CANADIAN THESES

THÈSES CANADIENNES

NOTICE

AVIS

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30.

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c C-30.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

Canadä

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING EDUCATIONAL

ADMINISTRATION IN ALBERTA

BY

DONALD B. DUNCAN

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SPRING, 1986

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the
Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis
entitled POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN
ALBERTA submitted by DONALD B. DUNCAN in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

(Supervisor)

R. G. McIntosh

Date: November 29, 1985
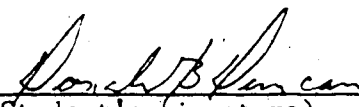
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR: DONALD B. DUNCAN

TITLE OF THESIS: POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING EDUCATIONAL

ADMINISTRATION IN ALBERTA

DEGREE: DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED: 1986

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY
to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such
copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the
thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise
reproduced without the author's written permission.

(Student's Signature)

Student's permanent address:

Box 1922
Barrhead, Alberta

Date: November 29, 1985

Dedicated to the memory of

G. Pallett and F. Duncan whose

humanity and discipline have set

high standards.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to develop policy recommendations which would support the development and maintenance of an adequate pool of educational administrators for Alberta's basic education system. The study was undertaken in order to make available to decision makers the benefits of a comprehensive policy analysis regarding appropriate educational development opportunities, professional experience, and formal criteria for the appointment of educational administrators. Such an analysis was seen to be timely because of the risk of imminent policy action by reference groups which may have been based on assessments of needs from narrow organisational perspectives rather than on broader goals.

The research was guided by reference to a causal policy system model adapted by the author, and relied on a rational model of the policy development process. The analysis was based on data derived from documents solicited from other provinces and states, an extensive review of related literature, and two rounds of interviews with individuals who were representative of reference groups concerned with educational administrators in Alberta. The interview data were important both as sources of insight regarding issues and alternatives, and also as indicators of the political positions and levels of commitment to issues on the part of the respective reference groups.

The analysis process led to the identification of three goals with attendant needs assessment statements and specified objectives which were to be addressed by a set of five policy recommendations. The recommendations were designed to meet the criteria of potential,

effectiveness, acceptable efficiency, political feasibility, and ethical appropriateness. Detailed explanations and supporting information accompanied each recommendation.

The first policy recommendation encouraged Alberta Education to convene a forum within which reference groups could coordinate professional preparatory and development opportunities for educational administrators. The discussion following the recommendation detailed specific roles which could be played by the respective reference groups in its implementation.

Recommendation Two suggested that the three Alberta universities working with educational administrators conduct programme reviews which take into consideration the points of view of clients, professional associations, and interest groups.

Recommendation Three proposed that Alberta's conventional universities conduct surveys of their service areas in order to determine the demand for formal professional development courses. The survey results would inform programme proposals which would be submitted to Alberta Education and Advanced Education for possible funding by the province.

Recommendation Four encouraged the production of a monograph commissioned by Alberta Education which would elaborate benefits to be derived from employing educational administrators with suitable prepre-paratory professional experience, and recommend systematic approaches which could be taken by jurisdictions of various sizes to foster staff career development.

Recommendation Five provided a comprehensive policy-driven approach to recognizing the qualifications of applicants for administrative positions requiring jurisdictions to consider the formal educational background, preparatory professional experience, and ongoing professional development of administrators.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

x

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The present study arose from the awareness of the author that
policy action affecting aspiring and incumbent educational
administrators in Alberta was imminent. As detailed in the pages which
follow, such action was observable in several quarters, with the
potential for effecting the most significant changes resting in the
hands of Alberta Education and the Minister of Education, who has the
legal authority to prescribe criteria for the appointment of educational
administrators.

Literature related to the development of policy (see Chapter II)
notes that the quality of policy decisions is commonly adversely
affected by the failure of decision makers to examine their assumptions
about issues, by political bias, by the adoption of a narrow
organisational focus, or by a lack of skilled personnel, time, or
finances to conduct a thorough prospective policy analysis. As a
practicing educational administrator, and a student of policy research,
the present author was keenly interested in the topic of this study and
has applied the rigour of social policy research to clarify issues,
review related literature, and consult with senior educational leaders
concerned with the study and practice of educational administration in
Alberta. The product of this study is a set of policy recommendations
which hopefully will serve to inform the decisions of those policy
makers interested in the continuing improvement of educational admini-
stration in this province.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to develop a set of policy recommendations which have a high level of potential to provide for the development and maintenance of an adequate pool of competent educational administrators for Alberta's basic education system. Such administrators include assistant principals, principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents working within the Early Childhood Services through the Grade Twelve levels.

Background to the Study

The political and organisational context. In depicting the performance of political systems, Almond and Powell (1978:285) showed their interpretation of the process whereby various demands and supports emanate from the political culture, are converted through the policy process, and interact with the preceding social environment and other endogenous changes to effect outcomes. This process is shown in Figure 1.1. As an exercise in policy development, the present study endeavoured, in the terms of Almond and Powell's model, to clarify the nature of the demands and supports, provide a forum for interest articulation, and gauge the content and force of aggregated interest.

According to Dunn, a main focus of the policy analyst early in the policy analysis or development process "is the recognition or 'felt existence' of a problematic situation" (Dunn, 1981:107). During the 1984-1985 period much activity and interest was observable in Alberta regarding such matters as the roles of educational administrators, the standard of their performance, and aspects of their preservice and inservice professional development.
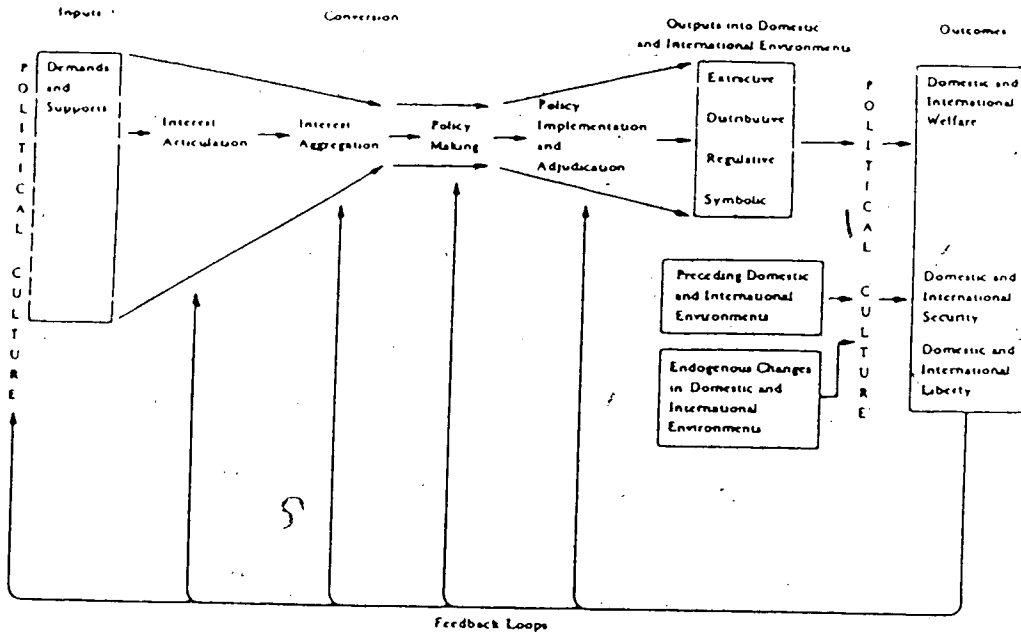
Figure 1.1. The Performance of Political Systems (adapted from Almond and Powell, 1978.)

Alberta Education was actively reviewing its regulations regarding the criteria for appointment of school and school system administrators. The Alberta School Trustees Association (A.S.T.A.) introduced plans for the development of the Centre for. Educational Leadership in Alberta (C.E.L.A.), sponsored an academy for school principals, and planned to introduce an assessment centre to aid school boards in the selection of suitable principals. The Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.) formally represents assistant principals, principals and some central office administrators, and has traditionally advocated increased responsibility for itself as a professional

organisation with regard to the preparation and certification of its membership. The A.T.A. also planned a summer training programme for principals. The Council on School Administration (C.S.A.), as the A.T.A. specialist council for administrators, has, for several years, provided inservice training and conferences for.its members. The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.) has acknowledged its desire, as a professional.association, to take an active interest in regulations affecting its members, and to endeavour to promote their professional development.

In addition to the activities and positions noted above, significant developments were seen in that part of the academic community interested in the development of educational administrators. At present, preparation programmes are offered by both the University of Alberta and the University of Calgary. The programme of the former was under internal review, and the organisational structure of the latter had recently been revised. Alberta's third conventional university, the University of Lethbridge, introduced in the fall of 1984, a Master of Education programme that appeared to have the capacity to serve the preparation needs of educational administrators.

A final development in this province that prompted serious consideration of policies related to the preparation and work of educational administrators, was the recommendation by the Alberta Committee on Tolerance and Understanding that all principals and superintendents be subject to certification (Committee on Tolerance and Understanding, Discussion Paper # 3, 1984:66). The net effect of all the activity regarding the practice of educational administration and

the preparation, association and certification of educational admini-
strators seemed to represent a very fragmented approach to dealing with
what were considered by the author to be underlying issues.

Although several organisations were seen to be involved, their
individual actions and policies tended to have effects limited in scope.
The one exception to this was Alberta Education which was in a position
to create policies, legislation or regulations which could profoundly
affect all of the other groups and the practice of educational
administration across the province. Communication with senior officials
of Alberta Education revealed that they perceived a problematic
situation regarding the regulations governing the criteria for the
appointment of educational administrators in Alberta. Analysis of the
"felt existence" of this situation revealed questions which addressed
three issues.

1. What is appropriate formal educational preparation and
    development for educational administrators?

2. What is appropriate preliminary professional experience for
    educational administrators?

3. What is an appropriate approach to recognising the formal
    preparation, development, and professional experience of
    educational administrators?

The training and certification of educational personnel,
Mitchell wrote, has received much attention from policy makers of late,
"but that attention is not well-supported by research" (1984:150).
Although much of the activity described above was well-intentioned, some
may be viewed as short-range or ad hoc in perspective. Mayer and

Greenwood have suggested that when such characteristics are present,
"the specification of objectives is usually derived from the assessment
of needs without reference to goals" (1980:10). Without appropriate
reference to goals, policies may be inconsistent, ineffective, or
dysfunctional. Even if the policy development activities of each of the
organisations cited above were thorough and consistent with the
respective group's goals, it appeared that policy development processes
had been restricted to the individual organisations, with little attempt
made to coordinate policies with other groups so as to pursue a broader
societal goal – the goal being the development and maintenance of an
adequate pool of competent educational administrators for Alberta's
basic education system,. The rationale for the present study was to
apply an appropriate model of policy analysis that would span the
boundaries of the several interested groups so as to realize the purpose
indicated in the preceding section.

Current regulations. Currently, in Alberta individuals aspiring
to educational administration positions (other than a superintendency)
need to hold or qualify for an Alberta teaching certificate. No other
formal requirements for education or preliminary professional experience
are stipulated. According to The School Act, Regulation 221/73, amended
A.R. 59/76, the appointment of superintendents must be approved by the
Minister of Education. In order to secure approval, school boards are
required to submit the name and comprehensive curriculum vitae of the
nominee to the Minister. The nominee must have:

1. a valid Alberta Teaching Certificate,

2. at least five years of teaching experience in Alberta or in a 'school system of equivalent standard,

3. a Bachelor of Education degree or equivalent from the University of Alberta or from a university of equivalent standard, and

4. one year of graduate study in a field Acceptable to the minister, either at a university in Alberta or at a university of equivalent standard.

Additional background information pertaining to the regulations governing the criteria of appointment of educational administrators in other Canadian provinces and some American states is detailed in Chapter III. Data related to the current academic achievement levels of Alberta's educational administrators, and the universities they chose to attend are also noted in that chapter. Chapter III cites as well, overviews of the Educational Administration programmes available at each of Alberta's three conventional universities.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is derived essentially from the fact that it brings to bear the rigour of a rational approach to policy analysis on a substantive and current policy question. As noted in the preceding section, policy action by Alberta Education was seen to be imminent. As such action was to address the question of what were suitable criteria for the appointment of educational administrators, the three issue areas of formal preparation, preliminary professional experience, and means of recognising preparation and experience, were raised. These policy issues could potentially affect individual educational administrators, local school jurisdictions, the three

conventional universities in Alberta, and professional associations and reference groups as follows:

1. Any provincial policy which set minimum levels of formal education or prescribed courses in a specific field of study for educational administrators would profoundly influence the career development , educational patterns and possibly financial priorities of those individuals.

2. Any significant increase in standards of pre-administrative formal education or professsional experience could reduce the number of qualified applicants from whom school jurisdictions could select administrators. Such policy action would also have the effect of reducing the autonomy of jurisdictions in the areas of personnel recruitment and selection by imposing new standards.

3. Increased emphasis on formal preparation for educational administrators implies increased demand for certain types of courses and programmes in Alberta's universities. Such demands could strain the human and financial resources of the universities and might exert strong pressure on university student selection procedures and admission critéria, course content, instructional methodology, faculty assignments, and criteria of student success.

4. Educational administrators in Alberta have traditionally balanced preservice preparation with inservice professional development activities sponsored by their professional associations. Policy initiatives placing more emphasis on

formal preservice education could alter the in-service roles now played by the professional associations.

Conceptual Framework

According to Mayer and Greenwood, "The conceptual framework defines the logcial boundaries for the investigation and serves as a guide whereby the analyst can judge what is relevant and what is irrelevant to study" (1980:70). Mayer and Greenwood (1980:7) declared that social planning and policy development has traditionally been unsystematic and over-reliant on conventional wisdom or the experience of practitioners. To correct the deficiencies implied by such an approach, they advocated that policy analysts incorporate into their activities the use of a "casual conceptual model". Central to such a model is the dependent variable which is the policy objective. The purpose of the policy analyst is to generate one or more independent variables which have the potential to realize the policy objective. Since this relationship is rarely so simple, however, the conceptual framework must be expanded to portray multivariate, not just bivariate analysis. The policy alternatives are subject to the effects of two types of intervening variables, the implementation process and a set of "bridging variables" which reflect conditions which must be realized prior to the achievement of the policy objective.

The conceptual model also indicates the "adjunct variables" which are conditions which, although peripheral to the main issue, can facilitate the realization of the policy objective. Also depicted in the model are two sets of "constraint variables" which detail the environmental factors, and the characteristics of the target

population. The constraint variables represent the intrusion of reality
into the conceptual world of the analyst.

The final type of variable that is included in the model is that
which represents the secondary effects of the policy. Two such
variables are the "unintended consequences" which flow directly from the
chosen alternative course of action, and "latent consequences" which are
derived from the achievement of the policy objective. Although Mayer
and Greenwood represented these sets of consequences diagramatically
simply as flowing respectively from the independent variables, the
researcher considers it more appropriate to indicate their potential
effect on the constraint variables by connecting them with broken lines.
A further modification to the original diagram is the connection of the
constraint and adjunct variables to the independent variable. This
change represents the interaction of the policy alternative with the
policy environment over a period of time. Figure 1.2 depicts the full
conceptual model as applied to the present study.

The Policy Development Process

The conceptual model identifies the relationship of the several
variables that interact to produce policy effects. The model does not,
however, indicate the means by which the independent variables, the
policy alternatives, can be generated. This latter function was
achieved through the use of a rational policy development model also
described by Mayer and Greenwood (1980:9). The policy making process
model consists of nine distinct but interacting stages. Figure 1.3
illustrates the full model, however, because of its developmental focus,
the present project addressed only stages one through six.

Figure 1.2

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF ALTERNATIVE POLICIES FOR THE PREPARATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

CONSTRAINT VARIABLES

Characteristics of Target Population

a. Professional
b. Interested in professional development.
c. Capable of conceptual and skill development.
d. Willing to commit limited time and financial resources to administration preparation.

Environmental Factors

a. Political climate and priorities.
b. Availability of funds.
c. Human resource availability.
d. State of the art of educational administrator preparation programmes.

ADJUNCT VARIABLES

a. Cooperation and communication among stakeholder groups.
b. Public financial support.

DEPENDENT VARIABLE

POLICY OBJECTIVE

The development and maintenance of an adequate pool of competent educational administrators

LATENT CONSEQUENCES

a. More effective schools.
b. Increased public confidence in schools.
c. Increased sense of professionalism among administrators.

BRIDGING VARIABLE

The development of competencies and / or a logic of confidence in educational administrators

Implementation Process

Roles of respective stakeholder groups

INTERVENING VARIABLES

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

Alternative course(s) of action involving:
a. education
b. experience
c. formal criteria of appointment.

UNINTENDED CONSEQUENCES

a. Stimulation of Educational Administration programmes.
b. Increased school-level autonomy.
c. Increased preparation programme costs.

Figure 1.3

Stages of the policy development process (as adapted from

Mayer and Greenwood, 1980).
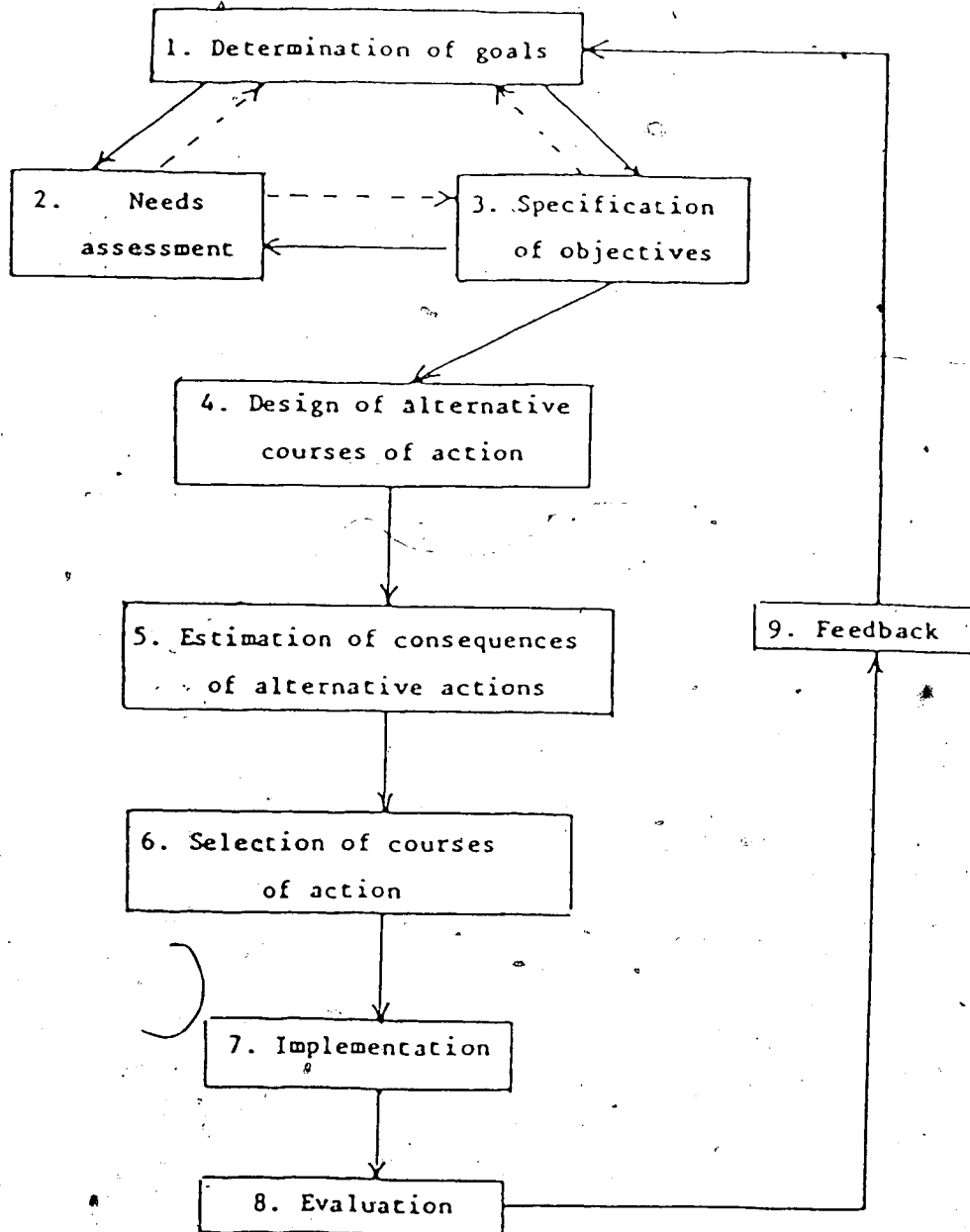
As noted in the "Background to the Study" section, before embarking on the formal methodology outlined by the model, some preliminary activity was appropriate. First, the literature cited in Chapter II was reviewed in order to acquaint the analyst with the several pertinent concepts that provided the bases of subsequent research activity. Further background data were gathered regarding the preparation programmes currently available in Alberta to practising and aspiring educational administrators. The project was intended to develop policy recommendations that had "a high level of potential" for implementation. In that policy adoption and implementation are activities requiring political will, and because politicans tend to base their actions, at least in part, on what is being done in other jurisdictions, the researcher surveyed each Canadian province and several American states to determine the nature of legislation or regulations governing the preparation and credentialling of their respective educational administrators. Information was also gathered from Alberta Education regarding the levels of education and the institutions attended by practising administrators.

Stage One: Determination of Goals. As noted in the conceptual model, the independent variable (policy alternative) addressed three issues related to the criteria for the appointment of educational administrators; the level and nature of formal preservice education activities, the kind and duration of preservice work experience, and the means by which such training and experience should be recognized. With reference to the literature and to the preliminary data cited above, semi-structured interviews were conducted with individuals represent-

ative of seven stakeholder groups; the Alberta Teachers' Association, the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, the Department of Educational Administration of the University of Alberta, the Department of Educational Policy and Administrative Studies of the University of Calgary, the Faculty of Education of the University of Lethbridge, and Alberta Education. The participation of three senior members who were recognised as having had long association and who presently, or in the recent past, had served in executive or leadership roles within their respective organisations, was solicited. Three such individuals from each organisation participated in the first round of interviews (with the exception of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents and the University of Calgary, in which cases travel and scheduling problems made it necessary for the interviews to be conducted with two senior members in each case). All interviewees were assured personal anonymity but were advised that interview data would be reported with organisations being identified.

The purpose of the activity related to Stage One was to identify the goals that the respondents understood their respective organisations to espouse with reference to the three issues identified above. A set of guide questions for the interview was provided to the respondents several days before the interview. It was understood that the respondents would not be speaking on behalf of their organisations in a formal sense, but would communicate positions which they believed their organisation's members to hold more or less explicitly. The semi-structured interviews were held on a group basis for each organisation in order to diminish, to the extent possible, idiosyncratic input from

the participants. The researcher believed that interaction in the group situation would bring to bear a degree of normative pressure which would influence the interviewees to express opinions more in keeping with the "official" positions of their respective organisations.

A copy of the interview guide questions appears in Apendix 1.

A detailed description of the procedures and results of the goal identification, needs assessment, and specification of objectives stages follows in Chapter IV.

Stage Two: Needs Assessment. Using the semi-structured interview technique, the respondents identified above were asked to identify the needs that they understood their respective organisations to perceive with regard to the three stated issues. Such needs reflected the aspects of the espoused goals identified in stage one that were not being addressed by current policies and practices. The literature and the content of the interviews were analysed and needs categorized so as to group those which were complementary and to isolate those which were not. It should be noted that needs assessment in this model refers to the condition to be changed rather that the strategy to be used or the programme to be provided.

Stage Three: The Specification of Objectives. Mayer and Greenwood described the object of this stage as being

> the setting of specific targets that can be expressed in
> operational, usually quantitative terms, and can be reached
> within the time perspective and resources of a given policy or
> plan. The specification of objectives includes identifying
> (1) the condition to be remedied or the state to be achieved,
> (2) a finite population in which that condition exists, (3) a
> time frame in which change is to occur, and (4) the amount and
> direction of change sought in the conditions (1980:10).

Sets of objectives were developed from syntheses of the content of stages one and two. Although some statements of specific objectives were elicited from respondents during the course of the interviews conducted for stages one and two, the formulation of objectives and their combination in compatible sets was primarily the task of the policy analyst. The reason for this was to endeavour, at these early stages in the policy development process, to encourage the respondents to address more general concepts and principles, and to avoid taking premature stands on details. Where, however, organisations had expressed detailed policies with regard to the issues under consideration, their positions were noted. As with the two preceding stages, objectives were expressed in complementary sets.

Stage Four: The Design of Alternative Courses of Action. Given the diverse nature of the referent stakeholder groups, the wide range of opinion expressed in the literature, and the variety of regulations enacted by other jurisdictions, it was desirable for the analyst to posit four alternative courses of action whereby the sets of objectives identified in stage three could be made operational. Although the design of the alternatives was essentially a creative process, the analyst suggested only alternatives which appeared feasible. In this context, feasible was taken to mean potentially effective, acceptably efficient, potentially able to be implemented, and ethically sound.

Stage Five: Estimation of the Consequences of Alternative Courses of Action. This stage refers to an analysis of the probable effects, positive and negative, to be derived from each identified alternative course of action. Mayer and Greenwood (1980:11) recommended

that these effects be assessed both directly, in term of the extent to which the stated objectives are realized, and indirectly, in terms of other desirable and undesirable consequences of implementation. Although the analyst anticipated some of the effects, the primary data were derived from a second round of interviews with the respondents who were consulted in Stages One and Two. The respondents were provided with detailed descriptions of the alternative courses of action, and after several days were engaged in semi-structured group interviews. In contrast to the instructions issued for the first round of interviews, interviewees were requested to respond to the policy alternatives from two perspectives. First, on the basis of their personal experience, they were asked to comment on the feasibility of each alternative with regard to its apparent efficiency, potential for effectiveness, and political acceptability. Second, respondents were invited to identify those aspects of the alternatives that they believed their respective organisations would support, those to which they would take neutral positions and those they would likely oppose. Respondents were also asked to speculate on the degree of conviction and the nature of reaction or support that might be forthcoming from their organisations should an alternative be implemented.

Apendix 2 contains a copy of the letter sent to respondents along with the policy alternatives. A detailed description of the procedures and outcomes of Stages Five and Six is presented below in Chapter V.

Stage Six: Selection of a Course of Action. In keeping with the analysis of the content of the second round of interviews and

consideration of pertinent concepts from the related literature, a set of policy recommendations was developed. The form and content of the policy recommendations were developed in keeping with the criteria of apparent efficiency, probable effectiveness, political acceptability or feasibility of implementation, and ethical appropriateness.

Overview of the Research Process

Dunn (1981:35) defined a major function of policy analysis to be the production and transformation of policy-relevant information that may be utilized in political settings to resolve policy problems. Among the first tasks of the analyst, therefore, is the eliciting of sufficient basic information about the policy issues in order to properly structure the policy problem. A thorough review of policy literature led the researcher to the basic form of the conceptual model illustrated in Figure 1.2, and informal consultation with administrators, and academics coupled with consideration of the policy environment and pertinent social values led to the definition of the formal policy objective: the development of an adequate pool of competent educational administrators for basic education in Alberta.

The professional and academic experience of the researcher enabled him to speculate as to what elements would be appropriate information to be included in the other components of the conceptual model governing the study, the constraint variables (environmental factors and characteristics of the target population), adjunct variables, unintended consequences, latent consequences, the implement- ation process and bridging variables. Background knowledge, informal discussion with educational administrators and academics, and literature

review served to confirm that, at the outset of the study, only inform-
ation of a very general nature could be cited for the independent
variable: alternative courses of action which would address the three
issue areas of: 1. What is appropriate formal preparation and ·
development for educational administrators? 2. What is appropriate
preliminary professional experience for educational administrators? and
3. What is an appropriate approach to recognizing the formal
preparation, development and experience of educational administrators?'·
Before the policy problem could be stated concisely in terms of specific
research questions, it was necessary to gain more detailed information
pertaining to the three issues which had been identified.

Because the policy environment was diffuse and involved several
stakeholder groups which had not publicly articulated their positions on
the issues, the researcher chose to apply aspects of the model of the
policy making process outlined by Mayer and Greenwood (1980:9) as shown
in Figure 1.3. In order to derive data to inform the first two stages
of the process, contact was made with each of the Alberta Teachers'
Association, the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents, the
Alberta School Trustees' Association, Alberta Education, and Faculty of
Education personnel from the University of Alberta, the University of
Calgary and the University of Lethbridge. With the exception of the
University of Alberta, whose representatives were nominated by members
of the researcher's supervisory committee, the requests for nominees
were directed to senior executive members of each organization. The
nature of the research project was explained and the contact person was
invited to participate personally or to nominate three individuals who

met the criteria of having been associated with the organization for several years, being familiar with the values and goals commonly held within the organization, being aware of the formal policies and positions of the organization, and who were in regular communication with other organization members.

Contact was made with nominated individuals and appointments for interviews in the offices of the respective organisations were set. Three persons were interviewed from each organization with the exceptions of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents and the University of Calgary, in which cases scheduling and travel problems made it necessary to interview two respondents in each case. Interviews were conducted on a group basis for each organization, and participants were assured anonymity although they were told that comments would be attributed to their respective organisations where appropriate.

As noted above, each interview was successfully tape-recorded. The presence of the equipment had no apparent inhibiting effect on the participants. The researcher made brief notes of the proceedings during the course of the interviews in order to provide cues for more comprehensive notes should the tape-recorder have malfunctioned. As no recording problems occurred, the interview notes were not much used in subsequent stages of analysis. Each tape was labelled showing the date, organization, and participants.

In order to analyze the content of the interviews the researcher listened to each tape recording twice in an uninterrupted fashion so as to develop a sense of the development of trains of thought and to note comments which were made and subsequently modified or withdrawn. Each

interview was then replayed, comment by comment, while the researcher copied into written form the concepts expressed. Where the interviewees' comments were concise, they were copied verbatim, and when the comments were extended, the researcher paraphrased them in a concise fashion. The location on the tape of each comment as indicated by the tape counter was noted beside each written comment.

In keeping with Turner's advice (1981:230) a second set of recorded data was then developed in order to facilitate the analysis, sorting and manipulation of the several concepts. This was accomplished by the transcription of each of the written comments from the interview concept lists on to a separate index card. In order to allow for the attribution of concepts and the possible tracing of concepts back to the original tape recording, a coding system was devised which indicated the round of the interview (1 or 2), the numerical code assigned to each organization (1 through 7), and the serial number of the concept within the respective interviews. As each card was written, the concept code number was recorded on each card as well as on the interview list, so as to allow an auditor, should he wish, to trace concepts back to their sources. In all, well over 500 concept cards were developed in this fashion from the first round of interviews. The details of how concepts were categorized are reported in Chapter IV.

The general purpose of gathering data through the first round of interviews, as noted above, was to increase the understanding of the researcher regarding the many concepts associated with and implied by each of the three issues identified as being germane to the independent variable (the policy alternatives) of the study's conceptual framework.

Regarding the execution of the research design of this study, the information derived from this set of interviews also allowed the researcher to formulate the specific research questions which have been stated within the "sub-objectives" section of Chapter I. Although, in many research projects the researcher is expected to formulate such questions before commencing the study, it is not uncommon in qualitative studies for such questions to be developed after some data have been gathered (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982:47).

The model developed by Mayer and Greenwood illustrating the policy-making process (1980:9) labelled stage five as "estimation of consequences of alternative activities". This designation has been modified in the present study to become "reactions to the policy alternatives." The rationale for this change is that the policy alternatives generated in Chapter IV were not designed to be comprehensive or integrated solutions to the policy problem. As a result, it was not appropriate simply to consider the consequences of their implementation. Although interviewees in the second round of interviews were invited to speculate on what the reactions of their organisations might be to the specific alternatives, they were also asked to suggest modifications, regroup concepts, or to suggest new ideas. The purpose of this exercise was to provide respondents with an opportunity to view the statements or the results of statements made in the first set of interviews. This process allowed them to reflect on some of their respective opinions and to confirm or modify them, and also to reconsider their statements in juxtaposition to alternative views. The researcher expected this process to generate a clearer understanding of the policy issues under

consideration, and thus to provide a better basis from which to make final policy recommendations.

As with the first stages of the policy making process, data were gathered by means of group interviews with individuals who were representative of the seven reference groups associated with the policy issues; Alberta Education, the Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.), the Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.), the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.), the Department of Educational Administration of the University of Alberta, the Faculty of Education of the University of Calgary, and the Faculty of Education of the University of Lethbridge.

Copies of the policy alternatives derived from the first round of interviews were sent with a covering letter to each of the individuals who had participated in the initial set of interviews (see Appendix 2), and each was contacted in order to set a convenient time for the second round of group interviews. As the first round of interviews had proven effective in generating useful data, the researcher preferred to retain the participation of the same respondents to the extent possible. Fortunately, 18 of the original 19 interviewees were willing to participate. One individual, representative of C.A.S.S., was on vacation during the interview period and so had to be replaced. His replacement was a member of the C.A.S.S. provincial executive who met the criteria noted in the previous chapter and who had been apprised of the nature of the study at an executive meeting, by the researcher, earlier in the year.

In order to provide sufficient time for respondents to review the policy alternatives, two to three weeks were allowed between the receipt of the reference material and the interviews. The interviews were conducted in offices of the participants and with their permission were tape-recorded. As was the case with the previous interviews, individuals were assured anonymity but were advised that remarks might be attributed to the organization of which they were representative. All interviews were successfully recorded. As with the first round of interviews each tape recording was played through in its entirety in order to establish the trains of thought which were expressed, and then the researcher transcribed the individual concepts of respondents, noting the location of each concept on the tape as indicated by the tape counter. Remarks, if concise, were transcribed verbatim, and those which were not concise were paraphrased in the transcription. The concepts were transferred to index cards which were individually coded to indicate the round of interviews, the group represented, and the serial number of the card. The code numbers were noted on the initial transcripts so as to allow an auditor a means of tracing concepts back to the tape recording.

The foregoing review process familiarized the researcher with the ideas expressed and suggested that responses could be appropriately grouped in the following categories: 1. university programmes; 2. competency-based university programmes; 3. the administrative internship; 4. inservice programmes; 5. communication among reference groups; 6. professional experience; 7. certification for administrators; and, 8. improving administrative practice through policies.

Study Objective and Subobjectives

The main study objective was to develop policy recommendations which provide for the development and maintenance of an adequate pool of educational administrators for the basic education system in Alberta. The subobjectives were to answer the following questions using a synthesis of ideas from pertinent literature, the insights of senior educators in Alberta who are associated with educational administration, and the application of policy analysis methods:

1. a. What is appropriate educational preparation and development for educational administrators?

   b. What are appropriate roles for the universities, professional associations, employers, and government in promoting the educational preparation and development of educational administrators?

   c. How should the roles of the respective reference groups be coordinated?

2. What preliminary professional experience is appropriate for individuals aspiring to various educational administration roles?

3. What means of recognizing the educational preparation and development, and professional experience of educational administrators is appropriate in light of the objective of the present study?

Delimitation, Limitations, Assumptions, and Definitions

Delimitation. Policy analysis as an applied practice must be conducted within a specific social, geographical, and time context. The

present study addressed the objective identified above within present-day Alberta. The conclusions reached may have little application with other groups, in other places, or in other times.

Limitations. A limitation of the study is that it relied on a relatively small number of respondents to represent the aggregated interests and opinions of various individuals who are members of stakeholder groups. A second limitation is that each stakeholder group had not developed and expressed positions with regard to the several issues to be considered. This required a degree of speculation on the part of the respondents. Some groups may have lacked cohesiveness and consequently no single, clear position could be articulated by their representative respondents. A final limitation is that the study asked respondents to anticipate the attitudes and reactions of their respective organizations to hypothetical policy alternatives. Such a task could not be undertaken with certainty.

The risk of invalid data being received from the respondents was, however, lessened by the nomination procedure used. First, senior officials or members of the respective organisations were contacted and asked to nominate three individuals who were experienced in the organisation and who were knowledgeable of the policies, attitudes, and values of the organisation. Second, the interviews were conducted on a group basis in the expectation that the respondents would interact with each other so as to bring to bear the normative influences character-istic of their organisations. In situations where respondents were unable to reach consensus on an issue, the analyst endeavoured to

determine the extent to which that lack of consensus was representative

of prevailing thought within the organisation.

Assumptions. A number of assumptions were implied by the design

of the study. First, it was assumed that the analyst, through reference

to the literature and the data gathered through interviews, was able to

construct viable policy alternatives. This task also required the

assumption that his present knowledge about educational administration,

the operation of schools, and the politics of education, would serve as

an adequate base from which to predict future needs. A second area of

assumption was that the selected interview respondents were represent-

ative of their organisations, that all significant stakeholder groups

were being consulted, and that representatives of each group were

willing to participate.

Definition of terms. The following terms used in this study are

defined as indicated.

1. An "adequate pool" of competent educational administrators would

   represent a sufficient number of individuals possessing valid

   teaching certificates, suitable levels of formal preparation,

   and minimum requisite experience, to afford a reasonable

   selection of candidates for vacant educational administration

   position in Alberta.

2. "Competent" means possessing the skills required to administer

   an educational organisation, or some aspect thereof,

   effectively.

3. "Educational administrators" are considered to be assistant

   principals, principals, assistant superintendents and

superintendents or personnel with other designations above the level of department head who exercise line authority over teachers.

4. "Goals" will be defined as they are in the Program Policy Manual of Alberta Education: statements which describe desired ends in general terms over unspecified periods of time" (1984:75).

5. "Educational preparation and development." includes all planned learning activities related to the professional growth of the administrator. Such activities may be part of a formal university programme, short courses offered by professional associations, employers, or other agencies. The learning activities may address the general conceptual development of the aspiring or incumbent educational administrator, or may focus on the mastery of a technical-level skill.

