduc No. 1 in 1948 which changed Alberta's economic base. "Under the heavy investment of the oil and gas industry in the years of rapid growth after Leduc, Alberta's economic base

TABLE VIII

Percentages of the Value of Net Production of Saskatchewan and Alberta by Industry
1929 - 1935

	SASKATCHEWAN							ALBERTA						
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Agriculture	72.5	59.9	53.5	77.8	77.4	76.1	79.1	54.0	46.9	55.6	63.4	65.2	66.8	62.9
Forestry	2.2	4.2	5.8	1.7	2.0	1.9	2.5	3.3	3.9	3.3	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.5
Fisheries	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Trapping	0.9	0.9	1.3	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7
Mining	0.9	1.8	2.3	1.4	2.5	2.5	2.1	14.6	16.5	14.3	13.5	13.7	11.4	10.8
Electric Power	1.8	3.5	5.4	3.8	3.4	2.9	2.6	1.5	2.5	2.8	3.0	3.0	2.5	3.0
Construction	9.3	13.3	7.8	1.5	0.5	3.6	3.3	8.0	8.8	5.7	2.5	1.3	2.0	3.7
Repair Work	3.0	4.5	6.0	3.4	3.7	3.9	3.4	2.9	3.8	3.4	2.9	2.4	2.3	2.9
Manufactures	9.1	13.7	18.1	18.6	18.9	9.3	8.4	8.0	14.1	16.8	14.3	12.3	11.8	13.6
Total*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Canada, Department of Trade and Commerce, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, General Statistics Branch,
Survey of Production in Canada, 1930, 1932, 1934, 1935

Note*: The percentages may not add up exactly to 100 due to rounding.

shifted dramatically from its prewar dependence on agriculture to a new reliance on the industrial staples of petroleum and natural gas" (Richards and Pratt, 1979, p. 160).

Between 1935 and 1971, the agricultural share of production totals slipped from 54 to 14 percent in Alberta, while mining's share increased from 11 to 39 percent, manufacturing from 16 to 20 percent, and construction from 14 to 23 percent. During this period in Saskatchewan agricultural production fell from 79 percent in 1935 to 42.9% in 1970 while mining's share increased from 2.1% to 23% and construction from 3.3% to 1-.3%. These do represent an increase but not as dramatic a shift as is the case of Alberta.

This shift in the economic base of Alberta has had a dramatic effect on the quality of life of Albertans. With the increase in manufacturing, and particularly in the oil servicing industries, as well as the actual work directly related to oil extraction and refining, the migration from the farm to the urban centres began in earnest. "Rapid urbanization is not, of course, unique to Alberta, but in no other Canadian province has the domination of the city over the countryside been accomplished so abruptly" (Richards and Pratt, 1979, p. 162). Part of this urbanization, of course was accomplished by the influx of workers, and their families, from other provinces. Alberta's population doubled between 1946 and 1971 and between 1941 and 1971 the percentage of urban population rose from 32 to 73 percent.

Let us compare Alberta and Saskatchewan on population increase and urbanization. Table IX shows population and percentage change for Alberta and Saskatchewan for the years 1951-1971. Saskatchewan's growth was much slower and less than Alberta's, and in fact was a negative factor in the

TABLE IX

Population and Percentage Change of Population of
Alberta and Saskatchewan, 1951 - 71

Province	Population				
	1951	1956	1961	1966	1971
Saskatchewan	831,728	880,665	924,181	955,344	926,242
Alberta	939,501	1,123,116	1,331,944	1,463,203	1,627,874

	Percentage Change				/Average annual change	
	1951-56	1956-61	1961-66	1966-71	1951-71	1966-71
Saskatchewan	5.9	5.1	3.3	-3.0	0.5	-0.6
Alberta	19.5	18.6	9.9	11.2	2.8	2.2

Source: Canada Year Book, 1941 and 1974.

years from 1966-71. In these years Alberta was becoming more industrialized and attracting wage workers whereas Saskatchewan was losing this class of workekr through lack of industry.

Table X analyzes rural/urban distribution of the popuulation in Saskatchewan and Alberta and shows quite clearly the difference in urbanization between the two provinces. Saskatchewan has remained largely rural (68.4%) with it's actual farm population being 25.2% in 1971 compared to Alberta's 14.5% (Canada Year Book, 1974, p. 163).

Table XI and XII gives the provincial incomes for Alberta and Saskatchewan respectively for the years of 1965 to 1980 inclusive. In comparing the two tables it becomes evident that corporatio profits in Alberta were consistently higher than in Saskatchewan in the years from 1965 to 1980. The same is tr for the non-farm unincorporated business category. On the other hand, farm income in Saskatchewan was higher than Alberta's during the same period. In comparing the gross domestic product of the two provinces for the years shown, it can be seen that there is a great disparity, with Alberta's being much higher throughout the time period.

Tables III and XIV show the percentage of the net provincial income taken up by farm income, corporate and non-corporate non farm business and the percentage taken up by wages. These percentages do not add up to 100% because interest income and military pay have been omitted. For the years 1965 to 1980, Saskatchewan farm income comprises a higher percentage of the net provincial income than does Alberta farm income. This is reflected in the non-farm businenss category where Alberta is consistently higher. The percentage of wage income is also higher for Alberta for the years 1965 to 1976 inclusive, after which Saskatchewan is slightly higher.

TABLE X

Number and percentage of the Population Classified
as Urban and Rural in Alberta and Saskatchewan,
1931 and 1971

	SASKATCHEWAN		ALBERTA	
	1931	1971	1931	1971
Rural Population	630,880	435,610	453,097	431,620
	68.4	47.0	61.9	26.5
Urban Population	290,905	490,630	278,508	1,196,250
	31.5	53.0	38.1	73.5

Source: Canada Year Book, 1941 and 1974.

TABLE XI

Provincial Income of Alberta, 1965 - 1980
(millions of dollars)

	Labour	Profits Before Taxes	Net Income Farm Operators	Net Income Non-Farm Unincorporated Business
1965	1,843.0	593.9	268.0	293.0
1966	2,083.0	695.7	396.0	317.0
1967	2,345.0	801.6	241.0	347.0
1968	2,623.0	918.3	262.0	383.0
1969	3,043.0	943.8	255.0	408.0
1970	3,351.0	976.2	241.0	430.0
1971	3,694.0	1,208.9	253.0	465.0
1972	4,114.0	1,504.8	322.0	484.0
1973	4,796.0	2,207.8	618.0	542.0
1974	5,873.0	3,133.4	811.0	566.0
1975	7,366.0	4,071.5	710.0	654.0
1976	8,867.0	4,221.5	504.0	769.0
1977	10,231.0	5,160.6	358.0	845.0
1978	11,350.0	5,977.3	679.0	922.0
1979	13,502.0	7,627.7	870.0	1,028.0
1980	15,894.0	8,628.5	967.0	1,117.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Provincial Economic Accounts, p. 20 - 21.

TABLE XII

Provincial Income of Saskatchewan, 1965 - 1980
(millions of dollars)

	Labour	Profits Before Taxes	Net Income Farm Operators	Net Income Non-Farm Unincorporated Business
1965	844.0	313.7	416.0	182.0
1966	944.0	340.6	663.0	208.0
1967	1,049.0	319.1	268.0	188.0
1968	1,130.0	316.8	272.0	194.0
1969	1,203.0	263.9	397.0	204.0
1970	1,326.0	1.3	242.0	204.0
1971	1,494.0	329.8	513.0	209.0
1972	1,494.0	365.6	358.0	217.0
1973	1,743.0	506.5	890.0	262.0
1974	2,165.0	598.1	1,401.0	261.0
1975	2,702.0	629.8	1,373.0	304.0
1976	3,209.0	636.3	1,246.0	334.0
1977	3,579.0	718.8	894.0	364.0
1978	3,902.0	925.0	1,055.0	391.0
1979	4,432.0	1,251.4	966.0	425.0
1980	5,069.0	1,466.1	1,130.0	458.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Provincial Economic Accounts, p. 18-19.

TABLE XIII

Provincial Income for Farm, Corporation, and Wage
of Alberta, Analysis by Percentage
of Industries, 1965 - 1980

ALBERTA

Year	% Farm	% Corporation	% Wage
1965	8.0	26.5	55.0
1966	10.2	26.1	53.7
1967	5.8	27.5	56.3
1968	5.6	27.9	56.3
1969	5.0	26.3	59.2
1970	4.3	25.2	60.0
1971	4.1	26.8	59.3
1972	4.5	28.0	57.8
1973	6.9	30.5	53.2
1974	6.9	31.3	49.7
1975	4.8	27.8	49.6
1976	2.9	29.0	51.5
1977	1.8	30.2	51.4
1978	2.9	29.4	48.4
1979	2.9	29.4	47.6
1980	2.6	29.5	48.1

Source: Compiled from figures in Statistics Canada,
Provincial Economic Accounts, Provincial Income
of Alberta, Analysis by Percentage of Industries,
1965 - 1980

TABLE XIV

Provincial Income for Farm, Corporation, and Wage
of Saskatchewan, Analysis by Percentage of Industries,
1965 - 1980

SASKATCHEWAN

Year	% Farm	% Corporation	% Wages
1965	21.9	26.1	44.4
1966	28.6	23.7	40.7
1967	13.4	25.3	52.4
1968	12.9	24.3	53.6
1969	17.4	20.5	52.6
1970	11.0	21.6	56.1
1971	19.6	20.6	50.7
1972	13.2	21.4	54.9
1973	24.2	20.9	47.3
1974	28.4	17.4	43.9
1975	24.0	16.3	47.2
1976	19.8	15.4	52.0
1977	13.8	16.7	55.1
1978	14.0	17.4	51.7
1979	11.3	19.6	51.7
1980	11.4	19.4	51.0

Source: Compiled from figures in Statistics Canada,
Provincial Economic Accounts, P vincial
Income of Saskatchewan, Analyzed by Percentage
on Industries, 1965 - 1980.

These figures reveal the fact that a higher percentage of Saskatchewan's population is involved in farm operations than in Alberta.

Lipset (1950, pp. 16-34) discusses the history of agrarian radicalism in North America from the post civil war depression of 1873 - 78 to the election of the C.C.F. in Saskatchewan in 1944. His discussion of the various socialist and populist movements clearly shows that the main support for these movements have been agriculturally based. This is Lipset's idea, but further research would be needed to prove his point. Nevertheless, it provides an interesting area of speculation. Involvement in radical movements implies political involvement in general and perhaps explains some of the reasons for the higher level of political participation in Saskatchewan compared to Alberta. Saskatchewan is a farming province with a history of agricultural domination of it's economy.

Alberta's economic base has always been a good deal more diversified than that of Saskatchewan. In addition to the diversified farming and ranching mentioned earlier, Alberta has had meat packing plants, coal mining, oil, gas and the tar sands, as well as a substantial business and financial community (Richards and Pratt, 1979, p. 151). Alberta is also more urbanized than Saskatchewan. Because Alberta has had more business and industry, it had developed a larger and stronger business-oriented bourgeoise (Ibid).

These contrasts present a very different political culture within which the agrarian radicalism would hardly apply to the more industrial and urban Alberta but would seem to apply ideally to the case of Saskatchewan.

Table XV shows a comparison of the Per Capita Gross Domestic Product of Saskatchewan and Alberta for the years from 1951 to 1974 inclulsive. In every year Alberta's per capita G.D.P. is higher than Saskatchewan's. While it is recognized that oil and gas can inflate the G.D.P., it is still evident that Albertan's are experiencing a more prosperous atmosphere than Saskatchewanites. Again, the evidence or perception of prosperity can lead to political indolence -- a basic self-satisfaction which sees no reason to change the status quo.

Our examination of the economic bases of Alberta and Saskatchewan have shown them to be quite different. This disparity in economic conditions would undoubtedly affect the level of political participation in each province. A person who is economically well off is less likely to see the need for political participation than his cohort who is experiencing a certain amount of economic difficulty. It has been established that there is a difference in levels of political participation in Saskatchewan and Alberta and it is proposed that one reason for this difference may be the divergence in the economic bases of the two provinces. Another reason could perhaps be found in the religio-ethnic factor which will be examined in the next section.

TABLE XV

Per Capita Gross Domestic Products for Alberta
and Saskatchewan, 1951 - 1974

	Alberta	Saskatchewan
1951	$1,739	$1,562
1952	1,896	1,891
1953	1,912	1,741
1954	1,813	1,341
1955	1,997	1,668
1956	2,238	1,871
1957	2,161	1,673
1958	2,204	1,818
1959	2,248	1,858
1960	2,258	2,001
1961	2,331	1,789
1962	2,449	2,271
1963	2,574	2,709
1964	2,697	2,527
1965	2,917	2,755
1966	3,282	3,204
1967	3,427	2,916
1968	3,718	3,048
1969	4,033	3,281
1970	4,252	3,216
1971	4,514	3,785
1972	4,952	4,056
1973	6,046	5,337
1974	7,028	7,019

Source: Bureau of Statistics, Alberta Treasury,
Alberta Economic Accounts, 1947-1974.
Saskatchewan Bureau of Statistics,
Saskatchewan Provincial Economic Accounts.

CHAPTER V

THE ETHNICITY DIMENSION

Ethnically both Alberta and Saskatchewan show a heterogenous composition, although there are certain differences as shown in Table I. According to these figures, taken from the Canada Census for the years shown, Alberta has a consistently higher percentage of British immigrants. However, the differences in the percentage of immigrants of British origin for Alberta and Saskatchewan are not significantly large enough to account for the disparity in political consciousness.

Lorne Brown (1969) and S.M. Lipset (1950) express similar views of the part played by the British immigrant in Saskatchewan. Brown claims that Saskatchewan was influenced by British immigrants, many of whom were aware of Labour Party ideas. Lipset seems to infer that the development of agrarian class consciousness in Saskatchewan was furthered by the British and perhaps impeded by the other ethnic groups. He says, "an influence negating the rapid growth of the agrarian movement was the presence of large numbers of immigrants from non-English speaking countries" (1950).