Organisation of the Thesis

An overview of the dissertation is presented in Chapter I. The purpose of the study is stated, and several aspects of background information are presented, including the current interest being shown by several reference groups in the policy issues under consideration, and the regulations currently in effect in Alberta governing the appointment of educational administrators. The significance of the study is established with reference to the scholarly application of policy analysis techniques to the identified issues as they affect individual aspiring or incumbent administrators, school jurisdictions, universities, and professional associations. The chapter describes and

explains the causal conceptual model which served as the conceptual

framework for the study, and outlined the rational policy development

model with attendant methodology which was used to generate the policy

recommendations. The study objective states the form of the output of

the research process and the subobjectives present the specific research

questions which were addressed. The delimitation, limitations,

assumptions and definitions as they pertain to this study are presented,

and a concluding section describing the organisation of the thesis is

developed.

A review of literature related to this study is presented in

Chapter II. Literature which defines and explains public policy, and

policy analysis and development is explored, as are works which consider

notions of policy implementation and change. Works which address

aspects of the research methodology used in this project are reviewed.

Literature dealing with the administrative behaviour of school

superintendents, school principals and the characteristics of admini-

strators in general is reviewed, the organisational context of

educational administration is described, and works concerning the

attributes of "effective" educational organisations and administrators

are considered. Chapter II concludes with a review of university-based

preparation and development programmes for educational administrators as

described in the literature, with particular attention paid to

conventional programmes, competency-based programmes, and programmes

which represent a new synthesis of theoretical and applied elements.

Selected aspects of the policy environment are detailed in

Chapter III. First, the entry level standards for education and profes-

sional experience for educational administrators set by Canadian provinces and some American states are detailed. Second, data regarding the levels of university education achieved by Alberta's educational administrators are presented and information regarding the universities the administrators chose to attend is detailed. Last, particulars about the form, content, and enrolment of the Educational Administration programmes offered by Alberta's three conventional universities is presented.

Chapter IV comprises a detailed description of the first round of interviews which provided the empirical base for the first four stages of the policy development process illustrated above in Figure 1.3. The interview content is analysed so as to support the determination of pertinent policy goals, the identification of needs, the specification of objectives, and the operationalization of the objectives in the form of preliminary policy alternatives.

A description of the second phase of data gathering and analysis is presented in Chapter V. The reactions of interviewees to the preliminary policy alternatives developed in the preceding chapter were analysed according to the content of the responses and were reviewed so as to clarify the political stances communicated by the individuals who were representative of the respective reference groups.

A detailed analysis of the political context in which policy decisions are to be made pertaining to the three issues addressed by this study, the educational development, experience, and recognition of qualifications of educational administrators, is presented in Chapter VI. Five policy recommendations supported by discussion based on a

synthesis of concepts drawn from the related literature, the insights of individuals representative of the seven reference groups, and the products of the policy analysis process are detailed in order to fulfil the stated purpose of the study.

Concluding comments are provided in Chapter VII which explain the extent to which the policy recommendations satisfy the conditions set out in the study's conceptual model, and discuss the efficacy of the methodology used. A summary of the rationale for rejecting the introduction of a regime of special certification for educational administrators is then presented. / Comments on the usefulness of incorporating reference to sociological paradigms in the policy analysis process conclude the chapter.

For the convenience of the reader, all chapter summaries have been consolidated in the form of an executive summary of the thesis in Appendix 3.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Literature reviews for policy development projects, such as the
present study, are especially demanding in that they require not only a
thorough discussion of the rationale and methodology associated with
policy analysis, but also demand attention to the several substantive
areas which are associated with the issues being addressed. The pages
which follow deal with three main bodies of literature. First, a review
of policy-related literature is presented which focuses on: 1. arriving
at a suitable definition of policy; 2. identifying the characteristics
of policy analysis; and 3. considering the implications of policy
implementation and change. Second, literature related to the practice
of Educational Administration is considered under the following
headings: 1. the administrative behaviour of school superintendents; 2.
The administrative behaviour of school principals; 3. general
characteristics of administrators; 4. the organisational context of
Educational Administration, and 5. the attributes of "effective"
educational organisations and administrators. The final body of
literature to be discussed pertains to the preparation and professional
development of educational administrators, and deals with: 1. the
development of university-based Educational Administration programmes;
2. competency-based Educational Administration programmes; and 3. the
views of various authors who have advocated a new synthesis of the
efforts of academics and practitioners.

Review of Policy - Related Literature

Definition of Policy

As the product of this study is a set of policy recommendations,
it is essential that public policy be clearly defined. As pointed out
by Guba:

> analyses which emerge from different definitions differ
> sufficiently among themselves so that the analyst can predeter-
> mine what a policy analysis will produce by the simple act of
> choosing the guiding definition. The political and ethical
> implications of this possibility are impressive (1984:64).

After citing eight different definitions of policy ranging from a
statement of the policy maker's intents or goals through the effects of
the policy making and implementing systems as experienced by clients,
Guba noted that virtually any definition of policy must be admitted as
long as its proposer can make a rational case for its use (1984: 70).

Although Guba's examples of policy definitions are instructive,
they do not explain the value bases or world views that underlie their
development. This task was addressed by Mitchell who constructed four
policy paradigms. The paradigms with their respective characteristics
are listed in Figure 2.1.

The following definitions of policy are derived from the
respective paradigms:

1. Structural. "Public policy is whatever governments choose to do
   or not to do" (Dye, 1978: 3).

2. Functional. "A proposed course of action of a person, group, or
   government within a given environment providing obstacles and
   opportunities which the policy was proposed to utilize and

	STRUCTURAL	FUNCTIONAL	EXCHANGE	INTERACTION
Generative Metaphor	Machine	Organism	Market Place	Conversation
Historical Origin	Military Tactics	Medieval Church	Bourgeoise Economics	Renaissance Culture
Units of Analysis	Formal Structures	Functional Structures	Rational Agents	Purposive Actors
Dynamics of Actions	Conflict of Interest	Cooperative Goal Pursuit	Bargaining over Scarce Valuables	Creating Symbolic Cultures
Motive Force, (Basis of Actions)	Interest (Priority)	Need (Prerequisite)	Desire (Utility)	Meaning (Self Significance)
Stability Principal	Power Balance	System Homeostasis	Negotiated Contracts	Shared Definition of Situation
Principle of Order	Discipline	Hierarchy	Incentives	Bonding

Figure 2.1 Policy Paradigms

overcome in an effort to reach a goal or realize an objective or purpose" (Mitchell, 1984: 144).

3. Exchange. "A decision to act which is made in the name of a particular social group, which has complex implications, and which constitutes an intent to influence the group members by the provision of sanctions" (Mayer and Greenwood, 1980: 5).

4. Interaction. "The conscious attempt of officials, legislators, and interested publics to find constructive responses to the needs and pathologies which they perceive in their surrounding culture" (Mitchell, 1984: 145).

Although each definition is legitimate, each reflects the subtle but significant differences cited in Figure 2.1. It is, therefore, important that the policy analyst choose the definition to be used very carefully. Guba wrote that, "what constitutes a better definition is of course a matter of values ... Certain definitions are likely to be more consonant with the analyst's values than others" (1984: 70). He also insisted that "to be ethical, the policy analyst is obliged to point out the particular definition used in an analysis and to characterize its consequences for the variety of stakeholding audiences concerned with the analysis" (1984: 70).

Bardes and Dubnick (1980: 105) pointed out that "what makes an analyst good is not the efficiency of his or her application of a given technique to a problem, but rather the effectiveness and usefulness of the answer arrived at." Consequently, when executing the stages of problem structuring (Dunn, 1981: 107), the analyst should adopt a definition of policy suited to the policy environment and stakeholders (Dunn, 1981: 47).

For several reasons which are detailed below in sections dealing with the policy implementation and change literature, as well as in the literature dealing with the roles of educational administrators, and the organisational nature of educational systems, consideration of the policy environment and stakeholder groups induced the author to select the definition of policy identified by Mitchell as representative of the interaction paradigm as being the most appropriate for use in this study.

Characteristics of Policy Analysis

As the present study is an exercise in "ex ante" policy analysis, it is important to understand the meaning, methods, and limitations of policy analysis. Policy analysis has been variously defined by several authors (House and Coleman, 1980: 184; Bardes and Dubnick, 1980: 104; McRae, 1980: 131; and Dunn, 1981: 35). For the purposes of this study, the following definition by Mayer and Greenwood is used:

> Policy analysis is a general term which refers to the multi-faceted process of ascertaining, measuring, and evaluating the ends and means of a policy, as well as their inter-relationship. Such analysis may involve the identification and advocacy of particular ends to be sought by public policy, or it may focus on specifying or designing particular programs to meet those ends. Then again, it may be more concerned with evaluating the relationship between those means and those ends (1980: 13).

Mayer and Greenwood described policy analysis as being essentially an intellectual process which supports policy making which is a political process. They distinguished between policy analysts and policy makers with the former being "anyone; regardless of his or her professional background, who performs the analytical function in policy making" while the policy maker or decision maker is the person "empowered to make policy or adopt plans on behalf of a collective" (1980: 15-16).

Policy analysts use a variety of techniques in order to structure policy problems, investigate their various dimensions, and make recommendations. Dror developed an "optimal model" for policy analysis which had the following characteristics: "1. it is qualitative, not quantitative; 2. it has both rational and extra-

rational components... its basic rationale is to be economically rational; 4. it deals with metapolicymaking; 5. it has much built-in feedback" (1968: 154).

Bardes and Dubnick (1980: 104) described the policy analyst as one who used problem solving techniques which were rational processes "leading to desired, explicitly stated goals." They saw the major task of the analyst to be "choosing (or even creating) the appropriate tools or methods to be applied in order to answer given questions raised by problematic situations." McRae (1980: 131) was more explicit when he detailed the following four processes of policy analysis: 1. defining the problem in terms sufficiently precise to permit analysis; 2. establishing a system of values to serve as criteria of choice among alternatives; 3. comparing alternatives on the basis of predicted outcomes as judged using the system of values; and 4. assessing the political feasibility of the alternatives.

Dunn noted several shortcomings of policy analysis as normally practised within organisations (1981: 130), and recommended the use of "assumptional analysis" techniques which involves the following procedures in successive phases; 1. stakeholder identification; 2. assumption surfacing; 3. assumption challenging; 4. assumption pooling; and 5. assumption synthesis (1981: 131). A methodology which incorporates many of the features of assumptional analysis is that advocated by Mayer and Greenwood (1980: 9) which was detailed in Chapter I outlining the stages of the policy making process, and which guided aspects of this research study. In addition to the processes outlined in this methodology, Mayer and Greenwood (1980: 13-14) identified the

criteria which should be used by analysts to judge the adequacy of
policy recommendations:

1. efficiency, which focuses on the relationship between the cost
   of resources employed to implement a policy and the extent of
   the benefits it delivers;

2. effectiveness, which focuses on the utility of the relationship
   between the means and the ends, that is, the substantive effects
   that are achieved by the means employed;

3. feasibility, which addresses the effect of the policy on the
   political constituency whose support is necessary for its
   successful implementation; and

4. ethics, which focuses more on the goals and objectives of the
   policy than on its outcomes, dealing with the relationship of a
   particular policy goal to the values, either explicit or
   implicit, of the policy making system.

   Although rational techniques of analysis are important to the
process of policy analysis, House and Coleman (1980: 187) and Mitchell
(1984: 151) pointed out that personal, political, and cultural biases
commonly influence analysts' judgement. Similarly, Bardes and Dubnick
(1980: 111), House (1982: 168), and Mitchell (1984: 135) noted that
it is common for policy analysts to conduct studies which are motivated
by the desire to lend credence to some pre-determined political stance.

   Despite the many rational analytic methods that have been
described in the literature, Dror (1968: 155), McRae (1980: 137), and
Dunn (1981: 35) all emphasised that the practice of policy analysis does
not permit the use of universally applicable theories or generaliz-

ations. It is incumbent upon the analyst to select a methodology and techniques which are appropriate to the situation being studied.

The issue addressed by the present study and the multifaceted character of organisational involvement in these issues, suggested the appropriateness of the conceptual framework and general methodology detailed in Chapter I. In order to supplement their content, however, other works were consulted in order to refine specific research methods. The validity of relying on interviewees as "surrogate observers" and "experts" who are representative of groups was discussed by Dexter (1970: 9-11). Regarding the processing and analysis of interview data, Bogdan and Biklen (1982: 162) noted that "having a scheme is crucial; the particular scheme you choose is not." In the present study, the researcher used a system of data sorting and analysis using file cards based on procedures identified by Bogdan and Biklen (1982: 169) and by Turner (1981: 230).

Policy Implementation and Change.

Although some policies may be formulated for symbolic purposes with no intent that they be implemented, the policy recommendations developed in the present study are designed to be acted upon. The literature dealing with policy is consistent in advising analysts to view the requirements of the implementation process as an integral part of the policy development exercise (Quade, 1975: 2; Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973: 143; Smith, 1973: 199; Fullan, 1982: 74).

The active interest of politicians or decision makers is not enough to ensure the implementation of policies (Mitchell and Encarnation, 1984:4). Pressman and Wildavsky observed that politicians

often hinder the chances of implementation by unrealistically looking

for "large accomplishments from small resources in a short time"

(1973:XVII), a notion reinforced by Edwards and Sharkansky (1978:304).

A wide range of views exists in the literature regarding the

complexity of the policy implementation process. Among the simplest is

the "decisionistic model" described by Floden and Weiner which:

> depicts governmental and social systems under the influence of
> evaluation, as highly adaptive. Information about government
> performance, measured against widely shared goals for public
> policy is quickly fed back into the policy making process where
> course corrections are made (1978:10).

A more complex model was posited by Smith (1973:203) in which policy

implementation is portrayed as a force generating tensions as well as

relieving them. Such tensions act between and within the idealised

policy, the implementation organisation, the target group and enrivon-

mental factors.

A number of authors emphasized that the implementation process

should take into consideration not only the views of the policy maker,

but also those of other actors. Fullan (1982:82) stated:

> educational change is a process of coming to grips with the
> multiple realities of people who are the main participants in
> implementing change. The leader who presupposes what the
> change should be and acts in ways which preclude others'
> realities is bound to fail.

Support for this thought was offered by Quade (1975:262) who wrote that

"difficulties are likely to follow whenever a completely packaged

external solution is imposed, arrived at without participation of those

affected by its conditions." He added that the policy maker should

develop "a scheme for information exchange so that those who must live

with or implement the actions which follow can in some way participate in determining what those actions will be" (1975:262).

Several authors offered advice regarding aspects of implementation that policy makers should consider. Quade (1975:262) suggested the following three actions:

1. . investigate the internal consequences of implementation as well as the external effects;

2. be concerned about the organisation's internal stability, viability, cohesion and creativity; and,

3. be concerned with the relationship between the personal needs and objectives of individuals within the organisation, and the organisation's needs and objectives.

Quade's advice was elaborated on by Votruba who identified four basic approaches to organisational change; rational planning, social interaction, human problem solving, and political maneuvering. Quoting Linquist, Votruba (1981:17) indicated that effective change strategies require attention to all four approaches.

Votruba (1981:21-24) went on to identify the several elements needed for a potentially effective change strategy. They include; goals, organisation, leadership, linkage, openness, capacity, compatibility, rewards, synergy, and ownership. Leaders, in implementing change, need to be strong, articulate and adaptive in discharging the four leadership roles of catalyst, solution-giver, process helper, and resource linker (1981:26-27).

Additional advice was offered to policy analysts by Rothman et al. who cited four principles of intervention or action guidelines to successfully effect organisational change:

1. promote an innovative service or program by demonstrating it first with a smaller portion of the target population, then expand to the larger group;
2. change the goals of an organisation by introducing new groups into the organisation who support the goals, or by increasing the influence of those groups within the organisation who support those goals;
3. increase participation in organisations and groups by offering benefits associated with participation; and
4. increase effectiveness in role performance by clarifying the role and obtaining agreement about it among relevant superiors and influentials (1981:9-10).

The last two of these principles seem to have particular relevance for this study.

Basing their conclusions on a study of factors which apparently influenced the degree of implementation of government mandated change in university settings, Newcombe and Conrad (1981:559) identified four stages of change; infusion, preparation and policy formation, trial and transition, and policy execution. They also described four categories of variables which influence policy implementation, the absence of any of which greatly reduces the degree of planned change; administrative leadership, facilitative sub-structures, institutional sub-systems, and follow-up governmental intervention (1981:562-563).

To conclude this review of policy implementation and change related literature, it is useful to refer to the work of Popkewich in order to establish a perspective on the nature and extent of change implied in most policy initiatives. Popkewich categorized most change processes as being of a "center-to-periphery type" (1984:131) or of a "problem-solving" type (1984:141) rooted in the paradigms of empirical-

analytic science and symbolic science, respectively. He went on to explain that each of these paradigms is rooted in specific cognitive interests which value order and stability in the social world and noted that "it is an irony of change models that they are designed to conserve" (1984:151). Popkewich wrote that change processes seldom challenge the basic values of organisation members and consequently the scope of change effected is not profound (1984:152).

Review of Literature Related to the Practice
of Educational Administration

The Administrative Behaviour of School Superintendents

Studies of the administrative behaviour of school super-intendents are essentially of three types. Some, like that of Campbell (1969) derived data from the responses of practitioners and those with whom they interacted; others (Duignan, 1980; Larson et al, 1981; Pitner and Ogawa, 1981) relied on the direct observation of superintendents by researchers; last, some information is provided in publications about the superintendency, written by scholars and consultants (Downey, 1976; Ingram and Miklos, 1977). Reference to such works provides insight into the roles, tasks, and skills of superintendents.

Campbell surveyed all Alberta superintendents and chairmen of school boards in order to determine the extent to which they valued fifty suggested competencies. The wide range of competencies required by superintendents is reflected in the findings that 32 and 21 different elements were identified by 80 percent of the respective groups of respondents as being important (1969:126-131).

Duignan personally observed eight Alberta superintendents for 34 working days in order to identify their activities, the time involved, with whom they interacted, and the purpose underlying various contacts. No attempt was made to identify competencies, however Duignan did state the following propositions about the superintendents' work (1980:3-4):

1. Unscheduled activities of short duration dominate the super-
   intendents' behaviour patterns.

2. Verbal contact consumes almost 75 percent of the super-
   intendents' time.

3. Information processing is a major reason for verbal contacts
   by superintendents.

4. Much time is spent by superintendents with a few groups (central
   office subordinates 30.7 percent, trustees 23.3 percent).

5. The use of time by superintendents was not planned and organized
   carefully.

6. Executive or administrative duties dominate the superintendents'
   use of time.

Downey (1976) conducted an extensive survey of those associated with education in Alberta, reviewed related literature, and engaged in interviews and site visits to determine both the ideal and actual role of the superintendents. Downey's report identified many of the areas of role ambiguity and conflicting expectations which characterized the early years of the locally appointed superintendency in Alberta.

As a follow-up to the Downey Report (1976), Alberta Education commissioned Ingram and Miklos to prepare a document which would provide guidelines for the employment of locally appointed superintendents.

Among the guidelines, Ingram and Miklos (1977:79) presented the
following sample role description:

> The Superintendent of Schools is the chief executive officer
> of the School Board. He has general responsibility for
> advising the Board on matters arising in all areas of Board
> jurisdiction, for recommending appropriate policies to the
> Board in these areas, and for implementing the policies adopted
> by the Board. In the execution of this general function, the
> Superintendent of Schools shall give particular attention to
> the following:
> 1. Determining present and future educational needs of the
> school division and developing short- and long-range plans for
> meeting those needs;
> 2. evaluating the operation of all aspects of the educational
> system and providing reports to the Board which will keep it
> informed on school system functioning;
> 3. coordinating and integrating educational programs, physical
> facilities, and financial and human resources within the school
> division;
> 4. providing leadership and fostering conditions which will
> ensure the improvement of the educational program, the
> efficient use of resources, and the effective performance of
> personnel;
> 5. designing and staffing an organisation which will ensure
> that educational and administrative functions are carried out
> effectively;
> 6. developing specific procedures and regulations for the
> implementation of Board policies;
> 7. carrying out such specific responsibilities as from time to
> time may be delegated to him by the Board;
> 8. acting on behalf of the Board when necessary in regard to
> matters not empowered to the Superintendent of Schools which
> arise between board meetings with such actions to be submitted
> for ratification to the Board at its next meeting.

Ingram and Miklos also distinguished between the respective roles of
trustees and the superintendent by identifying 20 tasks and activities
under the headings of executive, managerial, educational, and public
relations functions (1977:22-23).

In 1984, the Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.)
published a monograph regarding the superintendency in response to the
discussion paper pertaining to revisions of the School Act. After
reviewing the historical development of the locally appointed super-

intendency, the monograph conceded that although most school boards and superintendents work together successfully in the interests of children, a number of problems exist in individual situations (1984:7). The report emphasized that "situation-specific factors are often at the core of problems encountered by school systems" (1984:8) and that most difficulties experienced by superintendents are best viewed as "idiosyncratic" and "human problems" (1984:9). Echoing the insights of the Downey Report (1976) and the work of Ingram and Miklos (1977), the A.S.T.A. (1984) report cited the following as typical areas of super-intendent problems: expectations, authority, conflict management, performance appraisal, compensation, superintendent/secretary-treasurer relations, and trust. The report also emphasized the formal position of the A.S.T.A. that the local appointment of superintendents was seen as desirable and that changes in legislation which placed additional constraints on the board-superintendent relationship would not be welcome (1984:21).

An extensive study of supervisory officers (superintendents and directors) in Ontario was conducted by Partlow et al. (1980) which identified nine personal qualities essential to success. In descending order of importance they are: integrity/honesty, positive human relations attitudes, common sense, leadership, patience, sense of humour, dedication, intelligence, and diplomacy (1980:X). The same study identified 17 important competencies, the 10 most important of which are: communication skills, decision making skills, organisational skills, managerial/administrative skills, political skills, knowledge of curriculum, and knowledge of the law (1980:X-XI). Partlow et al. also

noted that the six criteria used by school boards in hiring supervisory officers, in order of descending importance, are: past experience, possession of a supervisory officer's certificate, leadership skills, human relations skills, administrative/organisational skills, and academic education.

The studies by Larson et al. (1981), Pitner and Ogawa (1981), and Willower and Fraser (1980) each examined the roles of super-intendents in the United States, outlining their time use, interaction patterns and satisfaction with their work. The findings of these studies generally supported Duignan's propositions cited above. In particular though, Larson et al. (1981) emphasized that superintendents served as the information focal points of their organisations thus explaining their ability to influence others. They also noted that observed behaviour was varied and highly dependent on personal characteristics and contextual factors. Pitner and Ogawa emphasized the use by superintendents of specific communication skills in order to manage shared meanings within their organisations (1981:56). They also pointed out that despite the expressed interests of superintendents in the role of instructional leadership, they tended to be preoccupied by the more bureaucratic functions (1981:62). Willower and Fraser (1980:3) attributed this apparent anomaly to "nostalgia" for the superintendents' earlier career work as teachers.

The Administrative Behaviour of School Principals

In 1979 the Department of Educational Administration of the University of Alberta initiated Project A.S.K. (Administrative Skills and Knowledge) that endeavoured to establish an administrator training

programme based on the tasks considered by superintendents and principals to be important to the principalship. Research indicated that 24 tasks were seen to b,e important in the area of curriculum and instruction, 23 related to staff personnel, 26 related to pupil personnel, seven related to support management, 13 related to resource management, seven related to school-community interface, and 13 related to system-wide policies and operations. Project A.S.K. also included reference to the Quadrant Assessment Model for diagnosing administrators' training needs. The utility of this model was confirmed in a study by Sanders (1980).

An observational study by Martin and Willower (1981) identified the following elements which characterize the work of principals: 1. high volume, quick pace; 2. variety, brevity, fragmentation; 3. preference for live action; 4. verbal media preference; 5. emphasis on in-school contacts; 6. a blend of rights and duties; 7. a "nostalgic" attitude toward instructional leadership; and, 8. deference to the authority of superintendents and the technical expertise of teachers.

Morris et al. (1981) conducted a study which compared the time use of elementary and secondary principals and found that the former group spent less time on interpersonal behaviour and more time engaged in decisional activities than did the latter group.

The Saskatchewan School Trustees' Association (1985) commissioned a study by Renihan which thoroughly examined the principalship in that province. The five volume report contains information regarding the roles, tasks and skills seen by educators as important to principals, identifies the problems experienced by principals in the

conduct of their work, criticizes the nature of preservice and inservice professional development programmes, and provides an exhaustive review of the literature regarding the principalship. Renihan (1985: Vol. 2:23) identified 18 major areas of concern to principals under the headings of working conditions, outside influences, relationships, and task areas.

The need for principals to function effectively in a political environment was emphasized by Williams (1983:11-15) who identified the negative organisational consequences which stem from the actions of politically naive principals. Williams attributed principals' political ineffectiveness to role discomfort, inadequate skills, and work overload (1983:15).

The role of the principal in the political and organisational context was also explored by Allison who noted the loss of prestige of the principalship in recent decades (1984:12). Allison attributed this status change to three factors: 1. the increased complexity of school operations; 2. increased centralization of authority in the bureaucracy of school jurisdictions; and 3. the increased specialization of roles in administration and teaching which lessens the authority of the principals' expertise (1984:12).

General Characteristics of Administrators

The studies and articles cited in the two preceding sections dealt with the superintendency and the principalship respectively. There is, in addition, a body of literature which addresses administration in a non role-specific manner which can illuminate the nature

of the organisational role of the educational administrator. A sampling

of this literature follows.

Boettinger (1980) posited that successful administration is not

simply a matter of practising an appropriate technology in a situation,

but is also an art. Art, he stated (1980:36), "is the imposition of a

pattern, a vision of a whole, on many disparate parts so as to create a

representation of [the administrator's] vision; art is the imposition of

order on chaos."

Part of the task of the administrator is to develop visions

which "spring from contemplation of problems, events and possibilities"

(1980:41) and which are communicated with "audacity and self-confidence"

(1983:43). The successful organisation requires not only competent,

business-like procedures, but leaders who can "enlist the emotions of

others to share a vision as their own" (1980:46).

Katz (1980) identified three areas in which administrators

require skills:

1. technical skills related to the technology of the enterprise;

2. human skills which foster a suitable organisational climate; and

3. conceptual skills which allow the administrator to address

   problems from a general management point of view which considers

   multiple perspectives and which can accept the sub-optimisation

   characteristic of most decision making situations.

Basing his observations on several years of successful executive

practice, Livingstone (1980) identified the following aspects of

performance as being important to administrators:

1. the development of <u>problem-solving skills</u> which extend beyond rational analysis to include coping with human emotion;

2. the development of <u>problem finding skills</u> which imply the ability to "read meaning" into changes in the environment;

3. the development of <u>opportunity finding skills</u> which are the mark of the entrepreneur and which denote effectiveness more than efficiency; and,

4. the development of a <u>natural management style</u> which reflects the values and character of the administrator.

Livingstone (1980) also elaborated on the need for power, the need to manage, and the capacity for empathy which he saw as being common among the most successful administrators.

Mintzberg's article (1976) provides an interesting perspective as to why some individuals succeed as managers (administrators) while others are more suited to technical-analytic roles. He discussed the distinct but complementary functions of the left and right hemispheres of the brain and hypothesised that a predisposition to rely on the linear, analytic processes of the left brain would equip a person well to service in a planning or technical role in an organisation, while a predisposition to rely on the global, holistic faculties of the right brain allows managers to cope with the ambiguity and complexity associated with their roles.

Relating this hypothesis to his observations of the behaviour of executives, Mintzberg (1976:54) noted that managers seem to prefer to use direct verbal media which provide relational and simultaneous methods of acquiring information rather than ordered and sequenced ones.

A different but complementary approach to studying the cognitive functioning of administrators was taken, by Silver (1975) who examined the relationship between the levels of principals' conceptual ability and their interpersonal environments and behaviours. She found that principals with more abstract conceptual structures were more person-oriented in their leadership styles (1975:62). Silver also indicated that principals with more complex conceptual structures will interact more frequently with staff members, have more professionally oriented staff members and have more varied functions performed in their schools. Silver viewed such charcteristics as being desirable and identified several competencies which were indicative of complex conceptual development (1975:63-64).

The Organizational Context of Educational Administration

It is impossible to develop a generalized organisational contruct which may be applied to all schools. As Allison noted in quoting Weber, an ideal type is "an analytical accentuation of reality ... that is a pure mental construct, the relationship of which to the empirical reality of the immediately given is problematical in every individual case" (1983:21). Nevertheless, Allison wrote that schools "have enough aspects in common to warrant the development of an image which would identify and accentuate a selected number of generic features in order to capture the particular character of schools" (1983:21).

Allison pointed out that schools differ in several important respects from other types of organisations as follows:

1. the human service characteristics of schools--that is, the problematical and ambiguous nature of their goals, their indeterminate technology, their reliance on professional staff, their lack of useful measures of effectivness, and their people-processing nature which places great emphasis on staff-pupil relationships;
2. the domesticated status of public schools;
3. the "deconcentrated" pattern of organisation in public school systems;
4. the political vulnerability of public schools; and,
5. an emphasis on autonomy rather than authority that
contributes to the "structural looseness" or loose coupling property (1983:21-22).

Allison also described four aspects of schools which are problematic when their organisation is being considered: 1. the status of students in schools; 2. the level of the unit of analysis; 3. the ability of public schools to resist change; and 4. the persistance of traditional practices (1983:23-25).

Bearing in mind the limitations and problems associated with identifying ideal types and generalizations about the organisation of schools and school systems, the pages which follow endeavour to describe the goals, characteristics and nature of public educational institutions as cited by several authors.

"The Goals of Basic Education for Alberta" (Government of Alberta, Committee on Tolerance and Understanding, 1984:21A) comprise two sets of goals, the "Goals of Schooling" and the "Goals of Education". The former comprises those goals for which schools have primary responsibility: academic skills, thinking skills, personal growth of students, understanding of citizenship, and preparation for employment. The latter goals are viewed as a shared responsibility of the community and address the ethical, moral and cultural development of students.

Goodlad (1984) synthesized a list of goal statements for United States school systems and produced a set of 10 academic, five vocational, 26 social, civic, and cultural, and 21 personal development goals which educational systems are expected to realize (1984:51-56).

Idealized statements of educational goals notwithstanding, as the schools are publicly funded and politicians see themselves as being accountable to the public for their efficient operation, political values supercede the educational. Brubaker and Nelson claimed that schools have responded to political expectations by neglecting their broad mandate in favour of a narrowly based programme of studies that is designed to produce "successful students and incipient scholars" (1974:42).

Goodlad (1984:61) also noted the narrowing focus of school programmes, and pointed out that, "unfortunately the standard measures we use to determine the quality of schools get at academics almost exclusively—and a narrow array of them at that." The politicians responsible for school systems prefer bureaucratic operations that lend themselves to the metavalues of accountability, stability, and predictability. Unfortunately, the bureaucratic model does not lend itself to the accomplishment of the several non-academic goals of education for the means of reaching such goals "are not pre-determined, the objectives themselves are not immediately quantifiable, and causation between means and ends is obviously not known" (Brubaker and Nelson, 1974:42).

The explicit educational goals of schools and the more implicit political constraints imposed on their operation affect both their

curriculum and organizational structure, bringing about the organis-
ational hybrid known as the professional bureaucracy.

The professional bureaucracy, Mintzberg contended, "allows for
standardization and decentralization at the same time" (1979: 348) and:

> relies for coordination on the standardization of skills and
> its associated design parameter, training and indoctrination.
> It hires duly trained and indoctrinated specialists-
> professionals- for the operating core, and then gives them
> considerable control over their own work ... Control over his
> own work means that the professional works relatively
> independently of his colleagues, but closely with the clients
> he serves (1979:349).

The relative independence of teachers from supervision by principals is
also cited by Brubaker and Nelson (1974:56) and the findings of Willower
and Fraser (1981:77) as noted earlier. Weick labelled this relationship
"loose coupling", stating:

> the two most commonly discussed coupling mechanisms are the
> technical core of the organization and the authority of
> office ... a compelling argument can be made that neither of
> these coupling mechanisms is prominent in educational
> organizations (1976:4).

The authority of office of administrators in professional
bureaucracies is quite bounded. Mintzberg indicated that "managers in
professional organizations ... administer means to the major activity
carried out by experts" (1979:360), and as explained by Dornbusch and
Scott (1975), cited by Hasenfeld (1983:17), teachers recognize the
authority of principals in the area of evaluation only if "it is
explicit, formal, and directly related to the evaluation of work." In
other words, teachers are willing to accept the authority of principals
in limited areas but do not welcome gratuitous interventions in others,
made by virtue of the principals' superordinate status.

Administrators in professional bureaucracies according to
Mintzberg "serve key roles at the boundary of the organisation, between
the professionals inside and interested parties--governments, client
associations, and so on--on the outside" (1979:362). Mintzberg pointed
out, however, that despite the useful functions performed by the
administrator, he "keeps his power only as long as the professionals
perceive him to be serving their interests effectively" (1979:363), and,
although the administrator is "usually more powerful than individual
professionals ... that power can easily be overwhelmed by the collective
power of the professionals" (1979:363). Reinforcing the notion that
schools, being loosely coupled, will not display the structure of a
conventional bureaucracy, Hasenfeld stated, "a key characteristic of
loosely coupled organisations is the emergence of multiple centres of
power rather than a heirarchical authority structure" (1983:175).

As a form of organisation, the professional bureaucracy carries
with it implicit dysfunctions. Hasenfeld noted that "legal and rational
authority promotes efficiency" (1983:17), but as noted above, such
authority tends not to be exercised in instructional matters.
Furthermore, Hasenfeld predicted, because of the loose coupling
characteristic within educational systems, when administrators are
required to conduct evaluations, they will perform "bureaucratic
reviews" which involves "monitoring those aspects of behaviour that are
observable and measurable, regardless of their relevance and importance
to the service delivery process" (1983: 170-171).

A serious dysfunction of the professional bureaucratic form of
organisation for schools is the implicit lack of thoughtful goal

directed behaviour. As indicated earlier, statements of educational goals tend to be wide ranging, and although the individual goals may not be contradictory, they are competitive for time and resources. Goodlad pointed out (1984:298) that teachers' classroom behaviour tends not to be guided by balanced consideration of the pursuit of formal educational goals, but rather they tend to teach in the same way that they themselves were taught, relatively unmoved by societal pressure, uninfluenced by their training programmes, and unsupervised by their principals.

Educational administrators also tend to ignore careful consideration of educational goals but rather pursue what Hodgkinson (1978:179-185) saw as the metavalues which govern all formal organisations; maintenance, growth, efficiency and effectiveness, none of which directly addresses educational issues. Hodgkinson termed such organisations "moral primatives" and Hills pointed out (1983:12) that such educational organisations typically fail to execute the fiduciary responsibilities society expects them to discharge.

Attributes of "Effective" Educational Organisations and Administrators

Considerable research has been conducted in recent years in order to identify exemplary schools and school systems, and to analyse their organisational characteristics and the behaviour of their administrators. Such successful organisations and individuals are typically labelled in the literature as "effective."

A range of definitions of effectiveness is found in the literature including that of Goodlad (1984) which was based on the degree of satisfaction expressed by students, parents, teachers and

administrators, and the systems-based perspective of Yuchtman and Seashore (1967) cited by Ratsoy (1983:2) which saw effectiveness as being "the ability of the organisation to maintain internal consistency, to develop judicious resource distribution over a variety of coping mechanisms, and to exploit its environments in the acquisition of scarce resources." Cameron and Whetton (1983:270-273) emphasized the complexity of determining organisational effectiveness and recommended that researchers bear in mind the following seven questions when investigating effectiveness:

1. From whose perspective is effectiveness being judged?

2. On what domain of activity is the judgement focused?

3. What level of analysis is being used?

4. What is the purpose for judging effectiveness?

5. What time frame is being employed?

6. What types of data are being used for judging effectiveness?

7. What is the referent against which effectiveness is to be judged?

The complexity of the notion of effectiveness notwithstanding, some schools are seen as being more effective than others and are viewed as possessing organisational characteristics which distinguish them from most other schools. Lipham (1981) identified eight areas in which the personnel of effective schools show behavioural relationships not characteristic of professional bureaucracies: 1. diversity versus uniformity of goals; 2. traditional versus non-traditional values and attitudes; 3. centralization versus decentralization in organisational relationships; 4. directiveness versus supportiveness in leadership

behaviour; 5. authoritative versus participative decision making processes; 6. managerial versus instructional tasks to be completed; 7. programmed versus adaptive approaches to change; and 8. interaction, versus insularity in relations with the public.

Goodlad's conclusions as to what characterized effective schools were largely consistant with Lipham's conclusions. Goodlad observed that although the instructional practices of individual teachers varied little from classroom to classroom, the overall satisfaction of students and parents with the effectiveness of the teachers' work varied greatly from school to school (1984:276). The implication was that the character of individual schools greatly influences the ways in which the instructional efforts of teachers are perceived.

Commenting specifically on an attribute of effective super-intendents, Fullan (1982:162) noted that "What distinguishes effective from ineffective administrators is not whether they can obliterate conflict, but how they anticipate it and deal with it as an inevitable and natural part of change and stability."

The American Association of School Administrators (A.A.S.A.) in 1983 adopted a report based on work led by Hoyle which identified the following seven competencies and attendant specific skills as being related to the performance of effective educational administrators (Hoyle, 1985:77-85): 1. school climate improvement; 2. political theory and skills; 3. systematic school curriculum; 4. instructional management system; 5. staff development and evaluation systems; 6. allocating resources; and 7. using research.

A review of research on effective educational administrators caused Greenfield (1982) to conclude that there was no one best approach to the principalship that had universal application. However, he noted that individuals judged by their peers to be effective were seen to be strongly committed to certain values about schools and children, were proactive and willing to take initiative, and did not allow themselves to become preoccupied by routine organisational demands.