Not only were these immigrants settled in ethnic enclaves having little to do with English-speaking settlers, but they were intent upon establishing themselves on a farm and succeeding in a new country with little time for politics. This argument, of course, does not take into account the fact that many European ethnic immigrants had been exposed to oppression, labour unrest and left-wing politics in their homelands. While it may be valid to assume that European ethnics would have had little interest in agrarian movements for the reasons mentioned above, it

54

would seem probable that, given the background of many of them, they would at least have attained a degree of class consciousness.

Table V in Chapter II shows that Saskatchewan had a higher percentage of immigrants in 1931 and 1941 from Western European countries. This difference has reversed itself in 1951. While the percentage of East European immigrants was comparable in 1931 and 1941 for the two provinces, in 195. Saskatchewan had a slightly higher percentage (27% - 24%). It is interesting to note that the perentage of East European immigrants in 1951 is quite close to the percentage of British immigrants in Saskatchewan. Again, it must be said that the differences are not really significant.

However, it may be noteworthy that, for the three census periods, Saskatchewan has a consistently higher percentage of continental European immigrants. On the other hand, Myron Johnson (1978) gives figures to show that in 1931, "compared to Canada as a whole, Alberta had a much greater ethnic mix...In 1931 German, Ukrainians and Scandinavians made up 26% of Alberta's population, compared to 9% in Canada as a whole".

This of course does not give a direct comparison to Saskatchewan but it would seem to negate a hypothesis that ethnic dissimilarities can explain a difference in political consciousness between Saskatchewan and Alberta. The question of ethnic political allegiance is a very nebulous area. There is much discussion in the literature regarding this but it is conflicting or even contradictory in nature. For example, ethnic origins of rural delegates to C.C.F. conventions in Saskatchewan in 1931 and 1941 show that Anglo-Saxons are over-represented, with Scandinavians ranking second. The other ethnic groups are grossly under-represented. An explanation for this, of course, is that the Anglos were the earliest settlers (with Scandinavians next) and were probably well established

economically. This gave them the time, energy and hope to devote themselves to politics. Of greater importance would be the fact that these older settlers would have higher status and woul   us be much more likely to be elected as representatives to a political convention.

So, on the one hand we have the argument that British settlers would have more class consciousness than the continental European settlers while on the other hand we are told that Alberta's diverse ethnic mix of non-English people would account for Alberta's rallying behind a radical or populist movement -- the Social Credit.

It is true that we are investigating political consciousness rather than left-wing/right-wing populist movements, however we are searching for the difference between the two provinces which could perhaps explain the different levels of political participation in the two provinces. In regard to this last point, it would seem that ethnicity cannot account for the disparity in political consciousness for the following reasons: (1) The ethnic composition of Alberta and Saskatchewan are quite similar; (2) Conflicting evidence (or interpretation) of the political consciousness and behaviour of ethnic groups; and (3) Lack of evidence that non-British ethnics do in fact have a consistent political behaviour -- especially in terms of participation across time and distance.

A point that comes out clearly is that whatever the differences amongst the heterogeneous ethnic populations of both provinces, these were overcome by the Social Credit in Alberta and the C.C.F. in Saskatchewan. The Social Credit provided a social movement with a charismatic religio/political leader. It not only offered a solution to the economic crisis in the 1930's but was able to elicit a degree of unity and agreement amongst this diverse population (Caldarola, 1979). This is

remarkably similar to Lipset's (1950) idea that the common economic problems of the Saskatchewan farmers provided a rallying point which cut across ethnic lines.

For our purposes then, the religio/ethnic dimension seems to have little explanatory value. It would seem that Saskatchewan and Alberta shared similar experience with their ethnic enclaves for Caldarola (1979) claims that the settlement of immigrants into ethnic enclaves "militated against an integration of interests in the province as a whole; while Lipset (1950), in discussing the agrarian social movement in Saskatchewan declares it was hampered by the presence of ethnic enclaves which in many cases were also associated with religious ties.

In other words one may conclude that in these two provinces ethnic enclaves are tightly integrated within themselves but very loosely integrated with the larger society. While this may or may not imply that political participation is low in these enclaves, it does not explain why the levels of political participation are so different in the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta, keeping in mind the similarity of the ethnic compositions of the two provinces.

Thomas E. Flanagan (1979) has studied ethnic voting in Alberta but his effort is in linking ethnicity with political party voting. Ian McPherson (1979) traces the history of ethnic participation in the forming and managing of co-operatives and their continuing membership. With the variety of ethnic groups active in these endeavours -- such as the Finnish, Ukrainains, British, Scandinavian and others -- it can be assumed that the heterogeneous populations in Alberta and Saskatchewan yielded a heterogeneous mixture of community participaters.

Further research in this area is needed in order to determine the linkage, if any, between ethnicity and political participation.

That there is a higher level of political participation in Saskatchewan there is little doubt. Not only does Saskatchewan have a higher voter turnout than any other province in Canada, it also has a higher proportion of party activists or opinion leaders than any other province. "By virtue of political participation and involvement, Saskatchewan voters over the years have become aware of the various issues, policies, candidates, and parties, as well as their alternatives" (Robin, 1972). This not only accounts for the pragmatic voting but enables it. Alberta voters, on the other hand have been labelled as politically apathetic as witnessed by their low voter turnout, low level of political participation and non-pragmatic voting.

> Voting occupies a central place in democratic politics and in
> contemporary political science. Increasingly sophisticated
> studies have analyzed the sources of partisan support and
> political participation, especially voting, among different
> individuals and groups within nations...Who chooses to stay
> home and who goes to the polls can often determine who wins on
> an election, and voting is a major instrument by which leaders
> are compelled to be attentive to citizens...Moreover, voting
> turnout is a critical indication of the involvement of citizens
> in the national political life of a society...(Rose, 1980, p.
> 5).

Of the three indicators of political participation cited in the introduction (Chapter I), voter turnout would seem to be the most widely recognized and used (Rose, 1980; Taylor, 1980; Sills, 1968; and others). In this study we are not so much concerned with the psychological inner motives of each individual as we are with the over-all voter turnout figures for the total voting population of each province. Voter turnout figures for Saskatchewan and Alberta confirm the considerable disparity in political participation between Alberta and Saskatchewan.

Our study of these two similar provinces has shown that two ᵛᵃʳⁱᵃᵇˡᵉˢ
-- political history and economic base -- have proven to be at varie ʳⁿ
Alberta and Saskatchewan. It seems fair then, to conclude that the
economic bases and political cultures have probably had an effect on the
political participation of the populations being examined. The ethnic
minority variable is possibly related but further research is needed to
clarify this dimension.

It is recognized that the left-wing/right-wing dichotomy may not be
shown as clearly causally linked to political participation. Never ᵗʰᵉˡᵉss
it cannot be denied that these political leanings are a part of the
political culture within which the population of each of the provinces
operates.

This has been a comparative study, exploratory in nature. The
conclusions drawn on the material herein are being put forward as possible
linkages in the causal chain affecting political participation. While
each may be related to levels of political participation they are also
interrelated with one another.

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Job Analysis Of The Position Of Senior

Municipal Recreation Administrator

by

David R. N. Mitsui

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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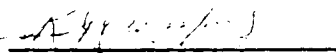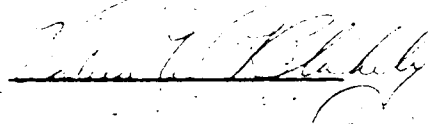
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and

recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research,

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in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

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DEDICATION

To my wife, Margaret, for her encouragement, support, and understanding during the completion of this thesis.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to describe the administrative duties and specific tasks of senior municipal recreation administrators using a job analysis approach. The three sub-problems related to specific task performance were to determine the frequency of task performance, to determine the perceived importance of task performance, and to compare the normative with the descriptive responsibilities of senior administrators. The study included interviews with 17 selected senior administrators of municipal leisure services departments in the Province of Alberta, Canada.

Reviews of management and administration literature and current recreation literature were conducted. A review of the literature regarding the theoretical approaches to the study of roles provided the conceptual background for this study. Specifically, Bakke's model of the fusion process (1953) and Katz and Kahn's model of the factors involved in the taking of organizational roles (1978) provided the theoretical support for the use of Getzels and Guba's model of administrative behavior as the conceptual framework for this study. The specification of tasks and the examination of the frequency and perceived importance of task performance formed the basis for determining the role requirements and expectations to achieve organizational goals.

The use of seven administrative duties provided broad categories to describe large segments of work and to classify the 83 specific tasks included in this study. The seven terms used to describe the administrative duties were assessment, budget administration, office management, planning, public relations, consulting with the recreation board and executive body, and staffing. These terms were chosen because

they are commonly used in the municipal recreation field.

A total of 65% (54/83) of the tasks were performed by more than 50% of the senior administrators. In the performance of these tasks, the majority of senior administrators were responsible for the three traditional areas of parks and open space, recreation facilities, and recreation programs. There was also a suggestion that senior administrators are broadening their administrative responsibilities to other areas due to organizational demands.

The data regarding the frequency of task performance indicated that performance was based on individual situations and circumstances. The two exceptions were maintaining regular office hours on a daily basis and performing budget administration tasks regarding the preparation of the budget. These latter tasks were performed on a semi-annually and annually basis due to the cyclical and recurring nature of the budget.

The data regarding the perceived importance of task performance indicated that 44 of the 54 tasks performed by a majority of the senior administrators were rated as very important and important. These tasks addressed the administrative duties of budget administration, planning, public relations, and consulting with the recreation board and executive body.

Overall, the senior administrator can be viewed as a budget administrator, a planner, a recreation board and executive body advisor, a public relations person, and an assessor of programs and services.

The results of this study support the normative responsibilities of senior administrators suggested in the recreation literature. The exception is that the majority of senior administrators did not administer the recreation programs. These tasks were delegated to

subordinate staff.

Further study is required to examine the relationship between specific task performance and the size of the department, geographical location, and type and population of jurisdiction. Also, further study is required to examine the relationship between the perceived importance of the task and the perceived importance of task performance.

Acknowledgements

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter   Page

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1

The Research Problem

Recreation, parks, and leisure services represent a major area of government responsibility at the federal, provincial and local levels. Across Canada there are thousands of cities, towns, villages, counties, and regions which provide a vast network of programs, facilities and leadership to meet the recreational needs of their residents. Consequently, there are thousands of people employed by hundreds of municipalities in the municipal recreation field. Municipal recreation personnel work in such positions as facility directors, program coordinators, program instructors, parks directors, district area supervisors, planners and youth group leaders. Of these, the position of senior municipal recreation administrator (senior administrator) is the subject of this study.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to present, descriptively, the administrative duties and specific tasks of senior administrators. The determination of task requirements of the position of senior administrator forms the basis for specifying the roles and role expectations for this position (Katz et al., 1978).

The study considered a comprehensive list of 83 specific tasks, categorized under the seven administrative duties of assessment, budget administration, office management, planning, public relations, consulting with the recreation board and executive body, and staffing.

As sub-problems, the study investigated the frequency of specific task

performance and the importance of specific task performance.

Statement of the Problem

The study investigated the following main problems:

(1) What administrative duties were the responsibility of

senior administrators?

(2) What specific tasks were personally performed (specific

task performance) by the senior administrators?

Three sub-problems related to specific task performance examined

the following:

(2a) What was the frequency of specific task performance of the

senior administrators?

(2b) What was the perceived importance of specific task

performance by the senior administrators?

(2c) How did the specific task performance of the subjects

compare with those suggested by selected writers in

current recreation literature?

To provide descriptive information regarding responsibilities and

specific task performance of the senior administrators the following

open-ended questions were asked:

(i) What broad areas of administration were under the

responsibility of the senior administrator?

(ii) What specific facilities were under the responsibility of

the senior administrator?

(iii) What was the approximate percentage of time the senior

administrators spent performing each administrative duty

over the previous 12 months?

(iv) What specific tasks did the senior administrator identify

as the most essential in their jobs?

(v) What specific tasks took the senior administrator the

most time to complete?

(vi) To what specific tasks did the senior administrators

perceive required greater emphasis?

Significance of the Study

The analysis of the position of senior administrator has been based

on the conceptual understanding of a municipal leisure services

department as a social system. This study of administrative duties and

specific tasks can be approached meaningfully through the utilization of

the Getzels and Guba (1957) model of a social system. The specification

of tasks and the determination of the frequency of task performance and

the perceived importance of task performance forms the basis for

determining the role and expectations to achieve organizational goals.

Roles are the basic unit for specifying and assigning responsibility and

authority so that tasks may be implemented (Getzels et al., 1957).

The examination of the administrative duties and specific tasks of

the senior administrator focuses on the responsibilities of that

position and the subsequent role and expectations within the municipal

leisure services department. While this study may increase the senior

administrator's understanding of the municipal leisure services

department through a greater awareness of his position within this

social system, the study may also provide the senior administrator with

a broad perspective of the conceptual basis of administrative behavior

and the significance of specifying role behavior within the social system.

Limitations

The following limitations may have affected this study of

administrative duties and specific tasks:

1. The 17 subjects were volunteers and were not selected at

    random;

2. The senior administrators may be performing specific tasks

    not represented in this study;

3. The time allotted for each interview may have been

    insufficient to obtain all job-related information;

4. The responses to the six open-ended questions were not

    identified by subject;

5. The development of the conceptual model was primarily used

    to interpret the results and the reader should be

    cautioned that the model was not used to collect the data;

6. The reliability of the instrument used to collect the data

    may be limited since the subjects were asked to recall

    information for the previous twelve months. The subjects

    may not have been able to remember all of the tasks

    performed, the frequency of task performance, and the

    importance of task performance for that entire period; and

7. The methodology is limited to the analysis of the data in

    terms of the study population as one group. The reader

    should be aware of sub-groups of senior administrators'

    responses within the main group which caused some

    skewedness of the data.

Delimitations

This study was delimited in the following ways:

1. Only those senior administrators of municipal leisure
   services departments in municipalities with populations
   between 1,000 and 15,000 within a 100 km radius of the City
   of Edmonton, Alberta were surveyed;

2. The study took place in May, 1982 and therefore the duties
   and tasks performed were restricted to the previous twelve
   months; and

3. The examination of administrative duties and specific task
   performance has been delimited to the area of recreation
   and parks services.

4. The analysis of the data was delimited to describing the
   administrative duties and specific tasks of the study
   population. There was no intention to generalize the
   results of the study to describe the job of any other
   senior administrators.