MacPhail-Wilcox (1983:4-7) surveyed the literature and concluded that effective principals exercise leadership in the normative, task, and relationship dimensions and cited several specific skills and attributes. She concluded her article with the caution that assessments of effectiveness should be based on the full range of educational goals of the jurisdiction and should not focus only on a narrow set of academic achievement test scores (1983:8).

Review of Literature Related to the Preparation and Professional Development of Educational Administrators

The Development of University - Based Educational Administration Programmes

Educational Administration is a field of practice "designed to enhance teaching and learning" (Campbell, 1981:7). Because this field of practice has traditionally been part of the teaching profession, the pattern of increasing levels of training and specialization evident in the profession as a whole is also observable among administrators. During the early years of the twentieth century, courses were developed at the Teachers' College of Columbia University and later at Stanford which were designed to help school principals and superintendents to develop skills suited to their work roles. Campbell (1981:5) wrote,

"the premise underlying such courses was that prospective administrators should be taught to do what practising administrators were already doing." Although such courses may have enhanced the performance of some aspects of their work, Campbell found three basic flaws in the approach (1981:6):

1. basing training on existing practice assumed a static field in a static environment;

2. the approach focused on the job and paid insufficient attention to the characteristics and predispositions of the administrator and to the situational variables associated with each unique work setting; and

3. the job analysis approach tended to ignore developments in related academic disciplines.

Perhaps because the language and some concepts of the social sciences were common features of the study of the administration of various organisations, education, business and government, the 1960's witnessed the growth of a "generic" or "administration qua administration" trend within departments of Educational Administration. This trend was noted at the University of Alberta by Swift (1970:45) who reported the belief of the then chairman, Dr. Reeves, that "the fundamentals of administration transcend education." Such thinking notwithstanding, Miklos (1983:163) identified two unintended outcomes of this movement. First, there was only a "limited effort to examine critically" the relevance of such ideas to education, with inappropriate models and criteria for evaluation being adopted from industry; a point reinforced by Hills (1983:12). Second, this movement tended to

encourage the participation of students from post-secondary, adult, and nursing education in a field which prior to 1970 had been occupied almost exclusively by practising basic education administrators (Swift, 1970:71-81).

During the 1960's and 1970's, some prominent professors of Educational Administration such as Culbertson, Farquhar, and Hodgkinson advocated increased attention in university programmes to the study of the humanities (literature, history, philosophy, etc.). Their rationale was that although the social sciences could describe, and to some extent, explain the activities of educational administrators, they did not address the issues of what ought to be the nature and purpose of their roles. Miklos cited Farquhar's conclusion that the study of the humanities within Educational Administration programmes never became common, with only four of 48 programmes surveyed reporting the planned incorporation of such content (1983:162).

Instructional methods characteristic of Educational Administration courses reflect a reliance on the conventional lecture-textbook and seminar approaches typical of many university programmes. Group discussions, "in-basket" activities and simulations are also used to some extent (Miklos, 1983:165). Field experiences, practica, and internships are not common features of Canadian Educational Administration programmes. A 1977 survey of the 29 Canadian universities offering such programmes indicated that only about half of the students were exposed to field-based activities and that such activities occupied only approximately 10 percent of their time (Miklos, 1983:165). The

rather conservative approach to programme delivery was explained by Miklos and Nixon as follows:

> That these programs have an academic/research emphasis is probably inevitable in that they are offered in university settings where professional faculties must always "compete" for academic respectability and where the expectation of clients is for programs which utilize their academic backgrounds and aptitudes (1978:24).

The principal focus of most courses in conventional Educational Administration programmes is the acquisition of knowledge and the development of understanding. Success in such programmes is defined in terms of academic criteria, with the graduate degree attesting to academic and research abilities. As observed by Miklos and Nixon (1978:24), "There is little evidence as yet that departments of Educational Administration concern themselves with the actual performance in administrative posts of those who graduate from their programs."

A doctoral study by Seaton (1978) conducted at the University of Calgary relied on an extensive sample of principals, superintendents, Alberta Education administrators, and faculty members of the Departments of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta and the University of Calgary, to establish what component need items were being met by the Educational Administration programmes at the two universities, and to clarify whether or not such programmes were meeting the needs of administrators in the field. Data were gathered using a questionnaire based on the ten inter-related programme components cited by Culbertson et al. (1969:181).

In drawing conclusions from the results of his study, Seaton noted that "there is little difference between the extent to which

programs at the University of Alberta and the University of Calgary aré not meeting the needs of field administrators" (1978:196). Among the aspects of programmes significantly rejected by administrators, are instructional approaches which emphasize the lecture-textbook approach (1978:196). Regarding "important priority need items not being met by programs," Seaton (1978:196-197) referred to the lack of field related experiences in the form of either internships or other experiences, and the lack of integration of field experience with graduation require-ments. In addition, Seaton concluded that each university should increase programme content related to curriculum design and theory, the humanities, and the development of competencies in public relations.

The responses of both principals and superintendents supported the following conclusions regarding in-service education (1978:126-127):

1. an increased number of in-service educational admini-stration programs should be made available by universities;
2. there should be greater co-operation between universities and other agencies in organizing in-service education programs;
3. there should be systematic and integrated in-service programs--in-service programs should focus upon common problems of administrators;
4. planning should be based on districts' assessment of needs and problems;
5. there is a need for relevance and timeliness in the content of in-service programs; and
6. off-campus in-service education opportunities should be available throughout the province.

The present section has described the evolution of content and methods characteristic of what may be described as conventional Educational Administration programmes. Another approach to the preparation of educational administrators, popular in several American states is the competency-based approach, a description of which follows.

Competency-based Educational Administration Programmes

Competency-based programmes are increasingly common in the
United States where educational administrators are typically reqired to
qualify for special state-issued certificates. The most common purpose
cited for issuing administrator certificates as cited by Howsam and
Morphet (1958), is to protect the interests of the public by using the
authority of the state to restrict access to practice to those who have
demonstrated their ability to perform important and complex functions at
an acceptable standard. Miklos (1983:167) quoted Lipham in identifying
the following stages required in competency-based programmes:

1. giving systematic attention to identifying required under-
standings, skills and behaviours;
2. assigning priorities to the areas in which the skills are
required;
3. developing performance measures;·
4. providing reality-centered, individualized learning
experiences; and
5. evaluating the outcomes of that learning.

McLeary and McIntyre identified 17 instructional methods which may be
used with adult students which address stage four of Lipham's approach
(1972:60-67).

Criticism of the competency-based approach was provided by
Campbell (1981:20) who inferred that five assumptions appear to underlie
the approach:

1. We know what administrative behaviours should be.
2. We can define these behaviours operationally.
3. We can teach these behaviours to prospective admini-
strators.
4. We can measure the presence of these behaviours in admini-
strators.
5. These behaviours, when employed by administrators, will
enhance organisation performance.

Campbell suggested that it would be arrogant of university departments to claim to be able to satisfy these five assumptions, claiming that their fulfilment would reflect the qualities and skills brought by graduate students to the programme rather than the effectiveness of the programme itself (1981:20). Campbell (1981:20) as well as Allison and Renihan (1977:36) also raised the question: "To what extent does the typical competency approach recognize that effective administration is as much a part of the situation as it is of the person?"

In summarizing the literature on university-based Educational Administration programmes, Musella (1982:62) quoted Farquhar (1978):

> We are still performing unsatisfactorily in terms of our ability to prepare principals with the competencies they require in the human and political domain, our ability to evaluate the effectiveness of our preparation programmes, and our ability to share the responsibility for training in appropriate ways with non-university agencies.

The preceding pages have traced the development of both conventional, academically-oriented programmes and competency-based programmes. The section which follows reviews the writing of several authors regarding what they view as desirable course content for the preparation of educational administrators.

A New Synthesis

In concluding his review of the evolution of university-based preparation programmes, Campbell (1981:21) called for "a new synthesis in educational administration and a new partnership between field and campus". Such a partnership, as seen by Campbell, would have professors focus their research on problems of practice, however, other authors envision a more radical form of partnership.

In the Alberta context, Anderson et al. asserted that universities could not turn out "finished products" (1982:4) who were fully capable educators in need of no further development. They recognized the roles to be played by the provincial government, local jurisdictions, and the profession in fostering the on-going growth of educators "especially in relation to those aspects of professional competence where maturation occurs through a process of reflection and dialogue on the problems experienced on a day-by-day basis in the school setting" (1982:5). The authors posited a career development model which would provide for cooperative activities among the various agencies.

In commenting on appropriate content for educational administrator preparation programmes, Downey and Greenfield (1961:6) noted the increasing complexity of the administrator's role and suggested that training be provided in technical-managerial, human-managerial, technical-educational, and speculative-conceptual skills (1961:14).

March (1974:24) described educational institutions as "organized anarchies" that have problematic goals, unclear technologies, and fluid organisational participation. Despite this, he endorsed the eight administrative skill areas cited as important by Mintzberg: peer skills, leadership skills, conflict resolution skills, information processing skills, skills in unstructured decision making, resource allocation skills, entrepreneurial skills, and skills of introspection. March insisted that the university is an "intellectual institution" the primary role of which "is to provide the intellectual base of new skills; it is not to provide all of the training" (1974:28). He then

identified five areas of analytical skill which he believed were legitimately within the province of the university:

1. The analysis of expertise. The management of knowledge.
2. The analysis of coalitions. The management of conflict.
3. The analysis of ambiguity. The management of goals,
4. The analysis of time. The management of attention.
5. The analysis of information. The management of inference.
(1974:28).

Part of March's rationale for believing that the university could not accept the full responsibility for administrator training was that "much of the job of an educational administrator involves the mundane work of making a burearcracy work" which requires "elementary competence ... effectiveness in executing a large number of little things" (1978:233).

Silver (1981:1) roundly criticized those who would endeavour to turn the study of Educational Administration into a theory-based academic discipline. She insisted that the search for generalizable theory in this field has been notably unsuccessful and has served only "to reify and mystify administration" (1981:1). Silver recommended the adoption of a rigorous procedure to address educational problems, observe the effects of practice, and document their ultimate effects on student learning. Her premise was that, over time, a sufficient body of successful, standard treatments would be identified that could serve as the basis for preparatory study.

In a comprehensive work prepared for the University Council for Educational Administration (U.C.E.A.), Culbertson et al. (1969:337-339) identified the elements of practice-based and discipline-based content that they thought should be included in administrator preparation programmes. In the former area were the following six elements: educational change; teacher militancy; instruction; administrative

leadership; finance, and critical social issues. In the latter, they

recommended between 15 and 25 semester hours of study in the social

sciences, humanities, and behavioural sciences.

Gousha (1976:71) advocated that administrators be taught the art

of rhetoric which he defined in a classical sense. He suggested that

preparation programmes comprise:

1. an interdisciplinary approach to a liberal arts education;
2. the development of analytical skills as posited by March (as
noted above);
3. managerial content as related to the field of education;
4. the study of rhetoric itself (critical listening, speaking,
writing and thinking); and
5. a component of supervised field experience to develop and
test the students' human relations skills in a "disturbed
field" (1976:83).

A preparation programme such as was advocated by Gousha would

tend to develop the leadership competencies identified by Bennis

(1984:17-18) as being common among 90 effective executives who were

recently the subjects of a study. The competencies are: 1. the

management of attention; 2. the mangement of meaning; 3. the management

of trust; and 4. the management of self. In an earlier publication,

Bennis indicated that no set of traits or characteristics has "any value

in predicting leadership potentialities" (1976:175), but implied that

appropriate behaviours and skills could be learned. Bennis considered

the eight- skill areas cited by Mintzberg (see above) to provide a

"splendid list" (1976:173) to guide the preparation of administrators.

Yukl (1982:10) wrote that preparation programmes based on

diagnosed learning needs as established by formal assessment centres can

be effective. Schmitt (1982) also supported the use of assessment

centres and reported the result of research which confirmed the predictive validity of certain centres.

Yukl (1982:10) suggested that the vice-principalship could be used effectively as a training ground for educational administrators but only if the position were "treated as more of an internship with regular, structured feedback, instruction by the school principal, and aid if necessary, by professional trainers from the district office or a regional centre." Similar sentiments were expressed by Kelly regarding the vice-principalship in Alberta (1984:13).

The use of field experiences in the preparation of educational administrators is somewhat akin to the development of practica in the training of teachers, pertinent details of which were analized by Miller and Taylor (1984).

Usdan (1976:19) wrote, "University programs must be supplemented to a far greater extent by internship programs and other field-based experiences which reflect more realistically educational leadership situations." Citing Bridges, Usdan (1976:22) indicated that over-reliance on formal university preparation for administrators may be dysfunctional in that it develops trained incapacity, a grandiose ego-ideal, unrealistic work pace, passive forms of conflict resolution, lenient personnel assessments, reluctance to delegate, written but not verbal communication skills, a tendency to use one-way communication, and furthermore, may be emotionally crippling.

Manasse (1984:4) echoed many of Usdan's notions regarding the limitations of traditional academic programmes in preparing educational administrators. She did, however, emphasize that it was in the

application of "cognitive skills" which include monitoring, the ability to recognize patterns, perceptual objectivity, and analytical ability, that high performing administrators are distinguished from the average performers (1984:7). As noted by March (1974) the university is best suited to develop such cognitive or analytic skills.

In concluding this section regarding the desirability of establishing a new synthesis of the study and the practice of Educational Administration, it is appropriate to review some of the literature related to in-service education for administrators. Fullan (1982:263) acknowledged that in-service professional development activities have realized disappointing results in the past and cited seven reasons for such poor performance. Referring to studies by Joyce and Showers (1981), Fullan did, however, indicate factors which can be incorporated in such programmes to make them effective (1982:286-287). If the goal of increased and/or improved pre-service and in-service professional development programmes is the improvement of the learning environment through more effective educational administration, such programmes must be capable of effecting behavioural change among administrators. Fullan stated (1982:284-285) that such change could be encouraged by programmes which include the following elements: they must provide for demonstration, theory, practice, feedback and application; follow-up, remedial activities must be available; programmes must address specific aspects of change; and provision must be made for interaction, both formal and informal, with peers and others in order to provide assistance and encouragement. Fullan's support for the efficacy of well-designed and executed in-service professional development

activities was also endorsed by Anderson et al. (1982), Gemar (1976),

and Seaton (1978).

CHAPTER III

ASPECTS OF THE POLICY ENVIRONMENT

Introduction

Dunn (1981:47) wrote, "A policy environment, which is the specific context in which events surrounding a policy issue occur, influences and is in turn influenced by policy stakeholders and public policies." Consequently, it is important for the policy analyst to determine the nature of the policy environment and to infer the effects of its various elements. As was noted in Chapter I, in the section describing the policy development process, much of the data regarding the three main issues addressed by this study were derived through two rounds of interviews with prominent individuals who were representative of the stakeholder groups. Such data, by and large, pertained to questions of a subjective nature and, in many cases, evoked answers which the respective organisations had not previously expressed in an explicit fashion. Other data, however, may be seen as more objective or factual and may be viewed as being more a part of the policy environment than as attributes of the policy stakeholders.

In this chapter, data pertaining to three aspects of the policy environment are presented. First, the levels of training and experience set as entry level standards by each Canadian province and some American states are discussed. Second, data drawn from the computer records of Alberta Education regarding the levels of university training of the incumbents in the various levels of educational administration roles are examined, and information pertaining to which universities these administrators chose to attend is presented. Last, information about the

form, content and enrolment of the educational administrator preparation programmes offered by Alberta's three conventional universities is presented.

Standards in Other Jurisdictions

Although each province sets its own standards and regulations regarding criteria for the appointment of educational administrators, the interaction among politicians and senior civil servants in such settings as the Council of Ministers of Education tends to heighten the sensitivity of policy makers to the expectations and regulations in effect in other parts of Canada. Furthermore, national news media and the mobility of Canadians from province to province also tend to foster similar expectations across the country. In order to determine the standards in effect in the broad policy environment, letters were sent to the departments of education of each Canadian province and several American states enquiring about their respective expectations and practices regarding the criteria for the appointment of educational administrators. Tables 3.1 through 3.4 which follow, indicate the requirements for certificates, and the requisite formal preparation and experience demanded by Canadian provinces of assistant principals, principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents, respectively.

The diverse nature of the forms of regulations reported by the sample of American states permitted the development of similar tables for principals and superintendents only. This information is presented in Tables 3.5 and 3.6, respectively.

Table 3.1

Certification, Preparation, and Experience Requirements for Canadian Assistant Principals

	Nfld.	NS.	N.B.	PEI	PQ.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.
1. Special certificate required	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
2. Minimum years of university education required		–	5	5	4	5	–	–	–	–
3. University degree required		–	B.A. + B.Ed.	B.A. + B.Ed.	B.Ed.	B.A. + B.Ed.	–	–	–	–
4. University Educational Administration Courses required (3 credit hr. equivalent)	–	–	6	1	–	4	–	–	–	–
5. Minimum years of teaching experience required	–	–	5	3	.5	5	–	–	–	–
6. Courses in addition to university degree required	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	–	–	–

Summary information:

1. Only New Brunswick and Ontario require assistant principals to earn administrative certificates.

2. Only three provinces, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Ontario require assistant principals to have university training beyond the minimum required of teachers.

3. Only Ontario requires assistant principals to take non-university credit courses.

4. Four provinces, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec and Ontario require principals to achieve a minimum level of teaching experience.

Table 3.2

Certification, Preparation, and Experience Requirements for Canadian Principals.

	Nfld.	NS.	N.B.	PEI	PQ.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.
1. Special certificate required	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
2. Minimum years of university education required	-	-	5	5	4	5	-	-	-	-
3. Minimum university degree required	-	-	B.A. + B.Ed.	B.A. + B.Ed.	B.Ed.	B.A. + B.Ed.	-	-	-	-
4. Number of University Administration Courses required (3 credit hour equivalent)	-	-	6	1	-	4	-	-	-	-
5. Minimum years of teaching experience required	-	-	5	4	8	5	-	-	-	-
6. Minimum years of administration experience required	-	-	-	0	-	3	-	-	-	-
7. Non-credit courses required	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-

Summary Information:

1. Three provinces issue certificates to principals, New Brunswick, Ontario and Manitoba. The Manitoba certificate is not issued on the basis of pre-service qualifications but recognizes appointment to the principalship.

2. Four provinces, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Ontario and Quebec, specify training and experience requirements for principals.

3. Only Ontario sponsors courses through its Ministry of Education. Other provinces rely on university designed programmes to prepare principals.

4. Ontario has developed a career development model which outlines the progression to be followed by individuals aspiring to move from teaching to administration and through the administrative heirarchy.

Table 3.3

Certification, Preparation and Experience Requirements for Canadian Assistant Superintendents.

	Nfld.	NS.	N.B.	PEI	PQ.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alte.	B.C.
1. Special certificate required	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
2. Minimum years of university	6		6		6	6				
3. Minimum university degree required	M.Ed.		M.Ed.		Master's M.Ed.	Master's M.Ed.				
4. Number of University Administration Courses required (3 credit hour equivalent)	As per M.Ed.		As per M.Ed.			As per M.Ed.				
5. Minimum years of teaching experience required	4		5		5	7				
6. Minimum years of administrative experience required	2		2		3					
7. Non-credit courses required.										

Summary Information:

1. Only Ontario issues a "Supervisory Officer's Certificate".

2. Six provinces, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia do not specify requirements for the qualifications of Assistant Superintendents.

3. Four provinces, Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario, require Superintendent to hold the equivalent of Master's degree.

4. The same four provinces specify the requirement for assistant superintendents to have between five and eight years of work experience in education.

Table 3.4

Certification, Preparation and Experience Requirements for Canadian Superintendents

	Nfld.	NS.	N.B.	PEI	PQ.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	BC.
1. Special certificate required	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
2. Minimum years of university required	6	-	6	-	6	6	-	5	5	6
3. Minimum university degree required	M.Ed.	-	M.Ed.	-	Master's	M.Ed.	-	B.Ed.	B.Ed.	B.Ed.
4. Number of University Administration Courses required (3 credit hour equivalent)	As per M.Ed.	-	As per M.Ed.	-	-	As per M.Ed.	-	8	8	-
5. Minimum years of teaching experience required	3	-	5	-	5	7	-	2	5	3
6. Minimum years of administrative experience required	2	-	5	-	5	-	-	2	-	4
7. Non-credit courses required	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Summary Information:

1. Three provinces, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and Manitoba prescribe no special requirements for superintendents' qualifications.

2. Of those specifying requirements, two provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan, require a minimum of five years of university education, while five provinces, Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Quebec, and British Columbia, require the equivalent of a minimum of six years of university education.

3. Five provinces, Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Ontario, Saskatchewan and Alberta specify the need for superintendents to successfully complete graduate level courses in Education.

4. Education work experience requirements range from four years (Saskatchewan) to ten years (New Brunswick and Quebec), Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Quebec, Saskatchewan and British Columbia specifically require superintendents to have administrative experience.

5. Only Ontario issues a "Supervisory Officer's Certificate".

Table 3.5

Certification, Preparation, and Experience Requirements for U.S. Principals.

	Colorado	Idaho	Maryland	New York	Oregon	Wisconsin
1. Special certificate required	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
2. Minimum years of university education required	6	6	6	5	5	6
3. Minimum university degree required	M.A.	M.Ed.	M.Ed.	B.Ed.	B.Ed.	M.Ed.
4. Number of university administration courses required (3 credit hour equivalent)	7	-	5	6	3	6
5. Minimum years of teaching experience required	-	3	3	3	-	3
6. Minimum years of administrative experience required	-	-	-	-	-	-
7. Non-credit courses required	-	-	-	-	-	-
8. Internship or supervised practicum	Yes	Opt.	-	Opt.	-	Yes

Table 3.6

Certification, Preparation and Experience Requirements for U.S. Superintendents

	Colorado	Idaho	Maryland	New York	Oregon	Wisconsin
1. Special certificate required	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
2. Minimum years of university education required	6.5	6	6	6	6	6
3. Minimum university degree required	M.Ed.	M.Ed.	M.Ed.	M.Ed.	M.Ed.	M.Ed.
4. Number of university administration courses required (3 credit hour equivalent)	12	-	-	8	3	6
5. Minimum years of teaching experience required	-	2	3	3	3	-
6. Minimum years of administrative experience required	-	-	2	-	-	-
7. Non-credit courses required	-	-	-	-	-	-
8. Internship or supervised practicum	Yes	Opt.	-	Opt.	-	Yes

U.S. Principals and Superintendents

Summary Information.

1. All states cited require administrators to hold special certificates based on training criteria. One state, Wisconsin, requires that training courses be competency based but leaves the training tasks in the hands of approved universities.

2. In all cases, certificates are issued by the respective states, not by universities or professional organizations.

3. Coursework in specific aspects of Educational Administration is required by most states cited.

4. In Oregon, two levels of certificates are issued, a basic, entry-level certificate, and a standard, more advanced level certificate for which an administrator may apply after completing further academic courses and administrative experience.

5. In Colorado and Wisconsin, supervised administrative internships are required while in New York and Idaho internships are optional.

The implications of the various levels of formal preparation, the natire and period of professional experience, and the status of certification programmes are discussed in response to the following questions.

1. Are there generally accepted standards of training for the respective categories of educational administrators?

    Four Canadian provinces, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, and Ontario, specify levels of training for assistant principals and principals. Similarly, only four, Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario, define minimum educational levels for assistant superintendents. In contrast, seven provinces, all but Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Manitoba, specify minimum levels of formal preparation for superintendents. If generalizations can be made, it appears that school-level administrators in Canadian provinces are expected to have completed four or five years of university preparation, while system-level administrators normally are required to complete six years of study.

    If the above conclusions regarding the length of formal preparation appear tentative, the impression is reinforced when one considers the lack of standardization of the content of university programmes. Regulations, where they exist, tend to require years of study or levels of degree, consequently permitting educators to study virtually any discipline. Even when Master of Education degrees are specified there is no assurance that courses in Educational Administration will be the

focus. Furthermore, it is not possible to define concisely the content of such programmes, even in the universities of a particular province.

In contrast to the lack of regulation prevalent in Canada regarding the formal preparation of educational administrators, the American states in the sample appear to be much more prescriptive regarding the level and type of university preparation. In the regulations of some states, e.g. Wisconsin and Oregon, reference is made to "approved" university programmes, suggesting that the states actively consulted with the universities in determining programme structure, content, and/or methods.

2. Are there generally accepted standards regarding the type and amount of experience that educational administrators should have before being appointed to particular roles?

Most jurisdictions seem content to let the competition of the employment market determine appropriate levels and types of experience for the respective administrative roles. Only four provinces, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec, and Ontario require school-level administrators to obtain between three and eight years of teaching experience, and the same number of provinces require assistant superintendents to have at least three to seven years of teaching experience. Only Newfoundland, New Brunswick, and Quebec require assistant superintendents to have administrative experience.

Seven provinces, however, have seen fit to mandate minimal levels of experience for superintendents. It is, though, interesting to note that there is little consensus regarding the nature and amount of experience that is appropriate, as teaching experience requirements range from two to seven years and administrative experience expectations range from zero to five years.

Although most states in the sample require some teaching experience, usually three years, administrative experience is either not required or may be replaced by a supervised practicum or internship in a university programme.

3. Which jurisdictions currently issue certificates to educational administrators?

In Canada, only New Brunswick and Ontario issue certificates based on formal training and experience to school-level administrators. Manitoba issues certificates to practitioners in recognition of their standing as principals, but has no minimum criteria of training or experience.

Only Ontario, with the Supervisory Officer's Certificate, issues a credential to its system-level administrators.

All six of the American states included in the survey require both school and system level administrators to earn special certificates.

To summarize, a review of the criteria for the appointment of school and school system level administrators in Canada suggests that most provinces have chosen not to issue certificates.

Furthermore, except for the position of superintendent, most provinces do not prescribe minimum levels of training or pre-service experience. As such, Alberta's current level of regulation (affecting only superintendents) appears to reflect the Canadian norm.

The Academic Achievement Levels of Alberta's Educational Administators

In addition to the broad policy context established by other provinces and states, another important aspect of background data pertains to the current situation in Alberta regarding the population of educational administrators. Information regarding the nature and extent of their preliminary professional experience was not available. However, the computer records of Alberta Education (based on September, 1984 data) did indicate the highest levels of formal education achieved by incumbents of the various educational administration roles. These data are presented below in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7

The Highest Levels of University Achievement of Albertan
Educational Administrators as of September, 1984

	TOTAL NUMBER	NO DEGREE	BACHELOR	DIPLOMA	MASTER	DOCTORATE
Superintendents	98	0(0%)	7 (7%)	10(10%)	65(66%)	16(16%)
Assistant Sup't.	113	0(0%)	22(19%)	14(12%)	61(54%)	16(14%)
Principals	1486	27(2%)	636(43%)	302(20%)	502(34%)	19(1%)
Assistant Prin.	1140	13(1%)	608(53%)	213(19%)	295(26%)	11(1%)
TOTAL	2837					

Caution should be exercised in making comparisons between the actual levels of formal education of Albertan educational administrators and levels prescribed as minimal by such provinces as Ontario and New Brunswick as reported in Tables 3.1 and 3.2. The data noted in Table 3.7 refer to personnel in even the smallest, one room schools whereas those reported in the preceding tables provide for exemptions for schools of less than 125 students in Ontario, or schools with fewer than 12 full-time teachers in New Brunswick.

Alberta Education's computer records also yielded data regarding in which universities this province's educational administrators earned their highest degrees. Data are presented in Tables 3.8 through 3.12 indicating by role category the number of each level of degree achieved by educational administrators at each of the three regular Alberta universities. "Other" designates universities outside of Alberta.

Table 3.8

Universities at Which Their Highest Degrees Were Earned by
Assistant Principals

Degree

University	Bachelor's	Diploma	Master's	Doctorate
Other	153 25%	15 7%	133 45%	8 73%
U. of Alberta	300 49%	134 63%	86 29%	3 27%
U. of Calgary	130 21%	59 28%	76 26%	— —
U. of Lethbridge	25 4%	5 21%	— —	— —

Table 3.9

Universities at Which Their Highest Degrees Were Earned by
Principals

Degree

University	Bachelor's	Diploma	Master's	Doctorate
Other	164 26%	27 9%	237 47%	16 84%
U. of Alberta	319 50%	189 63%	162 32%	1 5%
U. of Calgary	111 17%	82 27%	103 21%	2 11%
U. of Lethbridge	42 7%	4 1%	– –	– –

Table 3.10

Universities at Which Their Highest Degrees Were Earned by
Assistant Superintendents

Degree

University	Bachelor's	Diploma	Master's	Doctorate
Other	11 50%	2 14%	22 36%	10 63%
U. of Alberta	7 32%	8 57%	26 43%	5 31%
U. of Calgary	4 18%	4 29%	13 21%	1 6%
U. of Lethbridge	– –	– –	– –	– –

Table 3.11

Universities at Which Their Highest Degrees Were Earned by
Superintendents

Degree

University	Bachelor's	Diploma	Master's	Doctorate
Other	3 42%	2 20%	35 53%	9 56%
U. of Alberta	2 29%	6 60%	24 37%	7 44%
U. of Calgary	1 14%	2 20%	6 9%	– –
U. of Lethbridge	1 14%	– –	– –	– –

Table 3.12

Summary of Universities at Which Their Highest Degrees Were Earned by
All Administrators

Degree

University	Bachelor's	Diploma	Master's	Doctorate
Other	431 31%	45 8%	427 46%	43 69%
U. of Alberta	628 46%	337 63%	298 32%	16 26%
U. of Calgary	246 18%	147 27%	198 21%	3 5%
U. of Lethbridge	68 5%	9 2%	– –	– –

University Educational Administration Preparation Programmes in Alberta

The pages which follow outline the programmes offered by the University
of Alberta, the University of Calgary, and the University of Lethbridge,
respectvely, which are most closely associated with Educational Admini-
stration. The information is based on programme descriptions published
in the universities' 1984 calendars with additional enrolment and
historical data derived from interviews conducted by the author with Dr.
C. Bumbarger, Chairman of the Department of Educational Administration
of the University of Alberta; Dr. F. Oliva, Associate Dean of the
Faculty of Education, and Dr. R. Schnell, Head of the Department of
Educational Policy and Administration of the University of Calgary; and
Mr. A. Loewen, Associate Dean of Education, Dr. E. Falkenberg,
Professor, and Dr. R. Anderson, Professor, of the University of
Lethbridge.

Although current enrolment information is cited for each
programme, the reader is advised to use such figures with caution as a
significant number of administrators and aspiring administrators may be

pursuing preparation programmes offered by other university departments such as the Department of Elementary Education, or the Department of Secondary Education at the University of Alberta, or the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, or the Department of Teacher Education and Supervision at the University of Calgary. If the enrolment figures cited do not represent all practising and aspiring educational administrators now pursuing formal preparation programmes, the distortion is modified in large part by the fact that not all the students counted are associated with Alberta's basic education system. Students from other provinces, and countries, as well as those interested in post secondary education are necessarily included in the enrolment data.

The University of Alberta. The Department of Educational Administration of the University of Alberta offered the first programme designed for the preparation of educational administrators in Canada. Graduates from its programmes have gone on to provide leadership in schools, jurisdictions, institutions of higher education, and government departments in Canada and abroad. Since first accepting students in 1957, the Department of Educational Administration has developed administrator preparation programmes at a number of levels, and with a variety of requirements in order to accommodate the diverse needs of students.

The Diploma programme is regarded as an extension of the under-graduate Bachelor of Education degree. The Diploma in Educational Administration requires students to complete, with good academic standing eight courses at the senior undergraduate or graduate level, of which at least four must be in Educational Administration. The

programme is expected to be completed within four years. Approximately 140 students were registered in Diploma courses in 1984-1985.

Two basic routes to the Master of Education (M.Ed.) degree are available to students of Educational Administration. The thesis route requires students to successfully complete a minimum of 30 credit hours of courses (normally 10 three credit courses) including three courses in administration and two courses in research methodology and statistics. A thesis is to be researched and written, and a residence period of one academic year must be served. The non-thesis route requires a minimum of 42 credit hours of successful coursework (normally 14 three credit courses). Students are encouraged to focus their studies on one or two areas of concentration including:.

1. Research and project administration

2. Personnel and supervision.

3. Organizational design.

4. Adaptive and planning functions.

5. Environment of education (political, social, legal, and inter-cultural).

6. Economics and finance.

7. Adult, continuing, and post secondary education.

Students in the non-thesis route must complete a field-based research project equal in weight to one to two half courses, and must fulfil a residence requirement of one academic year.

Twenty-six students are currently enrolled in the Master's programme on a full-time, in-residence basis with approximately half of the students in each of the thesis and non-thesis routes. Both routes

are intended to provide basic preparation for various administrative and supervisory positions in school systems, colleges, technical institutions, departments of education, professional associations and similar organisations.

Because study leaves are not always readily available to administrators and aspiring administrators in mid-career, the Department of Educational Administration has devised the Administrative Development Programme (A.D.P.) in order to allow M.Ed. candidates to satisfy the residence requirement without registering on a continuous full-time basis. A.D.P. students must complete the same amount of coursework that is required of students in the traditional M.Ed. programme (42 credit hours plus a project weighted at six credit hours), however, they complete six or seven of their courses on campus each Wednesday afternoon (noon through 17:30) September through April over two consecutive years. Other courses may be taken during evening or intersession periods. The areas of special emphasis in the A.D.P. are the development of knowledge and skills in planning, organizing, directing, controlling and conducting policy research, programme development, and evaluation projects. During 1984-1985, 31 students were enrolled in this programme. The employers of A.D.P. students must agree to release the students for the Wednesday afternoon sessions, be willing to release them for up to eight working days during the two year period, and agree to support the students in the conduct of the field-related project.

The M.Ed. degree may also be pursued by students in the Grande Prairie, Peace River, Red Deer, and Fort McMurray regions through the Extended Campus Programme. With the cooperation of employers, students

may take, in these communities, courses'that satisfy some of the course-work requirements and the project requirement. The Extended Campus Programme requires a two year commitment from the students as well as their willingness to complete courses during the intersession offered on-campus. No thesis is required, and residence requirements are satisfied by the combination of the work done in the designated off-campus centre. During the 1984-85 academic year, 9 students were enrolled in Grande Prairie, 17 in Red Deer, and 15 in Fort McMurray. The programme will continue over the next six years with the cooperation of the Department of Elementary Education and the Department of Educational Foundations of the University of Alberta which will also offer courses in the designated off-campus centres.

The Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D.) in Educational Administration emphasizes "the intensive development of conceptual, analytical and research skills as preparation for teaching and administrative positions in various educational organisations." The areas of specialization available to doctoral students are similar to the seven areas identified for the Master's degree.

Admission to the programme requires very good academic standing in a completed Masters' programme, as well as satisfactory references, career experiences, and aptitude test scores.

The Ph.D. programme demands a two academic year residence period, the completion of a thesis, and at least 42 credit hours of coursework (a minimum of 14 three credit courses including five compulsory core courses). In 1984-1985, 22 students were enrolled on a full-time basis in the first year of the Ph.D. programme, with another

22 students from previous years actively working on their theses. Thirty-two additional students are registered as working on their theses but do not have regular contact with the Department. Of this last group, approximately 24 may be expected to successfully complete the degree requirements within the six year maximum period.

The Department of Educational Administration, in addition to the programmes described above, also offers a Post-graduate Diploma which is designed "to enhance current job performance or to prepare for changed administrative responsibilities." Students in this programme are required to have completed a suitable Masters' degree and must successfully follow a personalized study plan which includes the completion of eight graduate level courses. Not much demand exists for this programme as is evidenced by the fact that only two students are currently enrolled.

The University of Alberta calendar also lists the degree of Doctor of Education (Ed.D.). It should be noted, however, that only one student in the history of the Department of Educational Administration has ever pursued this degree and there seems to be little demand for it from students and little enthusiasm within the Department to promote this form of doctorate.

The University of Calgary. Although some students seeking preparation for educational administration roles register with the Department of Teacher Education and Supervision, and others become affiliated with the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, the vast majority registers with the Department of Educational Policy and Administration. This latter Department was formed in recent years by the

merger of what were formerly the Department of Educational/Admini-stration and the Department of Educational Foundations.

The Department of Educational Policy and Administration offers a Professional Diploma Programme in conjunction with the Faculty of Education, as well as Master of Education, Master of Arts, and Doctor of Philosophy programmes in accordance with the regulations of the Faculty of Graduate Studies.

The Professional Diploma Programme during the 1984-1985 term had an enrolment of 170 students. In order to qualify for the Diploma, students are required to complete at least four full course equivalents with good academic standing, and may register for specialization in one of the following areas:

a. Adult and Community Education

b. Comparative and International Education

c. History of Education in Canada

d. Religious and Moral Education

e. Resource Administration

f. Programme Development Administration

g. Sociology of Education

Although the majority of courses in these specializations is offered by the Department of Educational Policy and Administration, some students are encouraged to take such courses as "Procedures in Measurement and Assessment for the School Administrator," "School Law," "Administration of The Educational Programme," "Clinical Supervision," "Theory and Research in Administration of Public Education In Canada" from the Department of Teacher Education and Supervision. Further flexibility of

programming is afforded by a one full-course equivalent open option for students.

The Master of Education (M.Ed.) programme in 1984-1985 had an enrolment of 75 students, most of whom are completing their degrees on a part-time basis. No formal residence period is required for the M.Ed. degree, but students are required to maintain good academic standing on their seven full-course equivalent programme. The programme must be completed within a six year time limit, and students are required, upon the completion of coursework, to pass a comprehensive examination comprising both written and oral components.

Students are encouraged to select one of the following areas of specialization in which three full-course equivalents are to be chosen:

1. Community, Adult Education

2. Comparative Education

3. Economic Resources Administration

4. Governance of Education

5. History of Education

6. Human Resources Administration

7. Philosophy of Education

8. Programme Development/Evaluation

9. Sociology of Education

10. Policy Studies.

As part of these specializations, courses are included from other departments of the Faculty of Education and the Faculty of Arts.

The Master of Arts in Education (M.A.) degree programme had an enrolment of 18 students registered with the Department of Educational

Policy and Administrative Studies. This thesis-based degree requires a one academic year residence period and normally demands the successful completion of four full-course equivalents, at least half of which would be drawn from the set of specializations listed above.

The Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D.) programme in 1984-1985 involved 19 students pursuing their degrees. This programme requires a two academic year residence period and the "demonstration of ability to plan and carry out research of a high calibre leading to an advance in knowledge in the student's major field of study, i.e., a defensible thesis. Although the programme must be completed within six years of initial registration, a great deal of flexibility is afforded by the provision that coursework requirements can be tailored to meet the unique learning needs of each student. (The Faculty of Graduate Studies requires students to complete only one half course, with additional coursework determined by consultation between the student and his or her advisor.)

The Department of Educational Policy and Administrative Studies is active in supporting the Master of Education outreach programme at Medicine Hat. Fourteen students in total in 1984-1985 were enrolled in this programme of whom seven were pursuing courses in administration. Each year, two core courses are taught in Medicine Hat on a cyclical basis, so that over a two year period a student can take four courses in his or her home community and can arrange to round-out the programme with summer courses taught in Calgary. It should be noted that Diploma and Master's level courses are also offered in Medicine Hat by the University of Lethbridge. In the interest of efficiency, an informal

arrangement has been made by the two Universities whereby administration-related courses will be sponsored by the University of Calgary, and teaching-related courses will be sponsored by the University of Lethbridge.

No expansion of outreach activities to other centres is foreseen due to the lack of qualified staff, library resources and programme funds. Nevertheless, requests for administrator preparation courses have been received from interested individuals in the Brooks area. The Department of Educational Policy and Administrative Studies has been involved in a limited fashion in providing in-service credit courses and has offered at least one course (in Moral and Religious Education) via teleconference facilities.

Although many of its courses are derived from Educational Foundations as opposed to Administration, The Department of Educational Policy and Administrative Studies offers an extensive range of courses with over 70 graduate level courses listed in the calendar. The expressed aims of the Department are to pursue "the academic study of education and the examination and analysis of policy and problem issues affecting the professional conduct of education as well as to prepare "principals and educational personnel in the skills and professional knowledge required for the administration of schools and school systems." These aims are pursued through the use of a diverse set of classroom-based instructional activities.

In order to maintain its academic credibility, the Department of Educational Policy and Administrative Studies is mindful of the risks of over-extending itself. Budget constraints at the University level mean

that any faculty positions vacated for any reason (death, retirement, etc.), are subject to reassignment elsewhere in the University. Even if the Department is able to convince the University officials to renew a position, it is likely to be re-allocated at a lower rank. These practices not only threaten to lower the overall capacity of the Department to sustain existing enrolment levels, but also, as junior professors' salaries are significantly lower than those paid to highly qualified administrators in the field, it becomes increasingly difficult to recruit faculty members with suitable training and experience. It is therefore unlikely that the preparation programmes for educational administrators at the University of Calgary will expand without special funding arrangements.

The University of Lethbridge.

The University of Lethbridge offers diploma programmes in seven areas of specialization including Education Administration. The 33 students enrolled are required to select and successfully complete 10 of 27 courses offered in this specialization. (It should be noted that courses at the University of Lethbridge are a semester long as opposed to being year-long courses). The range of courses offered in the administration specialization is broad, spanning general principles of school administration, the analysis of teaching, evaluation and the curriculum, clinical supervision, education, among others. Success in the programme depends on the maintenance of high academic standing and the completion of the required ten courses within a five year period.

In the fall of 1984, the University of Lethbridge instituted a Master of Education (M. Ed.) programme. Although the stated purposes of

this programme are to focus "on the interface between teacher and pupil and the development of master teachers," provision is made for "candidates preparing for careers supportive of the classroom teacher," a role definition that addresses part of the function of school administrators.

The Master of Education programme requires students to complete within seven years, with good academic standing, the equivalent of 16 semester courses. No full-time residence period is required, but students must complete a minimum of 10 courses at the University of Lethbridge. At the outset of their programmes, students must opt for a thesis or non-thesis degree. The thesis is considered equivalent to four course credits. Students choosing the non-thesis route are required to complete a project equal to either one or four course credits. It is expected that both theses and projects will focus on meaningful, field-based topics in keeping with the aims of the programme. Of the 29 part-time students admitted to the programme to date, 20 have chosen the thesis route.

All students are required to take the following common core courses:

1. Two courses in Curriculum Theory.

2. Two courses in Educational Foundations.

3. One course in the Analysis of Teaching.

4. One course in Instructional Supervision.

5. One course in Research Design and Methodology.

6. One or four course equivalents devoted to the field-based project or thesis.

Optional courses, taken in addition to the core must reflect both education and non-education subjects.

Even though the basic thrust of the programme is designed to meet the needs of individuals in the basic education system, students from other educational levels and endeavours have been, and will continue to be, admitted. Such students include those involved in nursing education as well as college-level instructors.

Off-campus centres have been used for the instruction of administration-related courses for Diploma students in both Blairmore and Pincher Creek, and, in September, 1985, the core courses of the Master of Education programme will be offered in Medicine Hat. Under this latter programme, one course will be taught each semester over a three year cycle. Although, as noted above, there is an understanding between the University of Lethbridge and the University of Calgary with regard to courses offered in Medicine Hat, with the former providing teaching related courses and the latter courses more directly related to administration, it is possible that a number of practising or aspiring school administrators may prefer the more practice-oriented Lethbridge programme. Due to the limited faculty resources, it is unlikely that additional outreach programmes or centres will be established. However, a number of faculty members are now involved in training activities related to electronic distance delivery methods, and so there may be courses made available to additional off-campus students in the future.

CHAPTER IV

THE GENERATION OF PRELIMINARY POLICY ALTERNATIVES

Introduction

The task of the analyst in endeavouring to develop policy recommendations is complex, but by following a systematic process such as that outlined in Chapter I (Figure 1.3), useful results can be realized. This chapter details the first four stages of that policy development process:

1. the determination of goals;

2. the assessment of needs;

3. the specification of objectives; and

4. the design of alternative courses of action.

Although the model from which these stages were drawn indicates the steps through which the policy development process may advance, it does not address either the nature of the social policy research process, or the methodology and methods which the researcher may use to advance through the successive stages. Consequently, before detailing the empirical data which provided the raw material for the policy analysis process, the initial pages of this chapter are devoted to an explanation of the characteristics of social policy research and the methodology of policy analysis.

The chapter first details several characteristics of social policy research that have bearing on the present study. Eight important characteristics are cited and the effects of value assumptions are discussed. Attention is then paid to the question of what constitutes appropriate research methodology with a particular focus on the use of

interviews as primary sources of data. A discussion of the questions of how the concepts of validity and reliability apply to "ex ante" policy analyses then follows.

The succeeding section notes the seven categories and 27 subcategories which were developed in order to organize the data from the first round of interviews. Selected statements are then presented which are representative of respondents' comments and which express the range of opinion and major trains of thought communicated during the interviews.

Each of the stages of the policy development model used in this study (as illustrated in Figure 1.3) is detailed. In the Determination of Goals stage, three goals are derived from the interview data. The Needs Assessment and the Specification of Objectives stages are presented so as to complement the developed goals.

The final stage of the policy development process addressed in this chapter is described in a section which explains the preliminary policy alternatives which were designed to restate, in an operational form, the policy objectives. The preliminary policy alternatives, as distributed to interview participants, are found in Appendix 2.

Characteristics of Social Policy Research

Before elaborating on the formal stages of the policy development process and presenting the data derived from the first round of interviews, it is important to understand the nature and characteristics of social policy research. Mayer and Greenwood defined policy research as "empirical research undertaken to verify propositions about some aspect of the means - end relationship in policy making" (1980:42). The

policy research process therefore endeavours to combine two elements. The first consists of the social values of the decision makers and stakeholders which have been expressed in the form of explicit goals. The second consists of the factual information which determines the most effective means for realizing the goals.

Although policy research is a relatively young science, Mayer and Greenwood (1980:42) cited the works of Etzioni (1971), Gans (1971) and Gouldner (1965) as referring to eight characteristics which are associated with its pursuit:

1. Policy research is goal oriented. The policy analyst can confidently discuss means only after ensuring that he or she thoroughly understands what policy ends are to be sought. Therefore, the policy analysis process flows from the identification of goals. Such a process involves the analyst in the structuring of the problem and thus causes the analyst to have input in the selection of values to be operationalized by the goals.

2. Policy research has a system perspective. Although policy decisions are generally made by a sub-group of a social system, thorough policy analysis endeavours to consider the effects of the proposed policy action on all elements affected by the policy. Such concern is consistent with democratic social values.

3. Policy research is focused on action, in that it goes beyond the identification of goals, needs and objectives, and posits

approaches whereby these elements might be addressed. Such activity implies a concern for aspects of policy implementation.

4. Policy research involves manipulable variables. Because policy research is focused on action, it follows that the focus of study will be situations where action alternatives may be implemented. In other words, with reference to the conceptual framework for the present study as noted earlier in Figure 1.2, policy research is appropriate only if options exist regarding the content of the independent variable.

5. Policy research must be comprehensive. Again, as was shown in the conceptual framework, the policy system is not a simple cause-effect relationship, but involves latent and unexpected consequences which stem from policy action. The policy researcher must endeavour to anticipate such consequences.

6. Policy research is multidisciplinary. It can deal with the substantive issues in a wide variety of social fields. Mayer and Greenwood (1980:44) wrote:

The mark of such research is its analytical approach and its system perspective, not its substantive content. This characteristic sets policy analysis apart from applied social science, which tends to formulate both the policy problem (the substance of the means - ends relationship) and the research problem (the verification of that relationship) in terms of the analytical concepts and research techniques of a particular discipline.

7. The products of policy research are characterized by uncertainty. It is therefore incumbent upon the analyst to identify the limitations associated with any predictions or conclusions.

8. Policy research should reflect <u>ethical considerations</u>. As the
   efforts of policy analysts can affect the lives of many people,
   it is important for the analyst to be guided by conscionable
   values. Policy research, as is discussed below, cannot be a
   value-free enterprise. The analyst is therefore morally bound
   to practice in an ethical fashion.

The case for policy research to be considered as a science was
advanced by Zeckhauser and Schaefer (1968:27) who developed a model
linking value assumptions and the scientific method. They termed the
result "normative theory" from which, in their model, syllogisms are
used to generate policy alternatives which may be implemented. The
resulting policy outcomes may then be observed empirically and
evaluated.

Value assumptions are basic elements in the policy research
process. Initially, value assumptions enter into the decision to
conduct a particular study, and subsequently influence the definition of
the policy problem and affect the research design. As important as the
researcher's value assumptions are in the research design phases, the
rigour of the scientific method demands that to the extent possible, the
conduct of the study be value free (Mayer and Greenwood, 1980:46).
Although the researcher will exercise discretion in accepting or
rejecting data, the criterion used should be their relevance to the
subject of study, not whether the data are consistent with the
researcher's personal values and biases. In describing the discretion
required of researchers, Kaplan (1964:375) noted that "freedom from bias
means having an open mind, not an empty one."

The Methodology of Policy Analysis

Unlike studies conducted within the behavioural or traditional social sciences, policy science does not prescribe methodologies for analysts to use. As noted by Dror (1968:155):

> once we leave the world of pure abstractions and begin to deal with real conditions, we have to face the fact that the quantitative aspects of optimal policy making depend in each case on the available inputs into, and on the stipulated outputs from, each specific case, which means we cannot construct a (policy analysis) model which is universal, quantitative, optimal, and operational all at the same time.

McRae (1980:137) agreed, saying, "sociological generalizations do not cumulate, they obsolesce". Dunn (1981:35) added:

> policy analysis cannot be successfully practised within the boundaries of traditional social science disciplines that emphasize the development and testing of general descriptive theories. These disciplines (economics, sociology, political science, psychology) are often limited in several ways: complex policy problems do not recognize traditional disciplinary boundaries; general theories are seldom applicable to specific policy contexts; and such theories frequently fail to provide information that permits policy makers to control or manipulate policy processes.

Although some data for the present study were derived through document analysis, the primary method used was the group interview. Mayer and Greenwood (1980:221) considered interviews to be a form of "respondent observation" which they defined as any procedure by which the analyst elicits the observations of persons who have direct knowledge of the phenomenon under study." The same authors pointed out that interviews are typically conducted on an individual basis in order to "eliminate any bias which one person's reply might have on another's". However, group interviewing may be appropriate when the data to be collected depend on group interaction (1980:222). As was explained in the methodology overview presented in Chapter I, the

researcher chose to use the group interview approach in order to bring to bear the normative influences which prevail within the respective organisations. This was done in order-to elicit opinions which were more representative of the aggregated views of the organization's membership than reflective of the individual respondents' opinions.

Group interviews, Mayer and Greenwood stated (1980:222), "require more skill than individual interviewing. The analyst must not only ask the questions properly but also facilitate group interaction in order to generate a full range of replies". In the context of the present study, the researcher's fifteen years of experience as an educational administrator, during which time he conducted many interviews, the experience gained through recording interviews in order to gather some of the background information reported in the previous chapter, and the fact that he was personally acquainted with some of the respondents, all contributed to the establishment of a conducive climate and appropriate interactions.

The Validity and Reliability of Policy Analysis Studies

Mayer and Greenwood (1980:229) defined validity as "the degree to which the data collected by the technique or instrument correspond to the indicators sought by the analyst." The same authors defined reliability as "the degree to which repeated application of the same procedures under the same conditions will yield the same data." Although many might assume that the analyst will logically select data collection procedures which are high in both validity and reliability, it should be recognized that procedures high in validity might be low in reliability and vice versa. Mayer and Greenwood pointed out (1980:230)

that interview techniques rate relatively high on scales of validity,
but somewhat lower on scales of reliability. The former quality is due
to the ability of the researcher to gauge the effects of questions and
to probe more deeply or modify the tone of the interview according to
the research needs. Regarding reliability, as the interview process
involves the interaction of unique individuals, each with changing moods
and attitudes, it is not surprising that the likelihood of the same
interactions taking place among a group of people on different occasions
is not strong. Certainly, if a different researcher were to try to
stage the interview, the chances of replication would be very slight.

Bogdan and Biklen regarded the term reliability to be more
appropriate to discussions of quantitative studies than to qualitative.
They pointed out that qualitative researchers "tend to view reliability
as a fit between what they record as data and what actually occurs in
the setting under study, rather than the literal consistency across
different observations" (1982:44). In the present study, appropriate
interviewees participated in the process and offered opinions freely and
candidly. The interviews were successfully tape-recorded and concepts
germane to the study were accurately transcribed. To this extent, in
the sense expressed by Mayer and Greenwood, the research process was
valid, and, in the sense defined by Bogdan and Biklen, reliable.

Having discussed the nature and characteristics of policy
science and considered aspects of the methodology used in this study,
the remainder of this chapter is devoted to a review of the stages of
research which led to the development of preliminary policy alter-
natives.

The First Round of Interviews

Following the transcription and coding of the data from the first round of interviews, the researcher developed conceptual categories into which the cards were sorted. In some cases, the categories corresponded to the questions which served as the interview guide (refer to Appendix 1), while in others the nature of responses required a modification of the thoughts which prompted the questions. It should be noted that the researcher's intention in framing the questions for the interview guide was to cause the respondents to focus on the three issues which were central to the study, without being overly directive and so restrict the range of possible responses. The wording of the questions was tested by asking three of the researcher's peers, each of whom had considerable experience as educational administrators, to comment on the clarity and appropriateness of the questions. Copies of the interview guide were also provided to members of the researcher's supervisory committee. No changes were recommended.

The pages which follow present the interview concepts within the following categories and sub-categories.

1. Skills needed by administrators;

    a. skills needed by principals;

    b. skills needed by all administrators;

    c. thoughts about skills.

2. Areas of conceptual development helpful to administrators;

    a. concepts important for superintendents;

    b. concepts important for principals;

    c. concepts important for all administrators;

d. concepts about concepts.

3. Roles of institutions and organisations in providing education and training for educational administrators:

a. role of the Alberta Teachers' Association;

b. role of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents;

c. role of the Alberta School Trustees' Association (including the Centre for Educational Leadership in Alberta, and the Alberta Academy for Educational Leadership);

d. role of school jurisdictions;

e. role of Alberta Education;

f. the appropriate degree of government control;

g. role of universities;

h. content of Educational Administration programmes;

i. structure of Educational Administration programmes;

j. staffing of Educational Administration programmes;

k. relationship of pre-service and in-service preparation;

l. nature of administration and educational administration; and,

m. administrative internships.

4. Recognizing administrative role distinctions in preparation and training programmes;

a. expressions of support for differentiation;

b. expressions of opposition to differentiation.

5. The desirability of pre-administrative teaching experience;

a. the desirability statements;

b. criteria for judging the adequacy of teaching experience.

6. Regarding preparatory administrative experience;

    a. the desirability of preparatory administrative experience;

    b. criteria for judging the adequacy of preparatory administrative experience.

7. Recognizing qualifications;

    a. in support of certification;

    b. in opposition to special certification.

Many concepts expressed within each interview reflected noticeable amounts of repetition and shades of meaning. As it would not be practical or useful to list every one of the over 500 concepts in its respective category, the writer chose to cite those concepts which reflected the range of the respondents' opinions and which reflected partial or broad consensus where appropriate. The concepts are reported with their respective code numbers so as to allow possible tracing back to the interview source. The reader is cautioned that reference to an organization in a concept should not be taken as a clue to the source of the concept as quite often direct references were made to organisations by members of other groups.

1. <u>Skills needed by administrators</u>. Comments on skills were categorized under three headings, those needed by principals, those needed by all administrators, and thoughts about skills.

    a. Skills needed by principals. Only two concepts were addressed by respondents directly to the role of the principal:

        i. Principals should know how to observe in classrooms and conduct evaluations of teachers (1-7-2).

        ii. Principals require organisational skills for the effective management of instruction and material resources (1-3-32).

b. Skills required by all administrators. Twenty-six comments were
made by interviewees related to the skills generally important
to administrators in various educational roles:

   i. Basic information gathering, processing and communication
(reading, writing, speaking) skills made up one set of
comments (1-2-21, 1-4-11, 1-2-22, 1-6-28, 1-3-28).

  ii. The ability to motivate subordinates through the use of
human relations skills to pursue organisational goals were
cited in five responses (1-1-4, 1-4-8, 1-7-5, 1-4-9, 1-2-
48).

 iii. Skills in the analysis of teaching and clinical supervision
were seen to be important (1-1-5, 1-7-1, 1-4-31).

  iv. Administrators must have evaluation skills, especially for
teacher and programme evaluations (1-4-12, 1-1-93, 1-4-13).

   v. Ten skills were mentioned only once. The administrators
should be able to: facilitate the efforts of teachers (1-4-
10); manipulate people (1-4-14); manage complex political
situations (1-2-17); develop and control a budget (1-2-25);
solve problems (1-4-30); communicate a sense of mission for
the organization (1-4-7); facilitate the interaction of
diverse, competing groups (1-4-4); and communicate personal
trustworthiness and constancy (1-4-15). Last, it was noted
that in hiring administrators, school boards tend to value
management and organizational skills over curriculum and
pedagogical skills (1-2-18).

c. Nine comments were made by respondents about skills in general:

   i. Universities are not, by and large, good places in which to
practice technical-level skill development as the skills
needed by administrators are too numerous and the nature of
their practice is context-specific. University courses
stimulate discussion and thought about skills but do very
little to develop them (1-5-11, 1-5-14, 1-5-10).

  ii. Technical-level skills are essential to success and profes-
sional growth but such skills must be developed
on the job (1-5-13, 1-3-30).

 iii. Technical - level skills are best developed through practice
and hence should not be viewed as entry-level skills (1-5-
12).

iv. Three skill areas essential for successful administrators are technical skills, human relations skills, and the ability to manage (1-1-8).

v. It should be noted that although some skills may be regarded as low-level technical skills, they are still rooted in broader understanding and conceptional development (1-3-29, 1-5-7).

2. <u>Areas of conceptual development helpful to administrators.</u> Comments on concepts and areas of conceptual development important to administrators were categorised in four sets; concepts important for superintendents, for principals, for administrators in general, and last, concepts about concepts themselves.

a. Concepts and conceptual development needed by superintendents represented three areas:

i. Superintendents must understand long and short term financial planning and management (1-4-29, 1-1-14, 1-7-33, 1-2-27).

ii. Superintendents must understand the process of policy development (1-4-29).

iii. Superintendents need to understand the operation of schools as units (1-5-35).

b. Four areas of conceptual development were cited as being especially important for principals:

i. The principal must understand the role of the instructional leader in the school (1-2-64, 1-2-1).

ii. The principal must synthesize background knowledge and communicate a vision of the school vis a vis the community, (1-3-27).

iii. Principals should be able to analyse and respond to the effects of pressure groups (1-3-31).

iv. Principals must understand when to act as agents of change and when to stabilize the status quo (1-3-18).

c. A plethora of concepts was identified by respondents as being

basic to the success of educational administrators regardless of

their roles:

i. The most commonly mentioned concepts related to aspects of
organisations with reference made to: professionalism,
collegiality, the nature of administration, the human rela-
tions aspect of organisations, the nature of authority, in-
stitutions as social instruments, bureaucracy, the roles of
the administrator, and the obsolescence of authoritarian
models (1-3-25, 1-5-3, 1-2-2, 1-3-15, 1-2-8, 1-3-24, 1-3-16,
1-5-4, 1-3-17).

ii. Administrators must have a thorough understanding of the
role of the educational leader (1-1-42, 1-2-36, 1-6-4, 1-4-
1, 1-4-17, 1-2-5, 1-1-6).

iii. In professional, collegial organisations, administrators
must understand the appropriateness of delegating decision
making in appropriate fashions (1-3-12, 1-2-12, 1-3-13, 1-1-
7, 1-3-55, 1-7-11, 1-4-5, 1-2-6).

iv. Administrators should have well developed educational
philosophies which will enable them to stand on principle
and be confident leaders (1-4-16, 1-2-28, 1-4-2C, 1-2-15).

v. Administrators should develop a sense of organisational
mission that places a priority on educational goals over
management goals (1-3-8, 1-3-14, 1-4-6).

vi. Administrators should understand the nature of learning
theory and have some knowledge of curriculum development (1-
5-5, 1-1-11, 1-3-26).

vii. Administrators must understand the principles of teacher
supervision and evaluation (1-7-4, 1-1-12, 1-7-35).

viii. Administrators must understand the socio-political relation-
ship of the school, school system, community, and broader
society (1-3-20, 1-3-21, 1-2-20).

ix. Understanding of planning processes is important for admini-
strators (1-1-1, 1-1-9, 1-6-6).

x. One or two references were made to the following aspects of
conceptual development: educational finance, understanding
the value of personal integrity and moral behaviour, change
theory, the impact of technology, integrating technology and
human resources, knowing the value of staff development, the
ability to control personal time use, being able to cope

with ambiguity, being environmentally aware, understanding group interaction, understanding decision making, understanding policy development, understanding problem solving strategies, and the conceptual development needed to process vast amounts of information (1-1-13, 1-2-16, 1-4-2, 1-1-20, 1-6-27, 1-2-19, 1-2-24, 1-6-5, 1-3-19, 1-1-15, 1-3-11, 1-2-26, 1-1-3, 1-1-2).

d. Comments on concepts. In six of the seven group interviews, respondents expressed opinions regarding the distinction between concepts and skills. An overview of their remarks follows:

i. Educational administrators should develop "competencies" which comprise knowledge, understanding and skills of application. Competence may be a more appropriate term than conceptual development and skill development (1-5-15).

ii. Conceptual development provides reason and direction to skill development and so cannot be separated cleanly from skill development (1-6-1, 1-3-23, 1-2-14, 1-5-6, 1-2-46).

iii. Conceptual skill development takes place within the context of courses which deal with specific subject matter. Concepts in Educational Administration are drawn from various social and behavioral sciences, and from the humanities, and are then applied to the development of particular skills (1-5-8, 1-6-2).

iv. Graduate courses should be pursued at various universities so as to provide exposure to professors with differing ideas (1-1-38).

v. Leadership authority of educational administrators should be derived from professional competence rather than the title of the office. Such leadership requires a conceptual base as well as technical skills (1-3-10, 1-7-6).

vi. Conceptual understanding is essential, but we must also attend to the development of technical skills (1-7-8).

3. <u>Roles of institutions and organisations in providing education and training for educational administrators.</u>

a. Role of the Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.). Respondents made the following comments:

i.   The A.T.A.'s role is more related to the interests of its members, i.e. teachers, and so will not likely play a major role in the pre-service education of administrators (1-5-23).

ii. It is unlikely that a person interested in administration would join a professional organisation which might offer training until he or she is a practising administrator, therefore limiting the role of such organisations (1-5-22).

iii. The A.T.A. should not be much involved with coordinating administrators' practica as the basic relationship would be between universities and jurisdictions. It could, however, play an advisory role on any structure dealing with policy and practice (1-1-32, 1-1-35).

iv. From 1963 to 1965 the Council on School Administration offered pre-service courses to aspiring principals. The courses failed due to lack of financial support (1-3-34).

v.   The Council on School Administration has organised short courses to familiarize principals with the administration of specific programmes (1-3-35).

vi. The A.T.A. has organised a one week course in the summer of 1985 for principals (1-3-36).

b.   Role of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.). Interviewees made the following remarks about this organisation's education and training role:

i.   C.A.S.S. does not have the resources to commit to a formal preservice preparation programme (1-4-26).

ii. Practising administrators lack the time, interest, and motivation to conduct formal preparation programmes at a conceptual level. They are more concerned with "how to do it" (1-6-18).

iii. Programmes such as the National Academy for School Executives (N.A.S.E.) offer short courses which perhaps could be sponsored by C.A.S.S. (1-6-19).

iv. C.A.S.S. should play an advisory role in any move to change regulations affecting its members and could also advise on administrative practica (1-4-49, 1-1-34).

c.   The role of the Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.), the Center for Educational Leadership in Alberta (C.E.L.A.), and

the Alberta Academy for Educational Leadership (A.A.E.L.). In

1984 and 1985, the A.S.T.A. showed initiative in endeavouring to

organise C.E.L.A. and the A.A.E.L. to improve the quality of

educational administration in Alberta. Comments of respondents

regarding the education and training roles of these organi-

sations were as follows:

i. Some specific, context-dependent skills can be taught
outside the university in short courses by various organi-
sations including C.E.L.A. and A.A.E.L. (1-6-16, 1-6-9).

ii. C.E.L.A. can play a useful role in skill development for
administrators especially if it is governed and managed by
practitioners (1-2-32, 1-4-27).

iii. The A.A.E.L. could be expanded to serve all levels of
administrators (1-1-30, 1-1-31).

iv. The A.A.E.L. should complement the programmes at the univer-
sities (1-2-45).

v. The A.A.E.L. has the potential to address the preparation of
educational leaders with both conceptual and skill develop-
ment (1-2-44).

vi. The role of the A.S.T.A. (and Alberta Education) is to
provide guidance and support but not to be directly involved
in the provision of training (1-7-19).

d. The role of school jurisdictions. Respondents made the

following observations regarding the role of school juris-

dictions in the training of educational administrators.

i. Administrative internships would require close cooperation
between school jurisdictions and universities (1-7-13, 1-7-
20).

ii. Individual large jurisdictions could train and identify a
pool of qualified aspiring administrators (1-4-28).

iii. The operation of school systems would be improved if they
sought to prepare every teacher for a role in admini-
stration, either through experience or other orientation (1-
5-19).

    iv. Schools and school systems have an important function to perform in the recruitment, selection, and orientation of people to administration (1-5-24).

    v. Skill development should take place on the job and in in-service professional development activities (1-2-3).

    vi. Boards are learning that skills can be taught and learned quickly and cheaply, but conceptual development takes a long period of time (1-2-23).

    vii. It would probably be undesirable for large school juris-dictions to formalize in-house training opportunities with attendant certificates, etc., for aspiring administrators, as there is a risk of a lack of attendant conceptual growth to accompany technical-level skill development (1-5-25).

e. The role of Alberta Education. Interviewees made the four

following comments regarding the role of Alberta Education in

the preparation of administrators:

    i. Alberta Education should be responsible for specific, "how-to" training for administrators (eg. requirements for the Management and Finance Plan) (1-4-21).

    ii. Alberta Education provides field experience for four graduate students as interns each year (1-1-28).

    iii. Alberta Education can influence preparation programmes indirectly by deciding which courses are acceptable for salary credit (1-7-22).

    iv. Alberta Education (and the A.S.T.A.) should not endeavour to define preparation programme content and standards too closely, but can play a consultative role (1-7-21).

    v. It would be appropriate for Alberta Education to provide funds to jurisdictions to pay for administrator preparation (1-7-70).

f. The degree of provincial government control. An issue closely

related to the role of Alberta Education is the relative degree

of control that department should exercise in setting criteria

of appointment and standards for preparation. The question

elicited 37 responses of which representative comments appear

below which range from high to relatively low degrees of control:

i. If the province were to reintroduce provincially appointed superintendents, minimum appointment criteria could be set (1-7-71).

ii. The Minister of Education is responsible for public education and is therefore entitled to set standards for all levels of workers in education. It makes no sense to emphasise the importance of teachers and the importance of principals and superintendents and then not say anything about their licencing or certification (1-6-16, 1-6-51, 1-3-57).

iii. It may be appropriate to have some guidelines and possibly interviews with superintendent nominees before boards can finalize appointments (1-1-89, 1-1-90, 1-2-63).

iv. As the work of principals and superintendents is important, it is appropriate for the Minister to consult with the universities regarding administrator preparation programmes to an extent similar to that employed regarding the teacher training programmes (1-6-58).

v. The province, in setting programme guidelines for preparation programmes should respect the autonomy of the universities to develop courses (1-7-67).

vi. The espoused philosophy underlying the Management and Finance Plan is for Alberta Education to provide leadership and to monitor the management decisions of jurisdictions. The same system should apply to appointment criteria for administrators (1-4-66).

vii. Leadership is a role that can be shared between government and other interested groups (1-4-63).

viii. Leadership, through published guidelines, would not restrict, but would inform and help boards in selecting principals and superintendents (1-6-56).

ix. Alberta Education is showing leadership through providing financial support for A.A.E.L. The Department also communicates informally with the Educational Administration faculty members at the University of Alberta (1-1-87).

x. Alberta Education should not exercise control but should provide facilitating support and assistance with methodology to boards for administrator recruitment, selection and evaluation (1-5-65).

xi.   The policy recommendation arising from this study should
      avoid leading to increased bureaucratisation -- not only
      regarding the criteria for the apointment of administrators,
      but also because such a recommendation would adversely
      affect the ways in which the operation of schools and school
      systems are viewed (1-5-71).

xii. The province should not be involved in setting special
      training and experience criteria (1-3-58).

xiii. Boards follow appropriate selection practices regardless of
      regulations (1-2-59).

g.   The role of universities. There was no doubt in the minds of

     respondents that the universities had an important role to play

     in preparing administrators, however there was considerable

     range of opinion regarding what the role should be and how well

     it was being discharged. Representative comments follow:

     i.   Universities, through graduate-level programmes, are
           basically responsible for the preparation of administrators.
           Graduate training is desirable for administrators (1-7-16).

     ii.   Administrators should be prepared in the same institutions
           as their teacher colleagues (1-3-38).

     iii. The vast majority of pre-service learning opportunities for
           educational administrators will be provided by the
           university (1-5-21, 1-7-16, 1-2-4, 1-3-37, 1-5-26, 1-7-14,
           1-1-16, 1-1-36).

     iv.   A collaborative effort by several agencies--stakeholders--is
           appropriate in developing administrator preparation
           programmes (1-7-15).

     v.   By and large this university department feels that it is in
           cooperative relationships and is involved with significant
           other groups (1-5-28, 1-5-33, 1-5-29, 1-5-31).

     vi.   Communication and interaction of the university department
           with other reference groups is realised through the contact
           of faculty members in one-on-one relationships with
           practitioners or through involvement in projects in the
           field (1-5-27).

.vii. There is no formal advisory committee to suggest the characteristics (hopefully) to be developed in aspiring administrators, and no thought is being given to the establishment of such a committee (1-5-30).

viii. The emphases of preparing for a profession and preparing for an academic degree differ (1-7-65).

ix. Programme admission standards might be upgraded, but this would be done in order to improve the quality of students in the educational administration programme, not to improve the practice of educational administration (1-5-61, 1-5-59, 1-5-60, 1-5-62).

x. None of the current programmes is doing the job of pre-service preparation (1-2-30).

xi. The University of Alberta Department of Educational Administration has been too concerned about its international reputation while Albertan administrators go elsewhere (1-2-41).

xii. There is a problem with Albertan administrators going to American universities where requirements—particularly the residence requirements for the M.Ed.—are less stringent (1-1-37, 1-1-39).

xiii. At present at the University of Alberta, there is too much attention paid to fulfilling programme requirements and not enough to developing individuals as administrators (1-1-54, 1-1-55).

xiv. The training of researchers is overemphasized at the University of Alberta (1-2-31).

xv. School boards are among the primary clients of university Educational Administration departments, but this fact is being overlooked (1-2-40, 1-2-37).

xvi. Competencies include both understanding and skills. The understanding components are best appreciated in the context of the university where individuals have analysed and reflected upon issues (1-6-8).

xvii. Hands-on, practical application of academic concepts is essential in order to ensure the assimilation of content (1-7-10).

xviii. University faculty members must endeavour to translate theory into practice. Why else do it (1-7-69)?

xix. The universities enjoy credibility as agencies which can recommend individuals for certification (1-7-63).

h. The content of Educational Administration programmes. In order to perform the several roles implied in the preceding section, respondents suggested the following, which represents what was seen as appropriate content for Educational Administration programmes:

i. The synthesis of theory and practice should be realised <u>within</u> the context of the university (1-2-34).

ii. Existing preparation programmes should be reshaped so as to address both theory and practical aspects. This need not imply extending programmes to include more courses (1-7-38, 1-7-40, 1-2-33, 1-6-23, 1-5-9, 1-7-39, 1-7-7).

iii. It is appropriate for administrators to begin their study with main ideas and concepts rather than from a narrow "how to do it" focus. Without the larger concepts, there can be no bases for the analysis and improvement of practice (1-6-15).

iv. A common core of competencies, concepts and skills can perhaps be identified for administrator preparation programmes carried out in the universities (1-7-68).

v. A pre-service preparation programme should be conceptually broad-based as the situational nature of work assignments is so diverse. Follow-up inservice courses can be more specific (1-6-20).

vi. The study of Educational Administration may be too inbred. More contact with other faculties is desirable, however, students feel uncomfortable as outsiders and non-specialists in other departments (1-6-10, 1-6-13).

vii. Administrators should take courses which help them develop a personal leadership, deal with the change process, conflict and conflict resolution, and decision making (1-4-36, 1-4-18, 1-7-12).

viii. Administrators should supplement their preparation with courses in curriculum development (1-4-37).

ix. The ethos, philosophy and "vision" of education should be developed within the university programme (1-2-35, 1-4-19).

i. The structure of Educational Administration programmes.

Respondents made a total of 20 comments regarding the structure

of Educational Administration programmes appropriate to the

preparation needs of administrators. The following remarks are

representative:

i. Cross-campus experience should be an expected part of graduate work. Educational Administration programmes should require students to take senior courses from other faculties (business, humanities, social sciences) (1-1-24, 1-6-11, 1-1-19, 1-1-18, 1-1-21).

ii. Cross-campus programmes would require a commitment from cooperating departments and the support of senior administrators (deans) (1-6-12).

iii. The disadvantage of the size of the University of Alberta is that it isolates departments by specialty. There is not enough opportunity for graduate students to mix (1-3-39).

iv. University programmes should comprise a core of courses with the option to students to pursue an area of interest in depth, plus a practicum (1-1-53, 1-1-27, 1-1-33, 1-1-51, 1-1-52),

v. The A.T.A. has endorsed the notion of specialists holding at least a professional diploma in their areas of specialty. Educational Administration is such a specialty (1-4-39, 1-3-46).

vi. The organisation of content in half-course units may be fragmenting it and limiting conceptual development (1-3-45).

j. The staffing of Departments of Educational Administration.

Respondents made the following comments about the attributes of

faculty members:

i. Educational Administration faculty members should be deliberately chosen so as to provide a balance between personnel with a conceptual-theoretical base and those who have been top-notch administrators in the field (1-1-25, 1-2-39, 1-3-49, 1-1-40).

ii. There is currently an inappropriate mix of "theoretical types" and those who have practical experience as administrators among faculty members (1-1-22).

iii. Faculty of Education personnel should have field experience in their backgrounds (1-7-41).

iv. The value of some university courses lies not so much in the topic of the course as in the personal attributes, knowledge, and perspective of the professor (1-1-61).

k. Miscellaneous comments. Respondents made some comments which although important, did not fit within the other categories:

i. It is important to consider the concept of life-long learning for administrators as it implies the interaction of pre-service and in-service education (1-5-69, 1-6-17, 1-7-9, 1-1-47).

ii. Post-secondary development should be intertwined with practical experience (1-1-17).

iii. A meeting between the university department personnel and representatives of other reference groups revealed that many questions and perspectives are held in common (1-5-32).

l. The administrative internship. Fourteen comments were made by respondents suggesting the desirability and appropriate form of administrative internships:

i. The administrative internship should be directed by the universities which enjoy good relationships with both the jurisdictions and professional groups (1-7-26, 1-7-28, 1-7-27).

ii. Interns would be assigned to competent administrators with the cooperation of school jurisdictions. Interns would, under the tutelage of the administrators, perform such tasks as timetabling, budgeting, and instructional supervision (as opposed to evaluation) (1-7-24, 1-7-25, 1-4-24, 1-4-25).

iii. Alberta Education could be a cooperating agency in providing internship positions (1-7-18).

iv. The intern should develop a written proposal regarding what learning activities will be undertaken, how they will be carried out, and what outcomes are hoped for (1-7-29).

v. The University of Lethbridge M.Ed. programme provides for the incorporation of an intership (1-7-17).

vi. Alberta Education and local jurisdictions should jointly fund the costs of internships (1-4-22, 1-4-23).