Definition of General Terms

The following terms have been used and are defined for the purposes
of this study of administrative duties and specific tasks of senior
administrators.

Administrative Duties. Melching et al. (1973) define
administrative duty as

> "...a large segment of work performed
> by an individual. It is one of the distinct
> major activities involved in the work
> performed, and is composed of several related
> tasks" (p. 4).

For the purpose of this study, administrative duties and administrative functions are to be viewed as synonymous terms. The Funk and Wagnal Standard Dictionary (1974) defines function as:

> "The special duties or action required of anyone in an occupation, office, or role" (p. 541).

To further emphasize the confusion and lack of distinction between these terms, Melching et al. (1973) state

> "While job analysis experts employ concepts such as task, function, responsibility, duty, etc. as though the distinctions among them were both obvious and fixed, this is simply not true" (p. 3).

The seven terms used to describe administrative duties in this study were assessment, budget administration, office management, planning, public relations, recreation board and executive body, and staffing. These seven terms have been described in detail in Chapter 4.

Executive Body. The members of the executive body may include the elected officials, the mayor, and senior municipal officials such as the Town Manager and Municipal Secretary. This governing body has authority over the leisure services department in terms of decision-making power and the allocation of resources. The executive body gives final approval for policy.

Municipal Leisure Service Department. The department consists of a formal organizational structure whose mandate is the provision of recreation programs and services for the community. This title refers to the following department titles - Recreation and Parks Department; Parks and Recreation Department; Community Services Department.

Position. A position is defined as

> "the duties and tasks established as the work requirement for one individual [and] ...

exists whether occupied or vacant" (Melching
et al., 1973, p. 4).

Recreation Board. The recreation board consists of members of the
community who are appointed by the Executive Body for a specific term.
In this study, the recreation boards performed an advisory function for
the Executive Body. The boards had no authority and held no decision-
making powers. The recreation board recommended to the Executive Body
the implementation of policy and the budget and acted in an advisory
capacity to both the Executive Body and the municipal leisure service
department (Rodney et al., 1981).

Senior Administrator. The position of senior administrator is the
highest position within the organizational structure of the municipal
leisure services department. The position has such job titles as
Superintendent of Recreation and Parks, Director of Recreation and
Parks, Director of Recreation, and Director of Community Services. To
encompass this list of job titles, the title of "Senior Administrator"
has applied throughout this study when reference is made to this
position.

Specific Task. Melching et al. (1973) define specific task as a

> "discrete unit of work performed by an
> individual . . . within a limited period of
> time" (p. 4).

Organization of the Study

This study is based on the concept that the role expectations and
role behavior associated with a given position are developed from task
requirements (Katz et al., 1978). To this end, Chapter 1 has outlined
the purpose of the study, defined the problem, and established the
general terms of reference.

Chapter 2 will review the management and administration literature which describes the work of managers and administrators in terms of administrative duties. A review of the role theory literature forms the conceptual basis of the study based on Getzels and Guba's model of administrative behavior (1957).

Chapter 3 includes a discussion of the methodology, the development and administration of the instrument, a description of the profile of the subjects, and the analysis of data.

Chapter 4 will identify and define the seven administrative duties and 83 specific tasks.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 will discuss the findings of specific task performance, the frequency of specific task performance, and the importance of specific task performance, respectively.

Chapter 8 will summarize the findings of the previous three chapters and develop a task performance summary.

Chapter 9 will discuss the conclusions and implications of the study and make recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2

Conceptual Framework and Review of Literature

The identification and description of the administrative duties and
specific tasks of senior administrators in municipal leisure service
settings led to the examination of the job these people do in their
positions. The review of the management and administration literature
focuses on administrative duties. The review of selected recreation
literature presents normatively the responsibilities of senior municipal
recreation administrators. The review of the literature on role theory
provides the conceptual basis for the examination of administrative
duties and specific tasks. The examination of three specific
theoretical approaches to roles permit the study of duties and tasks of
the position of senior administrator rather than the individual
incumbent. Bakke (1953) proposed that the examination of the individual
in the organization involved a fusion process. Katz and Kahn (1978)
described the role episode as the core of their model of the factors
involved in the taking of organizational roles. Getzels and Guba (1957)
viewed administrative behavior on the conceptual basis of a social
system. It is this latter perspective which forms the conceptual
framework for this study.

Administrative Duties

A main purpose of this study was to describe the administrative
duties of senior administrators in the field of municipal recreation. A
review of the management and administration literature reveals that the
use of specific terms called duties (as defined in this study) have been

9

in use well over 50 years. The use of the word "duty" to describe the

work of a manager or administrator in terms of "a large segment of

work . . . composed of several related tasks . . . " (Melching et al.,

1973, p. 4) was first initiated by Fayol in 1916. Table 1 reviews the

lists of administrative duties used by specific writers to describe the

job of the administrator.

Table 1

Lists of Administrative Duties
Used By Selected Writers to Describe
The Administrator's Job

Barnard (1938)	Johnson et al. (1967)
communicating	planning
securing essential effort	organizing
formulating purpose	controlling
	communicating
Urwick (1943)	
planning	Newman et al. (1967)
organizing	organizing
commanding	planning
coordinating	leading
controlling	controlling
investigating	
communicating	Gross (1968)
forecasting	decision-making
	communicating
Fayol (1949)	planning
planning	activating
organizing	evaluating
coordinating	
controlling	Koontz et al. (1968)
commanding	planning
	organizing
Davis (1951)	staffing
planning	directing
organizing	controlling
controlling	
	Voich et al. (1968)
Longenecker (1964)	planning
planning	organizing

Table 1 (Continued)

organizing
directing/motivating
controlling

Massie (1964)
decision-making
organizing
staffing
planning
controlling
communicating
directing

Greenwood (1965)
planning
decision-making
organizing
staffing
directing/leading
controlling

Rue et al. (1977)
planning
organizing
controlling
directing

Haimann et al. (1978)
planning
organizing
influencing
staffing

Scanlan et al. (1979)
planning
organizing
controlling
directing

controlling
administering

Dale (1969)
planning
organizing
controlling
staffing
directing
innovating
representing

Sisk (1973)
planning
organizing
controlling
directing

Schwartz (1980)
planning
organizing
controlling
staffing
directing

Mar et al. (1982)
planning
organizing
controlling
staffing
innovating

Fayol (1949) formulated the five administrative duties of planning,
organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. Later theorists
modified and expanded this initial compilation of administrative duties.
Table 1 (p. 10) shows that the nineteen different lists of administrative
duties contain similar duties, however most lists are unique.

Gulick and Urwick (1937), expanding Fayol's five duties, coined the acronym "PODSCORB" to represent planning, organizing, directing, staffing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Later, Urwick (1943) separated the planning duty from forecasting, included communicating, and emphasized that investigation was an underlying duty. Davis (1951) emphasized only three basic duties - planning, organizing, and controlling. Both Urwick (1961) and Follet (1949) agreed that coordination was a key duty because of the time and effort executives devoted to it. In contrast to Fayol (1943), Urwick (1943), and Davis (1951), Chester Barnard (1938) interpreted his experiences as a chief executive differently from Fayol's personal experiences. Barnard based his three essential duties on observations of his managers. He felt that managers provided a system of communication, secured essential effort (i.e. recruitment; use of incentives), and formulated and defined purpose for the organization.

Recent writers, examining the duties of managers and administrators have made few significant changes in describing what administrators do. The staffing duty was included by Massie (1964), Greenwood (1965), Koontz and O'Donnel (1968), and Dal (1969). Others have since included the staffing duty (Haimann et al., 1978; Schwartz, 1980; Mar et al., 1982). Dale (1969) introduced the duties of innovating (as in implementing change) and representing (representing the company to the outside world). Groos (1968) included the duty of activating to describe the use of persuasion, pressure, and promoting self-actualization. The activating duty is similar to Barnard's (1938) duty of securing essential effort and Haimann et al.'s (1978) duty of

influencing. Voich and Wren (1968) added the duty of administering
which involved coordinating, leading, and motivating.

This comparison of the nineteen writers who have proposed various
administrative duties, revealed that only the three key duties of
planning, organizing, and controlling, as originally proposed by Davis
(1951), received the widest acceptance.

This review of administrative duties has provided a basis on which
to describe large segments of work of senior administrators. The
nineteen writers who developed their own lists of administrative duties
attempted to describe the work of administrators using terms which would
be applicable to all types of administrators working in as many
different settings. This review indicated that there was incomplete
agreement between theorists on both what terms should be included
(Miner, 1971) and how terms should be defined (McFarland, 1970).

In an attempt to avoid these criticisms, descriptive terms used in
the municipal recreation field were chosen to represent the job of
senior administrators in terms of administrative duties. The seven
administrative duties utilized in this study include assessment, budget
administration, planning, public relations, office management,
recreation board and executive body, and staffing.

The examination of the administrative duties and specific tasks of
the position of senior administrator includes a review of selected
recreation literature to determine the normative (Stephens, 1978)
responsibilities of senior administrators.

Normative Responsibilities of Senior Administrators

The following writings of selected authors were examined to
determine the normative responsibilities assigned to the position of

senior administrator according to recreation literature. These writers
used the terms "specific responsibilities" (Kraus and Curtis, 1977),
"duties" (Butler, 1976), "typical duties" (Shivers, 1980), and "examples
of duties" (Rodney et al., 1981) to describe the responsibilities of
senior administrators. These responsibilities have been categorized and
are discussed according to the seven administrative duties being used in
this study, namely assessment, budget administration, office management,
planning, public relations, recreation board and executive body, and
staffing.

Assessment. Kraus et al. (1977) suggest that the senior
administrator performs ongoing assessment tasks. They state that the
senior administrator

> "... evaluates the department's overall
> effectiveness in attaining its objectives
> through both formal and informal evaluative
> procedures, research studies, and reporting
> systems" (p. 75).

Shivers (1980) suggests that the senior administrator is
responsible for the assessment of the department's programs and services
in the statement that the senior administrator

> "... uses the written material collected
> in records and reports for making periodic
> studies and surveys for the continuous
> improvement of recreation services" (p. 206).

Both agree that the senior administrator is responsible for
assessing the programs and services of the department and using formal
and informal procedures to determine if organizational goals and
objectives are being met.

Budget Administration. The following unanimously agree that the
senior administrator is responsible for the department's fiscal budget.

Shivers (1980) feels that the senior administrator is responsible

for preparing the budget and should

> "... be prepared to explain and justify
> each item which he calls for in the budget"
> (p. 205).

Kraus et al. (1977) are more specific in their comment that the

senior administrator is responsible for

> "... preparing a budget and directing,
> controlling and accounting for all
> departmental expenditures, revenues, and
> fiscal operations" (p. 75).

Butler (1976) states that the senior administrator

> "... prepares and justifies the budget
> [and] . . . supervises income and
> expenditures . . ." (p. 110).

Rodney et al. (1981) also state succinctly that the senior

administrator

> "... prepares and justifies the budget;
> controls and supervises departmental
> expenditures . . ." (p. 436).

According to Shivers and others, the senior administrator is

responsible for the preparation, execution and control of the

department's fiscal budget.

Office Management. The following writers suggest that the senior

administrator is responsible for the administration of the office

including office routines, meeting with department staff, maintaining

the filing system, reading about the latest developments in the field,

and the administration of recreation programs.

Rodney et al. (1981) suggests that the senior administrator

establishes office routines to deal with

> "... office hours, correspondence,
> filing, reference material and information,
> telephone calls appointments, and office
> visitors" (p. 361).

The senior administrator also allocates office time to meet with his staff in order to

> "... give direction and guidance by
> defining standards and principles of
> operation" (Rodney et al., 1981, p. 436).

In terms of utilizing a record-keeping system, Shivers (1980) feels that the senior administrator is responsible for the maintenance of

> "... records, file controls, and
> adequate filing systems for the
> preservation of correspondence, studies,
> and legal papers of all kinds" (p. 206).

The senior administrator allocates office time for himself to keep abreast of new developments in the recreation field. Shivers (1980) feels that the senior administrator

> "... searches the literature on the
> trends and developments in the field of
> recreation services" (p. 207).

According to Rodney et al. (1981), the recreation program is the main reason for the department's existence. Kraus, Rodney, and others support the idea that the senior administrator is responsible for the administration of recreation programs. The senior administrator

> "... develops and administers a broad
> program of recreation activities for all age
> groups and interests" (Rodney et al., 1981,
> p. 436).

> "... organizes, directs, and controls all
> recreation program activities" (Kraus et
> al., 1977, p. 75).

> "... develops and administers a
> comprehensive program" (Butler, 1976, p.
> 110).

> "... develops recreational services
> through a program of activities which will
> actually satisfy the needs of people"
> (Shivers, 1980, p. 204).

These writers agree that the senior administrator is responsible for the operation and functioning of the office, especially the administration of recreation programs, maintaining records and files, and establishing office routines.

Planning. The following writers suggest that the senior administrator is responsible for the performance of tasks which describe the administrative duty of planning. These tasks include determining the present and future facility, program, and service requirements of the community, consulting with other agencies concerned with recreation services, and establishing joint-use agreements.

The senior administrator is responsible for the planning of the department's programs and services to meet community requirements as stated by the following writers. The senior administrator

> "... ascertain present and future needs
> for areas, facilities, programs; and
> prepares long-term plans to meet these
> needs" (Rodney et al., 1981, p. 436).

> "... directs the planning, acquisition,
> construction, improvement, and care of all
> areas and facilities" (Butler, 1976, p.
> 110).

> "... studies, surveys, and analyses the
> conditions of recreational needs of the
> community and reports such information"
> (Shivers, 1980, p. 201).

The senior administrator meets with other agencies and organizations to assist him in the planning of recreational programs and services. According to these writers, the senior administrator

> "... confers with other local, regional,
> state, and national government agencies
> concerned with recreation and parks" (Rodney
> et al., 1981, p. 436).

> "... negotiates, prepares, and administers
> regular and periodic agreements between the

agency and public, quasi-public, and private
agencies or individuals for the purposes of
enhancing the recreational services within
the community" (Shivers, 1980, p. 207).

The literature indicates that the senior administrator is

responsible for a wide range of tasks when performing the planning duty.

The senior administrator is generally responsible for ascertaining

present and future facility, area, program, and service requirements

through the use of studies and surveys. The senior administrator also

consults with other agencies when planning programs and services and

developing joint-use agreements.