4. <u>Recognising administrative role distinctions in preparation and</u>

   <u>training programmes.</u> Interviewees were split in their opinions

   regarding the appropriateness of differentiating preparation

   programmes on the basis of administrative roles. The following sub-

   sections detail their thoughts.

   a. Expressions of support for differentiation. The following

      comments are representative of those in favour of some degree of

      differentiating preparation programmes:

      i. A distinction in level of preparation (and credentials)
         should be made between school-level and system-level admini-
         strators (1-6-54, 1-7-34).

      ii. Although there is a certain baseline of conceptual knowledge
          required by all administrators, a different mix is
          appropriate to each role (1-1-46).

      iii. The superintendent should have all of the competencies of
           the principal plus additional competencies (1-7-36).

   b. Expressions of opposition to differentiation. The following

      comments reflect those opinions opposed to preparation programme

      differentiation:

      i. It is not appropriate to distinguish between the elements of
         knowledge and skills needed by those aspiring to different
         administrative role levels. Programmes should present
         conceptual structures and theoretical understandings that
         can be applied by students in any administrative setting (1-
         5-34, 1-3-43, 1-7-31, 1-1-49, 1-6-31, 1-5-56, 1-2-47, 1-1-
         44).

      ii. As careers develop through successive roles, a specific role
          focus is not appropriate (1-3-42, 1-7-32, 1-1-41, 1-5-17).

      iii. Principals' roles have shifted from bureaucratic management
           to leadership, thereby necessitating mastery of skills
           previously seen as important for higher level roles (1-4-
           32).

      iv. The goals of an organisation are common to administrators at
          all levels of the organisation (1-2-50).

v. Skills identified by Project A.S.K. for principals also apply to other administrative roles (1-2-49).

vi. Students can differentiate the content of their programmes by selecting courses suited to their interests (1-5-37).

5. The desirability of pre - administrative teaching experience. All respondents viewed preliminary teaching experience as being either necessary or highly desirable for administrators. Representative comments follow.

a. The desirability statements. Some characteristics statements are:

i. The role of instructional leader for administrators makes successful teaching experience a must (1-4-10).

ii. Educational Administration is not derived from teaching but is a profession that should be entered through teaching (1-4-53).

iii. For the next several years, the main thrusts in educational administration will be the appraisal of teacher performance, accountability and evaluation. Therefore administrators will have to know teaching (1-6-38).

iv. While serving as teachers, individuals learn some administrative skills and are able to observe the incumbents' administrative behaviours which serve as role models (1-5-16).

v. An aspiring administrator should have had broad teaching experience, preferably at more than one level (elementary, junior, and senior high school) (1-7-43).

vi. It is desirable to necessary for administrators to have had teaching experience so as to establish credibility as supervisors (1-6-36).

vii. Administrative preparation is best pursued after teaching experience has been gained (1-3-48).

viii. Experience as teachers or nurses, etc., provides exposure to administrative contexts and role models which serve to stimulate and motivate students (1-6-26).

b. Criteria for judging the adequacy of teaching experience.

Typical statements made by interviewees are:

i. Adequate teaching experience should be defined situationally—by administrators and teacher colleagues—and might include good classroom performance, professional interest in a subject area, teaching processes, and their continuous up-grading, and a spirit of cooperativeness in working with school staff (1-3-3, 1-4-41, 1-4-43, 1-4-44, 1-7-44, 1-7-45).

ii. "Adequate" teaching experience is not a function of time but of excellence (1-3-2, 1-3-7, 1-1-60, 1-1-59).

iii. No specific time period is appropriate for necessary teaching experience, but three to five years would be a reasonable norm (1-6-40).

iv. The elements noted in "The Process of Teaching" as per the A.T.A. Policy Handbook (1984:151) indicate competencies that would reflect adequate pre-administrative teaching experience (1-3-5).

v. Principals of small schools need different kinds of teaching experience than principals of large schools (1-4-42).

vi. Teachers, by virtue of the nature of their classroom work, are a special form of administrator (1-5-20).

vii. The success of teaching experience should be established by positive evaluation reports (1-6-39, 1-5-42).

viii. The judgement of colleagues of the leadership potential of a teacher would be a good indicator of the adequacy of teaching experience (1-3-4).

6. Regarding preparatory administrative experience. Respondents all agreed that preparatory administrative experience was desirable for those seeking more senior administrative roles.

a. The desirability of preparatory, administrative experience.

Responses cited below are representative of respondents' views:

i. Administrative experience in junior roles is desirable as it helps one to refine his or her skills and understanding. One grows into a job (1-4-46, 1-6-42, 1-1-64, 1-2-52).

ii. Administrative experience in junior roles is important-as it provides the background which allows senior administrators to empathise with those they supervise (1-4-45).

iii. It is desirable for students of Educational Administration to have at least some administrative experience in order to increase their understanding of some concepts (1-6-24).

iv. Administrative experience in junior roles is useful to help socialize individuals into the norms of administration, to help them develop a "vision" of educational organisations, and to develop a personal philosophy of administration (1-4-48, 1-6-43).

v. Generally it is desirable to advance from the classroom, to school, to system-level administration,but such a progression should not be mandated (1-3-51, 1-7-46, 1-3-52, 1-3-50, 1-5-47).

vi. The work typically done by vice-principals may not be good preparation for administrators (1-1-43, 1-1-62).

vii. An internship or district-level training programmes placing aspiring administrators in administrative assistant roles should be an acceptable substitute for actual administrative experience (1-7-47).

viii. Administrators tend to be hired by boards on the basis of job descriptions whose criteria can be met only on the basis of an administrative service record (1-6-44).

b. Criteria for judging the adequacy of preparatory administrative experience. The statements made by respondents are:

i. The more criteria used to assess the adequacy of preliminary administrative work, the better (1-7-52).

ii. The length of experience is not a good predictor of competence for administrators (1-2-57).

iii. Experience in different locations and roles is desirable (1-2-54).

vi. Boards value broad experience in both staff and line positions for central office applicants (1-2-53).

v. The extent to which an administrator can formulate and realize reasonable goals is a good measure of adequate preliminary experience (1-7-54).

vi. Successful administrative experience in junior roles is most valuable but failure analysed and understood is also valid and useful experience (1-4-47).

vii. Assessment centre reports may be useful but are not as reliable as evaluations of administrative work performed over an extended period (1-7-15). •

viii. References can be selected by the hiring agency to preclude the casual submission of biased recommendations (1-7-50).

ix. The evaluation of administrators is becoming more common and such reports can be used to assess the adequacy of experience (1-7-53).

x. Testimonials from superordinates, teachers, parents, etc. regarding the competence of administrators would indicate the adequacy of experience (1-7-48).

xi. An evaluation report from an internship would indicate adequate admininstrative experience (1-7-49).

7. **Recognizing qualifications.** This subsection concludes the presentation of data from the first round of interviews. It comprises two parts, the first of which presents comments generally supportive of some form of special certification, and the second representative of expressed opinion opposed to the certification of educational administrators.

a. In support of certification. The following statements are representativve of those comments which were in favour of certification:

i'. A licence is a guaranty to the public of an adequate level of performance and leadership potential (1-6-60, 1-6-50).

ii. There should be an administrators' credential based on experience (academic and otherwise) which would reflect competence (1-1-45, 1-6-7, 1-4-52).

iii. A certificate, based on the successful completion of course work at an advanced level at a university, perhaps including field courses of a practical nature supervised by the

universities in collaboration with jurisdictions, would be appropriate for those planning to become administrators (1-7-23).

iv. Legitimate certificates have to be issued by legitimate agencies. In Alberta, the most legitimate agency is Alberta Education (1-1-80, 1-7-64, 1-7-62).

v. A building-level credential based on training and experience would be appropriate for assistant principals and principals. A more advanced credential would be appropriate for system-level personnel (1-7-61, 1-4-57).

vi. An administrators' credential should not distinguish between roles (1-2-60, 1-1-42).

vii. School boards' selection criteria for superintendents have been too uneven; some have demanded training, others have not. The University of Calgary Faculty of Education response to the School Act Review will recommend regulation approaching certification for principals and superintendents (1-6-45, 1-6-48).

viii. Administrative certificates should be issued for a limited period of time, renewable only after demonstrated success (1-6-49).

ix. Province-wide regulations regarding principals' qualifications may be difficult to apply and require exemptions, given the many small rural schools in Alberta for which there may not be qualified applicants (1-7-60, 1-1-85).

b. In opposition to special certification. The comments which follow represent those statements which reject a special certification programme for administrators.

i. Certification is no assurance of competence. It would only provide a "make-work" project that would not accomplish worthwhile results (1-5-55, 1-5-54).

ii. No educational speciality should require a special certificate (1-3-53).

iii. It is important to maintain the decision making prerogatives of the local jurisdictions regarding the selection of personnel. Certification of administrators would restrict those prerogatives (1-5-53, 1-1-67).

iv. Administrative problems are neither caused nor solved by licensing, source of appointment, statutes or master contracts (1-2-55).

v. A cycle of appropriate evaluation following suitable recruitment and selection procedures holds more promise to affect the quality of administrative performance than certification schemes (1-5-57, 1-2-56).

vi. Increasingly there is a trend for employers to hire administrators who have voluntarily upgraded their formal qualifications. Where the M.Ed. was once seen as appropriate training for the superintendency, it is now viewed as more suited to the principalship (1-7-56, 1-5-38).

vii. Regulations, as a control device, tend to prompt attempts at avoidance (1-5-50).

viii. Credentials can never completely indicate an individual's suitability for a job. Situational variables and personal suitability are vital considerations (1-4-50).

ix. Variety (breadth) of experience and success in progressively more responsible positions are predictors of subsequent success. Required levels of training or periods of experience are not (1-2-61).

x. Criteria of appointment should be based on the best available applicants for particular jobs (1-3-59, 1-5-39).

xi. A mandatory credential might not be feasible given the lack of applicants for isolated, rural or northern positions (1-1-84, 1-1-92).

xii. Regulations requiring specific credentials must not be enforced until an adequate pool of aspiring administrators exists, so as not to force boards to hire unsuitable individuals just because they possess credentials (1-4-61).

xiii. Credentials can attest to training and experience but the right person for the job is one who can meet situational needs and whose attributes complement those of other administrators or staff (1-4-60).

xiv. Administrators should be appointed for fixed terms and be subject to evaluation and possible reappointment (1-6-53).

xv. Many significant leaders in the history of education in Alberta followed non-standard career routes, leapfrogging some roles. A too structured approach to career development would inhibit such individuals and deprive us of their potential contributions (1-5-72, 1-5-46).

xvi. The Minister should enuniciate standards through guidelines, recommending criteria of appointment and ways of determining the extent to which applicants meet those criteria (1-6-55).

The Determination of Goals

The definition of a goal adopted by Alberta Education (Program Policy Manual, 1984:75) is "a statement which describes a desired end in general terms over an unspecified period of time." Mayer and Greenwood concurred with this definition, noting that goals are general in nature so as to provide a context or set of criteria by which to judge the appropriateness of objectives (1980:8). The same authors stated that "in short range or problem-solving planning, this phase may be omitted, since objectives are derived directly from some assessment of an existing condition" (1980:9). As the present study dealt with issues which involved education, training and experience factors, it demanded consideration from a long-term point of view. As the "existing condition" had not been thoroughly studied in a descriptive sense, no complete assessment was available. Consequently, the determination of goals was a necessary element in the policy development process.

Although consensus building was not an objective of this study, it was appropriate to refer to the goal determination stage in order to find areas of agreement among the seven stakeholder groups. This is because concurrence from groups with differing interests is more easily secured at the general level than it is in dealing with specific details. It is from the goals cited below that specific objectives and alternative courses of action were derived.

The parameters for the determination of goals for this study were set by the three issue areas defined in the independent variable of

the conceptual framework and are derived from the responses gathered during the first round of interviews. The sub-sections which follow define three goal statements, each of which is supported by references to the interview data. In order to avoid the need to restate pertinent interview comments, supporting statements are referred to using the arabic numeral, letter, and roman numeral used in the preceding section.

Goal 1: the opportunity for formal preparation.

Educational administrators will have the opportunity to develop, through formal preparation programmes, competencies germane to their profession.

In the preceding section, several statements were noted which referred to the form, content, and nature of appropriate preservice and inservice education and training activities. Formal preservice education was seen by most respondents to be mainly the responsibility of the universities (3, g, i; 3, g, iii), however, there was a body opinion which suggested training roles on the part of the school jurisdictions in providing systematic inservice training for teachers aspiring to become administrators (3, d, ii; 3, d, v). Internships for administrators in training would, it was noted, require a collaborative effort on the part of universities, jurisdictions, the profession, and Alberta Education (3, d, i; 3, 1, i; 3, 1, ii; 3, 1, iii). The desirability of planning career development so as to allow for "life-long" learning combining post-secondary study and practical work experience was generally endorsed (3, k, i; 3, k, ii).

Goal 2: the opportunity for appropriate experience.

Individuals aspiring to particular educational administration roles will have the opportunity to acquire appropriate preliminary experience.

It was agreed by respondents that all educational administrators should have had teaching experience (5, a, i; 5, a, ii). It was further noted that such experience should expose the teachers to appropriate administrative role models (5, a, iv; 5, a, viii) and provide for a range of experience at various school levels (5, a, v). Respondents also indicated that preparatory administrative experience in junior roles was appropriate to help administrators develop suitable skills and attitudes (6, a, i; 6, a, ii; 6, a, iv), however, such provision was seen as desirable as opposed to necessary, and it was suggested that a strict "career ladder" approach be avoided (6, a, v).

Specific provision should be made by the profession and jurisdictions to incorporate specific professional development elements into the work roles of aspiring administrators. Failure to do so lessens the instructional value of the experience, as was noted regarding many assistant-principalships (6, a, vi).

Jurisdictions and Alberta Education have the ability, through the use of internship or administrative assistant positions to augment the number of individuals who are able to gain preparatory administrative experience (6, a, vii; 3, e, ii).

Goal 3: establishing qualifications.

Individuals who apply for particular educational administration positions will be able to establish that they are qualified.

Respondents agreed that applicants for educational administration positions should be able to establish that they are personally suitable and that they are duly educated and experienced. Differences emerged, however, with regard to how such qualifications are best established. Some respondents favoured a formal certification or

credentialing programme (7, a, i; 7, a, ii; 7, a, iii) which should, in the opinion of some, reflect the level of administrative role being sought (7, a, v). Other interviewees felt that qualifications would be more convincingly established, and the quality of administration further advanced by the use by school jurisdictions of suitable recruitment, selection and evaluation procedures (7, b, v). They noted further, that the general level of qualifications of educational administrators was advancing year by year (7, b, vi).

Those opposed to formal certificates or credentials for administrators stated the importance of situational variables in administrative success (7, b, xiii) and doubted that the possession of a certificate would be a reliable predictor of competence (7, b, ix; 7, b, viii). In lieu of certification, some noted the significance of the past performance of individuals as attested to by testimonials, references from supervisors and colleagues, evaluation reports, and assessment centre reports (6, b, x; 6, b, ix; 6, b, viii; 6, b, vii).

The Needs Assessment

Stufflebeam (1977:3) defined a need from a "discrepancy view" as "a discrepancy between desired performance and observed or predicted performance." He went on to provide the following comprehensive definition of a needs assessment:

> a process for identifying and examining the purposes against
> which needs are to be determined; getting these purposes
> modified if they are found improper or flawed; identifying the
> things that are requisite and useful for serving the validated
> purposes; assessing the extent the identified needs are met or
> unmet; rating the importance of these met and unmet needs; and
> aiding the audience in formulating goals, choosing procedures,
> and assessing progress (1977:7).

Mayer and Greenwood (1980:10) wrote that the needs assessment stage of the policy development process is necessarily conducted in conjunction with the specification of objectives. This is because one cannot know what needs to assess until one has determined the observable conditions to be dealt with, and conversely, the analyst cannot set objectives until he or she is cognizant of the degree of change seen as desirable to be effected.

The paragraphs which follow identify needs which were explicit or implicit in the remarks of interviewees during the first round of interviews. Most of the statements addressing needs were cited in the earlier section in which the representative remarks were stated and so such information is not repeated. For audit purposes, however, the code numbers of related interview comments are noted with each identified need. The identified needs are categorized with reference to the three goal statements cited in the preceding section.

Needs related to Goal 1: the opportunity for formal preparation. The following eight themes were identified by the researcher from a review of the resondents' remarks related to the first goal:

1. University Educational Administration programmes are, by and large, unable or unwilling to seriously undertake the development of technical-level skills, or to endeavour to develop among students, specific behavioural characteristics (1-5-14, 1-5-11, 1-5-10, 1-7-37, 1-7-7, 1-5-2, 1-7-38, 1-3-44, 1-1-22, 1-1-40, 1-2-30).

2. Many administrators have not developed adequate supervision and evaluation skills (1-7-58, 1-7-3, 1-1-10, 1-2-10, 1-7-35).

3. Many administrators have not been taught the role expectations of the education leader (1-7-57, 1-2-42).

4. The university Educational Administration programmes are too narrow in scope and fail to expose students to concepts and expertise from other departments and faculties (1-6-10, 1-7-12, 1-1-21, 1-1-23, 1-2-38, 1-2-30).

5. The administrative potential of teachers is not being systematically developed by school jurisdictions (1-5-19).

6. University departments of Educational Administration should develop mission statements which emphasize the responsibilty to prepare practitioners (1-2-40, 1-2-37, 1-7-65, 1-1-55, 1-1-54, 1-2-41, 1-2-31).

7. Many educational administrators from Alberta are enrolling in American university programmes with lower standards and are avoiding programmes with strict requirments (such as residence periods) in Alberta (1-1-37, 1-1-39).

8. The organization of course content into three credit hour units for some topics fragments its study and may lessen the conceptual development of students (1-3-45).

<u>Needs related to Goal 2: the opportunity for appropriate experience.</u> Needs statements expressed by interviewees reflected the concern of some that current regulations do not require administrators, except superintendents, to have had prior experience as teachers. Concern over the appropriateness of the assistant-principalship as it typically is arranged was also expressed.

1. Individuals who aspire to educational administration roles definitely should have had experience as teachers (1-7-59, 1-4-54, 1-1-56, 1-2-51, 1-6-57, 1-4-40).

2. The work typically done by assistant principals is not good preparation for educational administrators (1-1-62, 1-1-43).

Needs related to Goal 3: establishing qualifications.

Respondents indicated the following six needs related to establishing the qualifications of those who apply for educational administration positions:

1. Criteria used by school jurisdictions to select administrators vary too widely to ensure a consistent and desirable level of performance (1-6-47, 1-7-64, 1-6-7, 1-7-61, 1-7-23, 1-6-55, 1-4-49, 1-6-46, 1-1-45).

2. There is a need for consultation among reference groups regarding changes in the criteria for appointing educational administrators (1-4-49, 1-7-72).

3. The existing regulation governing the appointment of school superintendents is not meaningful (1-1-88, 1-6-48).

4. Boards do not typically have personnel policies which provide for the proper assessment of the potential of aspiring administrators, the planning of their subsequent professional development, and their eventual evaluation (1-2-56).

5. There is a lack of clear statements of role expectations for educational administrators (1-3-54).

6. Some administrators "retire into the ranks" and fail to develop professionally after securing an appointment (1-6-52).

The Specification of Objectives

Alberta Education defined an objective as "a statement of desired specific results to be achieved over a specified period of time." It answers both 'what' and 'when' (Program Policy Manual, 1984:75). Mayer and Greenwood (1980:10) concurred, identifying four elements to be noted: 1. the condition to be remedied or the state to be achieved; 2. a finite population in which that condition exists; 3. a time frame in which change is to occur; and 4. the amount and direction of change sought in the condition. In specifying the objectives, it is incumbent upon the analyst to bear in mind the constraints in the policy environment such as limited funds, available human resources, and the rate and degree of social change which are acceptable to the participants and to the public. It should be noted, however, that in complex policy situations, the analyst will probably not be entirely cognizant of all of the important aspects of the policy environment. This is one reason that the policy development model (see Figure 1.3) provides in Stage 5 for the estimation of consequences of alternative actions, and in the present study, arrangements were made for a second round of data gathering.

The objectives which were designed to guide the development of policy alternatives were derived from a process of interaction with the determination of goals and the assessment of needs, and so are stated under the headings of the three goals developed earlier.

Objectives related to Goal 1: the opportunity for formal preparation. Objectives related to this goal as derived from the assessment of needs are:

1. A coordinated approach to the preparation of·educational admini-
   strators will be taken which will involve the universities, the
   professional organisations (the A.T.A., the Council on School
   Administration, and C.A.S.S.), the A.S.T.A. on behalf of school
   jurisdictions, and Alberta Education. These groups will consult
   and cooperate in order to develop a model which will provide for
   the identification of competencies, skills, and knowledge
   intended to enhance the performance of incumbent and aspiring
   administrators. The model will identify education and training
   tasks to be addressed by the various agencies in keeping with
   their respective qualities and resources. Initial meetings to
   explore the issues could be held in the winter of 1985, with
   implementation of the model in the fall of 1987.

2. Several areas of conceptual development have been identified as
   being important to the successful practice of educational
   administration (as was noted in the review of related
   literature and in section two of the presentation of data
   derived from the first round of interviews). University
   departments concerned will consult with representatives of the
   other stakeholder groups and will assess the extent to which
   their respective programmes comprise components seen as
   appropriate, subsequently taking action which the respective
   departments deem to be appropriate. Such reviews and consult-
   ation could begin in the fall of 1986.

3. There is considerable demand from practising and aspiring
   educational administrators for university - based educational

administration preparation programmes. Each University will conduct a survey through the good offices of school jurisdictions in areas they do or might serve in order to determine the extent and nature of service needed. The survey results would then be reviewed by Alberta Education and the Department of Advanced Education in order to determine the degree of special project funding that would be required to meet the identified needs. The survey could be conducted in the spring of 1986.

Objectives related to Goal 2: the opportunity for appropriate experience. Objectives related to this goal, as derived from the assessment of needs include:

1. Alberta Education will make local jurisdictions aware of the benefits associated with recruiting educational administrators with appropriate preparatory experience. Communication from Alberta Education could be issued in the winter of 1985-86 with appropriate responses from local jurisdictions by the spring of 1986.

2. Regarding on-the-job professional growth for administrators within jurisdictions, refer to objective one in the preceding sub-section.

Objectives related to Goal 3: establishing qualifications. Objectives related to this goal, as derived from the assessment of needs are:

1. Alberta Education will communicate to school jurisdictions criteria to be considered when educational administrators are to

be recruited, selected and appointed. Such communication could
be issued in the winter of 1986-1987 with provisions to be
applied as of April 1, 1987.

2. Alberta Education will require local jurisdictions to develop
   policy statements related to the evaluation of school and school
   system administrators. The guidelines accompanying the
   directive will refer to the need for such policies to address
   the development of suitable role descriptions in consultation
   with the administrators.

The Design of Alternative Courses of Action

Conducting a policy development exercise using the models
illustrated in Figures 1.2 and 1.3 presumes that a choice of feasible
policy options exists. This stage of the process is intended to
specify, in operational form, policy alternatives which incorporate as
many of the stated objectives as possible while presenting to the policy
maker choices which reflect more than trivial differences in approach to
the policy problem.

The preliminary policy alternatives are presented in Appendix 2.
The alternatives were designed to meet as many of the objectives as
possible, are based in large part on the data gathered in the first
round of interviews, and meet the four criteria of adequacy cited in
Chapter II, efficiency, effectiveness, feasibility and ethics.

Because the researcher, at this stage, did not have sufficient
understanding of the pertinent aspects of the policy environment to make
final policy recommendations, he chose to develop preliminary policy
recommendations which, while satisfying the criteria noted above,

emphasized the differences of opinion expressed by interviewees, rather than aspects on which agreement was communicated. This strategy was intended to serve two purposes. First, the researcher thought that the presentation of sharply contrasting options would help to clarify the differences between the alternatives, and encourage respondents to enunciate reactions which clearly reflected both their personal opinions, and the prevailing thinking and policies of the respective organisations. Second, the researcher wanted to expose the respondents to what appeared to be their more extreme positions in order to give them an opportunity to confirm or to modify their statements. In effect, the presentation of the preliminary policy alternatives to the respondents served as a reliability check on the data gathering process used in the first round of interviews.

Due to the dichotomic nature of the interview data regarding the formal preparation of educational administrators, and the most appropriate approach to recognizing preparation and experience, two contrasting alternatives were proposed for each issue. As there appeared to be consensus among respondents regarding the issue of preliminary professional experience, only a summary statement was developed.

The first issue, the formal preparation of educational administrators, was developed in such a way as to emphasize the pronounced differences expressed by interviewees regarding the mission of the university Educational Administration programmes. Some respondents defined the role of the university so as to emphasize its academic role within the scholarly community, while others stressed the service

function which would focus on the preparation of practitioners. Although it was not the researcher's original intention, several comments from interviewees regarding the appropriateness of relating preservice to inservice development activities, and viewing the professional growth of administrators from a life-long learning or career perspective, caused him to define formal preparation as professional development activities carried out in a systematic manner using the educational or training resources of the individual student, the universities, the professional organisations, employers, or others, as appropriate to specific identified learning needs.

Alternative 1 emphasized Educational Administration programmes as components of university graduate level research and scholarship. In this alternative, the role of the university was seen to be largely to foster knowledge and understanding of Educational Administration, while other agencies would be responsible for systematically developing administrative behaviour through supervised work experience and skill oriented training activities.

Alternative 2 charged the university with the broader responsibility of developing competencies among educational admini- strators. Competencies were considered to be the ability to execute administrative tasks based on related knowledge and understanding. Under Alternative 2, the mission statements of departments of Educational Administration would emphasize the development of practitioners and consequently would have to effect some changes in their criteria for student selection and judging success within the programme.

Alternative 3 provided for the certification of educational administrators by Alberta Education based on defined levels of university preparation and periods of professional experience. A two level certification scheme was proposed as it represented a more rigorous approach, and, as noted above, the researcher intended to present options which contrasted most sharply. A limited form of "grandfathering" to protect the positions of incumbent administrators was also proposed.

Alternative 4 presented a "policy-driven" approach to encouraging jurisdictions and administrators to value and foster appropriate entry-level qualifications and on-going professional growth. The Alternative was expressed in a form similar to that used by Alberta Education in the Program Policy Manual and recognized the Department's role in providing educational leadership and financial resources, while acknowledging that educational administrators are employed by and are primarily accountable to local school jurisdictions. While the Alternative placed some constraints on how special grant money may be spent, sufficient latitude was provided so that training and educational activities could be appropriate to individual and situational requirements.

CHAPTER V

REACTIONS TO THE POLICY ALTERNATIVES

Introduction

This chapter details the reactions of the individuals who were
representative of the reference groups to the preliminary policy alter-
natives presented in Appendix 2. The reactions of the interviewees were
important to the present study in that they confirmed, clarified, or
modified concepts derived from the first round of interviews, and also
indicated the points of view that the policy analyst might expect the
respective groups to take with regard to the final policy recommend-
ations which are presented in the next chapter.

After conducting the interviews and reviewing their contents,
the researcher identified eight conceptual categories which emerged from
the remarks of participants and which were germane to the policy issues
being studied. As 453 such comments were recorded, the researcher
selected for presentation those which expressed the range of opinions
stated by the participants, and referred to related or similar comments
through the interview code numbers. Remarks are reported under the
following headings: 1. university programmes; 2. competency-based
programmes; 3. the administrative internship; 4. inservice programmes;
5. communication among reference groups; 6. professional experience;
7. certification for administrators; and 8. reaction to the policy
approach.

The data reported in the above categories provided the
researcher with a sense of the range of thought related to the policy
issues, but did not present the data in such a way as to indicate

145

concisely the policy positions of the several stakeholders. Consequently, the concluding pages of this chapter outline the stances on the policy issues of the respective stakeholders: Alberta Education, the Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.), the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.), the Department of Educational Administration of the University of Alberta, the Faculty of Education of the University of Calgary, and the Faculty of Education of the University of Lethbridge.

Presentation of Data

University programmes. The comments which follow are representative of statements made by respondents with regard to university Educational Administration programmes:

i. Educational Administration is both a field of study and a field of practice (2-6-33).

ii. It is not appropriate to have conceptual content dealt with by universities and technical skills handled by practitioners (2-6-3, 2-5-10, 2-5-6, 2-5-38, 2-3-8, 2-2-1, 2-2-7, 2-1-1).

iii. Learning based on theory and research is generalizable to a range of work situations (2-4-2, 2-6-58).

iv. Administrators need technical skills but also should show evidence of theory and research in order to gain credibility with boards, teachers, and the public (2-6-4).

v. Conceptual development should be fostered in all university courses (2-7-30, 2-6-6, 2-6-7, 2-4-8).

vi. Universities can teach skills and develop competencies if they have skilled people on staff with backgrounds as successful administrators (2-7-4, 2-7-8, 2-6-21, 2-3-4, 2-2-12, 2-2-15, 2-2-16).

vii. Skills of writing are essential to administration and imply underlying thinking skills (2-6-34, 2-7-3).

( )

viii. Case studies should be the bases of courses by which theory is integrated with practice (2-2-2, 2-2-9).

ix. As the administrator advances in academic programme and career level his scope should broaden, making the individual a 'statesman' more than a specialist (2-2-14).

x. Preparation programmes should adopt a multidisciplinary perspective (2-2-26, 2-2-27, 2-2-28).

xi. General scholarship, informed by study of the humanities, is important as a base to the skills of management (2-7-9).

xii. There is a need for educational administrators to have a background in curriculum and pedagogy (2-6-52, 2-4-15).

xiii. The focus of Educational Administration should be education and should not be shifted to administration as a discrete field of study (2-4-16).

xiv. Programme content should not be restricted to how education is managed in Alberta. A wider view is appropriate (2-2-17).

xv. An extreme academic view of teacher or administrator education that focuses only on research and publication will result in preparation going elsewhere (2-7-26).

xvi. Success within theoretical aspects of courses may be determined using conventional academic criteria, but courses dealing with the application of theory should test the students' skills of application (2-3-34).

xvii. Government should not suggest course content or methods to the universities but could legitimately identify topics to be addressed in programmes (2-7-38).

xviii. The universities should not be obliged to include topics in a programme simply because practitioners recognize them as accepted practice (2-7-16).

xix. No department is going to issue degrees to people for being capable administrators. Scholarship must be a factor (2-5-40).

xx. Potential as administrators should be considered among admission criteria for Educational Administration programmes (2-1-3, 2-7-11, 2-7-12, 2-5-5, 2-3-32).

xxi. The practicum or internship is not precluded from a university Educational Administration programme (2-5-12).

xxii. Programmes should be differentiated to reflect different levels and the wide range of administrative roles which students will assume (2-5-8, 2-5-9).

xxiii. Faculty members should possess skills and competencies in the areas in which they teach (2-3-26, 2-3-10, 2-6-36, 2-7-5, 2-7-31).

xxiv. Changes to graduate programmes are not easily accomplished and advice from external groups may not be implemented readily (2-6-30).

xxv. It is not feasible to have separate organisations looking after different aspects of preparation, preservice and inservice. The tasks should be coordinated (2-7-1, 2-2-4, 2-2-13).

Competency-based programmes. The following concepts reflect the remarks made by respondents regarding competency-based programmes:

i. Universities, in North America at least, are not essentially academic communities. They are essentially vocational schools (2-3-1, 2-3-3, 2-3-4, 2-2-7, 2-2-19, 2-1-5, 2-1-19).

ii. A competency-based approach is good as long as there did not develop a 'recipe' approach to administration (2-7-7, 2-3-24, 2-3-25, 2-3-27, 2-3-29).

iii. The seeds of Alternative 2 are already well-defined in the form of Project A.S.K. and could be implemented, but it is still undesirable (2-5-34).

iv. There would be some support for a competency-based programme at the Master's level, however, there would be unfavourable reactions if we had to redesign courses and the activities of the Department (2-5-36).

v. When the University of Lethbridge tried to develop a competency-based approach for the teacher training programme, it ended up with a never-ending list of competencies (2-7-10).

vi. A competency-based approach is like an apprenticeship which causes the replication of current practice (2-6-5, 2-5-29).

vii. Competency-based programmes tend to address skills which are very situation-bound and contextually-defined, and are therefore subject to obsolescence and inappropriateness (2-5-33).

viii. Alternative 2 seems highly efficient and effective, but this level of analysis is superficial (2-5-33).

ix. The view of administration posed by competency-based programmes is too instrumental, too technical; too much 'doing', to the diminution of analysis and thinking. It is too narrow, even if you can do it (2-5-32).

The administrative internship. The comments which follow

reflect the positive fashion in which most respondents viewed the

administrative internship:

i. There would be room for practicum or internship activities within graduate programmes if jurisdictions would cooperate, costs could be covered, and if supervising administrators would cooperate (2-6-11, 2-6-16, 2-6-18, 2-6-19, 2-7-29).

ii. In education, in contrast to medicine or engineering, practitioners are reluctant to try to apply theory to work situations. Practice oriented components in the preparation programme might overcome this reluctance (2-4-6, 2-4-5, 2-3-9).

iii. Interns learn how to deal with people in new contexts (boards, parents, etc.) in low risk situations that allow the intern to try out ideas without getting into serious trouble (2-3-6).

iv. The most valid measure of competence is performance in an administrative setting, and so the internship may have particular value (2-1-24).

v. Internships should put students in new learning situations (2-6-13).

vi. The internship should not be compulsory for students who already have administrative experience (2-6-16).

vii. The internship will provide opportunities for administrative experience for the many who have not had occasion to serve as administrators, thus adding to the pool of principal candidates (2-7-21).

viii. A practicum adds to costs, but we would be most inefficient if we did not provide proper programmes (2-3-37, 2-6-12).

ix. A main problem is keeping students and their families alive while engaged in practical programmes (internships) (2-3-38).

x. The presence of practicum or intern students in the school system would provide useful input from the academic world to inform the activities of practitioners (2-4-7, 2-7-20, 2-6-14).

xi. Boards have already expressed support for teachers to participate in the Outreach Programme that requires release time. To the extent that there are apparent benefits to the system from studies conducted or potential administrators developed, the support of boards will likely continue (2-4-11).

xii. Intern supervisors would have to be carefully chosen and understandings reached regarding the goals of the programme, as is the case with the teacher training programme (2-6-15).

Inservice programmes. The following comments are representative of respondents' remarks during interviews regard educational administrator inservice programmes:

i. An increased emphasis inservice development is appropriate with or without the use of university personnel (2-7-45).

ii. In some jurisdictions, boards provide only minimal support for administrator conferences and inservice. Other jurisdictions are just the opposite (2-7-43).

iii. Monitoring of jurisdiction activities by Alberta Education, along with the provision of grant money could effect improvement in the inservice development of administrators (2-7-46).

iv. Training is best built into part of job experience (2-5-75).

v. Inservice programmes require local decision making (2-7-40).

vi. It is possible to have effective short training programmes (2-5-67).

vii. The universities should play a role in the preparation and organization of inservice programmes, as well as in their delivery (2-5-16).

viii. The role of the university in the inservice program is one of brokerage, bringing together people who want to learn, with instructors who have time, knowledge, and skills (2-6-22).

ix. The University of Calgary brings in well qualified practitioners to teach inservice courses (2-6-21).

x. Inservice courses at the University of Calgary are usually offered on a credit basis so as to count for salary increase purposes (2-6-23).

xi. An advantage of having universities offer inservice programmes is credentials and transcripts and hence financial recognition for course work (2-6-24).

xii. Some inservice development may have to be mandated in keeping with changed role expectations (such as evaluation skills). Exemptions may be made for those who have achieved competency (2-7-48).

xiii. The educational standard realized by an administrator does not mean much ten years later. Development needs should be met as noted in Alternative 4 or through a formal educational leave (2-7-47).

xiv. As a minimum, the province could be persuaded to support the Centre for Educational Leadership in Alberta (C.E.L.A.) - maybe a more generous fashion (2-1-69).

xv. It may be dysfunctional to measure and record the levels of proficiency displayed by administrators as a result of professional development activity (2-5-14).

xvi. Most faculty members would endorse the basic concepts implied in Alternative 1, although most would want to see a degree of continuity between the university and inservice programmes (2-5-15).