Public Relations. The following writers suggest that the senior

administrator is responsible for departmental public relations by

developing positive relationships with community agencies and groups,

keeping the public informed of recreational services and programs, and

meeting with community groups to discuss programs and services. These

writers state that the senior administrator

"... maintains an effective public
relations program and develops constructive
relationships with other municipal,
voluntary, and community organizations"
(Kraus et al., 1977, p. 75).

"... confers with community groups
concerned with the agency's interest"
(Butler, 1976, p. 110).

"... disseminates information to the
public on matters of interest to it"
(Shivers, 1980, p. 206).

"... counsels with community groups and
individuals to determine program needs, area
and facility requirements, and areas in
which expansion and improvement are needed"
(Rodney et al., 1981, p. 436).

The literature indicates that the senior administrator is

responsible for meeting with community groups, keeping the public

informed of recreation matters, and developing positive working
relationships with community agencies and groups.

   Consulting With The Recreation Board and Executive Body. The
literature indicates that the senior administrator advises the
recreation board and administers departmental policies. The senior
administrator

> "... serves as the technical advisor to
> the recreation and parks board" (Rodney et
> al., 1981, p. 147).

> "... carries out the policies as set by
> the board" (Rodney et al., 1981, p. 435).

> "... advises the board on matters of
> policy" (Butler, 1976, p. 110).

   These writers suggest that the senior administrator's
responsibility includes advising the recreation board on policy and
technical matters and administering the department's policies
established by the recreation board and executive body.

   This review of selected recreation literature suggests that the
senior administrator is directly responsible for all aspects of programs
and services, and the administration of the department. While the
performance of some tasks by the senior administrator and the delegation
of other tasks to subordinate staff is unique to each department, the
literature does not differentiate between these tasks. The writers can
only suggest "typical duties" of which the senior administrator is, at
best, ultimately responsible. While this may indicate the kinds of
tasks the senior administrator may perform, the result is a normative
description of the "typical" responsibilities of the position of senior
administrator.

For the purposes of this study the descriptive examination of the administrative duties and specific tasks of senior administrators is based upon a theoretical approach to the study of roles.

Role Theory

The review of three specific theoretical approaches to roles has formed the conceptual basis for the study of administrative duties and specific tasks. Bakke's model of the fusion process (1953), Katz and Kahn's model of the taking of organizational roles (1978), and Getzels and Guba's model of administrative behavior (1957) are described and compared.

Bakke. Bakke approaches the subject of the individual in the organization as involving a fusion process. Rather than establish rules about organizing, Bakke describes how the individual hopes to use the organization to reach personal goals and similarly, how the organization attempts to use the individual to reach organizational goals.

The fusion process is the result of the dynamic interaction between the "socializing" and the "personalizing" process. The "personalizing process" is utilized by the individual to use the organization and its people for the accomplishment of personal goals and expectations. The "socializing process" is the organization's attempt to accomplish organizational goals through the allocation of specific positions and subsequent functions and responsibilities. The fusion process can be briefly described as the integration of the individual and the organization to attain specific organizational roles and statuses.

Bakke also describes three units of behavior which ". . . originate in and appear to be responses to the demands and expectancies from . . .

these three sources" (1953, p. 14), namely formal and informal tasks and

acts. The "formal tasks" are the totality of the organization's formal

demands and expectations. The "informal tasks" are the informal demands

and expectations of the associated groups or role set of the individual.

The "acts" are the individual's desire for self-expression.

Figure 1 shows Bakke's model of the fusion process. The model

consists of the organization and individual dimensions. The

organization dimension is the basis for describing the socializing

process and the individual dimension, the personalizing process. The

components of each dimension are discussed as they collectively describe

the fusion process.

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Figure 1

Conceptual Model of the Fusion Process (Bakke, 1953, p. 20)

In the socializing process, "formal positions" are composed of "formal functions" which are selected from the totality of "formal tasks". The formal organization assigns formal positions which carry their respective formal functions.

In the personalizing process, the totality of the individual's "acts" have been labelled "conduct". Conduct is the personal behavior a person expects from himself. The "standing" the person desires to occupy in relation to other individuals and groups is the essential core of a person's conception of himself.

The merging of these two processes results in a change in both the individual and the organization. This interaction is diagramatically represented by the central area of the overlapping triangle in Figure 1 (p. 21). The result of the interaction between conduct and function has been called a "role". The result of the interaction between standing and position has been called "status". The interaction between the tasks and the acts has been called "activities".

Bakke's model suggests that observed behavior is a result of the individual attempting to personalize his role while, simultaneously, the organization attempts to socialize the individual. A similar model which also describes the dynamic interaction between the individual and the organization is proposed by Katz and Kahn (1978).

Katz and Kahn. Katz et al. (1978), in describing the organization as a system of roles, developed a theoretical model of the factors involved in the taking of roles (Figure 2, p. 23). The role episode is described as the core of the model and is followed by a discussion of role-taking.
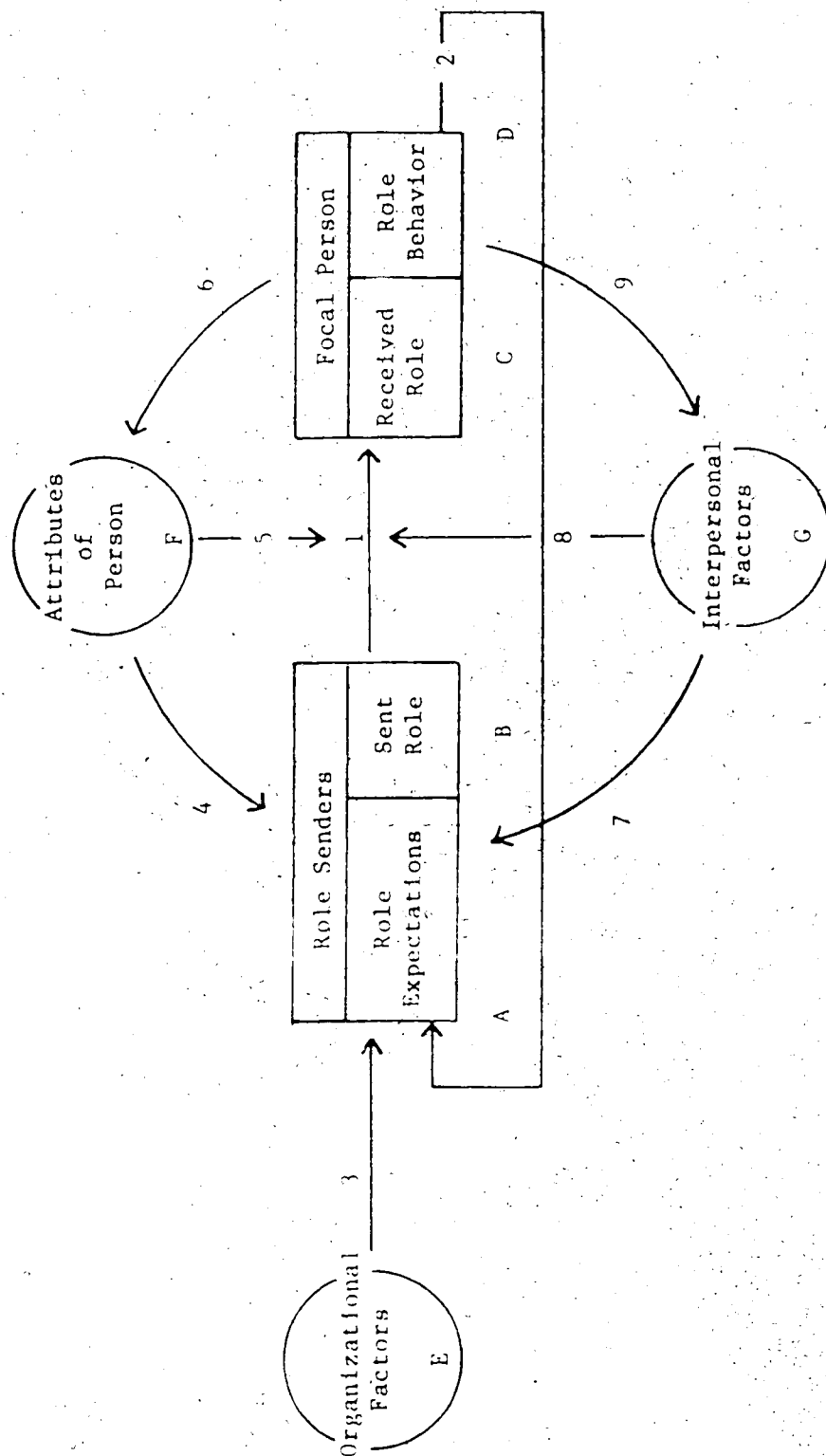
Figure 2

A Theoretical Model Of Factors Involved In The Taking of Organizational Roles
(Katz. et al., 1978, p. 196)

The role episode (Katz et al., 1978, p. 195) is comprised of four basic concepts. "Role expectations" are the standards of behavior applied to a person occupying an organizational position (Box A in Figure 2). "Sent-role" are the expectations sent by members of the role-set to influence the focal person's behavior (Box B). "Received role" is the focal person's perception of the sent role and includes the focal person's personal expectations of himself in that position (Box C). Lastly, "role behavior" is the focal person's response to the information and influence he has received (Box D). Role expectations and sent role consist of the motivations, cognitions, and behavior of the members of the focal person's role set. The received role and role behavior address the focal person's cognitions, motivations, and behavior.

Arrow 1 in Figure 2 emphasizes the influence of role expectations on role behavior. The feedback loop (Arrow 2) indicates the degree to which the focal person's behavior conforms to the expectations of the role set and suggests that the process of role sending and role receiving is cyclical in nature. The role episode is therefore, at the core of the model, in Figure 2, and includes Boxes A to D and Arrows 1 and 2.

Role sending and role behavior, as a part of this ongoing cyclical process, are also influenced by individual, interpersonal, and organizational factors. The inclusion of these three factors with the role episode completes the model in the taking of organizational roles.

The "organizational factors" (Circle E in Figure 2) influence the role expectations held by members of the role set. These factors include the technology of the organization, the organizational

structure, the formal policies, rules and regulations, and the rewards and penalties associated with occupying a position within a given organization. Arrow 3 suggests a causal relationship between these organizational factors and the particular role expectations the role set members hold and send to the focal person.

The "attributes of a person" (circle F) refer to the variables which describe the tendency of an individual to behave in idiosyncratic ways. These are the personal traits of a person such as motives, fears, values, likes, and dislikes. Katz et al. (1978) propose that these factors affect the role episode in three ways. First, Arrow 4 suggests that personal attributes affect the role sender's evaluation of the focal person and may provoke certain behaviors (eg. friendly or unfriendly behavior). Second, Arrow 5 suggests that the focal person's personality can affect different people in different ways and influence the essence of the role sent, the role received, and role behavior. Third, Arrow 6 suggests that the focal person's role behavior affects his own personality. Katz et al. (1978) postulate that a person becomes what he does and cannot become what he does not do.

The "interpersonal factors" (Circle G) include the expectations the role set members hold and send to the focal person (Arrow 7). Arrow 8 suggests that the type of relationship (eg. trusting vs. distrusting) the focal person has with the role senders will affect how the person interprets the role set's sent expectations. Lastly, Arrow 9 suggests that the focal person's role behavior affects his interpersonal relations with the members of his role set.

In summary, Katz and Kahn's model of the factors involved in the taking of organizational roles indicates that the dynamic relationship

which exists between the focal person and the members of his role set is
instrumental in influenci g and determining the role behavior of the
focal person. This balance between the focal person's attempt to
personalize his role behavior while receiving influencing messages from
the role senders shows the complexity of the factors involved in the
taking of organizational roles.

In essence, Katz and Kahn describe the interaction of the
individual and the organization as involving a socializing –
personalizing process through the dynamics inherent in a role episode,
Similarly, Getzels and Guba's model of social behavior describes the
interaction of the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions.

Getzels and Guba. A framework which analyses administrative
behavior on the conceptual basis of a social system was initially
formulated by Getzels and his associates (Getzels, 1952, 1958, 1963;
Getzels and Guba, 1957; Getzels and Thelan, 1960; Getzels, Lipham, and
Campbell, 1968). Based on the analysis of roles and expectations by
Parsons and Shils (1951), the Getzels and Guba (1957) conceptual model
has been applied by a number of writers in the education field to
describe various aspects of the educational system. For example, Halpin
(1958) attempts to develop an administrative theory in education,
Getzels and Thelen (1960) study the classroom group as a social system,
Getzels (1963) attempts to describe conflict and role behavior in the
educational setting, Getzels (1964) conceives the educational system as
a social system to describe behavior, Saxe (1968) describes the changing
role of the principal, Gray (1972) studies the role of the high school
department head, Sinclair (1973) studies the role of the deputy

principal in Australian high schools, and Owens (1981) describes

organizational behavior in the educational system.

The extensive use of the Getzels and Guba model of social behavior

to study administrative behavior in educational settings suggests that

the model may be universally applied to describe administrative behavior

in other settings. Of interest to this study is the application of the

model by Edginton and Williams (1978, p. 36) to conceptually describe

the administrative behavior of municipal recreation practitioners.

The conceptual model conceives of the social system as involving

two major classes of phenomena, namely, the normative or nomothetic and

the personal or idiographic dimensions. These phenomena are

conceptually independent and phenomenally interactive (Getzels et al.,

1957). Figure 3 displays the Getzels and Guba model of social or

administrative behavior.

                    Nomothetic Dimension
                        (Normative)

        / Institution ———— Role ———— Role Expectations \
Social / | | | \ Observed
System \ | | | / Behavior
        \ Individual ——— Personality ——— Need-Dispositions /

                    Idiographic Dimension
                        (Personal)
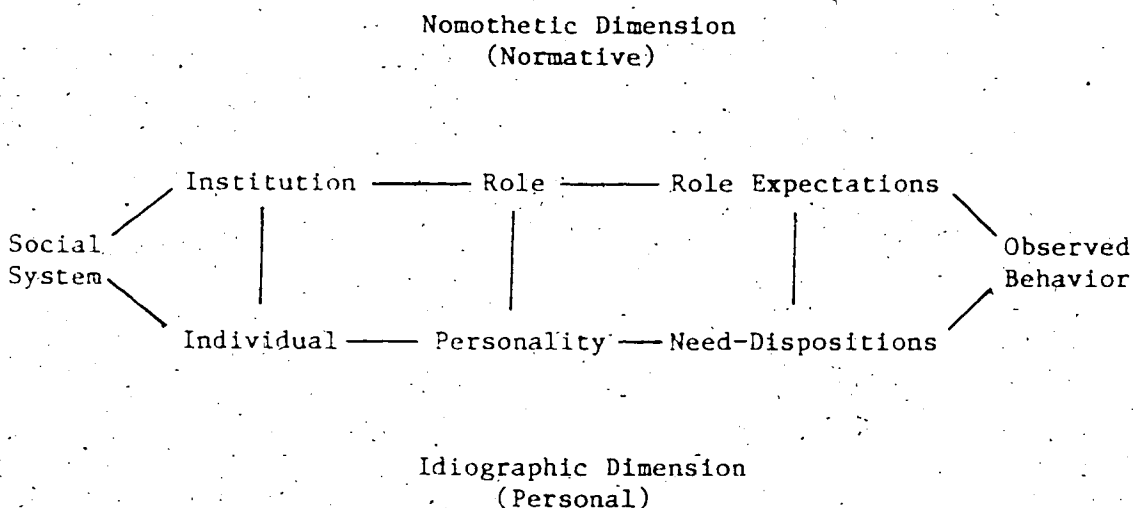
                        Figure 3

        General Model Showing the Nomothetic and the Idiographic
                Dimensions of Social Behavior.
                    (Getzels et al., 1957, p. 429)

The normative or nomothetic dimension consists of the institution, role, and expectations. The institution is comprised of certain roles, with each role having specific role expectations.

The idiographic or personal dimension consists of the individual, who performs a role within the institution, and the subsequent personality and need-dispositions, that person brings with him in the performance of that role. The point to be emphasized is that each person occupies a given role differently. The unique styles of expressive behavior are based on the personality of the individual and his individual needs. Conceptually, personality consists of values and motivations and how that person acts and reacts in a given environment (Getzels et al., 1963). A person's need-disposition is affected by the values and motivations on one hand, and personal goals on the other (Getzels et al., 1968).

The two-way arrows in Figure 3 (p. 27) indicate that observed behavior is simultaneously derived from the dynamic interaction between the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. This may best be understood by the comment:

> "... to understand the behavior of specific
> role incumbents in an institution, we must
> know both the role expectations and the need -
> dispositions. Indeed, needs and expectations
> may both be thought of as motives for
> behavior, the one deriving from personal
> propensities, the other from institutional
> requirements. What we call social behavior
> may be conceived as ultimately deriving from
> the interaction between the two sets of
> motives."
>   (Getzels et al., 1957, p. 428)

The actual behavior is thus a function of the individual's personality and the given role. Behavior is a result of the individual meeting the role expectations of his role-set which are consistent with

his own pattern of needs and dispositions (Getzels et al., 1957).

To emphasize the significance of the interaction between the person's need-dispositions and his role expectations, Kahn et al. state:

> "To a considerable extent, the role
> expectations held by the members of a role
> set - the prescriptions and proscriptions
> associated with a particular position - are
> determined by the broader organizational
> context. The organizational structure, the
> functional specialization and division of
> labor, and the formal reward system dictate
> the major content of a given office. What
> the occupant of that office is supposed to
> do, with and for whom, is given by these and
> other properties of the organization itself"
> (1964, p. 31).

The notion that each office is related, in some way directly or less directly to every other office has been called the role set. The factors affecting the closeness of the relationship are the work flow and technology of the organization and the hierarchy of authority (Katz et al., 1978).

Figure 4 (p. 30) could represent the role set of a senior administrator. Typically, a member's role set may include the immediate supervisor (Town Manager), supervisors of other municipal departments (Engineering, Administration), and for the purposes of this study members of the community (community groups), subordinate staff, the municipal recreation board, and elected officials (Mayor, Councillors). These members of the focal person's (Senior Administrator) role set may directly and indirectly influence the Senior Administrator's role behavior.

The Getzels and Guba model describes the dynamic interaction between the nomothetic and idiographic dimension as involving an
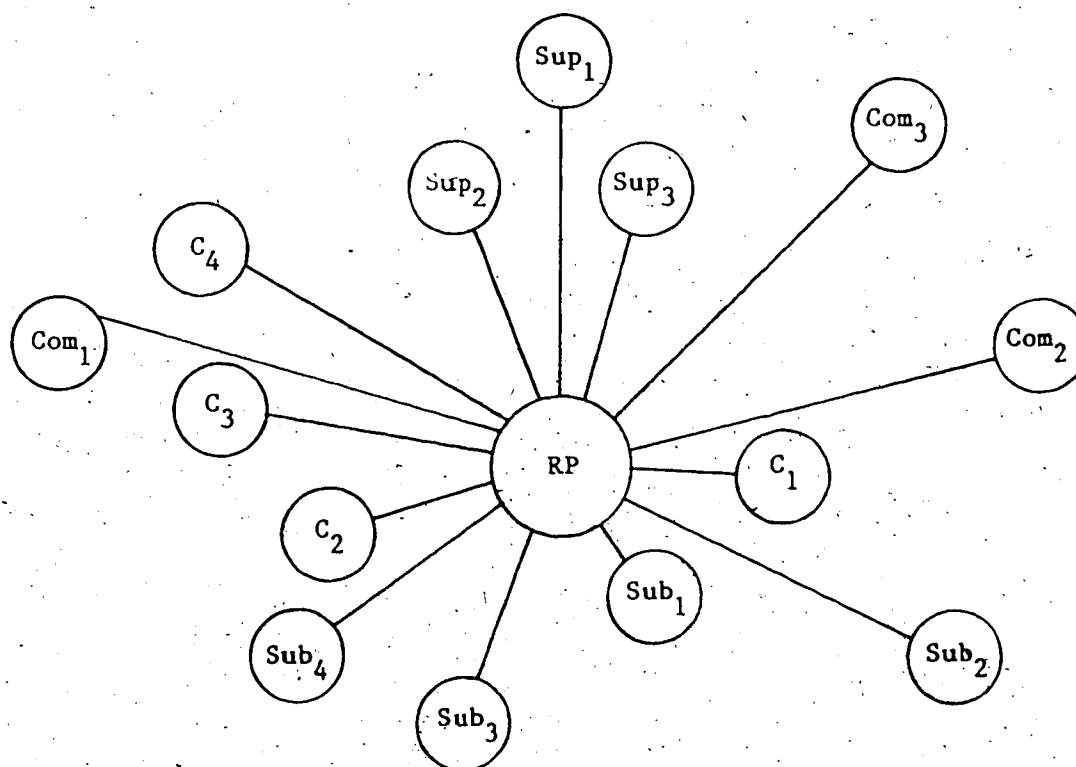
Figure 4

Illustration of Role Set of Municipal Leisure Services
Senior Administrator
(Adapted from W.G. Bennis, 1968, p. 193)

RP   =   Pivotal Role Player (Sr. Administrator)
Sub   =   Subordinates reporting to RP
C   =   Colleagues in RP's role set
Sup_1 =   Municipal Council
Sup_2 =   Town Manager
Sup_3 =   Recreation Board or Commission
Com =   Community Groups and Organizations

influencing process. The three models reviewed are similar in this
respect, and are compared to support the concept of the interaction
between the individual and the organization.

Comparison of the Three Models

The conceptual models by Bakke (1953), Katz and Kahn (1978), and
Getzels and Guba (1957) have been reviewed for two reasons. First, they
describe in a similar fashion the dynamic interaction between the
individual and the organization. Second the Bakke and Katz and Kahn
models conceptually support the Getzels and Guba model. Since the
Getzels and Guba model has formed the conceptual framework for this
study, supporting evidence was felt to be required because this
particular model has been primarily used in the education field only.
For these two reasons, the three models are compared.

The basic purpose of each of the three models is to explain the
interaction between the individual and the organization. This
interaction results in the "observed behavior" (Getzels et al., 1957),
"activities" (Bakke, 1953) or "role behavior" (Katz et al., 1978) of the
individual.

The nomothetic, normative, or organization dimension addresses the
"socializing process". This refers to the organization's attempt to
influence the behavior of the individual as he strives to reach
organizational goals.

The idiographic, personal, or individual dimension addresses the
"personalizing process". This refers to the individual's attempt to
temper the organization's demands with personal attributes.

The suggestion of the "personalizing-socializing process" in each
of the three models indicates that the individual's behavior is a result

of the "fusion" between his personal needs and disposition and the
influence of role expectations on the individual.

Role expectations are the essence of the socializing process. Katz
et al. (1978) suggest that the process of role sending explains the
influence of role expectations on the behavior of the focal person as a
part of the role episode. Bakke (1953) suggests that the "informal
socializing process" which operates in conjunction with the "formal
socializing process" is comprised of the role expectations of the role
set members. Getzels and Guba (1957) suggest that observed behavior is
the result of the individual behaving in a manner which is consistent
with his own pattern of needs and dispositions while meeting role
expectations sent to him by role set members.

This comparison supports the "personalizing-socializing" concept.
With this in mind, the Getzels and Guba model of social behavior (1957)
has formed the conceptual framework for this study.

Conceptual Framework of the Study

The Getzels and Guba model of administrative behavior (1957) has
been adapted to form the conceptual framework for this study. Figure 5
(p. 33) displays a conceptual model of a Municipal Leisure Services
Department and the position of Senior Administrator in relation to
administrative duties and specific tasks. Each element of the
nomothetic and idiographic dimensions is individually discussed. The
nomothetic dimension consists of the institution, position, roles, and
expectations.

Social System

Municipal Organizational
        Structure
                        ]—A —→ Institution.   Individual
Leisure Services Dept.
Specialized Task Units

Position of Senior ——— B —→ Position
Administrator

                                                    Personality

Administrative Duties
Specified   ]   C —→ Role
Specific Tasks
Specified.

                        /Administrative Duties and
                      /   Specific Tasks Accepted
                D   E
        Expectations ←— F ——Frequency of Task —— G —→ Need-
                            Performance   Disposition

                H   Perceived   I
                            Importance Of
                            Task Performance

                        Role Behavior
                            ↑
                            J
                        Specific Tasks Performed

Figure 5

Conceptual Model of the Municipal Leisure Services Department and the
Position of Senior Administrator in Relation to Administrative Duties
                    and Specific Tasks
        (After Getzels et al., 1957 and Sinclair, 1973)

Institution. The institution represents the formal organizational structure. Peter M. Blau defines the organizational structure as "... the distributions, along various lines, of people among social positions that influence the role relations among these people" (1974, p. 12). It also includes a division of labor (different people have different tasks to fulfill in the organization) and a hierarchy of positions (each person's behavior is directed by the specific rules and regulations pertaining to the position they occupy) (Hall, 1977). The formal organizational structure of a municipal leisure services department would dictate the role expectations of its members according to the position held. Miles more broadly defines organizational structure

> "... those features of the organization
> that serve to control or distinguish its
> parts. Structure is generally expressed in
> terms of the division and specialization of
> work and the methods of coordination and
> control" (1980, p. 18).

Structurally (Arrow A), the Leisure Services Department would be only one department of the municipal organizational structure. Other departments may include Administration, Finance, Engineering, Police, Fire Department, and Public Works. Similarly, the Leisure Services Department may be structurally divided into specialized task units, such as parks, facilities, recreation programs, and cultural arts.

Position. The position represents the formal office of the senior administrator (Arrow B). If the goals of the institution are to be accomplished and the work performed, then the formal positions must be occupied by people. In most cases, the municipal leisure services department will be directed by a senior administrator who is responsible for the day-to-day operation of that organization. Depending upon the number of staff included in the formal hierarchy, other staff would

report directly to the senior administrator according to the authority
relationship. Subordinate staff would be entrusted to carry out
organizational goals ind objectives according to their hierarchical
position.

Role. In relation to a municipal leisure services department,
roles may be defined as "structural or normative elements defining the
behavior expected of role incumbents or actors, [persons occupying such
positions as Senior Administrator, Director of Parks, Director of
Recreation, Pool Manager, Parks Labourer, etc.], that is, their mutual
rights and obligations" (Getzels et al., 1968, p. 60). Specifically,
tasks are the major component of roles (Arrow C). As Campbell et al.
state:

> "If the goals of the institution are
> known, the tasks to achieve them may be
> specified and organized into relevant roles.
> Each role is assigned certain
> responsibilities and concomitant resources,
> including authority, for implementing the
> tasks. Usually the table of organization or
> blue-print of roles and role relationships is
> set up before any real incumbents are
> selected for the roles" (1968, p. 58).

A major characteristic of roles is that they represent positions,
offices, or statuses within a given institution (Getzels et al., 1968).
The position of senior administrator represents a role.

Expectations. The expectations represent the role expectations the
members of the role set hold and send to the senior administrator. Role
expectations are a set of normative rights and duties which specify the
behavior to be expected of the person occupying the position of senior
administrator. Barbin supports the idea that roles are defined in terms
of role expectations in his comment that, "A position in a social

structure is equivalent to an organized system of role expectations"
(1954, p. 226). Similarly, Katz and Kahn (1978), in defining the
organization as a system of roles, use the term "office" to denote the
relationship of each position to one another and to the system as a
whole.

Each person occupying a position within the municipal leisure
services department therefore is subject to certain pre-determined
expectations. Role expectations can   iewed as a skeleton providing
the framework for the role. How the individual (idiographic dimension)
moulds his role around and within the parameters of these expectations
(the nomothetic dimension) is the individual's inclination.
Expectations can therefore be defined as

> "... those rights and duties, privileges and
> obligations - in a word, those prescriptions -
> that delineate what a person should and should
> not do under various circumstances as the
> incumbent of a particular role in a social
> system" (Getzels et al., 1968, p. 64).

The illustration of a senior administrator's role set (Figure 4,
p. 29) demonstrates the complex nature of the senior administrator's
role. He has to contend not only with the role expectations of his
superiors (Town Managers, Recreation Board, Municipal Council) and
subordinate staff whom he supervises (Directors of Recreation, Parks,
Facilities, Program Coordinator, Aquatic Staff, Maintenance Staff,
Clerical Staff) but also with the many community groups and
organizations who all have very different, and sometimes conflicting,
demands.