Communication among reference groups. The following remarks

made by interviewees are characteristic of those referring to the nature

and degree of communication among reference groups:

i. There are avenues for communication between universities and practitioners. Faculty members work with jurisdictions and gain insight into field developments (2-6-26).

ii. It is up to Department Heads to initiate communication with interest groups and to subsequently advise faculty members (2-6-10, 2-6-31).

iii. Contact with students provides feedback to professors which influences course content (2-6-9).

iv. University of Calgary inservice offerings are selected on the basis of needs assessment surveys and feedback from the field (2-6-20).

v. The Faculty of Education of the University of Calgary each year seconds seven to 12 teachers to serve as instructors and so is exposed to ideas from the field (2-6-27).

vi. The level of communication among universities and practitioners is not at all satisfactory (2-4-12).

vii. There has only been one or two discussions (regarding Educational Administration programmes) held in the last four or five years, and that only with the University of Alberta (2-1-17, 2-5-21).

viii. The response of the universities to the Centre for Educational Leadership in Alberta (C.E.L.A.) proposal is regretable and pathetic. This is an area in which the universities should have provided leadership. Instead, there was a vacuum which A.S.T.A. tried to fill (2-4-13, 2-4-18).

ix. There has to be closer cooperation between jurisdictions and universities (2-4-10).

x. Over the years communication between the A.T.A. and the universities has tended to concentrate on the content of the undergraduate teacher education programme as opposed to graduate level administrator programmes (2-3-17, 2-7-13).

xi. Ad hoc committees to offer advice on specific aspects of educational administrator preparation programmes could be useful (2-5-24, 2-4-17).

xii. Perhaps there should be an initiative from C.A.S.S. regarding formal contact about the preparation of administrators (2-7-14).

xiii. The traditions in respective universities differ, for example, the extent to which faculty members get out to work with students in the field. Such differences may limit the effects of communication (2-7-25).

xiv. It may be desirable to try to foster formal communication with representatives of the field. In the past, there was contact with the Greater Edmonton Regional Council on School Administration, and C.A.S.S. (2-5-19, 2-7-18, 2-7-19, 2-7-22, 2-7-23).

xv. There should be communication between the university and the field of practice in order to define the appropriate or salient conceptual structures to develop (2-5-7).

xvi. Evaluation and feedback regarding university programmes by reference groups would be useful information for the universities (2-7-24).

xvii. Should a coordinated inservice agency be developed, it would be important that an advisory committee be established which would coordinate university and inservice activities. Consultation in this context would be two-way (2-5-26, 2-7-28).

xviii. Programme advisory committees of practitioners and employers would be difficult to organize and maintain here, but it is an alternative. It would be difficult to select people who, in fact, represent the practice of educational administration, to find things for them to do, and to sustain their interest (2-5-22, 2-5-23).

xix. Informal communication can be more useful than the formal which might require meetings, delays, resolutions, etc. (2-6-32).

Professional experience. The following comments reflect the views of interviewees regarding the issue of preliminary professional experience for educational administrators:

i. Concepts expressed in Issue 2 of the interview support material regarding the importance of preparatory teaching experience and the desirability of junior level administrative experience are acceptable (2-1-28, 2-3-40, 2-4-19, 2-5-43, 2-6-37, 2-7-32).

ii. Present regulations requiring five years of teaching experience for superintendents are meaningless as predictors of administrative success (2-2-34).

iii. Administrative and leadership skills are largely independent of teaching ability (2-2-33).

iv. Most teachers would not have confidence in an administrator who had only two years teaching experience, conducting evaluations (2-6-55).

v. The use of successful experience as a qualification for an administrator's certificate is essential. Such experience could be in an employment or internship context (2-1-33).

vi. The internship can not substitute completely for experience (2-5-44).

Certification for administrators. The comments which follow reflect the opinions expressed by interviewees regarding the certification of educational administrators:

i. In effect, the job interview before a school board is an oral examination; however, the problem with this is the vagaries of interviews and the inconsistencies between jurisdictions (2-1-39).

ii. The provisions of Alternative 3 would not ensure successful administrative practice, but they would move toward the demonstration of learning and perhaps competence, providing a first level of screening (2-6-43, 2-1-48).

iii. There is a certain logic to expecting a common standard of qualification among administrators in all parts of Alberta (2-7-33).

iv. Why should we certify teachers? If we should certify teachers, it follows that we should certify administrators (2-1-53).

v. A certificate guarantees a minimum standard and identifies an appropriate pool from which administrators may be chosen (2-6-38).

vi. A certificate would provide credibility and authority for administrators in dealing with teachers (2-6-39).

vii. Alternative 3 would provide the incentive needed by that set of administrators who have not bothered to upgrade their qualifications and would recognize the achievements of those who have (2-6-42).

viii. The criterion demanding 24 credit hours of graduate work indicates diligence, promptness, ability to communicate with other graduate students, and the ability to get along with professors (2-6-45).

ix. There is now no adequate regulation. Administrators can be hired off the street with the qualification that they smile a lot. A teaching certificate is not enough (2-7-37, 2-6-46).

x. Two years of teaching experience is not enough for a superintendent. The required training programme should, perhaps,

be raised to a Master's degree for all administrative positions (2-6-47).

xi.   The lead-in time period for Alternative 3 is appropriate (2-6-48).

xii.   The rules governing the roles of administrators are arbitrarily changed from time to time, so it would not be unusual to change certification requirements. Administrators probably won't object too strenuously (2-6-57).

xiii. Government regulations should require a general level of graduate preparation (an M.Ed.) and leave it to the universities to counsel students regarding courses, and to boards to demand specific aspects of training (2-6-53).

xiv.   The general educational requirement of Alternative 3 is not adequate. There should be specific areas of competency identified as compulsory programme elements. Just to specify 24 credit hours allows universities to do whatever they want, thereby eliminating the benefits of standardization (2-7-35, 2-7-39).

xv.   Certificates should be issued on a term basis with continuance dependent on on-going course work (2-6-41).

xvi.   Term certification would be too complicated to administer (2-1-34).

xvii. The grandfathering clause is appropriate (2-7-53, 2-3-63).

xviii. The current corps of administrators should be fully grandfathered as their administrative performance will provide ample evidence of their capability – evidence which is more valid than academic degrees (2-5-50).

xix.   All administrators, with sufficient lead time, should be required to qualify for a certificate. Good administrators should not feel threatened (2-6-56).

xx.   The lead-in time period for Alternative 3 is appropriate (2-6-48).

xxi.   Administrators should be required to have successful experience either in the field or in an internship (2-7-42).

xxii. Administrators are more likely to fail because of inability to establish appropriate relationships with people than they are to fail due to lack of knowledge or writing ability. To this extent, successful teaching experience, which is

largely dependent upon establishing effective relationships, would be a good predictor of administrative potential (2-1-40, 2-1-42, 2-6-44).

xxiii. I suggest that Alternatives 3 and 4 be combined to reflect a standardization of requirements with a proviso that inservice grants be provided as outlined in Alternative 4 with support for short courses (2-7-44).

xxiv. Certification requirements may have to be waived for small schools in rural areas (2-1-36).

xxv. I don't think Alberta Education would buy Alternative 4, even without the $500. We might buy an Alternative between 3 and 4 that were more prescriptive on the guidelines instead of getting into this whole mess of certification (2-1-64, 2-1-65, 2-1-66).

xxvi. The supposed lack of public confidence is a 'straw man'. Local surveys tend to be very supportive of the local school. Setting up barriers to admission, making administration a "closed shop" will not boost public confidence (2-4-29, 2-4-30).

xxvii. Certificates are appropriate if they are meaningful, but Alternative 3 is not (2-2-37, 2-5-45, 2-5-53).

xxviii. Alternative 3 does not provide meaningful criteria for certification. There has to be a basic standard, but that is established by the requirement for a teaching certificate (2-4-26).

xxix. Academic success has no bearing on administrative potential (2-2-38).

xxx. Attempts to introduce special certificates into teaching have just led to more and more confusion. The potential for exponential bureaucratization is awesome (2-3-48, 2-3-62, 2-5-45, 2-5-47).

xxxi. The skills needed by administrators vary with specific assignments in particular jurisdictions. This fact is not reflected in Alternative 3 (2-3-43, 2-3-44, 2-4-24, 2-4-25).

xxxii. It is far better to rely on the demonstrated performance of individuals to assess their qualifications than to rely on the implications of certificates (2-3-49).

xxxiii. To implement a certification programme so as to make it effective would be so costly that the amount of gain would not be worth the cost (2-3-58, 2-3-51).

xxxiv.   The performance of individuals is subject to changes in personal circumstances, hence a certificate does not ensure effective performance (2-3-52).

xxxv.   A certificate tells perspective employers nothing that is not implied by the possession of a master's degree or a professional diploma (2-3-53).

xxxvi.   With Alternative 3, the public would be fooled into thinking that they have something meaningful (2-3-59).

xxxvii.   Alternative 3 would prompt a resolution of objection from the A.S.T.A. as it provides a limitation on board autonomy, limiting the range of people from whom they could choose administrators 2-2-49).

xxxviii.   The A.T.A. would be quite opposed to Alternative 3 (2-3-51, 2-3- 57).

xxxix.   This type of certification structure implies' the mastery of a level of performance that does not need further development (2-3-45).

xl.   From the government point of view, if this were to happen in administration, they would press for it in counselling, and then in other specialties (2-3-61).

xli.   There is too much risk that controls may be externally imposed regarding which courses must be taken, and what the content of those courses should be (2-5-52, 2-5-55).

xlii.   There is a risk of course overloads within university departments should certificates be required (2-5-54).

xliii.   A certification structure would have the effect of discouraging the increased participation of women in educational administration as it may be more difficult for women with family responsibilities to pursue graduate coursework in early to mid-career (2-3-81).

xliv.   The timing of Alternative 3 is not in keeping with the spirit of the new school act or the Management and Finance Plan (2-5-56).

xlv.   Alternative 3 reflects the exercise of the authority of the Minister, not his accountability (2-5-57).

Reaction to the policy-driven approach. The statements which follow reflect the opinions of interviewees about using a policy-driven approach to improving administrative performance in education: ·

i. We are in favour of Alternative 4. The principle of using a policy-driven approach is valid (2-5-60, 2-4-20, 2-2-48, 2-3-64).

ii. The three preamble statements and the policy statement of Alternative 4 are appropriate (2-5-64).

iii. It is altogether appropriate to require local jurisdictions to make rationally guided decisions (2-5-64).

iv. The numbers of administrators needed is not so great, and talented persons not so rare that emphasis should not be placed on careful recruitment, selection, and introduction to administration, rather than relying on validating ability through formal study and certification (2-5-73).

v. Ideally, administrators' professional development would be covered by the teacher inservice policy, however, to the extent that a statement is needed to draw attention to the need for administrator inservice, this approach (Alternative 4) is acceptable (2-3-70).

vi. Alternative 4 respects the professed government policy of local autonomy (2-3-65).

vii. Alternative 4 provides more flexibility to meet local needs which differ widely in very small and very large jurisdictions (2-4-22, 2-3-64).

viii. Alternative 4 would be effective to the extent that advice were available to boards regarding policy development, and professional development funds were made available (2-2-52).

ix. The boards will not view Alternative 4 favourably unless they are assured of adequate government funding (2-6-63, 2-6-66).

x. Guidelines 5 and 6 are acceptable. It is appropriate to try to lead people rather than to push or compel them (2-4-31).

xi. Guideline 6B (regarding conference attendance not qualifying for provincial funding) may not be appropriate (2-3-76).

xii. Guidelines should not unduly restrict decisions and thus violate the principle of a policy-driven approach (2-5-65).

xiii. There should be more attention paid in the guidelines to recruitment and selection and not an overemphasis on the delivery of professional development activities (2-5-70).

xiv.   A figure of one percent of salary is not unreasonable for
       professional development and the $500 grant amount is fairly
       close (2-3-74).

 xv.   There should be financial support for professional develop-
       ment activity (2-5-62).

xvi.   The $500 would provide an adequate amount for large juris-
       dictions to stage a professional development programme, but
       smaller jurisdictions would have to form consortia to pay
       for courses (2-7-55, 2-6-64).

xvii. The $500 is feasible but there is little prospect of such
       grants being endorsed (2-1-56).

xviii. Individuals aspiring to senior administrative jobs should be
       willing to invest their own resources in attaining higher
       qualifications.   If we have to bribe them to become
       qualified, I question their motivation (2-1-51).

xix.   We don't have to provide financial incentives. Look at the
       teacher evaluation policies, we just demanded them and they
       were developed (2-1-57).

 xx.   If administrators, boards and teachers are truly profes-
       sional they should see the merit of inservice and provide,
       for it out of their block funding. We do not prescribe
       expenditures of block funds, nor do we prescribe how the
       locally raised money should be spent (2-1-60).

xxi.   The employee has a responsibility to maintain general
       competence in terms of general updating in his or her field.
       The employer has a responsibility to provide upgrading for
       changes which he or she initiates (2-1-78).

xxii. From the point of view of Alberta Education, if we required
       a certificate, we would not have to spend the $500 (2-1-50).

xxiii. Alternative 4 has many good points but is too nebulous in
       that too much local discretion is allowed. In rural juris-
       dictions where superintendents have very broad responsibil-
       ities or are in weak political situations, Alternative 4
       would be given short shrift (2-8-60, 2-7-52, 2-7-51).

xxiv. Alternative 4 may be more palatable, more subtle, but given
       the review process with the province critiquing each juris-
       diction's policies, providing guidelines, and offering
       suggestions, it is no more flexible (2-6-60).

xxv. Alternative 4 would be effective only as long as the government were diligent in checking up on local practices. In the long run, it does not have the potential of Alternative 3 (2-6-61).

Reference Groups' Points of View

The preceding section outlined the data derived from the second round of interviews in a fashion which presented the range of opinions expressed about the main themes. Analyzing the data in this way was useful in that it exposed the researcher to the thoughts of several of the senior figures involved with educational administration in Alberta, and helped to clarify the main issues germane to the study. However, as was noted in Chapter II, Bardes and Dubnick (1980) stated that the measure of an analysis was the effectiveness and usefulness of the recommendations. An important dimension to be considered, therefore, is the stance taken by each of the reference groups which are affected by and could influence the implementation of the recommendations. The pages which follow address this political dimension by presenting an overview of the points of view expressed by the individuals who were representative of the respective stakeholder groups. For possible audit purposes, reference is made to the interview statement code numbers from which the conclusions were drawn.

Alberta Education. With regard to the roles of Alberta's universities in providing Educational Administration programmes, the individuals associated with Alberta Education preferred to see a balance between the positions expressed in Alternatives 1 and 2 (2-1-2). They believed that the universities had the primary responsibility to prepare practitioners through preservice programmes (2-1-1), and that the

development of administrative skills should take place, at least in part, within the context of university courses (2-1-4, 2-1-19). The representatives felt that given the emphasis that should be placed on preparation for practice, admission criteria should include consideration of the students' apparent potential as administrators (2-1-3).

In that administrative competence is best judged from the performance of administrative tasks (2-1-24), the respondents endorsed the inclusion of practica or internships within Educational Administration programmes (2-1-20). They suggested that the costs associated with such an undertaking could be covered by contributions from Advanced Education with supplemental funding from the A.S.T.A., the A.T.A., and perhaps a grant from a philanthropic foundation (2-1-22).

The interviewees regretted the decline, in recent years, in contact with the university departments regarding Educational Administration. They noted that whereas at one time there was close communication, even regarding the admission of particular students at the University of Alberta (2-1-18), there have been only one or two discussions held in the past four or five years (2-1-17). This limited contact was with representatives of the University of Alberta. No formal communication focussing specifically on Educational Administration has taken place with individuals from the universities in Calgary or Lethbridge.

The Alberta Education officials were satisfied with the statements made in the interview guide material related to Issue 2 (preparatory professional experience for administrators) and insisted

that experience criteria should be included in possible certification requirements (2-1-28, 2-1-33).

It was noted that the present mood among the leaders of Alberta Education seemed to favor the introduction of a certification programme for administrators (2-1-67). The rationale for such action was explained as being similar to that used for the certification of teachers (2-1-53), and also that the hiring criteria and screening processes used by school boards are inconsistent (2-1-39). They suggested that it was appropriate to have two screens in place in order to ensure that appropriate individuals were selected as administrators. The first would be the requirement for applicants to hold a provincial certificate attesting to minimum levels of formal preparation and experience (2-1-40, 2-1-42), and the second would be the judgement of the employing board regarding the personal suitability of the individual for the particular position (2-1-48). A single class of administrator's certificates was favoured (2-1-35), and due to the complexity of administering certificates issued for limited terms, such certificates would be valid on a continuing basis (2-1-34). Administrators could lose their certification, however, as the result of an unsatisfactory practice review by the newly formed Council on Alberta Teaching Standards (2-1-70). It was acknowledged that the requirements that certified administrators be hired would likely have to be waived for small schools in rural areas (2-1-36).

The mood favouring certification, notwithstanding, the individual respondents did not indicate strong personal commitment to such a course of action. They stated that policy or regulation changes

would be forthcoming but that a complex, bureaucratic certification scheme might be less appropriate than having local jurisdictions develop suitable policies. Such policies would, however, be shaped by detailed and prescriptive guidelines set by Alberta Education (2-1-64, 2-1-65, 2-1-66). A third possible course of action cited by the interviewees would combine the certification and local policy alternatives, with jurisdictions required to develop and implement suitable policies regarding administrators but being restricted to hiring administrators who were duly certified (2-1-37).

The participants implied that although Alberta Education did want to effect some changes in policy or regulations, it was not prepared to commit significant amounts of departmental resources, either human or financial, to accomplish such change. At present personnel are not available (2-1-12) and other demands for funding enjoy a higher priority (2-1-66, 2-1-68).

The Alberta School Trustees' Association. The three senior individuals representative of the A.S.T.A. were quite emphatic that university Educational Administration programmes were not ends in themselves, but should focus on the preparation of practitioners (2-2-7, 2-2-19). They advocated the balance of theory and practice within programmes (2-2-1) and recommended that courses rely heavily on case studies which allow the students to bridge the theory-practice gap (2-2-9). The appropriateness of drawing insights from several related disciplines was noted (2-2-26, 2-2-28), and the desirability of integrating formal study with career development was noted (2-2-4, 2-2-13). The interviewees indicated that given the need for educational

administrators to exhibit "statesman-like" qualities, their educational
programmes should expand their horizons, rather than make them highly
specialized (2-2-14). They also stated that in order for departments of
Educational Administration to accomplish their preparation of
practitioners role, they would have to hire staff with the skills of
practitioners. This could be accomplished through the sessional
employment of recent retirees from the field (2-2-12) or the secondment
of exemplary administrators (2-2-15, 2-2-16).

The respondents believed that school boards saw the need for
inservice development activities which would indoctrinate administrators
with the perspective of the employer (2-2-20), but that most board
members failed to understand the appropriateness of spending local
resources to support the professional growth of administrators (2-2-21).
School board members, it was noted, are sensitive to public opinion, and
find it difficult to explain the rationale for training expenditures to
the public (2-2-23). The participants cautioned that the A.S.T.A.
initiative in establishing the Centre for Educational Leadership in
Alberta should not be interpreted as representing a strong commitment by
the Association to the development of administrators, as financial and
human resources are limited and allocations of both are made reluctantly
(2-2-24, 2-2-21).

The interviewees supported the provisions of Issue 2 in the
interview support material (2-2-29), but only because they de-emphasized
the place of preparatory professional experience to what was perceived
to be the minimum level acceptable within the policy environment (2-2-
28, 2-2-30, 2-2-31, 2-2-32). Teaching experience was seen to have very

little direct relationship to administration and the exercise of leadership. They noted that the current regulation requiring super-intendents to have five years of teaching experience, has no predictive value in forecasting the prospects for an administrator's success (2-2-35).

Although they conceded that too often school boards use inappropriate criteria to select administrators (2-2-51), and that clearly something has to be done to improve the quality of educational administration (2-2-37), they noted that academic success has no bearing on administrative potential (2-2-38) and that only substantial revisions to the processes and content of Educational Administration programmes would change this (2-2-50). In that Alternative 3 would greatly limit the ability of school boards to exercise their judgement in selecting administrators, the interviewees predicted that such a proposal would prompt a resolution of objection from the A.S.T.A. (2-2-49).

In contrast, it was predicted that the provisions of Alternative 4 would be endorsed by trustees as it promotes the value of local autonomy (2-2-48). The content of the three preamble statements and the test of the policy segment were cited as true and appropriate (2-2-39, 2-2-40). Interviewees pointed out, however, that implementation of Alternative 4 would be achieved only if adequate funds were forthcoming, from the provincial government, and if appropriate advice regarding policy development and implementation were available to guide local action (2-2-46, 2-2-47, 2-2-52).

The Alberta Teachers' Association. The individuals who were representative of the A.T.A. were critical of the stance reflected in

Alternative 1 regarding the academic nature of universities. Although they conceded that there is a very small element in universities which may study knowledge for its own sake (2-3-3), universities are high level vocational schools (2-3-1). This perspective notwithstanding, the interviewees emphasized that Educational Administration programmes should integrate both theory and practice and advocated the development of a policy alternative which would combine the best features of Alternatives 1 and 2 (2-3-8). Such a course of action would necessitate the employment of faculty members who possessed the skills of practice (2-3-26) and the secondment as sessional instructors, of exemplary administrators from jurisdictions, professional associations, and government (2-3-10). They felt that admission criteria for preparation programmes should include consideration of the applicants' apparent potential as administrators (2-3-32) and further, that criteria of success within the programmes should include the ability to demonstrate the performance of skills (2-3-34).

Interviewees spoke in favour of an internship which would provide a bridge from theory to practice (2-3-7), and would afford administrators experience in low risk situations (2-3-6). The cost of such an undertaking was acknowledged but was seen as worthwhile (2-3-37). The need to address the problem of providing financial support for administration interns was also noted (2-3-38).

Participants indicated that the A.T.A. maintains contact with the universities through mutual participation on committees (2-3-13) and faculty councils (2-3-15), however, it was acknowledged that their discussions focused on undergraduate teacher education programmes as

opposed to graduate level administration programmes (2-3-17) and that such communication relied on the respective department chairman to carry the communications beyond the formal fora (2-3-14).

The interviewees expressed their support for the terms of Issue 2 in the interview background material (2-3-40).

Although the respondents agreed that teachers' peers and supervisors could, with sufficient time and training, assess their competence in order to judge in a legitimate fashion their suitability to serve as educational administrators, they did not think that the time and effort that would be required could be justified (2-3-51, 2-3-58). They were adamant that the provisions of Alternative 3 were contrary to A.T.A. policy (2-3-41, 2-3-57), were unnecessary (2-3-42), and would only add to bureaucracy and confusion (2-3-48, 2-3-62). They reiterated the Association's principle that accreditation of individuals for professional practice more properly rests with the profession than with the government (2-3-46), 2-3-47), and emphasized that administrative suitability should be judged on the basis of professional performance rather than by the abstract criteria of certification cited in Alternative 3 (2-3-49).

Alternative 3 was seen as assuring nothing not expressed by a university professional diploma or master's degree (2-3-53). The interviewees noted the low correlation traditionally seen between university grades and performance in the field (2-3-54). They also identified the risk of the proliferation of specialist certificates, pointing out that the logic of certification would be applied by Alberta Education to specialty activities such as counselling (2-3-61).

Respondents stressed the importance of the situational nature of educational administration demanding differing skills and personal attributes for different work contexts, and argued that the level of generalization implied by a provincial certificate would render it meaningless (2-3-43, 2-3-44, 2-3-56). The only beneficiaries of a scheme like Alternative 3 would be the universities which would have a captive clientele (2-3-60), and the politicians who would be able to fool the uninformed public to think that the politicians were acting as good stewards of education (2-3-59).

Interestingly, only the A.T.A. members raised the issue of the potentially negative effects of certification on encouraging increased numbers of women to serve as educational administrators. Interviewees speculated that insisting on formal training and preliminary administrative experience in early and mid-career would present a greater challenge to women than to their male colleagues (2-3-81, 2-3-82, 2-3-83, 2-3-84).

In contrast to their condemnation of their terms of Alternative, the interviewees were supportive of most aspects of Alternative 4. They found that the policy-driven model recognized local needs (2-3-64) and the principle of local autonomy (2-3-65). The emphasis on on-going professional development was seen as appropriate (2-3-70), and the suggested grant level, although not generous was acceptable (2-3-72, 2-3-74). Respondents did, however, suggest that in the preamble, reference should have been made to the responsibility of the admini- strator to colleagues (2-3-67), and also thought that the restriction on

the use of grant money for the costs of conference attendance may be inappropriate (2-3-76).

The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents. The interviewees who were representative of C.A.S.S. preferred university Educational Administration programmes which reflected a blend of Alternatives 1 and 2. They noted that administration needs a theoretical base and should be guided by the findings of sound research (2-4-1, 2-4-4), and stated that it was the sound theoretical base of programme content that afforded a quality of generalisability over many roles and organisational contexts (2-4-2). The participants were reluctant to endorse the competency-based approach as they felt that it implied a standardization of approach to administration that was unrealistic and which would ultimately lead to a provincial certification scheme (2-4-3). Educational Administration programmes, they stated, should include the study of curriculum and should emphasize the educational nature of the organisations to be administered (2-4-15, 2-4-16).

The interviewees expressed their dissatisfaction with the level of cooperation between school jurisdictions and the universities and suggested that the quality of administrator development programmes would be enhanced by more field-based interaction (2-4-10). Similarly, they viewed the level of communication among practitioners and the universities as being unsatisfactory (2-4-12), stating that the lack of communication and insular nature of the universities caused many administrators to view them as redundant and irrelevant (2-4-14). The respondents cited the lack of involvement of the universities in the development of the Centre for Educational Leadership in Alberta as an

example of the lack of initiative and leadership typical of the universities in the area of administrator preparation and development. This lack of leadership, in their opinions, created a vacuum which the A.S.T.A. has tried to fill (2-4-13, 2-4-18). The participants believed that as an organization, C.A.S.S. would be willing to appoint members to ad hoc advisory committees which would consider aspects of training and development needs as they might be addressed by university programmes (2-4-17).

The interviewees strongly endorsed the concept of an administrative internship as a means of bridging theory and practice (2-4-5, 2-4-6). The internship was seen as a potentially effective vehicle to inform practitioners, who might serve as supervisors, of current developments in administrative theory while at the same time providing practical experience for interns (2-4-7, 2-4-9). The superintendents interviewed expected that just as school boards have in the past supported various outreach programmes which required release time for staff, they would also support the internship programme (2-4-11).

The participants endorsed the provisions of Issue 2 regarding preparatory administrative experience as stated in the interview support material (2-4-19).

The provisions of Alternative 3 were not well received by the superintendents. First, they rejected the supposed public lack of confidence in educational administrators which seems to be implied by a certification scheme (2-4-29). Furthermore, they asserted that even if there were such a lack of confidence, that setting up artificial standards and restricting the right to practice would do nothing to

increase public confidence (2-4-30). The interviewees argued that
Alternative 3 did not provide meaningful criteria for certification and
that the only basic criterion which was endorsed by C.A.S.S. for those
aspiring to administrator's roles was a teaching certificate (2-4-26)
supplemented by the considered judgement of those responsible for hiring
for specific positions (2-4-24).

The superintendents indicated that Alternative 4 was in keeping
with the views of C.A.S.S. (2-4-20),.and particularly supported the
flexibility it afforded to local decision makers in trying to address
situational administrative needs (2-4-22). The guidelines associated
with Alternative 4 were seen to be appropriate (2-4-31).

The University of Alberta. The second interview provided an
interesting contrast with the first with this set of respondents in that
their comments regarding the nature of university Educational Admini-
stration programmes were noticeably more moderate than in the first
interview. Much of the content of Alternative 1 pertaining to
academically oriented programmes was derived from the comments of this
group but, in retrospect, the members acknowledged that they may have
overstated their case (2-5-41).

In the second interview, the comment was made that although
Alternative 1 would be efficient in the sense that it provided the
opportunity for the groups to perform functions for which they were
designed (2-5-1), the artificial separation of the study from the
practice of Educational Administration would lessen the potential for
effectiveness (2-5-2). Participants endorsed the inclusion of a measure
of skill development within the university programme (2-5-6) and thought

that apparent administrative potential should be included among programme admission criteria (2-5-5). The development of skills was seen as concentrated more appropriately at the master's than at the doctoral level, but the value of the theory-practice dialectic was acknowledged for both levels (2-5-38). Interviewees stated that university programme content should be selected so as address the learning needs of students in keeping with the variety of administrative roles they will hold upon leaving the programme (2-5-8, 2-5-9).

The interviewees stated that university Educational Administration programmes are better viewed as providing "development" than "preparation" opportunities for administrators inasmuch as the career patterns of students tend to combine formal learning activities with administrative experience (2-5-72). This pattern was viewed as being conducive to learning (2-5-11) and it was thought that room could be made in what was essentially an academically based programme for an administrative practicum or internship (2-5-12). Internships were provided for within the programme, having been promoted by Gordon Mowat (2-5-42) several years ago, and it was thought that a modern parallel to the recently developed teacher internship could be developed (2-5-69).

The interview participants noted that university degrees are not issued in acknowledgement of administrative prowess, but indicate levels of scholarship (2-5-40). This fact notwithstanding, they indicated that programmes such as the Administrative Development Program (A.D.P.) and the Outreach Program successfully integrated study and careers without sacrificing academic standards (2-5-10).

The emphasis of Alternative 2 on competency-based programmes was not favourably viewed, although it was acknowledged that at a super-ficial level of analysis such an approach appears efficient and effective (2-5-33). The Department did consider the potential of the competency-based approach a few years ago with Project A.S.K. (Adminis-trative Skills and Knowledge) but has reconsidered the appropriateness of the approach (2-5-34). Although some faculty members would favour some competency-based courses at the master's level, reaction of most would be unfavourable toward any major redesigning of courses (2-5-36). Interviewees emphasized that competency-based programmes teach skills which are often situation-bound and context-specific, and are hence subject to obsolescence (2-5-28). Raising the level of generalization of such competencies, it was noted, by definition, reduces their relevance and immediacy (2-5-30). They branded competency-based programmes as backward-looking in that they taught what practitioners have been doing (2-5-29), and condemned them as presenting a view of administration which was too instrumental, too technical, too much "doing" at the expense of analyzing and thinking (2-5-32).

The respondents indicated the desirability of ensuring continuity and coordination between formal university-based programmes and inservice professional development activities (2-5-15). This could be accomplished, in part, through the participation of university personnel in the planning and delivery of activities (2-5-15, 2-5-16) and through representation on committees that might be organized by stakeholder groups to coordinate inservice programmes (2-5-20). The interviewees confirmed the potential instructional value of short

training programmes (2-5-67) and also acknowledged the role of work related training which could be incorporated by jurisdictions into junior administrative roles (2-5-75).

The interview participants discussed the utility of two-way formal communication with other reference groups (2-5-7, 2-5-19), noting that at present no adequate forum exists (2-5-21). Programme advisory committees were seen as potentially useful, but the selection of representative members, and maintaining their continuing interest was problematic (2-5-22, 2-5-23). They suggested that reference to ad .hoc committees might be a more effective approach to improving communication (2-5-24) although there might still be a problem getting input from such groups as C.A.S.S. and the Council on School Administration (C.S.A.) which lack full-time staff officers.

The interviewees indicated general agreement with the statements of Issue.2 regarding preparatory professional experience, as noted in the interview support material (2-5-43), although they did express the thought that the administrative internship could not be considered to be equal to regular work experience (2-5-44).

The participants roundly criticized the rationale and content of Alternative 3, claiming that administrators' certificates would not ensure better quality leadership (2-5-43, 2-5-43). They asserted that rather than reflecting the accountability of the Minister for the quality of public education in Alberta, that Alternative 3 simply reflects his authority (2-5-57), and that its terms would represent a superficial attempt to create the appearance of accountability (2-5-58). They viewed the criteria of formal education and experience as

representing the prevailing employment standards in the province and so
saw no need for a more formal process which, in effect, would be a job
creation scheme for civil servants (2-5-46, 2-5-45, 2-5-47). The spirit
of Alternative 3 was not in keeping, they thought, with the rationale
underlying Alberta Education's Management and Finance Plan (M.F.P.) or
the proposed revision of the School Act (2-5-56). Although the inter-
viewees predicted that Alternative 3 would stimulate enrollments in
Educational Administration programmes (2-5-51), the implied benefits for
the universities would, they thought, be overshadowed by the drawbacks
implied by possible course overloads for faculty members (2-5-54) and
the risk of externally imposed controls on programme structure and
content (2-5-52, 2-5-55). The interviewees also disputed the appropri-
ateness of the limited nature of the "grandfathering" clause, arguing
that experienced administrators would have work records which would
serve as much more reliable indicators of competence than any
certificate (2-5-50).

The interview participants endorsed the approach taken by Alter-
native 4 (2-5-60) noting that it is much more appropriate to try to
improve the quality of educational administration by requiring school
jurisdictions to make rational decisions (2-5-64) regarding the
recruitment, selection, and induction of administrators, than to try to
effect improvement through formal study and certification (2-5-73).
Despite their interest in formal development programmes, the professors
pointed out that it is fallacious to think that all problems of practice
will be solved by training (2-5-65).

The respondents expressed their support for the concept of provincial funding for professional development activities but were not sure that the terms cited in Alternative 4 would be the most appropriate approach to funding (2-5-61, 2-5-62).

The University of Calgary. The senior faculty members who participated in the second round of interviews rejected the theory-practice split implied in Alternative 1, in which the university would address the former while leaving the latter to be dealt with by other agencies (2-6-2). They argued that theory should inform practice and that modern Educational Administration programmes endeavour to teach competencies within the academic context (2-6-6). The University of Calgary, they claimed, tried to address both conceptual and skill development (2-6-7) allowing graduates to gain credibility with boards, teachers, and the public (2-6-4). They noted that the theoretical base of their courses allows for the generalizability of content to a variety of administrative situations pertinent to their students (2-6-58).

Although sessional and inservice course instructors are often skilled practitioners, it was emphasized that instructors must meet the academic standards set by the Dean of Graduate Studies (2-6-35, 2-6-36). The influence of the Faculty of Graduate Studies regarding administrator development programmes was also referred to with regard to their stabilizing influence on programme content and organization. It was noted that approval for programme change or introduction must be secured from five different fora within the University before it can be implemented (2-6-30).

The interviewees indicated, with regard to the content of pre-paration programmes for educational administrators, some attention should be paid to curriculum and pedagogy (2-6-52).

They did not endorse the competency-based approach outlined in alternative 2, suggesting that such a programme would be akin to an apprenticeship which would replicate practice (2-6-5). They also indicated that because Educational Administration was both a field of study and a field of practice, that the thinking and writing skills traditionally associated with academic programmes should continue to figure among the criteria of success set by the university (2-6-33, 2-6-34).

The faculty members were favourably disposed to the inclusion of an administrative internship within the university programme (2-6-11). They cautioned that such an undertaking would be expensive (2-6-12), would require dialogue between the universities and jurisdictions (2-6-14), and that the supervising administrators would have to be carefully chosen with clear understanding reached regarding the goals of programme (2-6-15). The interviewees suggested that internships should expose students to new administrative situations (2-6-13) and that the programme should be optional, especially for those students with admini-strative experience (2-6-17). The justification for including the internship within the university programme was derived from the status attendant upon a formal "credit" university activity (2-6-18), and also the infrastructure which could be provided by the university in co-ordinating a field-based operation (2-6-19).

The interview participants noted the services offered by the University of Calgary for educators pursuing inservice professional development. They saw the university playing the role of "broker", bringing together people who want to learn with instructors who have the necessary time, knowledge, and skills (2-6-22). The university based its offerings on needs assessment surveys of teachers (2-6-20) and usually relied on exemplary practitioners to serve as instructors (2-6-21). Educators enrolled in such courses benefit from the coordinating services of the university, profit from the support services (record keeping, etc.) and because the inservice activity draws on official university courses, the teachers can claim credit for salary classification purposes (2-6-23).

The interviewees indicated that communication between the university and the field took place in a variety of ways including student-professor contact (2-6-9), discussions between the department heads and practitioners (2-6-10, 2-6-31), the inservice needs assessment survey (2-6-20), the contact of individual faculty members with jurisdictions (2-6-25), the secondment of practitioners (2-6-27) and some formal contact with other reference groups through the Faculty Council and the Practicum Policy Advisory Committee (2-6-29). All of these avenues notwithstanding, it was acknowledged that communication between the university and the field was sporadic and could benefit from improvement (2-6-28). The participants noted, however, that less formal avenues of communication can often be more efficient and effective than more cumbersome formal committees (2-6-32).

The faculty members found all aspects of Issue 2 regarding preparatory professional experience, as elaborated in the interview support material, to be acceptable (2-6-37). They did, however, suggest that teachers might lack confidence in the evaluation performed by an administrator with just two years of teaching experience (2-6-55).

The interviewees were quite positive in their support for a certification regime for educational administrators, claiming that certificates would guaranty a minimum standard of competence, and identify an appropriate pool of individuals from which boards could hire administrators (2-6-38). They saw certification as an effective means of enhancing the credibility and authority of administrators in their dealings with teachers (2-6-39). Although the participants acknowledged that certification would not ensure successful administrative practice, they felt that such a process would recognize learning and perhaps competence, providing a first level of screening (2-6-43). They believed that the certification criterion of Alternative 3 demanding successful teaching experience would indicate knowledge of the teaching process, the ability to relate to others in school settings, and probably sound moral character (2-6-44). The criterion demanding 24 credit hours of graduate work was seen to be meaningful in that it would indicate diligence, promptness, ability to communicate with other graduate students and the ability to get along with professors (2-6-45). The participants agreed that the fact that administrators are drawn from the ranks of teachers did provide something of a screening process, but felt that it was inadequate (2-6-46).

The respondents thought that a certification process similar to , that outlined in Alternative 3 would provide incentive to laggard administrators to upgrade their qualifications (2-6-42). To this end they recommended that no incumbent be given the benefit of "grandfathering" (2-6-56) and that certificates be issued on a term basis only, so as to compel administrators to engage in on-going professional development activities (2-6-41). Although supportive of the principles cited in Alternative 3 the interviewees stated that the terms should be made more rigorous with more than two years of preliminary teaching experience required, and a minimum of a master of education degree set for all administrators (2-6-47). They did not, however, think that the nature or content of university programmes should be defined in regulations, preferring instead to have the universities counsel students to make suitable course selections and employers to demand particular skills (2-6-53).

The faculty members saw the introduction of such regulations as being consistent with the political and educational environment in which rules were, from time to time, arbitrarily changed, and did not anticipate too much objection from administrators (2-6-57). They thought that the increased salary levels associated with higher levels of training and the prospect of increased professional mobility would induce administrators to acquiesce (2-6-50). The two year suggested lead-in time was seen as appropriate (2-6-50).