The idiographic dimension consists of the individual, his
personality, and his need-dispositions as he occupies a given position.

Individual. .A person occupies a position and assumes the role or
roles associated with that position. The person stamps the role he
performs with his own unique style and pattern of expressive behavior
(Getzels et al., 1968).

Personality. Getzels et al. (1968) define personality as follows:

> "Personality is the dynamic organization
> within the individual of those need-
> dispositions and capacities that determine his
> unique interaction with the environment"
> (p. 69).

Environment used in this definition refers to geographical
settings, the objects and individuals in the setting and the culturally
structured and shared symbols of that setting. It also includes
expectations - the roles and statuses and rights and duties of the
individual (Getzels et al., 1968).

Need-Disposition. The personality may be defined by need-
dispositions. Need-dispositions can be generalized in the following
ways. (Getzels et al., 1968) - they are forces within the individual;
they are goal oriented; they affect how a person perceives the
environment and thus his behavior; they can be satisfied through either
a range of objects, situations, and roles or only by specific objects,
situations, or roles; lastly, they are patterned vertically or
hierarchically (i.e. Maslow's Hierarchy of needs) as well as
horizontally.

Arrows D to I are represented by dotted lines to suggest that the
acceptance of the administrative duties and specific tasks (Arrows D and
E), the frequency of task performance (Arrows F and G), and the
perceived importance of task performance (Arrows H and I) by the senior
administrator is a function of both the role expectations of the role

set members and his personal needs and dispositions. The model suggests
that observed behavior, or task performance, is a result of the dynamic
interaction between the idiographic (personal) and the nomothetic
(normative) dimensions. Therefore, task acceptance and frequency and
perceived importance of task performance are influenced by other's role
expectations and the senior administrator's needs—disposition.

Role Behavior. The dynamic interaction of the idiographic
dimension with the nomothetic dimension results in role behavior,
observed behavior or task performance. Katz et al. (1978) define role
behavior as

> "... the recurring actions of an
> individual, appropriately interrelated with
> the repetitive activities of others so as to
> yield a predictable outcome" (p.185).

Arrow J addresses a main problem of the study, namely the
identification of specific tasks performed by senior administrators.

Summary. Chapter 2 reviewed the literature in three areas, namely
administrative duties, the normative responsibilities of senior
administrators, and lastly, three conceptual models on roles to
aid in the descriptive analysis of the position of senior
administrator.

The management and administration literature indicated that writers
have been describing the job of administrators in terms of duties for
the past 50 years. The lack of precise definitions of the duties and
disagreement between theorists about which duties should be included led
the researcher to choose descriptive terms used in the municipal
recreation field which described large segments of work of the senior
administrator. The seven administrative duties chosen for this study

were assessment, budget administration, office management, planning,

public relations, consulting with the recreation board and executive

body, and staffing.

The recreation literature indicated that the senior administrator

should perform all departmental tasks and to generally be responsible

for all department programs and services. The recreation writers

suggested "typical duties" which, at best, resulted in a normative

description of the responsibilities of senior administrators.

The three conceptual models of roles by Bakke (1953), Katz and Kahn

(1978), and Getzels and Guba (1957) were presented. Bakke suggested

that the individual and the organization experienced a fusion process.

Katz and Kahn indicated that the role episode was the basis for

explaining the dynamic interaction between the individual and the

organization. Getzels and Guba suggested that the interaction between

the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions resulted in the observed

behavior of the individual.

The models by Bakke and Katz and Kahn explained the interaction

between the individual and the organization and therefore provided

conceptual support for Getzels and Guba's model of social behavior.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter describes the design of the study which includes the development, format, and administration of the instrument, the response scales utilized, the population of the study, and the analysis of the data.

Development of the Instrument

The examination of administrative duties and specific tasks suggested that a status survey of senior administrators would be an appropriate type of descriptive research method for the study of this problem. The development of the administrative duties and specific task statements suggested a job analysis approach.

Job analysis is defined as "the scientific study and statement of all the facts about a job which reveal its contents and all modifying factors which surround it" (Tead et al., 1920, p. 285). Simply stated, McCormick defines job analysis as the "study of human work" (1979, p. 4). The construction of the questionnaire utilized in this study was based on two job analysis procedures, namely task analysis and task inventory.

Task Analysis. Task analysis is an analytic procedure for describing work in terms of tasks. The criteria for identifying tasks are as follows:

> A task is a group of related manual
>   activities directed towards a goal.
>   [mental activities may also be included]
> A task usually has a definite beginning and
>   end.

A task involves people's interaction with
equipment, other people, and/or media.
A task, when performed, results in a
meaningful product. (Products are not
always tangible. For example, a "correct
decision" is a meaningful product.)
A task includes a mixture of decisions,
perceptions, and/or physical (motor)
activities required of one person.
A task may be of any size or degree of
complexity. But it must be directed
toward a specific purpose or separate
portion of the total duty.
(McCormick, 1979, p. 92)

Examples of seven specific tasks categorized under each of the

seven administrative duties (in brackets) includes the following:

Recruit Facility Director. (Staffing)

Prepare information brochures of your

department's leisure services. (Public

Relations)

Assist with the Master Plan. (Planning)

Order office supplies and equipment. (Office

Management)

Compile program and facility-use attendance

figures. (Assessment)

Develop annual departmental budget

objectives. (Budget Administration).

Develop policies with Recreation Board.

(Consulting with the Recreation Board

and Executive Body)

The development of specific task statements addresses task analysis

and task inventory. However, task inventories may also include response

scales which indicate the extent of performance and attitude towards the

performance of the task.

Task Inventory. Melching et al. (1973) define a task inventory as

"... a list of appropriate duty and task
statements covering the tasks performed by
workers in an occupational area" (p. 3).

There are two basic features which characterize a task inventory.

These are a list of task statements for the occupation being studied and

the provision for some type of response scale for each individual task

statement (McCormick, 1979).

There are two types of response scales which may be used in

conjunction with task inventories. The first type of scale allows the

incumbent to indicate some degree of involvement with each task. The

second type of scale allows the incumbent to make a judgement about

performing each specific task. The subjects in this study were asked

three questions for each task statement. First, the subjects responded

with a "yes", "delegated", or "no" response to indicate if they actually

performed the task. Second, the subjects were asked how often they

performed each task. Last, to obtain an indication of their perception

of task performance, the subjects were asked to judge the degree of

importance of performing each task in their job.

Administrative Duties and Specific Tasks. Based upon personal

experience and a review of the mangement and recreation literature a

list of seven broad administrative duties was compiled. These were as

follows:

Assessment

Budget Administration

Office Management

Planning.

Public Relations

Consulting with the Recreation Board

and Executive Body

Staffing

For each administrative duty a list of specific tasks was developed. (The administrative duties and specific tasks are described in detail in Chapter 4). To obtain a comprehensive list of related specific tasks, four other municipal recreation administrators not part of the study population were asked to review the specific tasks previously listed and to add any others they felt necessary. As well, the subjects were asked during the interviews to identify any other tasks which they performed.

Each specific task was stated in terms which were assumed to be commonly understood by people working in the municipal recreation field. To ensure a common interpretation, the four municipal recreation administrators who reviewed the instrument were asked to identify the specific tasks which they did not understand or required further clarification. At this time the researcher also asked the test subjects to define some of the tasks to determine their interpretation of them. This gave the researcher an idea of those tasks which were more likely to be misinterpreted. The senior administrators in the study were asked to define those specific tasks identified during the testing of the instrument.

Format of the Instrument

For each specific task statement the subjects were asked to answer three separate questions. To minimize the confusion each subject was

given three response cards. Response card A outlined the three possible

answers regarding task performance:

Yes - I personally perform this specific task.

Delegated - Someone else in my department performs this

specific task.

No - This specific task is not performed at all in

my department.

Response card B outlined the responses to indicate the frequency of

task performance. The responses were assigned weights from one to

seven, inclusive, so that an average frequency weight could be

computed for each specific task. The possible responses were as

follows:

1. Never

2. Annually (or less)

3. Semi-Annually

4. Bimonthly

5. 1-2 times/month

6. 1-2 times/week

7. daily

Response card C listed the five levels of importance regarding task

performance. The responses were assigned weights from one to five,

inclusive, so that a mean importance score could be computed for each

specific task. The responses were as follows:

1. very unimportant

2. unimportant

3. undecided

4. important

5. very important

To provide general information and assist in the final analysis, each subject was asked four questions:

1. What was the approximate percentage of time you spent performing each administrative duty over the past 12 months?

2. What are the most essential specific tasks in your job?

3. What specific tasks take up most of your time to complete?

4. If time permitted, what specific tasks related to your position would you like to give greater emphasis?

To gain an understanding of the broad areas of responsibility the senior administrators were asked if they supervised parks, facilities, recreation programs, or other task-specialized areas. As well the subjects were asked to indicate the specific facilities under their responsibility.

Administration of the Instrument

The subjects were contacted by telephone in April, 1982 in order to introduce the researcher, to explain the study, and to solicit their participation. Seventeen senior administrators consented (one position was vacant) and appointments were established during the middle two weeks of May, 1982.

Before each interview commenced the subjects were reminded of the purpose of the study and assured that all responses would be kept

anonymous and confidential. All interviews were tape-recorded and were

1 1/2 hours in duration.

The researcher utilized the questionnaire as an interview guide on

which to record the responses.

Identification of the Study Population

A mailing list, developed in April, 1982 by the Alberta Recreation

and Parks Department, was consulted to acquire the names, positions, and

addresses of all senior administrators who worked in municipal leisure

service departments in the Province of Alberta.

The population of the study was identified on the basis of the

following four criteria:

1. The municipalities, counties, or regions were located

   within a 100 km radius of the City of Edmonton,

   Alberta.

2. The municipalities, counties, or regions had a

   municipal leisure service department with full-time

   personnel.

3. The municipalities, counties, or regions had a

   population between 1,000 and 15,000.

4. Only the senior administrator of each municipal

   leisure service department who met the three previous

   criteria were included in the study.

A total of 18 senior administrators were initially identified as

meeting the four criteria. One position was vacant, therefore the study

population consisted of 17 senior administrators. The breakdown

according to the type of jurisdiction consisted of 14 senior

administrators from towns or cities, 2 from regional districts, and 1

from a county.

The average population of the jurisdictions was 7,000. The

population ranged between 1,136 and 12,783.

Profile of the Study Population

The study population was chosen from a specific geographical area.

The subjects have been described in this section in terms of age, sex,

lu tion, the number of full-time employees in their respective

de rtments, the number of full-time supervisory staff in their

respective departments, and their 1981 department operating budget.

Age. Table 2 shows the age of the senior administrators by

years.

Table 2

Age of Senior Administrators in
Years
(N = 17)

Age in Years	f
21	1
22	1
24	1
25	2
27	2
28	1
29	2
30	1
32	2
38	1
41	1
45	1
54	1
	17

Mean Age = 31 years

The subj cts ranged in age from 21 to 54 years. Fifty-nine percent of the study population were between the ages of 25 and 32 years, inclusive. The average age of the senior administrator was 31 years.

Sex. Table 3 shows the sex of the senior admini   tors.

Table 3

Sex of Senior Administrators
(N = 17)

Sex	f	%
Male	11	64.7
Female	6	35.3
Total	17	100%

The data indicate that there were almost twice as many males than females represented in this study.

Education. Table 4 shows the highest education attained by frequency and percentage.

The study population was comprised of highly educated individuals. In total, 94.1% had received a college diploma or undergraduate degree as the highest education attained.

Table 4

Highest Education Attained
(N - 17)

Level of Education	f	%
High School Diploma	1	5.9%
College Diploma	3	17.6%
Undergraduate Degree	13	76.5%
Total	17	100%

Full-Time Employees. Table 5 shows the actual number of full-time employees in each of the subjects' departments.

Table 5

Number of Full-Time Employees
In the Subjects' Departments
Ordered By Rank
(N = 17)

Department	Number of Full-Time Employees
C	1
Q	1
D	2
F	2
K	2
N	3
G	4
E	5
H	6
P	8

Table 5 (Continued)

J	12
B	14
I	14
M	15
A	20
L	21
O	35
mean	10

The number of full-time employees ranged from 1 to 35, inclusive. The average number of full-time employees was 10.

Full-Time Supervisory Staff. Table 6 shows the actual number of full-time supervisory staff by subject.

Table 6

Number of Full-Time Supervisory
Staff in Each of the Departments
Ordered By Rank
(N = 17)

Departments	Number of Full-Time Supervisory Staff
C	1
D	1
F	1
K	1
N	1
Q	1
H	2
P	2
E	3
G	3

Table 5 (Continued)

I	3
J	4
K	5
M	5
O	5
A	5

mean

The number of full-time supervisory staff (including the senior administrator) ranged from 1 to 6 inclusive. The departments had an average number of 3 full-time supervisors.

Operating Budget. Table 7 shows the 1980-81 fiscal operating budget for each municipal leisure services department by subject.

Table 7

1981 Fiscal Operating Budget Controlled
By Subject Ordered By Rank
(N = 17)

Subject	1981 Fiscal Operating Budget in Dollars
C	$57,000
F	94,000
Q	138,000
N	169,000
P	203,000
G	205,000
E	224,000
D	225,000
K	266,000
H	328,000
J	417,000
B	693,000

Tabl. 7 (Continued)

I	703,000
O	840,000
A	852,000
M	973,000
L	1,086,000

| mean | $439,588 |
| median | $266,000 |

The 1981 operating budgets for the municipal leisure service departments ranged from $57,000 to $1,086,000. The mean was $439,588 and the median was $266,000. The majority of the subjects (64.7% controlled operating budgets which were less than the mean.

. In summary the "average" senior administrator was approximately 28 years of age, male, possessed a university education, worked in a town or city with a population of approximately 7,000, had a full-time staff compliment of 10 employees of which 2 were supervisors, and controlled an average operating budget of approximately $439,588 or less.

Analysis of the Data

The Statistical Package of the Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized to compute descriptive statistics from the raw data. Specifically, frequency distributions, percentage of responses, and mean scores were reported to describe the data.

Frequency distributions and percentages were reported to describe the "yes" and "delegated" responses with regards to specific task performance and to compare the number of senior administrators actually performing the specific tasks with the number delegated to subordinate staff.

Numerical values of one to seven were assigned to the responses "never" to "daily". Percentages and average weights were used to describe the data.

The percentage of response and the mean scores were reported to describe the importance of task performance. Numerical values were assigned from one to five to the responses "very unimportant" to "very important". The importance scale provided interval data, therefore the percentage, and mean scores were considered to best represent and report the data.

Chapter 4

Administrative Duties and
Specific Tasks

This chapter addresses the following main problems:

    (1) What administrative duties were the responsibility of the

        senior administrators?

    (2) What specific tasks were personally performed (specific

        task performance) by the senior administrators?

This chapter describes the seven administrative duties utilized in
this study. As well, the specific tasks, detailing the respective
administrative duties, have been described and are based on the review
of selected recreation literature, discussions with the senior
administrators, and the researcher's personal experience.

Administrative Duties

The seven categories chosen to represent the administrative duties
of the senior administrators were assessment, budget administration,
office management, planning, public relations, recreation board and
executive body, and staffing.

Assessment. The municipal leisure services department may be
guided by departmental goals and objectives. The administrative duty of
assessment encompasses the examination of these predetermined goals and
objectives and the subsequent programs and services provided as a method
of determining whether departmental goals and objectives are being met
(Shivers, 1967; Kraus et al., 1981). It also includes compiling
attendance figures, visiting recreation programs, touring parks and
facilities, and assessing leisure services provided by private agencies.

Budget Administration. The municipal leisure services department's fiscal budget may be thought of as a document which provides information and direction regarding the acquisition, execution, and control of resources and the level of programs and services to be provided. To this end, budget administration includes the preparation, execution, and control of the department's operating and capital fiscal budgets (Hjelte et al., 1972; Edginton et al., 1978; Kraus et al., 1981; Rodney et al., 1981).

Office Management.

> "The office is a preparing, record-keeping, filing, and communicating centre. It handles many details and performs a multitude of tasks that help keep the flow of work moving and increase the overall efficiency of the organization" (Rodney et al., 1981, p. 360).

A municipal leisure services department must have established an operating structure, or office, where a coordinated effort can be undertaken to perform the work of the department. The performance of office tasks is a facilitating function which contributes to the overall provision of programs and services to the public. These specific tasks include establishing office procedures and routines, acquiring space, supplies, and equipment, developing information systems, the performing of inventories, and allocating time to prepare reports and attend meetings (Hjelte et al., 1972; Rodney et al., 1981). It also includes corresponding with other recreation personnel, holding staff meetings, scheduling staff holidays, reading about the latest developments in the field, scheduling or booking facilities, and administering recreation programs.

Planning. The administrative duty of planning involves the gathering and examination of information to determine a course of action

to meet pre-determined goals and objectives (Rodney et al., 1981).

Specifically, the tasks in this study involve establishing goals,

objectives, policies, joint-use agreements, and procedures, developing

and updating the Master Plan, conducting community surveys and studies,

administering department policies, organizing community-wide special

events, organizing facility planning committees, and conducting

feasibility studies. In essence, the specific tasks associated with the

planning process are the "systematic collection, organization, and

processing of information to facilitate decision-making" (Gold, 1980) in

regards to the provision of leisure programs and services.

Public Relations. The Funk and Wagnal Dictionary defines public

relations as

> "The activities and techniques used by
> organizations and individuals to establish
> favourable attitudes and responses on their
> behalf on the part of the general public or
> of special groups" (1974, p. 1089).

The activities and techniques include meeting and assisting the

general public and community groups, advertising and maintaining

positive relations with the media, promoting citizen involvement in

the provision of leisure programs and services, responding to citizen

complaints, preparing information brochures, representing the department

at community events and organizing public meetings.

Consulting with the Recreation Board and Executive Body. The

Recreation Board, comprised of citizens appointed by the Executive Body,

performs an advisory function for the Executive Body. The Recreation

Board recommends policy to the Executive Body who retains decision-

making authority in the determination of policy and the allocation of

resources. While the Recreation Board may have no direct authority over

the senior administrator, the recreation staff work cooperatively with

the Recreation Board and receive guidance, direction, and support for

the endeavours of the municipal leisure services department. The

specific tasks include developing policies with the recreation board and

executive body, reviewing leisure services with the recreation board,

presenting grant applications, meeting with the recreation board and

executive body, and preparing the department fiscal budget with the

recreation board.

Staffing. The administrative duty of staffing includes the

specific tasks related to recruiting, supervising, training, and

evaluating staff.

Specific Tasks

The individual specific tasks utilized in this study have been

identified and described in this section. The task requirements of

senior administrators have been examined as a method of determining the

roles and role expectations of this position. Katz and Kahn (1978)

support this method of describing role behavior of a specific position

in their comment that

> "Roles describe specific forms of behavior
> associated with given positions; they develop
> originally from task requirements." (p. 43)

Therefore a list of specific tasks was compiled to des ibe the

position of senior administrator. Each specific task is described under

a respective administrative duty.

Assessment. The six specific tasks utilized in this study to

describe the assessment duty are:

Task #1:   Compile attendance figures of department programs
           and facility use. (Compile attendance figures)

A senior administrator requires information on how the

organization is progressing. This information may take the

form of regular progress attendance reports. The recording of

accurate attendance figures allows weekly, monthly, or

seasonal comparisons, provides accurate revenue figures on

which to base expected revenues and expenditures, and

allows participation trends to be examined (Kraus, 1971;

Rodney et al., 1981).

Task #2:   Visit department-sponsored recreation programs.
           (Visit recreation programs)

Task #3:   Tour parks and facilities.

           "A control device that should not be
           overlooked is that of first-hand
           observation of programs being provided or
           inspection of services being provided.
           Actual perception of a situation provides
           an excellent opportunity to measure
           quality of performance" (Rodney et al.,
           1981; p. 58-59).

Task #4:   Assess department policies.

The senior administrator and subordinate recreation staff are

guided in the day-to-day operation of the department by

policies, as established by the Recreation Board and Executive

Body. Periodically these policies must be reviewed by those

who deal with them to ensure that they are up-to-date or to

propose changes as required.

Task #5:   Assess departmental goals and objectives.

Goals and objectives established by the department provide

direction, purpose, and a mission. Periodically these goals

and objectives should be re-examined to ensure that resources

are in line with the level of programs and services provided
(Rodney et al., 1981).

Task #6:   Assess leisure services and programs provided by
           private agencies and entrepreneurs. (Assess leisure
           services provided by private agencies)

           "Facilities and services provided by,
           private agencies ... . and commercial
           recreation enterprises to meet leisure
           needs of the population should be
           carefully evaluated by the public
           recreation and parks agency . ... so that
           a proper relationship between private and
           public facilities may be established and
           duplication may be avoided" (Rodney et
           al., 1981, p. 326).

Budget Administration.   The eleven specific tasks utilized in this

study to describe the administrative duty of budget administration are:

Task #7:   Develop specific budget performance objectives.

Budget performance objectives indicate the level of programs

and services the department will accomplish with the amount of

resources allotted. These objectives provide the decision-

makers with sufficient information on which to determine the

level of services and programs which can be afforded. If

budget cuts are made the decision-makers are then aware of the

programs or services being affected (Edginton et al., 1978).

Task #8:   Estimate expected revenue.

Revenue sources for a municipal leisure services department

are mainly dependent upon municipal taxes for operating.

However, revenue may also be derived from fees and charges,

federal and provincial grants, special municipal tax levies,

gifts and donations, concessions, and special money-raising

events. It is necessary for the senior administrator to be

aware of sources and amount of funds when preparing the fiscal

budget proposal in order to offset operating costs (Rodney et al., 1981).

Task #9:   Estimate and prepare the capital and operational budget. (Prepare capital and operational budget)

The preparation and accurate estimation of the department's fiscal budget is one of the most important tasks confronting the senior administrator (Rodney et al., 1981, p. 288). The budget is a financial plan which forecasts estimated income and expenditures. The budget document is a plan of action which determines the level of services and programs to be provided.

Task #10:   Coordinate the preparation of the budget proposal.

The senior administrator may supervise subordinate supervisory personnel (e.g. Director of Parks, Recreation, or Facilities). The senior administrator may delegate the preparation of parts of the budget to the respective supervisory staff and then coordinate the process to develop the department budget proposal.

Task #11:   Present the proposed budget to the Recreation Board and Executive Body.

It may be the responsibility of the senior administrator to present and explain the budget proposal to the Recreation Board and Executive Body. In this study the Recreation Boards were advisory, however their support for the document was required by the Executive Body. When presenting the budget to the Executive Body the Recreation Board chairman may accompany the senior administrator to offer support and explanation as well.

The main purpose of the budget presentation to the Executive
Body is to summarize the contents and outline any major
changes or new services being proposed (Edginton et al.,
1978).

Task #12: Authorize operating expenditures.

Once the budget has been given approval by the Executive Body,
the senior administrator has the responsibility of executing
the budget. Authorizing the day-to-day operating expenditures
by actual signature on invoices or purchase orders or
approving all expenditures and recording all expenditures are
ways the senior administrator can control the financial plan.
(Hjelte et al., 1972).

Task #13: Authorize capital expenditures.

Capital expenditures include the acquisition of fixed asset
items such as new buildings, land, re-modelling and
renovations, and equipment purchases. The senior
administrator may have the authority to purchase fixed asset
items once initial approval for their expenditures has been
given.

Task #14: Review departmental expenditures.

As a method of control, the senior administrators may review
the expenditures incurred by the department. This review may
assist the senior administrator to avoid over spending as well
as to bring to his attention those programs and services which
have not as yet been delivered (Edginton et al., 1978).

Task #15: Review departmental revenues.

Revenues offset the operating expenditures of the department.

If revenues are not as high as expected for any quarter, then future programs or services may be delayed, postponed, or cancelled to ensure that the budget is not over-spent. The decrease in revenues may also indicate that the fees and charges policy is inappropriate, there is inadequate advertising or promotion of programs, or there may be changing participation trends.

Task #16: Establish operating budget item priorities.

The budget proposal includes the operating a: p tal expenditure requests. In an effort to provide the Recreation Board and Executive Body with supporting information the senior administrator may assign priorities to the operating budget performance objectives and subsequent items. Should budget items require elimination, the lower priority items can be "cut" to ensure that essential services and programs are maintained.

Task #17: Establish capital budget item priorities.

Capital budget items may be financed by the municipality through current taxes, special assessments, or the issuance of bonds. The senior administrator may assign priorities to the capital item requests to aid the Executive Body in deciding the capital items which the municipality can afford (Rodney et al., 1981).

Office Management. The fourteen specific tasks included in this tudy to describe the administrative duty of office management are:

Task #18: Establish office routines and procedures.
         (Establish office routines)

Office routines and procedures include maintaining accurate

record-keeping procedures (i.e. rules, regulations, policies,
meeting minutes, Recreation Board business, etc.), maintaining
records of the day-to-day operations, the establishment of
specific office hours, facility scheduling and booking
procedures, dealing with correspondence and visitors, and
maintaining accurate financial records (Rodney et al., 1981).

Task #19: Order office supplies.

This specific task involves the acquisition of necessary
office supplies and equipment including stationary, office
equipment rental, repair, purchase, and telephone and radio
communication equipment services.

Task #20: Maintain the filing system.

The senior administrator may be responsible for the storage
and retrieval of information for future reference on the daily
operation of the department (Hjelte et al., 1972).

Task #21: Perform inventories of supplies and equipment.
           (Perform inventories)

Accurate records of the quality and quantity of supplies are
necessary to determine costs, usage, and to discourage waste.
Fixed assets or equipment such as desks, typewriters,
vehicles, etc. require the documentation of serial numbers in
case of loss (Rodney et al., 1981).

Task #22: Correspond with recreation personnel in other
           jurisdictions. (Correspond with other recreation
           personnel)

The senior administrator may consult recreation personnel in
other municipal jurisdictions regarding policy, use of
engineering, architectural, or landscaping consultants,
innovative services or programs, or new facility developments.

Task #23:   Hold departmental staff meetings. (Hold staff
            meetings)

The senior administrator may have staff meetings to discuss

and share ideas, interpret and formulate policies, determine

goals and objectives, or coordinate the completion of

various department tasks (Edginton et al., 1978).

Task #24: Schedule staff holidays.

In an effort to ensure that essential staff are not all absent

simultaneously or when manpower requirements are at their

peak, the senior administrator may schedule staff holidays.

This specific task addresses the deployment of staff and

requires a coordinated effort to ensure that manpower

requirements are met (Kraus et al., 1981).

Task #25: Read about the latest developments in the municipal
            recreation field (Read about latest developments).

To keep knowledgeable of the latest developments in the field,

the senior administrator may read the professional literature

or recent research reports. The senior administrator may be

improving his knowledge in the best interest of the department

and therefore some office time should be set aside (Rodney et

al., 1981).

Task #26: Schedule or book facilities.

The senior administrator may be responsible for scheduling

facilities to ensure that all c   .unity groups have access

(eg. how the use of the arena is divided between Minor Hockey,

Figure Skating Club, Commercial League, Schools, and Public

Skating). The senior administrator may also be responsible

for booking the facilities to community groups. Groups may

reserve facility space, e.g. gymnasiums, meeting rooms for

exclusive use by completing booking and space assignment

forms. All scheduling and bookings would be placed on a

master file to ensure double-bookings or other conflicts of

use do not occur.

Task #27: Establish program registration procedures.

The senior administrator may determine the method of which the

public can register for department-sponsored programs. This

may include mailed-in registrations, in-person registrations,

or registration days. The procedures would also dictate the

methods of acceptable payment, the establishment of waiting

lists, and refunds.

Task #28: Register participants into recreation programs.
           (Register participants into programs)

The senior administrator may register the participants through

the acceptance of payment, issuing receipts, contacting those

on waiting lists.

Task #29: Survey space and facilities available for program
           use. (Survey space available for programs)

         "As program needs are identified, it is
         important to survey all existing areas,
         buildings, and facilities to determine
         their adequacy and availability" (Rodney,
         et al., 1981, p. 232).

Task #30: Organize recreation programs.