The University of Lethbridge. The three senior faculty members concurred that they preferred a modified form of Alternative 2 over the extreme academic approach of Alternative 1 (2-7-6, 2-7-7). They stated

that universities can teach skills if they are staffed by scholars who have also had successful experience as practitioners (2-7-4, 2-7-8), but cautioned that efforts to teach skills and competencies must not be allowed to degenerate to the level of a "recipe approach" to administration (2-7-7). Educational Administration programmes should, in their opinions, comprise courses which all foster the conceptual development of students (2-7-30), are scholarly in nature and informed by a study of the humanities (2-7-9). They believed, however, that an emphasis which were too academic would prompt administrators to seek development in other contexts (2-7-30).

The interviewees thought that admission criteria for Educational Administration programmes should consider the professional potential of applicants as well as their scholastic record (2-7-11), going so far as to admit on a provisional basis students who have shown administrative promise but whose undergraduate marks were low (2-7-12).

The faculty members thought that the content of courses should not be restricted to the context of education in Alberta (2-7-17) but would welcome suggestions from the provincial government regarding topics of importance to administrators with the understanding that the development of courses, methods, and final content selection would rest with the university (2-7-38, 2-7-16).

The interview participants endorsed the idea of a university-based internship programme for aspiring administrators (2-7-29) but noted that such an undertaking would require close liaison with other reference groups (2-7-20). They noted that if administrative experience were seen to be a prerequisite to appointment to a principalship, the

internship could serve to provide opportunities for such experience, thus adding to the pool of potential administrative candidates (2-7-21).

The interviewees indicated that although formal contact has been established between the Faculty of Education and various reference groups, communication does not address the development of programmes for educational administrators (2-7-15, 2-7-18, 2-7-19). They supported the establishment of an advisory committee representing the several stake-holder groups to offer advice on programme content (2-7-18) and to evaluate and provide feedback to the university regarding its programmes (2-7-29). They also noted that regular communication among the three Alberta universities would be useful in order to share programme information and expertise (2-7-22, 2-7-23), but cautioned that the differing approaches and traditions of the respective universities might reduce the potential impact of such consultation (2-7-25). Although supportive of increased contact, the interviewees insisted that final decisions on the content, form, and methodology of programmes must be made by the respective universities (2-7-16).

The interview participants did not accept the approach advocated in Alternative 1 which would have separate organisations dealing with preservice and inservice elements of administrator development (2-7-1), preferring instead to see a coordinated effort involving all reference groups.

All aspects of Issue 2 dealing with preparatory professional experience, as outlined in the interview support material, were found to be appropriate by the the interviewees (2-7-32).

The faculty members supported the logic which argued in favour of a common standard of qualification for administrators in all parts of Alberta (2-7-33), and consequently supported the principles underlying Alternative 3. They indicated that the possession of teaching certificates did nothing to ensure that administrators would be competent in such areas as personnel management, interpersonal communications, the analysis of teaching, evaluation, or instructional supervision (2-7-37, 2-7-36). This train of thought caused the interviewees to criticize the provisions of Alternative 3 which provided only general time requirements in university Educational Administrative programmes. They argued that because certain identifiable competencies are required of practitioners, there should be specific elements required in development programmes (2-7-35, 2-7-39).

The faculty members recommended that the inservice provisions of Alternative 4 be combined with the regulations of Alternative 3 (2-7-41, 2-7-44). They noted that although increased attention on inservice training is appropriate (2-7-45), the support for such activities varies greatly from jurisdiction to jurisdiction (2-7-43). Although they felt that inservice priorities should generally be set at the local level (2-7-40), the introduction of a provincial grant would provide leverage for monitoring activities by Alberta Education which would encourage activity in recalcitrant districts (2-7-46). Such a scheme would also encourage the implementation of inservice programmes which the province may, from time to time, mandate (2-7-48).

The interviewees agreed that administrators should be required to have preliminary professional experience in actual professional roles

or in internships (2-7-42). They also endorsed the "grandfathering"
provision stated in Alternative 3 (2-7-53). In general, the interview
participants thought that most incumbent administrators would be willing
to accept the terms of Alternative 3 in that the achievement of the
certification standards would afford higher salaries and improve their
professional mobility (2-7-54).

The faculty members acknowledged that Alternative 4 had good
points but was probably too nebulous and allowed too much local discre-
tion to effect definite change (2-7-60), especially in those rural
jurisdictions where the superintendent was politically vulnerable (2-7-
52). The $500 per administrator grant basis was seen as adequate for
large jurisdictions but it was thought that small jurisdictions should
receive minimum grants or possibly form consortia in order to support
effective professional development activities (2-7-55, 2-7-56).

CHAPTER VI

THE POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Details of the first four stages of the policy development process as outlined in Figure 1.3 were presented in Chapter IV: 1. the determination of goals; 2. the assessment of needs; 3. the specification of objectives; and 4. the design of alternative courses of action. THe next stage of the process (as modified for this study), reactions to the policy alternatives, was presented in Chapter V. As the purpose of this study was to generate policy recommendations which would contribute to the development and maintenance of an adequate pool of competent educational administrators for Alberta's basic education system, the present chapter represents the culmination of the application of the policy development model.

Stage six of the policy development model as described by Mayer and Greenwood (1980) was labelled "selection of courses of action" and was intended by the authors to represent the point at which decision makers choose policy alternatives. In the present context, however, this stage represents the recommendation of courses of action on the part of the researcher based on his review of the literature, the results of consultation with policy actors, and the application of policy analysis techniques.

The first section of this chapter provides an overview of the political and organisational aspects of the policy environment for which recommendations are developed. The legal authority of the Minister of Education to make policy decisions is reviewed and the general stance of

185

the several reference groups regarding policy changes affecting educational administrators and related university programmes is discussed.

The principles governing the content of the recommendations are detailed, with specific reference to the need to go beyond the promulgation of symbolic policies while at the same time being bound by the principle of parsimony. The criteria for judging the adequacy of the policy recommendations, potential effectiveness, acceptable efficiency, political feasibility, and ethical soundness are also explicated. The concluding paragraphs of the section dealing with the policy environment identify the principles of decentralization, partnership, and consultation espoused in recent Alberta Education publications and propose their appropriateness for application to the policy recommendations derived from the present study.

The focal point of this dissertation is the set of five policy recommendations with attendant discussion which make up the main part of this chapter. Of the five recommendations, the first three specifically address the issue of the education and training of educational administrators, while the fourth deals with the value and provision of opportunities for educational administrators to gain developmental professional experience. The fifth recommendation provides a policy-driven approach to recognizing the qualifications of applicants for administrative positions requiring jurisdictions to consider the formal educational background, preparatory professional experience, and the on-going professional development of administrators.

Overview of the Policy Environment

As was noted in Chapter III, the policy environment influences and is influenced by policy stakeholders and public policies. In making policy recommendations, therefore, the analyst should consider the social and organisational context. Although seven organisations have been identified in this study as stakeholders groups, one, Alberta Education (as the pertinent branch of the provincial government acting with the power of the Minister), has the legal authority to institute policy changes which impinge directly or indirectly upon the other groups. This legal authority is derived from Section 93 of the Constitution Act which states "that in and for each province the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to education"; Section 17 of the Alberta Act stating that the terms of the Constitution Act apply to the newly created Province of Alberta; and Section 3, 5, and 6 of the Department of Education Act which place educational matters under the administration of the Minister of Education and which authorize the Minister to establish boards, committees, or councils, to act in advisory or administrative capacities, and to make regulations "concerning the certification of teachers and the cancellation and suspension of certificates" (A.T.A. Handbook, 1984: 61-62). Even though the universities in Alberta are not subject to the direct influence of the Minister of Education, they are sensitive to the influence of the Minister of Advanced Education who, in executing a policy of the provincial government, would be expected to act in consort with his or her cabinet colleague.

It is not uncommon in a world with scarce resources for organisations to have to contend with competing, if not contradictory, goals. At the same time that Alberta Education is reducing the size of its staff and endeavours to decentralize educational decision making (Program Policy Manual, 1984:1), it is presented with the political challenge to introduce measures to issue special certificates to school principals and superintendents (Committee on Tolerance and Understanding, Discussion Paper #3, 1984:66), a measure which implies centralized decision making, increased bureaucratisation, and significant expense. When confronted by such dilemmas, policy makers are often tempted to promulgate "symbolic policies" which, according to Dye (1978:321), are formulated to give the appearance of political awareness, concern, and action even though their authors know that neither their implementation nor results are likely to be realised. Although ineffective in addressing substantive issues, symbolic policies often are able in the short-term to convince poorly informed members of the public that identified problems are being looked after.

Short-term political gains notwithstanding, reliance on symbolic policy is dysfunctional. The obvious flaw in the use of this device is that the problems supposedly addressed are not solved and inevitably resurface. Less obvious are the problems caused in those aspects of the policy system which are affected by the disruptions caused by diverting scarce resources from legitimate activities in order to effect the facade of the symbolic policy. Personnel, particularly dedicated professionals, soon become discouraged and disillusioned by what they perceive to be abuses of power and eventually, when the symbolic nature

of the policy is recognized by the public, they too become increasingly cynical and distrustful of the government.

As discussed above, the Minister of Education has the legal authority to mandate changes in certification for educational admini- strators. However, to pursue such a course without carefully considering its potential for improving the standard of administrative practice in schools and school systems, the capacity of agencies to develop more competent adminstrators, and the potential indirect effects on individuals and organisations concerned, would be tantamount to resorting to the promulgation of symbolic policy.

When considering the characteristics of the respective reference groups it is useful to examine the implications of the metavalues of maintenance, growth, efficiency, and effectiveness as posited by Hodgkinson (1978) and cited in Chapter II . The effects of these metavalues were discussed by Odynak (1963:28) who noted "there could be a displacement of goals so that there arises in the organization a preoccupation with keeping the bureaucratic apparatus intact at the expense of basic objectives". The same author also indicated that to the leadership of the respective organisations "stability and cohesiveness of structure and financial power are of pervading importance" (1963:11). In the present context, it is important to note that each of the seven reference groups has a set of leaders and members who have a sense of organisational identity and allegiance which influences their reactions to any suggested interaction with other groups or policy proposal. Their responses to such involvement or proposals will, therefore, not be based on a simple logical consider-

ation of the congruence between the proposal and the formal goals of the respective organisations, but will be influenced or perhaps overshadowed by the effects of the four metavalues identified above.

In the context of the present study, as stated in Chapters IV and V, senior members and leaders of the reference groups were most cooperative in arranging for and participating in the group interviews, thereby indicating the concern of their respective organisations regarding the policy issues under consideration. Each group interviewed communicated an interest in the policy goal and acknowledged that their organisations had a role to play in pursuing its realisation. Such goodwill notwithstanding, the researcher, in formulating the policy recommendations which follow, was cognizant of the organisational characteristics discussed in the preceding paragraph. He also bore in mind the impression conveyed by each of the reference groups that if it were not for the risk of precipitous, politically motivated action on the part of Alberta Education, most groups would place a low priority on effecting profound changes in the systems of educational administrator development, experience and recognition currently in effect in Alberta. The only strong statement made by an interviewee in favour of change was, "Clearly something has to be done to improve the quality of educational administration" (2-2-53), and even this statement was in juxtaposition with another in the interview indicating the limitations that the organisation of which the individual was representative had placed on committing resources to the Center for Educational Leadership in Alberta. In short, it appeared to the researcher that in the pursuit of the policy goal, the development of an adequate pool of competent

educational administrators for the basic education system in Alberta, that each group was willing to participate, but not to lead in the process. Each group was willing to cooperate, but was not prepared to commit much, if any, of its scarce human or financial resources to programmes which would compete with their current activities and priorities.

Any substantive change to current policies, regulations and procedures regarding the stated policy goal will not be realised without committed leadership, careful planning and adequate human and financial resources. In this context, Pressman and Wildavsky's observation cited in Chapter II, that policy implementation is often hindered by policy makers unrealistically looking for "large accomplishments from small resources in a short time" (1973: XVII) is well taken. Any meaningful policy action would profoundly affect each of the seven reference groups, cost significant amounts of money and influence the careers of thousands of incumbent and aspiring educational administators. The critical first decision to be made by the policy maker is, therefore, whether a problem of sufficient magnitude exists in the quality of the practice of educational administration in this province to warrant the level of policy action that would be required to effect significant change.

Among the factors arguing in favour of policy action are the recommendations of the Committee on Tolerance and Understanding, the comment quoted on the preceding page (242-53), and the indication from the individuals' representative of Alberta Education that a mood exists among the senior personnel of the Department which favours the intro-

duction of a certification programme for educational administrators (2-1-67). . Arguing against the need for policy action is the lack of empirical descriptive studies indicating that the public in Alberta is dissatisfied with the quality of the practice of educational administration, the indication that local surveys show that the public is supportive of their local schools (2-4-29), and the belief that the levels of formal education of educational administrators are already rising due to the voluntary actions of individuals and an increasingly competitive job market place (2-5-46), Furthermore, as revealed in Chapter III, the standards of formal education and experience demanded of educational administrators in Alberta are consistant with those demanded in most other provinces.

The policy recommendations which follow have been developed by the researcher in order to reflect the principle of parsimony. The recommendations represent the minimum level of policy action which would be required to effect substantial movement toward the accomplishment of the policy goal not possible with existing policies, regulations, and practices. It is the considered opinion of the researcher that if the policy makers are unwilling to commit the leadership and resources demanded by these recommendations, that no major changes in current policies should be effected.

Early in 1985, Alberta Education released the report of the Policy Advisory Committee regarding the principles which should be incorporated in the soon to be revised <u>School Act</u>. In discussing the major thrust of the report with reference to the role of the Province

with respect to the governance of education, the seven government members who made up the Committee stated:

'This paper reflects the concept of a new partnership in education, which is intended to lead to a more flexible system of education at the school board level, with some provision for provincial involvement or intervention in support of provincial policy and standards. Through more flexibility it is hoped local decision-making will be optimized.

The principles of flexibility and local decision making with provincial evaluation of the results are key ingredients of the Management and Finance Plan and the Secondary Program Review (Alberta Education, 1985: 15).

In detailing the implications of this approach, the same report stated:

Consistent with the principles of the Management and Finance Plan, a system of deregulation and a system of management based on policy, guidelines and procedures would be initiated to provide greater flexibility and accountability at the school board level (1985: 17).

Furthermore, the Policy Advisory Committee indicated, with reference to the role of school boards vis a vis school principals:

In cooperation with the Province, school boards should direct the training of principals ... and should adjust their hiring policies and practices to reflect the changing role for school principals (1985: 27).

In his review of the governance relationships pertaining to the management of education in Alberta, Ingram noted that:

Central to the [Management and Finance] Plan is an emphasis on partnership and cooperation between the local educational community and the Province in the management, administration and delivery of education. It was designed to be a policy-driven management system which places more emphasis on results than on inputs (1985: 20).

The policy recommendations which follow have been designed to be consistent with the nature of the policy environment as described in Chapter III, and as revealed by the interview process detailed in Chapter IV and V. The recommendations have also been developed in such a way as to reflect the values communicated by Alberta Education through

various policies and documents. The recommendations are stated so as to
address the goals and objectives developed in Chapter IV.

The Policy Recommendations

The first set of policy recommendations has been designed to
meet the requirements of the first goal and its three related
objectives:

Goal 1: the opportunity for formal professional development

Educational administrators will have the opportunity to
develop, through formal professional development programmes,
competencies germane to their profession.

Objectives related to Goal 1 (in summary form):

1. The seven reference groups will cooperate and consult in order
    to identify areas of competency, skill, and knowledge generally
    important to the successful practice of Educational
    Administration in Alberta. The groups will develop a model
    detailing the formal preparation roles to be played by the
    respective organisations. Consultation should begin in the
    winter of 1985 with implementation of the model set for the
    autumn of 1987.

2. Each university involved in the preparation of educational
    administrators will consult with the other reference groups in
    order to assess the appropriateness of their respective
    programmes. The assessment of input and the design of
    subsequent courses of action will be the responsibility of the
    respective universities. Consultation should begin in the
    autumn of 1986.

3. Each university will conduct a survey in parts of Alberta it
    presently or in the future might serve in order to assess the
    extent and nature of service required by educational admini-
    strators. The survey could be conducted in the autumn of 1986
    with results and conclusion forwarded to Alberta Education and
    the Department of Advanced Education in January, 1987.

The title associated with Goal 1 has been revised from that
which was originally stated in Chapter IV, with reference now being made
to "professional development" instead of "preparation". This change of
terminology was made so as to reflect the relationship of the admini-

stration component to the teaching component of the overall educational career. As noted in the data reported from the first round of interviews, educational administration is a profession entered from teaching as a preliminary career (1-4-53), and consequently, considering administration courses as preparatory fosters the misleading impression that the two aspects of the education career are not related. The change in terminology also emphasises the continuing nature of career-related learning. Intellectual and conceptual growth for administrators should not be restricted to a period preceding their appointment to an administrative role, but should extend throughout the career. Lastly, the term development allows one to consider intellectual growth as a worthwhile end, and removes the implication that such growth is worthwhile only to prepare an administrator for a more advanced position within an organisational hierarchy.

In keeping with the definition developed in Chapter IV, professional development in the present study, is considered to be activities carried out in a systematic manner using the educational or training resources of the individual student, the university, professional association, employers or others as appropriate to specific learning needs. This definition implies both discrete responsibilities for each class of organisation, as well as collaborative endeavours. The pages which follow detail recommendations which outline roles for the respective classes of organisation so as to address the realisation of Goal 1 and its related objectives.

Recommendation One. It is recommended that Alberta Education convene a meeting of leaders from the several organisations associated

with educational administration in Alberta. Such people would include a senior representative of Alberta Education, the Dean or Associate Dean of the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta, the Chairman of the Department of Educational Administration of the University of Alberta, the Dean or Associate Dean of the Faculty of Education of the University of Calgary, the Head at the Department of Educational Policy and Administrative Studies, and the Head of the Department of Teacher Education and Supervision of the University of Calgary, the Dean or Associate Dean of the Faculty of Education at the University of Lethbridge, the Coordinator of the Master of Education Programme at the University of Lethbridge, a representative of the Alberta Teachers' Association, a representative of the Council on School Administration, a representative of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents, a member of the executive and a senior member of the administrative staff of the Alberta School Trustees' Association. The purpose of the meeting would be to affirm the commitment of Alberta Education to improving the standard of practice of educational administration in Alberta through ensuring that systematic programmes of professional development for administrators are available, and to solicit and coordinate the cooperation of the reference groups in developing and delivering such programmes. The outcome of the meeting should be the establishment of a standing committee charged with the responsibility of developing a model for the provision of preservice and inservice professional development opportunities for educational administrators. The model should provide for career-long growth and should identify the respective roles of the participating organisations. The initial meeting could be held late in

1985 with a target date for implementation of the model set for September, 1987. The information in the discussion section which follows can serve to inform the activities of the proposed standing committee.

Discussion. The preceding recommendation was developed bearing in mind a number of principles, assumptions, and conclusions derived from earlier phases of this study including the needs assessment outlined in Chapter IV. The paragraphs which follow posit these elements as they pertain to the various reference groups and their roles.

The following considerations pertain to the universities and their programmes:

1. The universities are the primary agencies responsible for the preservice education of educational administrators. Although prospective administrators observe incumbents and often emulate their behaviour, and even though teachers gain informal practice in aspects of administration in their daily activities in schools, the formal learning opportunities afforded by university programmes are essential. University programmes should emphasize those aspects of administrator education which are theory based and conceptually oriented. The liberal education leading to the development of skills of rhetoric advocated by Gousha (1976), and the emphasis on the development of the skills of analysis posited by March (1974), noted in Chapter II, are appropriate to the present context. Several reference groups can be expected to endorse the importance of

the role of the universities in light of the comments of inter-
viewees (1-5-21, 1-7-16, 1-2-4, 1-3-37, 1-3-38, 1-5-26, 1-7-14,
1-1-16, 1-1-36, 1-6-8).

2. Educational Administration programmes should be informed by the
insights and perspectives of a variety academic disciplines. As
noted by Campbell (1981) the calibre of scholarship in the field
of Educational Administration was greatly enhanced by the rigour
of the behavioural sciences introduced after the 1950's.
Educational Administration is not, however, a behavioural
science itself, and should also draw upon the insights of the
humanities as was advocated by Culbertson (1969), Farquhar
(1980), Hodgkinson (1978) and Hills (1983). The incorporation
of a variety of perspectives was endorsed by several inter-
viewees (1-2-35, 1-4-19, 1-6-10, 1-6-13). Regardless of the
source of academic insights, Educational Administration
programmes should emphasize the unique educational point of view
(Allison, 1984) and not simply transfer concepts derived from
the value bases of other pursuits (2-4-16). Within the field of
education administrators should be exposed to areas of study
which complement their activities such as aspects of curriculum
and pedagogy (2-6-52, 2-4-15).

As Educational Administration draws insights from several
other disciplines and fields of study, programme designers
should carefully consider the means by which such content is
incorporated into the programme. Students could simply be
encouraged to register in regular graduate level courses offered

by other departments and faculties, but as pointed out by Campbell (1981), such an approach is often unsatisfactory as students see themselves as "outsiders", feel inadequate in areas in which they are not specialists, and are exposed to subject matter which is not viewed by the professors from the perspective of educational administrators. Special courses can be arranged in other department or faculties for groups of Educational Administrators but such arrangements require programme coordination, effective communication, and mutual commitment and cooperation between deans and other administrators, elements, according to Newcombe and Conrad (1981), not common in the university setting. The most appropriate means to expose students to the content of other disciplines and fields of study may be to arrange for faculty members from other departments and faculties to present courses within the context of the educational administration programme with the understanding that the content of their courses will be grounded in the field of educational administration.

3. In order to have the capability to accomplish their role in developing competencies among educational administrators, it is essential that departments of Educational Administration be staffed with adequate numbers of faculty members who themselves possess administrative competencies. This idea was strongly supported by interviewees in both sets of interviews (Chapter IV, section 3 j., Chapter V, university programmes sub-section, part VI). The obvious advantages of having instructors who

themselves possess germane competencies is that they will be
able to demonstrate those skills to students, can subsequently
assess the extent to which students have mastered the
behaviours, and can provide follow-up instruction, a pattern
recommended by Fullan (1982). A more subtle, but equally
important benefit is that faculty members who are competent and
experienced educational administrators are able to ground their
theories and generalizations in the practice of administration
(2-3-36) and create a useful dialectic between theory and
practice (2-5-58).

As the universities may lack sufficient faculty members with
the desirable competencies, consideration should be given to
replacing such individuals as they retire or resign with
individuals who possess both the requisite academic credentials
as well as proven ability in the field. Such individuals would
necessarily be drawn from well-paid administrative positions in
the field and, consequently, would require comparable
compensation in the university setting. Although such a course
of action may seem obvious, it is problematic in the current
university setting inasmuch as university administrators have
chosen, in the cause of fiscal restraint, to reduce the size of
the academic staff in some departments, or to replace senior
professors' positions with positions at junior levels. The
level of compensation associated with such positions would not
be attractive to practising administrators. Discussions between

the appropriate departments of government and the universities may be required to review this situation.

An alternative to the full-time employment of competent, experienced and academically qualified administrators is the secondment of such people on a sessional basis. As indicated in Chapter III, there are 62 practising administrators in Alberta's school jurisdictions who hold doctoral degrees, and another 923 who possess master's degrees. Although not all of these individuals would be suited for, or interested in, secondment to a university post, there is definitely a pool from which suitable candidates could be drawn. These figures do not include those qualified individuals employed by government, post-secondary institutions, or professional associations, who might also provide valuable service. Not only would exemplary administrators with academic qualifications do an effective job of teaching skill or competency oriented courses, their employment as instructors in such courses would be more cost-effective inasmuch as their salary costs as sessional instructors would be less than those commanded by full-time professors (Anderson and Kasl, 1982: 70). The increased use of seconded sessional instructors was endorsed by several inter-viewees (2-6-27, 2-2-12, 2-2-15, 2-3-10).

4. All respondents indicated that they preferred to see university programmes which strike a balance between the features of preliminary Alternative 1 and 2. Such programmes would be theory based and have academic significance but would also

contain some courses which were oriented toward the development of certain important skills of practice. Interviewees, as noted in Needs Statement 1 related to Goal 1 in Chapter IV, were unsatisfied with the effectiveness of university programmes in developing technical level skills among educational administrators. In order to reconcile these conflicting notions, it will be necessary for faculty members to review and possibly revise the structure and methodology of some of their courses so as to incorporate the instructional principles advocated by Joyce and Showers (Fullen, 1982) which have the capacity to effect behavioural change among students. The criteria for success applied to students within such courses should include the demonstration of competence, which comprises mastery of underlying concepts as well as the ability to perform the technical tasks involved (2-3-34).

As is explained in subsequent pages, other organisations have a responsibility to foster the improved performance of technical level skills by administrators. Nevertheless, the universities should address the development of such skills as they have the capacity to link the execution of the skills to theoretical bases (2-7-30, 2-6-6, 2-4-8), and can afford a safe context in which skills can be perfected (using simulations) without harming other people or jeopardizing students' career prospects.

5. Admission criteria for university Educational Administration programmes should consider the potential shown by applicants for administrative practice (2-1-3, 2-3-32, 2-5-5, 2-7-12). Such

potential may be indicated by recommendations from supervisors or colleagues, work evaluations, or assessment centre reports. Given the low correlation between undergraduates' course grades and success in practice (Miller and Taylor, 1984), it would be appropriate to admit on a probationary basis, some students to university programmes who show administrative promise but whose undergraduate grades may be below the standard set by the faculties of graduate studies (2-7-12). Such a provision notwithstanding, it should be borne in mind that graduates of Educational Administration programmes must meet academic standards, inasmuch as the university degree is an academic credential (2-5-40) and inability to succeed in a graduate programme would not auger well for the student's prospects for success in administration.

6. As indicated in the administrative internship subsection of Chapter IV, all reference groups acknowledged the feasibility and possible utility of some form of administrative internship. Such an internship should be available at all three universities and have the following characteristics.

a. The internship should be an integral part of graduate level programmes. The universities have the capacity to provide the infrastructure to organize, supervise, evaluate, and maintain records on such activities. In addition, the awarding of degree credits to students who engage in the programme would provide a formal status to the internship

which would elevate it above a set of individual relation-
ships.

b. The internship should be an elective component of master's
or doctoral level programmes selected by students in
consultation with their programme advisors. Individuals
with extensive backgrounds as administrators, or students
whose interest in the programme were purely academic would
not be expected to register for internships.

c. The basic relationship in arranging for the internship would
be between the universities and the cooperating host
agencies (school jurisdictions, post-secondary institutions,
government departments, or associations), and would require
extensive consultation on the part of the universities with
the trustees, boards, senior administrators and potential
supervising administrators.

d. Depending on the complexity and time commitment involved in
each internship placement, credit for between six and twelve
semester credit hours should be awarded to students. The
actual credit value should be determined by the student's
programme supervisors after the student has discussed the
assignment with his or her field supervisor and developed a
comprehensive learning plan for the assignment. Such a plan
would indicate the nature of the planned activities and
would state an anticipated time commitment for related
duties.

e. Universities would invite potential cooperating agencies in their service areas to participate in the programme and would ask trustees, boards, or senior administrators to nominate exemplary administrators to serve as internship supervisors. The universities would confirm the willingness of such individuals to participate and would request resumes which would allow the universities to place interns with suitable supervisors.

f. Under normal circumstances, the internship would take place near the conclusion of a student's academic programme so as to provide a setting within which he or she can apply aspects of theory or research skills to the administrative setting.

g. The nature of each internship would be tailored to suit the exigencies of the administrative context and the qualities, interests and skills of the intern. Given the variable credit value of each internship the assignment could include a combination research and administrative project. Normally, students would be expected to interact in a responsible administrative role with their supervisors and faculty advisors, and also with teachers, students, politicians and community members.

h. During the course of the internship, students should have regular supervision by their field supervisors, consultation with their faculty advisors, and, if possible, seminar

sessions with other interns to discuss their respective experiences.

i. The internship should be available to both full-time and part-time graduate students. For full-time students, internships would be arranged in the vicinity of the universities. Part-time students could, with the cooperation of their respective employers, be granted release time of up to one day per week to work on their internship assignments. Such assignments could be served within the students' home school districts or, ideally, in neighbouring districts with which reciprocal arrangements had been made. Sponsoring school districts would be expected to leave students on full salary and although such arrangements imply the additional cost to the district of some substitute teacher time, the benefits derived in terms of employing an additional potential administrator with field experience, make the costs worthwhile.

j. Most teachers do not have a full understanding of the administrator's role before assuming a formal leadership position. An advantage of the internship program is that it would afford teachers an opportunity to experience the roles of administrators without making a substantial and very public career change. Those who find that they did not want to pursue an administrative career after their internships could return to the classroom without losing face.

k. Although, as was suggested, the costs of supporting part-
time students in internships would be borne by employing
jurisdictions, (full-time students would not be compensated
for their internship as they would be substituting the
internship for part of their regular coursework for which
they are not normally paid), the sponsoring universities
would incur the additional costs of placing, supervising,
and evaluating students in the field. Faculty supervisors
should possess the competencies of administrators as well as
suitable academic qualifications. As noted above, such
individuals would command the salaries of senior professors,
and would also require some subsistence and travel funds.
In order to cover these costs, special project funds from
the provincial government should be made available to
participating universities. (Universities should be
discouraged from using graduate students on teaching
assistantships as faculty supervisors as such individuals
would lack academic credibility).

7. Although most inservice courses are of short duration, the
universities, especially if staffed by individuals who possess
administrative competencies, could play a useful role in the
planning and delivery of services. Courses using the expertise
of university personnel could be offered on-campus to teachers
and administrators of the urban areas, and could be offered off-
campus to groups of rural practitioners from cooperating
jurisdictions in a region. Regardless of the venue, the

universities should provide inservice courses in response to the

assessed needs of practitioners. As noted by the interviewees

from the University of Calgary, the universities can play a

useful role as "brokers", bringing together practitioners

wanting to develop skills with instructors who have the time,

interest, and ability to teach them (2-6-22). Inservice courses

offered by the universities also have the advantages of the

publicity capacity of the institutions, the record-keeping

infrastructure, the continuity of programmes, the prestige of

formalizing short courses as "credit" courses, and last, the

ability to offer inservice "credit" courses which school

contract personnel can use for salary credit purposes (2-6-23).

.The paragraphs which follow address the recommended roles of

jurisdictions in meeting the objectives of Goal 1.

-1. An important role to be played by jurisdictions in encouraging

the development of administrative competencies on the part of

their professional staffs is fostering the understanding of each

teacher of his or her role as an administrator within the

system. By virtue of the broad responsibilities typically

ascribed to teachers in the course of providing comprehensive

educational services to students, cooperative curriculum

development activities with other teachers, organizing field

trips or sports tournaments, soliciting the cooperation of

parents with a volunteer programme, or maintaining classroom

records, many tasks require teachers to serve as informal

administratators. In order to socialize more teachers into

administrative roles, jurisdictions could ensure that decision making procedures are structured so as to encourage subordinate staff members to share fully in the leadership functions within the system to the extent they are interested and competent (Lipham, 1981, 1-5-19). The introduction of appropriate measures to delegate responsibility to teachers within school systems would serve the dual function of increasing the involvement of teachers in informal administrative capacities and also inducing teachers to see themselves as potential candidates for formal leadership roles.

2. As the employing agencies, jurisdictions have the prerogative of granting release time and financial assistance to aspiring and incumbent educational administrators to pursue formal development opportunities. Although the individual education professional has some responsibility to upgrade his or her general level of formal education (2-1-73), in that many of the specifics at of administrative practice are context-bound the employer should bear the main cost of facilitating the development of particular technical level administrative skills (Boettinger, 1980). As noted in the preceding chapter, trustees find it difficult to justify to ratepayers expenditures for professional development activities (2-2-23). Such political problems notwithstanding, it is important that school board members understand the value of such support and act as advocates of professional development, not only to discourage the small minded carping of the few, but vocal, disgruntled

ratepayers, but also to create a climate within the organisation which is seen as being strongly in favour of staff upgrading their competencies. Such a climate would prompt educators to commit significant amounts of their personal time and financial resources to professional development.

3. In order to augment the pool of experienced candidates for administrative positions, it would be important for jurisdictions to cooperate with the universities in placing administrative interns, nominating intern supervisors, and providing release time for part-time graduate students in their employ to participate in the internship programme.

4. In order to enrich the professional growth of individual exemplary administrators, it would be appropriate for jurisdictions, upon request, to second such individuals to sessional instructor positions for periods up to nine months. Such action would benefit the administrator by stimulating added reflection on aspects of administrative practice, expose him or her to new ideas in the university setting, create a temporary administrative position within the jurisdiction which would afford a subordinate an opportunity to gain valuable experience, would add to the prestige of the jurisdiction (2-2-16), and last, would not cost the jurisdiction additional money as the university would be liable to compensate the jurisdiction for the administrator's salary and benefits.

5. Although jurisdictions could play a valuable role in consulting with their administrators to identify areas of priority in

professional development, and sponsoring, as individual districts or in collaboration with neighbouring districts, short courses designed to foster specific technical level skills, it is inappropriate to place the onus for systematic, ongoing programmes on the jurisdictions. Only the largest and wealthiest districts would be able to plan and deliver effective, comprehensive programmes, thus not addressing the issue on a province-wide basis. Furthermore, there would be a tendency of jurisdiction sponsored programmes to take an inappropriately instrumental and technical approach to administration to the detriment of the conceptual and theoretical development of the administrators (1-5-25). Musella (1983:102) wrote "the board of education must assume responsibility for the training of its administrators prior to and after selection." He went on to distinguish training from education, stating that the former focused on specific outcomes and changes, whereas the latter connotes a higher level of abstraction suggesting general development from a variety of experiences.

The paragraphs which follow address the recommended roles of the Alberta School Trustees' Association in meeting the objectives of Goal 1.

1. An important role for the A.S.T.A. in fostering the improvement of the standard of practice of educational administration through formal professional development opportunities is to advise school boards regarding the development of jurisdiction policies designed to effect the roles discussed in the preceding

section. Issuing policy development guide material, holding workshops for trustees, and direct consultation on the part of qualified staff officers, would all be appropriate activities.

2. It was noted in the first round of interviews that school boards are among the primary clients of university departments of Educational Administration but are not consulted regarding the nature and content of programmes (1-2-40, 1-2-37). As direct consultation with the scores of school boards in each region of Alberta may not be feasible to the universities, the A.S.T.A. could communicate on behalf of school boards, an aggregated set of perceived needs regarding administrator development programmes.

3. In the complex world of interorganisational relationships, certain organisations are seen to have legitimate roles to play and are expected to avoid others. This concept prompted the comment in Chapter IV that "the role of the A.S.T.A. is to provide guidance and support but not to be directly involved in the provision of training (1-7-19). As was noted by an interviewee in the second round of interviews, the lack of systematic, coordinated formal development opportunities, coupled with the awareness of the A.S.T.A. of the vital need for competent educational administrators caused the A.S.T.A. to try to fill a vacuum (2-4-13) through the creation of the Center for Educational Leadership in Alberta (C.E.L.A.) and the Alberta Academy for Educational Leadership (A.A.E.L.). The need for such services was acknowledged by several interviewees (1-6-9,

1-6-16, 1-2-32, 1-1-30, 1-1-31, 1-2-44), however, C.A.S.S.,
A.T.A. and some university interviewees expressed reservations
about the strong "management" point of view which an A.S.T.A.
sponsored programme might advocate and were also concerned about
the weak influence of non - A.S.T.A. representatives in 'the
governance of C.E.L.A. (1-4-27, 1-7-19). From political and
professional points of view it would appear that training and
educational programmes for educational administrators are more
acceptable if sponsored and conducted by universities or the
professional organisations. Participation by jurisdictions or
the A.S.T.A. is more appropriately limited to the provision of
financial and political support. Off the formal interview
record, some interviewees indicated that some of their mistrust
of the motives behind the A.S.T.A.'s initiatives in providing
training for educational administrators, particularly
principals, was prompted by the resolution which from time to
time appears on A.S.T.A. convention agendas calling for the
removal of principals from the A.T.A. bargaining unit. These
interviewees saw the A.S.T.A. as using C.E.L.A. and A.A.E.L. as
devices to inculcate "management" biases and to co-opt admini-
strators to weaken their affiliation with their professional
organisations.

Although Alberta Education may be prepared to fund C.E.L.A.
more generously in future (2-1-69), the reluctance of the
A.S.T.A. to commit substantial resources (2-2-24), the passive
response of the universities (2-4-13), and the political

concerns of other groups, raise doubts that either C.E.L.A. or A.A.E.L. will serve as vehicles for providing comprehensive programmes for the formal professional development of educational administrators. This conclusion notwithstanding, it should be noted that one endeavour, initiated under the auspices of C.E.L.A., the establishment of an Assessment Center, does fall within the range of activity seen as legitimate for the A.S.T.A. The Assessment Centre, following the model developed in the United States by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, has been shown to have predictive validity in identifying the leadership potential of aspiring principals (Schmitt et al., 1982), and could play a useful role in assisting jurisdictions to select promising candidates for administrative positions. The Assessment Centre reports may also be useful to individual administrators in helping them plan their professional development priorities, Although it might be argued that as a diagnostic device, the Assessment Center should be operated by the universities, the lack of province-wide scope of operation of any one of the universities, coupled with the fact that the primary use of the Assessment reports will be as aids for employee selection, militate in favour of the A.S.T.A. - C.E.L.A. sponsorship of the Assessment Centre.