The recreation program is the means by which the department

achieves its purpose of   g. The recreation programs

         "... are the end products of
         administration - the medium for the
         achievement of recreation objectives"
         (Rodney et al., 1981, p. 222).

Task #31: Contact recreation program instructors. (Contact
          program instructors)

The senior administrator may be responsible for advertising

and contacting interested and qualified instructors and

leaders, negotiating salaries, or determining the use of

volunteers, and signing contracts for services.

Planning. The ten specific tasks included in this study to

ribe the administrative duty of planning are:

   Task #32: Establish departmental long range goals and
              objectives. (Establish long range goals and
              objectives)

              "The aims, objectives, and goals of the
              organization must be clearly identified
              and understood. To not to know its
              purposes and objectives leads to
              misunderstandings and conflict and a lack
              of unity" (Rodney et al., 198?, p. 60).

   Task #33: Develop departmental policies with department
              staff.

The senior administrator may develop polici   provide

guidance and direction for subordinate staff in the day-to-day

operation of the department. The proposed policy would be

presented to the Recreation Board for input, information,

approval and support before being presented to the Executive

Body for approval and implementation.

Task #34: Administer departmental policies.

The administering of policies is interpreted to be a planning

task because it provides a mechanism to evaluate and interpret

them. By keeping policies current, the senior administrator

is in a more favourable position to interpret the policies to

guide the organizati   in the provision of department programs

and services. The   r administrator may be responsible for

ensuring that department policy is followed by all staff.

Once established, the policies become guidelines for rules and

regulations and may require interpretation. The final

interpretation may rest with the senior administrator.

Rodney et al. (1981) felt that

> "... policy execution is left to those
> professionals whose factual judgements
> and knowledge make it possible for them
> to perform the technical work needed in
> reaching the goals of the organization".
> (p. 134).

Task #35: Establish or review joint-use agreements with the
Board of Education. (Establish/Review joint-use
agreements)

> "The working relationships between school
> and recreation authorities in the
> acquisition, use, development, or
> maintenance of their respective
> properties range from simple, informal
> arrangements to formal contracts. These
> agreements attempt to spell out and
> clarify the areas of responsibility of
> each public jursidiction for providing
> the desired recreation service and thus
> eliminate those points of difference that
> might develop friction . . . Many
> communities, school districts, and
> counties have initiated formal working
> relationships or contractual agreements
> for joint requisition, development, and
> use of their respective properties"
> (Rodney et al., 1981, p. 187).

Task #36: Assist with the development of the department's 5
Year Master Plan. (Assist develop 5 Year Master
Plan)

At the time of this study the Province of Alberta provided

government grants to municipalities to contract consulting

firms to prepare 5 Year Recreation Master Plans. The Master

Plans are to provide municipalities with direction to

facilitate planned growth and development. The senior

administrator may assist the consultants to obtain " . . . a

detailed and accurate diagnosis of current activities and

reliable information pertaining to projected growth . . ."

(Shivers, 1967, p. 387).

Task #37: Review or update the department's 5 Year Master
          Plan. (Review/update 5 Year Ma   Plan)

          "Once completed the [Master] plan cannot
          remain static. It must continually be
          reviewed and changed as new information
          becomes available" (Rodney et al., 1981,
          p. 336).

Task #38: Conduct surveys to determine community recreational
           needs. (Conduct surveys)

          "It is incumbent on the recreation and
          park administrator and the board to know
          the leisure-time needs and wishes of
          people . . . these needs and desires
          should provide the base in formulation of
          recreation policy and long-range
          improvement plan" (Rodney et al., 1981,
          p. 334-35).

A community survey to determine needs may provide this

information.

Task #39: Organize community-wide special recreation events.
           (Organize community-wide special events)

Individual communities may host traditional, annual or special

celebrations or festivities throughout the year. These may

include rodeos, community picnics, winter carnivals, and

cultural or athletic events. The senior administrator may

chair the committee responsible for organizing these events.

Task #40: Organize and sit on recreation facility planning
           committee. (Organize recreation facility planning
           committee)

A special committee to study the need of constructing a new

facility may be undertaken by a special ad hoc planning

committee comprised of department staff, Recreation Board

members, lay citizens, special interest groups, and community

service groups. The function of this committee is to make

recommendations.

The advantages of such a committee include the development of

a long range facility plan, citizen involvement, examination

of specific community needs, and the representative

involvement encourages support and focuses on community rather

than individual needs (Rodney et al., 1981).

Task #41: Conduct studies to determine feasibility of
building recreation facilities. (Conduct
feasibility studies)

Once it has been determined that a new recreation facility is

required, the senior administrator may wish to study the

feasibility of constructing a new facility. The study may

include an analysis of land costs, servicing costs, funding

sources for capital construction, construction costs, and

sources and availability of funding for operational costs.

Feasibility studies may also be contracted to consultants

whereby the senior administrator may assist in the provision

of information.

Public Relations. The 10 specific tasks included in this study to

scribe the administrative duty of public relations are:

Task #42: Meet with community groups regarding department
leisure service. (Meet with community groups)

The senior administrator may arrange or be requested to meet

with community groups (including sports clubs, community

service clubs) and facility-user groups to discuss their

respective recreational needs and facility use requirements
(Shivers, 1967).

Task #43:   Maintain regular office hours in order to be
            available to the public. (Maintain regular office
            hours)

The senior administrator may maintain definite office hours so

that the public is aware when he is available to provide

assistance or information (Rodney et al., 1981).

Task #44:   Respond to citizen complaints regarding leisure
            services. (Respond to citizen complaints)

The senior administrator may personally deal with complaints

made by citizens regarding department programs and services

and then inform the complainant how the problem is to be

rectified.   It is important that complaints be dealt with

expediently and professionally to maintain a positive

relationship with the public.

Task #45:   Assist community groups get organized to provide
            leisure services. (Assist community groups get
            organized)

Local neighbourhood groups, sports groups and clubs, or

special interest groups may wish to become organized to form

non-profit associations to provide a specific leisure program

and be eligible for grants.   To become an association, the

group may require assistance to draw up by-laws, hold

elections, learn rules of order to have organized meetings,

and establish the goals and objectives of an association to

give direction and state their purpose.   Once established, the

association would provide specific programs for their

membership.

Task #46:   Prepare information brochures of the department's
            leisure services.   (Prepare information brochures)

Information brochures may take the form of program circulars

or pamphlets, posters advertising events, executive summaries

of reports, annual reports, and other printed material which

inform the public of its programs and services (Hjelte et al.,

1972).

Task #47:   Write articles for the local newspaper regarding
            leisure services. (Write articles for newspaper)

Newspaper articles may be written by the senior administrator

as a method of educating and informing the public. The

articles may announce new policies or discuss the

ramifications of proposed policy, summarize reports, discuss

controversial issues, dedicate new facilities, or announce new

programs and services.

Task #48:   Represent the department at community events.

As the head of the department, the senior administrator may

have to attend special community events such as fairs, sod-

turning ceremonies and official opening ceremonies of

recreation facilities, or introduce guest speakers at such

events.

Task #49:   Assist community groups with grant applications.

There are many provincial government grants (and municipal

grants in some areas) available for community and special

interest groups who require funding for new programs and

equipment, expansion of services, professional staff salaries,

and capital construction of facilities. To be eligible

application forms must be completed and req███████████pport of

the department, the Recreation Board and the Executive Body

before provincial and local grant program administrators will

accept the application.   Therefore proper completion of the

application is essential to improving the chances for

obtaining the grant.

Task #50:   Organize and chair public meetings regarding
            recreation matters.   (Organize public meetings).

The senior administrator may organize public meetings to

obtain citizen input regarding Master Plans, the development

of new facilities or parks, discuss the results of local

recreation studies, or to discuss policy proposals to obtain

information from the public before obtaining final approval.

The purpose of these meetings are to relay information to and

receive information from the public.

Task #51:   Solicit citizen participation to sit on leisure
            service committees.

The department, Recreation Board or Executive Body may form

special committees to study specific recreation matters (eg.

the need for a new recreation facility; the implications of a

policy; the development of a new park; planning major

community events). The senior administrator may have the task

of encouraging citizens to sit on these committees for

information and involvement.

Consulting with the Recreation Board and Executive Body. The 7

specific tasks included in this study to describe the administrative

ty of Recreation Board and Executive Body are:

Task #52:   Develop department policies with Recreation Board.
            (Develop policies with Recreation Board)

The Recreation Board has a mandate to develop and propose

policy for the department. The senior administrator may be

required to provide information, and discuss implications

before it is presented to the Executive Body for approval.

Task #53: Propose policy to Recreation Board and Executive
           Body for approval and implementation. (Propose
           policy to Recreation Board and Executive Body.

The senior administrator and subordinate staff may develop

policy to guide and give direction to the day-to-day operation

of the department. The policy would be discussed with the

Recreation Board for support before its presentation to the

Executive Body for approval and implementation.

Task #54: Prepare written reports for the Recreation Board
           and Executive Body as requested. (Prepare written
           reports)

The senior administrator may be requested to submit weekly,

monthly or annual reports or provide information regarding the

development of policy.

Task #55: Review departmental leisure services with the
           Recreation Board. (Review leisure services with
           Recreation Board)

The Recreation Board may have a mandate to review the programs

and services to ensure that the level of service is consistent

with departmental goals and objectives, budget performance

objectives, and policy.

Task #56: Present grant application for approval.

To be eligible for provincial and federal grants, the

department must seek the approval of the Recreation Board and

Executive body before being sent to the granting agency.

Municipalities in the Province of Alberta are eligible to

apply for the following grants - Project Co-op; Major Culture

and Recreation Facilities Grant (M.C.R.); Alberta Culture

Subsidy for the Performing Arts; Alberta Advanced Education

and Manpower Grants; Recreation Work Experience Program

(R.W.E.P.); and the federal government New Employment

Experience Development Program (N.E.E.D.).

Task #57: Meet with Recreation Board and Executive Body.

The senior administrator may be required to meet with the

Recreation Board and Executive Body to discuss policy

proposals, reports, budgeting, or basic department matters.

These may include regularly scheduled meetings or special

meetings.

Task #58: Prepare the department's operating and capital
budget with the Recreation Board. (Prepare budget
with Recreation Board)

The senior administrator may prepare the budget proposal with

the Recreation Board to get their support for the document

through input, direction, and advice during the entirety of

the budget process.

Staffing. The 25 specific tasks included in this study to describe

administrative duty of staffing are:

Task #59 to #68: The senior administrator may interview and

hire (recruit) people for the following positions (subject to

the existence of the position in the department). Assistant

Senior Administrator, Director of Recreation, Director of

Parks, Director of Facilities, Aquatics Supervisor, Operations

and Maintenance Supervisor (responsible for supervising the

daily operation and maintenance of parks and facilities),

Program Coordinator (responsible for organizing recreation

programs), Facility Maintenance Staff, Parks Maintenance

Staff, and Clerical Staff.

Task #69 to #77: The senior administrator may directly

supervise the following positions (subject to the existence of

the position in the department) - Assistant Senior

Administrator, Director of Recreation, Director of Facilities,

Director of Parks, Aquatic Supervisor, Operations and

Maintenance Supervisor, Program Coordinator, Maintenance Staff

and Clerical Staff.

Task #78 to #80: Train full-time supervisory staff, non-
                 supervisory staff, and clerical staff.

Training department staff may involve approving funds to

attend courses and workshops or it may involve organizing in-

service training programs for staff with similar

responsibilities and skills.

Tasks #81 to #83: Evaluate full-time supervisory staff, non-
                   supervisory staff, and clerical staff.

The senior administrator may evaluate staff through the use of

performance appraisals to determine the quality of work

performed and the ability of staff. Performance evaluations

are usually performed by respective supervisors.

Summary

The 83 specific tasks have been categorized under seven

administrative duties. The assessment duty consists of six specific

tasks, the budget administration duty consists of eleven, the office

management duty consists of fourteen, the planning duty consists of ten,

the public relations duty consists of ten, consulting with the the

recreation board and executive body duty consists of seven, and the

staffing duty consists of 25 specific tasks.

This chapter has defined the administrative duties and their

respective specific tasks. The next chapter attempts to answer the

second main problem of this study, namely to describe the specific task

performance of the senior administrators.

Chapter 5

Findings and Discussion: Specific Task Performance

This chapter addresses one n problems of the study. Whereas the previous chapter id d described the 83 specific tasks, this chapter reports the ac number and percentage of senior administrators who have personally performed each specific task. This chapter also addresses the following sub-problem:

How did the specific task performance of the subjects compare with those suggested by selected writers in the recreation literature?

The comparisons are discussed following the reporting of the data ch of the administrative duties.

sment Tasks

The specific tasks describing the administrative duty of assessment include the examination of department goals and objectives, policies, attendance figures, programs offered by other agencies, and observing programs and services. Table 8 (p. 78) shows the frequencies and percentages of the six specific tasks performed and delegated by the senior administrators.

Task #1: Compile attendance figures. This task was conducted in all 17 of the departments and performed by 29.4% (5) of the subjects. However this task was more often delegated 70.6% (12) to a subordinate.

Task #2: Visit recreation programs. This task was conducted in 16 of the departments and was performed by 52.9% (9) of the subjects and

Table 8

Assessment Duty: Specific Tasks Performed
and Delegated by Number of Subjects and Percentage
Ordered by Rank
(N = 17)

Task		Performed		Delegated	
		n	%	n	%
#3	Tour parks and facilities	17	100	—	—
#4	Assess departmental policies	13	76.5	1	5.9
#5	Assess departmental goals and objectives	12	70.6	1	5.9
#6	Assess leisure services provided by private agencies	10	58.8	3	17.6
#2	Visit recreation programs	9	52.9	7	41.2
#1	Compile attendance figures	5	29.4	12	70.6

delegated by 41.2% (7) of them.

Task #3: Tour parks and facilities. This task was conducted in 17
of the departments and was performed by 100% (17) of the subjects.

Task #4: Assess departmental policies. Of the 14 departments
having policies to assess, 76.5% (13) of the senior administrators
performed this task. Three of the departments had no policies.

Task #5: Assess departmental goals and objectives. This task was
conducted in 13 of the departments and was performed by 70.6% (12) of
the senior administrators. Four of the departments had no formal goals
and objectives.