The paragraphs which follow address the roles of the Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.) in meeting the objectives of Recommendation 1:

1. As the professional association representing all school-level and some central office educational administrators, the A.T.A. provides support and the infrastructure for the administrators' specialist council, the Council on School Administration (C.S.A.). To the extent that the C.S.A. is able to sponsor short courses which develop among administrators specific technical level skills, and organizes conferences which introduce administrators to evolving and new concepts, it warrants the continued support of the A.T.A. Functions promoted by the C.S.A. with the help of its parent organization also provide fora in which administrators can informally interact and develop support networks, an important factor in promoting professional growth (Fullan, 1982).

2. A role of the A.T.A. which is legitimate and important, but which is also politically sensitive, is fostering that aspect of the socialization of administrators which increases their awareness of their professional relationship and responsibility to their teacher colleagues working under their supervision. As was pointed out during the second round of interviews (2-3-68), administrators are required to protect the rights and serve the interests of several constituencies, students, teachers, the school board, superordinates, support staff and community groups. Balancing these several interests while leading the school in pursuit of conflicting and ambiguous goals (Allison, 1983; Goodlad, 1984) is intellectually and politically demanding. In order to reinforce the awareness of the admini-

strator of his or her duty to colleagues, the A.T.A. should

maintain contact and association with administrators.

3. It would be appropriate for the A.T.A. to encourage its

administrator members to accept, as part of their professional

responsibility, nomination as supervisors of administrative

interns, should such a programme be initiated by the

universities.

4. As educational administrators depend on the work of teachers in

order to implement most educational plans, it is important that

during their professional development, administrators become

sensitive to the perspectives of their professional colleagues.

This can be accomplished in part by ensuring that the A.T.A.

consults with the universities regarding the content of formal

development programmes.

The paragraphs which follow address the roles of the Conference

of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.) in meeting the objectives

of Recommendation 1:

1. The practice of C.A.S.S. in sponsoring an annual convention on a

province-wide basis affords its members an opportunity to

associate with colleagues and establish a sense of identity as

educational administrators. Zone meetings also promote similar

results, and the short courses and seminars sponsored by the

C.A.S.S. zone associations have the potential to introduce new

administrative concepts and to develop specific skills.

2. It would be appropriate for C.A.S.S. to encourage its members to

participate as supervisors of intern administrators, should such

a programme be organized, and also to encourage qualified members to accept secondment to university teaching positions in Educational Administration programmes.

3. As many members of C.A.S.S. are influential leaders within their jurisdictions, C.A.S.S. should encourage its members to foster positive attitudes among trustees toward administrator professional development activities, and to promote the placing of a high priority on budgeting adequate financial resources for formal development programmes.

4. It may be appropriate, as part of an approach to promoting the induction of teachers into administrative service, for C.A.S.S. through short courses, to encourage its members to delegate certain leadership tasks to subordinate professionals so as to provide informal opportunities to engage in administrative functions.

5. As the voice of most of the senior educational administrators in Alberta, it would be appropriate for C.A.S.S. to nominate representatives to any advisory committees addressing the form and content of university Educational Administration programmmes.

The paragraphs which follow discuss the roles which may be played by Alberta Education in advancing the objectives related to Recommendation 1:

1. Of the seven reference groups consulted with regard to the issues involved with the present study, only Alberta Education, representing the government, has a formal mandate to serve the

interests of the general population of the province rather than.

to protect the interests of a particular primary group

(teachers, superintendents, school boards, or university

institutions). Suspicion of partisan political motivation or

bureaucratic ambition notwithstanding, only Alberta Education

has the ability to initiate province-wide programmes to promote

formal professional development among educational administrators

without provoking inter-group rivalry, lack of cooperation and

programme sabotage. In the present policy context, therefore,

any substantial changes or improvements related to formal

development opportunities for educational administrators must be

initiated and supported by Alberta Education.

Apart from the exigencies of the political policy context

discussed above, certain characteristics of political and

organisational systems also militate in favour of initiatives

being taken by the government department. Almond and Powell

(1978: 262) wrote that "without the direction of politically

motivated ministers, bureaucracies tend toward inertia and

conservatism." This tenet applies not only to departments of

government but also to the bureaucracies associated with other

organisations and institutions; and when one adds the

implications of Michell's "iron rule of oligarchy" (Kelly, 1980:

94), the policy system reflects not only inertia and

conservatism, but also the attributes of entropy, with each

organisation within the system pursuing self-interested ends

which are apparently unrelated to the overall welfare of the system.

In that implementation of administrative internship programmes, possible increased university outreach activities (as discussed below), more coordination and cooperation among reference groups, and increased support for professional development activities for educational administrators (as discussed below) all require the commitment of funds, and, in some cases, funds from the Department of Advanced Education, the committed support of the Minister of Education both within the Department and within cabinet, is essential.

2. In addition to the political leadership required to initiate changes and secure adequate funding for programmes, Alberta Education would also have to appoint a project officer to coordinate the efforts of the diverse cooperating groups and to provide the necessary follow-up identified by Newcombe and Conrad (1981) as being essential to the implementation of government-mandated change in post-secondary institutions. In order to legitimate the authority of the project officer, he or she should have a degree of status within the organisational hierarchy (associate director or higher), and be known among the several reference groups. Should the staff commitments of Alberta Education be such that no suitable person is available to undertake the responsibilities, the secondment of a qualified person could be considered. However, caution should be taken to ensure that such a person, who would necessarily be drawn from

220

one of the six other reference groups, were acceptable to each
as an "honest-broker".

Recommendation Two. It is recommended that each university
offering programmes for the preparation of educational administrators
undertake formal reviews of the form, content and effectiveness of its
programmes. Such reviews should be based on the premise that a major
part of their mandate is to develop administrators for the basic
education system in Alberta. The reviews should involve consultation
with the A.T.A., C.A.S.S., A.S.T.A., and Alberta Education. Reviews and
consultation should begin in the autumn of 1986 and present conclusions
and recommendations for the autumn of 1987.

Discussion. In Chapter IV, in the subsection dealing with
"needs related to Goal 1: the opportunity for formal preparation",
statements were cited reflecting the concern of interviewees from
virtually all reference groups about the appropriateness and effective-
ness of aspects of the universities' Educational Administration
programmes. The existence of these several concerns suggests the need
for the universities to conduct thorough reviews of their respective
programmes. Such a need is not new, having been identified by
Culbertson et al. (1969: 367) regarding North American Educational
Administration programmes, and Seaton (1978) with specific reference to
the University of Alberta and the University of Calgary.

The present recommendation refers to the need for reviews based
on the premise that a major part of the departments' mandate is to
develop administrators for Alberta's basic education system. The
rationale for this stipulation is that because of the academic context

in which the departments function, it is quite possible for evaluations to be conducted with reference to criteria unrelated to the development role (e.g. articles published by faculty members, research contracts secured, etc.). Although such factors may be related to the development of practitioners, they are not direct indicators of effectiveness in this regard. The recommendation also suggests consultations with the four reference groups associated with the practice of educational administration in Alberta. These groups may be seen as representing the clients, the practitioners themselves and the agencies which employ them, of the university programmes. If the university departments are going to continue to enjoy their present level of public financial support, or if they aspire to receive increased resources, they must satisfy the expectations of these clients. By involving the client groups in the programme reviews, university departments will get useful feedback from experts in the field of practice regarding the utility and appropriateness of all aspects of their programmes. The exercise will also communicate to the clients the awareness of the departments of their responsibility to the field, reassurance that has been lacking, and that would increase the confidence of the clients in the departments. Finally, by soliciting input from client groups, and subsequently providing feedback to them, the university departments will have a channel of communication by which to modify the expectations the client groups have of the departments, expectations which may be naive or unrealistic.

It is not the intent of Recommendation 2 to imply that because the university departments provide a service to the field they are the

servants of, or are accountable to the other reference groups. The departments, as part of the academic community, do have responsibilities to conduct research and to encourage faculty members to publish scholarly works. Nevertheless, historically, departments of Educational Administration were formed primarily to provide for the professional development of educational administrators (Campbell, 1981; Swift, 1970), and, as noted in Chapter II, the needs of practitioners for well-designed and delivered development programmes is increasingly important. The relative autonomy of faculties to make final decisions regarding the form, content, and methods of programmes should be respected. However, the fact that Educational Administration is neither a pure science nor an esoteric discipline but is an applied field of study, necessitates regular and meaningful feedback from practitioners and client-groups. To this end it is appropriate for the departments to solicit input from the field, consider carefully its implications, and incorporate these implications in their programme designs.

Recommendation Three. It is recommended that each university offering Educational Administration programmes conduct a survey in its respective region of Alberta in order to determine the extent and nature of professional development programmes wanted by practising and aspiring administrators. Each university, after consultation with the other two institutions, would then develop a programme proposal indicating how it plans to address the identified needs. The survey results and proposals would then be reviewed by Alberta Education and the Department of Advanced Education in order to determine the level of special project funding that would be required to provide services. The survey could be

conducted in the spring of 1986 with a view to providing budget support for augmented programmes in the 1987-1988 provincial budget year.

Discussion. It was noted by several interviewees that Alberta's universities have not been quick to respond to requests for service which required modification of programmes, distance delivery of courses, or adjustments to traditional graduation requirements (1-2-30, 1-2-41, 1-1-37, 1-1-39). In light of the variety of offerings described in Chapter III, such criticism may be somewhat overstated. Nevertheless, as indicated in Table 3.12 substantial numbers of this province's practising educational administrators chose to pursue their highest degrees at universities outside of Alberta (31 percent of bachelor's degrees, eight percent of professional diplomas, 46 present of master's degrees, and 69 percent of doctorates). It may be argued that much of this extra-province study was prompted by a desire on the part of those who completed junior degrees in Alberta institutions to pursue subsequent studies in other venues. However, the numbers studying outside Alberta are large and suggest that the effects of consultation among clients and universities to improve the quality of administrative practice through the redesign of university programmes, will be limited. A further indication that a gap exists between the demand for services and the willingness or ability of Alberta's universities to comply is found in the operation of United States universities within this province. A telephone interview with the Dean of Education of Gonzaga University, Dr. Jean Wardian, indicated that the Spokane-based institution during the 1984-1985 academic year offered courses in four Alberta locations. She reported that approximately 20 students were

enrolled in master's programmes in Administration and Curriculum in each of Lloydminster/Cold Lake, Lethbridge, and Calgary, and that 12 students were enrolled in a professional diploma programme in Medicine Hat.

Although Gonzaga University is accredited by the Northwest Association, many American universities offer Educational Administration programmes which are of marginal or low quality, a state lamented by Deans of Education of University Council of Educational Administration (U.C.E.A.) institutions (U.C.E.A. Review, 1985: 1).

It is not the purpose of this recommendation to restrict the attendance of Alberta's educational administrators to this province's universities; however, it does seem appropriate to expect that reasonable access to university services will be available in Alberta. In order to determine the demand for service and to develop plans to meet that demand, the surveys are proposed. The surveys may suggest the need for expanded outreach programmes which are expensive to deliver, but which need not imply a lowering of academic standards (2-5-10), or may imply the need for institutions singly, or as part of a consortium, to experiment with distance education technology. Regardless of the form of expanded or innovative programmes, requests for additional special project funding from the provincial government may be expected.

Goal 2: the opportunity for appropriate experience

Individuals aspiring to particular educational administrative roles will have the opportunity to acquire appropriate preliminary experience.

Many of the objectives stated in Chapter IV have been transferred directly to the present chapter. However, in keeping with the evolving nature of the policy development process used in this

study, some changes in objectives were justified in light of insights gained by the author as a result of interaction during the second round of interviews. With reference to the objectives originally stated for Goal 2, the author has chosen to modify them so as to preclude the prescriptive action implied by provincial regulation or the requirement for the development of local policies. The rationale for such modification is that regulations or policy guidelines in this area would necessarily impact upon the prerogatives of local jurisdictions with regard to decision making procedures, intraorganisational relationships, and personnel practices. The modified objective statement cited below, leads to the less intrusive course of action indicated in Recommendation Four.

The modified objective statement for Goal 2 follows:

1. Alberta Education will make jurisdictions aware of the benefits associated with employing educational administrators who have gained appropriate preparatory professional experience. Communication regarding the roles of jurisdictions in fostering the career development of aspiring and incumbent educational administrators could be issued by Alberta Education in the autumn of 1986.

Recommendation Four. It is recommended that Alberta Education commission the production of a monograph outlining the benefits to be derived from the recruitment, selection, and employment of educational administrators with suitable preliminary professional work experience, and suggesting approaches which might be taken by jurisdictions of various sizes to provide staff members with developmental administrative challenges.

Discussion. As was noted in Chapter V, all interviewees concurred that educational administration is an aspect of a professional

career which should be embarked upon after successful teaching experience in a range of instructional settings, and, to the extent possible, after success in progressively more challenging informal administrative roles (2-1-28, 2-3-40, 2-4-19, 2-5-43, 2-6-37, 2-7-32). Although experience in increasingly responsible formal administrative roles was generally viewed as being desirable, many interviewees preferred that a formal "career ladder" approach not be mandated (1-3-51, 1-3-52, 1-3-50, 1-7-46, 1-5-47). This developmental perspective notwithstanding, few Alberta jurisdictions have in place any formal policies or procedures which would promote such professional growth.

The proposed monograph would reflect the premise implied in Recommendation One which viewed the development of educational administrators as being a shared responsibility of the universities, the jurisdictions, the profession, and the individual professionals. It would elaborate on the recommended roles of the jurisdictions stated in the previous section and would draw on career related literature, such as Musella (1983) and Anderson et al. (1982).

Goal 3: establishing qualifications

Individuals who apply for particular educational administration positions will be able to establish that they are qualified.

·Objectives related to Goal 3 include:

1. Alberta Education will communicate to school jurisdictions criteria to be considered when educational administrators are to be recruited, selected, and appointed. Such communication could be issued in the autumn of 1986 with provisions to be applied as of April 1, 1987.

2. Alberta Education will require local jurisdictions to develop policy statements related to the evaluation of school and school system administrators. The guidelines for such policies should require clearly defined role statements and provide for the on-

going professional development of educational administrators. Time periods would correspond to those indicated in objective one.

Recommendation Five. It is recommended that Alberta Education require all school jurisdictions to develop local policies intended to promote a consistently high standard of educational administration at the school and school system levels. The demand for such policies would be in the form used in the Program Policy Manual (Alberta Education, 1984), and would address the issues of the induction, recruitment, selection, evaluation, and professional development of educational administrators. The policy requirement could be stated in the autumn of 1986 with local policies to be implemented effective April 1, 1987.

Discussion. Recommendation Five is intended to correspond, in large part, with the form and content of Preliminary Policy Alternative Four as detailed in Appendix 2. The paragraphs which follow elaborate on the rationale underlying the proposed background, policy statements, and guidelines which would direct the local policy development activity.

1. Background. The background section comprises three statements:

   i.   School and school system level administrators are employed
        by and are accountable to local jurisdictions.
   ii. Each educational administration position demands a unique
        set of competencies.
   iii. The development of competencies among administrators is a
        career-long process which requires the interaction of the
        mastery of theory and practice.

The first of the background statements emphasizes that the contractual and political responsibility for employing and supervising educational administrators rests with local school boards and their officers. The rationale for delegating such responsibilities to local jurisdictions, apart from the political and economic advantages of

providing accountability for the raising of local taxes, is that, first, local decision making can take into consideration the various educational values which prevail in a community; and, second, school district units provide organisational units of a size which are amenable to political control. Although not explicitly stated, such assumptions appear to underlie the principles espoused by such Alberta Education publications as the Program Policy Manual (1984) and Partners In Education (1985).

Because each school jurisdiction operates using a unique set of values and is influenced by the personal characteristics of politicians, professionals, students, and community members, each educational administration role demands a particular set of competencies in order to ensure successful practice. This feature is noted by the second background statement. That each role is unique does not imply that there are not competencies commonly required by all educational administrators. Such competencies have been documented in Chapter II and identified as skills and concepts in Chapter IV. However, these elements must be applied situationally and demand particular skills on the part of each administrator and the application of careful selection procedures on the part of each employer.

Placing the onus on local jurisdictions to hire and supervise educational administrators does not allow complete discretion inasmuch as such individuals must be chosen from the ranks of certified teachers. In recent years, this requirement implies that candidates for positions will have completed at least four years of university training, will have successfully completed a teaching practicum under the scrutiny of a

trusted professional, would have successfully competed for a teaching position (which, in recent years, implies having superior academic credentials as well as the ability to appear competent in an interview situation involving one or more administrators), and finally, would have compiled a record as a classroom teacher which inspires the confidence of a selection panel often comprising both administrators and trustees. This minimal process involved in gaining access to an administrative role therefore implies the use of four levels of screening before an individual acquires even a relatively low level of formal administrative responsibility.

In directly controlling the criteria of certification for teachers, setting the requirements for systematic evaluation of teachers, supporting the professional career development of teachers (including development of the educational administration specialisation), and requiring local jurisdictions to develop and implement rational policies with respect to the induction, selection, evaluation, and ongoing development of educational administrators, the Minister of Education would fulfill both the political and legal mandate with regard to the standard of educational administration practice, to provide high quality educational services to all students in Alberta.

A number of interviewees argued that a policy-driven approach, similar to that being advocated in the present study, would be inadequate as a screening device for educational administrators, and insisted that a special certification programme should be instituted (2-1-53, 2-6-38, 2-6-45, 2-7-37). Such an approach would reflect the regulations imposed by society on other fields of professional practice,

for example, areas of medical specialty for which requirements are specified regarding specialized training and licensing. This approach is based on the notion of "logic of confidence" which, according to Meyer and Rowan (Scott, 1983: 40), endeavours to socialize professionals through rigorous training and internship in the use of a standard technology, certifies their ability to practice, and then trusts them to function as independent practitioners. It should be noted, however, that application of this logic to the practice of educational admini-stration is inappropriate due to the different organisational contexts and nature of practice. Whereas medical specialists typically function independently, educational administrators operate within a complex organisational hierarchy and are answerable to and evaluated by other professionals as well as by trustees. Medical specialists may enter practice directly upon being licensed whereas educational administrators must go through the screening process of job applications and interviews. Last, medical specialists need to display after training, competence in applying a well-defined, if complex, technology. Educational administrators, as leaders of situation-bound, complex human service organisations, have no clearly defined technology of practice in which, in an examination or internship situation, they can convincingly demonstrate their competence so that observers could assume that their competence could be transfered to other administrative contexts. It is, therefore, inappropriate to apply the socially sanctioned procedures used in some areas of professional practice to the regulation of educational administration.

The final background statement recognizes that universities
alone, through preservice programmes are incapable of turning out
educational professionals as "finished products" (Anderson et al.,
1982). The intent of the statement is to reinforce the notion that
professional development needs to include both preservice and inservice
education and training coupled with critically analysed practice. This
concept is complementary to the principles underlying Recommendations
One and Four.

2. Policy statement. In light of insights gained subsequent to the
development of the preliminary policy alternatives, the following
modified policy statement is proposed:

> In order to establish and maintain a consistently high standard of
> administration in Alberta's schools and school systems, each juris-
> diction will develop policies which provide for appropriate
> induction, recruitment, selection, evaluation, and professional
> development procedures for educational administrators. Alberta
> Education provides support to jurisdiction for educational admini-
> strator inservice activities that contribute to higher quality
> education for students by improving administrator performance.

In keeping with the emphasis on career development cited in
previous recommendations, the policy statement has been modified to
include reference to the induction of teachers into the educational
administration specialization.

3. Guidelines. The purposes of specifying guidelines to be followed by
jurisdictions in developing local policies are first, to set the general
directions and parameters which are acceptable to the senior level of
government, and second, to specify elements which the policy maker wants
the junior level of government to include or exclude from the local
policy. In keeping with the delegative relationship which prevails
between the provincial government and the elected school boards, the

author has phrased the guidelines to at·once ensure that the policy issues of concern at the provincial level are addressed, while respecting the benefits to be derived from optimizing the scope of local decision making.

   i.   The primary responsibility for the induction, recruitment, selection, and evaluation of educational administrators rests with each jurisdiction.

The intent of this guideline is to confirm that it is the locally elected board of trustees which is politically accountable for these aspects of its operation.

   ii.   As successful administrative practice is based on the exercise of a wide range of competencies by educational administrators, and as competencies are developed, at least in part, in the context of university programmes, the recruitment and selection policies of school jurisdictions should emphasize the value of formal academic preparation for educational administration.

The Committee on Tolerance and Understanding (Government of Alberta, 1984: 65.) wrote that "new standards and procedures should·be put into place to ensure that principals have the necessary skills to perform their duties" and recommended that all principals "be required to fulfill certification requirements recognizing their academic competency to fulfill their .responsibilities." Similar sentiments were expressed by interviewees representative of the University of Calgary and the University of Lethbridge in the context of the present study (2-6-43, 2-6-45, 2-7-34, 2-7-39). The assumption underlying these expressions of support for certification based largely on success in academic programmes is that the challenge posed to students, and the criteria of success within university programmes is analogous to the roles and expectations found in the world of the practitioner. As was discussed in Chapter II, however, the characteristics of most university

programmes are quite unlike the role demands of the educational admini-
strator (Manasse, 1984), therefore weakening the argument for an
.academically-based certification scheme.

Although university programmes do not reflect the demands of
educational administration practice, they can profoundly influence the
·conceptual development of aspiring and incumbent administrators. This
development, related to the topics traditionally dealt with in
Educational Administration, can greatly enrich the individual student's
understanding of education, schools, and society, but it must be clearly
understood that schools and school systems are human and political
organisations. They comprise people being led by people, and at any
particular instant represent the interaction of several different
actors. Effective leadership is provided by administrators applying
appropriate concepts, not by the intrinsic worth of the concepts
themselves. It is, therefore, appropriate to encourage ·jurisdictions to
develop policies which value the formal education of candidates for
administrative positions without placing undue emphasis on any
particular academic credential.

iii. As administrative competencies are, in part, developed through
direct work experience, the recruitment and selection policies
of school jurisdictions should also emphasize the value of
relevant professional experience.

As was documented in Chapters IV and V, interviewees endorsed
the notion that educational administrators definitely should have
experienced success at a variety of levels and types of teaching
assignments. They also supported the idea that in most cases it is
desirable for administrators' careers to develop through successful
experience at progressively higher levels of responsibility. Many,

however, felt that it was important to provide for particularistic consideration of the competencies brought by individuals to specific administrative roles, thus rejecting a formal "career ladder" approach. In keeping with these points of view, Recommendation Five requires jurisdictions to develop policies which respect the value of preparatory professional experience but allows each jurisdiction the latitude to be flexible or prescriptive as may be appropriate according to their respective circumstances. Small, remote jurisdictions which typically receive few applications for administrative jobs, and which may accept applicants with relatively little previous experience may develop general policy statements. Other jurisdictions where strong competition exists among applicants for positions, and which may have established a formal staff development programme, may prefer to write policy statements which cite several experience criteria for the selection of educational administrators.

The rationale for this guideline is to cause jurisdictions to consider, in a rational fashion, how best to judge the adequacy of applicants' professional experience for various levels of administrative roles. Such premeditation will lessen the likelihood of ad hoc decisions being made on the basis of a pleasant job interview, a concern expressed by some interviewees (2-1-39, 2-7-37). Decisions regarding such matters of consequence as the selection of educational administrators should be constrained by thoughtful consideration of the several factors involved (Partlow, 1982; Musella, 1983). The policy development process herein required would afford the opportunity for

relatively detached, logical treatment of pertinent issues and would

place appropriate constraints on subsequent employment decisions.

> iv. As educational administration is a special area of practice
> which teachers may enter in the process of their career
> ·development, school jurisdictions should develop policies which
> provide for the induction of promising candidates to this area.
> Policy statements should address the jurisdiction's approach to
> fostering career growth, and should also state the means by
> which women or other under-represented groups will be encouraged
> to prepare themselves for formal administrative roles.

This guideline was developed subsequent to the second round of

interviews in keeping with the emphasis in this study on encouraging

career development programmes in jurisdictions (as per Recommendation

Four). No policy action was recommended in the context of Recommend-

ation Four· in that the author thought that the content of the suggested

monograph may have been too prescriptive and inappropriate for some

jurisdictions. Nevertheless, policy requirements are apt in the

present, more open-ended context.

Renihan (1984) indicated that, particularly in rural areas of

Saskatchewan, teachers were becoming increasingly reluctant to assume

administrative roles, thereby raising the possibility of declining

numbers of competent applicants, with attendant declines in the standard

of educational administrative practice. Although no similar study is

available for Alberta, similar demographic and professional

circumstances imply similar problems for rural Alberta. It is, there-

fore, important that all jurisdictions in this province actively

encourage promising individuals to consider developing competencies

which will qualify them for formal administrative roles.

Guideline iv requires jurisdictions to pay special attention to

the induction of women and members of other under-represented groups

into the ranks of educational administrators. Although only one of the seven reference groups involved in the present study alluded, in the context of the interviews, to the implications of the policies under consideration for the status of women in the teaching profession (2-3-82), the author considers the matter significant from two points of view. First, there is no doubt that women are under-represented in educational administration. Nixon reported that in 1982-1983 only 13 percent of school principals in Canada were female (1982: 5), notwithstanding the fact that females constituted the majority of teachers. It is also noteworthy that of the 19 senior educators nominated to participate in the interviews only one was female. Such under-representation suggest social and professional discrimination against women which should be corrected through the form of affirmative action encouraged by Guideline 4. The second reason for encouraging more women and minority members is that undoubtedly there are many potentially effective administrators among them who could make positive contributions to education in this province. Such talent should not be wasted.

It should be noted that the form of affirmative action advocated by this guideline is at the level of induction and preparation for educational administration, not at the selection stage. Although under-represented groups should be encouraged to develop competencies and qualifications which will allow them to compete for specific jobs, the main criterion of selection must be the choice of the best qualified individual available, regardless of sex, race, etc.

v. From time to time Alberta Education may suggest elements of educational administrator training that should be addressed by grant applicants (local school jurisdictions and non-profit E.C.S. operators).

Changes in administrative practice are occasionally demanded by Alberta Education, for example, the introduction of the Management and Finance Plan, for which limited inservice training is required. Although professional development priorities should be determined locally in consultation with the administrators concerned, provision for limited intrusions by the provincial Department is appropriate.

vi. Local policies and guidelines should:
   a. Involve local educational administrators in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of administrators inservice activity.
   b. Focus on the development of competencies which will improve the administrative and instructional leadership skills of educational administrators.
   c. Accomodate the legitimate special- needs and interests of individual educational administrators.

The intent of part(a) of this guidelines is to emphasize the participative nature of the professional development process. Individual administrators should expect some input from colleagues, subordinates, and superordinates regarding areas of development, and occasionally general inservice activities may be prescribed by super- visors or Alberta Education, but by and large, programmes will be identified, planned, and executed by participants. Part(a) also requires the evaluation of inservice programmes. Such evaluation should not only address the reaction of participants immediately following inservice sessions, as is commonly done now after workshops and courses, but should also take a longer term perspective and gauge the effective- ness of the programme in fostering behavioural change in the work place,

as well as assessing the contribution made by the programme to the career development of the participants.

Part(b) of this guideline restricts the nature of inservice activities to those which relate directly to administrative or instructional leadership activities. Included in the latter category would be courses related to curriculum and pedagogy.

Part(c) reinforces the notion that although many activities may be arranged and conducted for groups of administrators within a jurisdiction, professional development for individuals is also a legitimate end.

vii. Alberta Education will provide a grant of up to $500 per individual administrator (assistant principal, principal, assistant superintendent, and superintendent) to jurisdictions which have developed local policies which are in keeping with this policy and guidelines.

A number of interviewees emphasized that in order to encourage local jurisdictions to implement policies directed at the augmentation of professional development activities, substantial financial incentives will have to be provided (2-7-56, 2-6-66, 2-6-63, 2-2-46, 2-2-52, 2-5-62). The most conscientious jurisdictions and educational administrators already place a high priority on professional development. However, it is not these groups and individuals who cause concern and prompt the need for policy action at the provincial level. It is those who have lacked the awareness, the will to act, or the resources to undertake a systematic programme of professional development who have called the quality of the practice of educational administration into question in Alberta. The proposed policy and guidelines would cause offending jurisdictions to develop suitable policies which would, in

turn, qualify them to receive funds which they must show were spent on

the professional development of administrators. Even those trustees who

are not sympathetic to inservice training for staff, are sensitive to

the costs and funding sources of programmes (2-2-22), and when convinced

by administrators that inservice activities may be staged without

affecting the local requisition, will likely acquiesce to requests for

programmes.

With 2837 educational administrators in Alberta, the $500 grants

could cost $1,418,500 annually, a substantial sum, but not overly large

in comparison to the total amount spent on basic education annually

($1.74 billion in 1983)(Committee on Tolerance and Understanding,

Discussion Paper #3, 1984: 69). Such an expenditure would, in fact,

amount to only eight one hundredths of one percent of the total. If the

provincial government were reluctant to make an on-going commitment to

funding on the proposed basis, consideration should be given to

providing support on a five year project basis. A shorter period of

time is not recommended as at least five years would be required to

develop and implement local policies which will have had measurable

effects on career development, the quality of practice, and the

establishment of expectations of on-going inservice growth on the part

of trustees and administrators.

viii. Activities and expenditures qualifying for support include:
   a. Tuition or course fees associated with short courses of at
      least five days duration which address the development of
      specific administrative competencies or instructional
      leadership capabilities.
   b. Tuition or course fees (including texts and supplies)
      associated with courses from an Alberta university or
      university of like standing in the field of Educational

Administration or related area which will improve the administrative competencies or instructional leadership abilities of the administrators.

The intent of part(a) of this guideline is to encourage the participation of educational administrators in work role related courses of sufficient length to develop specific competencies, i.e. the acquisition of knowledge, the development of understanding, and the ability to apply that knowledge and understanding to the work setting.

Part(b) of this guideline is intended to encourage the enrolment by educational administrators in appropriate university courses which will promote education-related conceptual growth and which may increase the administrators' levels of competence.

xi. Activities not qualifying for support are:
   a. Costs associated with sabbaticals or extended study leaves.
   b. Attendance of individuals at conferences.
   c. Salaries for the administration of the inservice programme.

Part(a) of this guidelines prevents the use of the provincial grant money for the costs of sabbaticals or extended study leaves as too much of the grant due to a jurisdiction would be expended on too few individuals. Although it is not the intent of this policy that each administrator be entitled to an individual allocation of $500 each year, it is expected that the benefits derived from the grant will be generally distributed. Furthermore, some senior administrators have provisions for such leaves in their employment contracts. It is the purpose of this grant to increase professional development opportunities for administrators generally, not to assist school boards to meet their current financial obligations.

The tradition of administrators attending conferences sponsored by specialist councils, professional associations, or other

organisations is well established in Alberta, with varying levels of financial support accorded by jurisdictions to individual professionals (with such support being derived from local funds and the recently introduced provincial inservice grant for teachers). As noted in the preceding paragraph, it is the purpose of the proposed policy to increase professional development opportunities for educational administrators, not to underwrite the costs of existing endeavours.

A second purpose underlying part(b) of this guidelines is that it is intended to support the use of grant money for the types of activities cited in guideline eight. Although conferences may be somewhat effective in raising the level of awareness of administrators regarding important topics, they are typically inadequate in promoting lasting conceptual development or the development of behavioural change (Fullan, 1982: 263).

> x. All stakeholder groups associated with the development of competencies among educational administrators are encouraged to develop and deliver programmes which meet the criteria identified in guideline eight.

The intent of this guideline is to encourage all reference groups, universities, professional associations, jurisdictions and interest groups to become actively involved in promoting the professional development of educational administrators. This intent is supportive of the roles suggested for the several reference groups in Recommendation One.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Introduction

This final chapter offers a retrospective examination of the
extent to which the five recommendations satisfy the requirements of the
study's conceptual model and the several principles and criteria of
adequacy. The arguments against a formal programme of certification for
educational administrators are summarized, and a discussion of the
efficacy of the research methodology used in this study is presented.
The chapter concludes with the author's comments regarding three useful
applications of the concepts associated with policy paradigms as
developed by Mitchell (1984).

Fulfilling the Purpose of the Study.

With reference to the conceptual model (see Figure 1.2) which
guided this research project, the purpose of the study was to identify
alternative courses of action which dealt with the three issues of the
education, experience, and formal criteria of appointment of educational
administrators. These alternative courses of action were intended to
contribute to the realization of the main policy objective which was
"the development and maintenance of an adequate pool of competent
educational administrators." The policy alternatives recommended had to
satisfy four criteria of adequacy: 1. potential effectiveness; 2.
acceptable level of efficiency; 3. political feasibility, and; 4.
ethical soundness.

Recommendation One, that Alberta Education convene a forum within which reference groups could coordinate professional preparatory and development opportunities for educational administrators; Recommendation Two, that each of the three Alberta universities providing service to educational administrators conduct programme reviews involving consultation with client groups; and Recommendation Three that the three universities conduct surveys within their service areas to provide information upon which to base possible new service delivery initiatives, all relate to the education issue of the conceptual model's independent variable. Recommendation Four, the development of a monograph by Alberta Education for distribution to reference groups, especially jurisdictions, regarding the value of preliminary professional experience for educational administrators, detailing initiatives which jurisdictions might take in order to enhance the value of preliminary experience and provide career development opportunities for aspiring and incumbent administrators, addresses the experience issue of the independent variable. Last, Recommendation Five, outlines a policy-driven approach to recognizing the qualifications of applicants for administrative positions requiring jurisdictions to consider the formal educational background, preparatory professional experience, and on-going professional development of educational administrators, thus addressing all three issues of the independent variable.

Careful consideration of each recommendation by the author regarding the four criteria of adequacy cited above, suggested that each was acceptable. That the recommendations or the concepts underlying them were vetted through two rounds of interviews with senior members of

Alberta's educational community confirms their adequacy. Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that interviewees representative of Alberta Education, the University of Calgary, and the University of Lethbridge, did express doubts regarding the potential effectiveness of the precursor of Recommendation Five, prefering instead a system of certification for educational administrators.

Why Special Certification For Educational Administrators Should Not Be Introduced.

A main emphasis in the earlier pages of this chapter was the explanation of the rationale underlying the five policy recommendations. Although the certification of educational administrators was not recommended, because of the dichotomous range of opinions expressed by interviewees on this subject, the author felt compelled to state, in point form, why he chose to reject the certification alternative. The ideas of those interviewees who opposed certification are noted in Chapter V, in the section headed "Certification for administrators", items xxvii through xlv. However, because at a certain level of analysis, the logic of a special certification regime is appealing, the following negative arguments are presented:

1. The criteria of level of formal education and period of service normally used as a basis of certification are not valid indicators of administrative competence nor are they predictors of administrative success.

2. Objectively evaluated practice in the field, or as simulated in an assessment centre, is the only reliable indicator of competence and predictor of success.

3. The introduction of special certification would necessitate the development of an expensive bureaucratic support system, causing scarce resources to be spent on administration, rather than on the improvement of education in Alberta.

4. A special certification scheme would represent a step toward centralized decision making, a move contradictory to the spirit of the espoused philosophy of the government.

5. There is a risk that insufficient certificated applicants would be available for small, isolated or rural schools, necessitating the issuance of exemptions from the requirements by the central authority. This would add to the bureaucratic load, and indicate the system's failure to address the uneven standards of qualification that the regime was intended to correct.

6. Administrators are already certificated and are generally experienced teachers. Improvements to the teacher education programmes, the recent introduction of teacher evaluation policies, and the activities of the newly created Council on Alberta Teaching Standards (C.O.A.T.S.), have the potential for improving the effectiveness of preliminary screening of administrators.

7. The introduction of special certification for administrators might weaken the sense of collegiality between teachers and their supervisors, increasing the level of bureaucracy within schools.

8. A special certification programme could make it more difficult for competent educational administrators from other provinces to

gain employment in Alberta, reducing the pool of candidates from which jurisdictions could choose personnel.

9. The logic of special certification could lead to a wide range of certificates being required for various educational specialties, raising the risk of increasing proportions of scarce resources being committed to more bureaucracy and government infrastructure.

10. Compelling aspiring and incumbent administrators to register in university programmes against their will could have a deleterious effect on the university programmes and lower the quality of educational opportunities available to serious students.

11. The logic of standardization which underlies special certification, could militate toward increased emphasis in university programmes on the technical aspects of administration to the detriment of the conceptual. Such a shift would abuse the instructional strength of the universities, and would be inappropriate given the need for leaders who can interpret the changing social environment of education and who can suitably adapt their organisations.

12. A special certification programme for educational administrators implies the risk of increased government intervention in the curriculum and research of the universities which could ultimately restrict valued intellectual freedoms.

13. Even as symbolic policy intended to raise the level of confidence of the public in education (and politicians), special

certification schemes for educational administrators are ineffective. All American states have imposed such requirements, and the popular and scholarly literature still indicates a low level of public confidence in education in general.

The Efficacy of the Research Methodology.

Retrospective consideration of the methodology used in this study causes the researcher recommend it to others who might be involved in prospective policy analysis projects. The methodology is implied in Figure 1.3, showing the stages of the policy development process, and is based on communication with individuals associated with the policy issues. The purposes of such communication are, first, to allow the researcher to develop greater insights regarding the definition of the policy problem and the relationships among the germane issues, and, second, to allow the researcher to learn what the positions of the various stakeholder groups are regarding those issues (a factor with important implications for subsequent implementation plans).

The researcher in the present study chose to use interviews with groups of individuals who, on the basis of their rank and long association with the respective reference groups, were expected to present points of view characteristic of their organisations. The use of the group interview technique helped to impart some of the normative influence typical of the respective groups and consequently was seen to reduce the ideographic nature of responses, thus making them more useful to the researcher in helping him to gain insight into the political dimensions of the issues.

The use of interviews in the present study was appropriate in order to raise the level of validity of the data gathered. In dealing with complex issues involving several interactive groups, it was important to be able to raise questions, clarify points, and ask for the elaboration and extension of respondents' ideas. Such probing and adaptation of the basic interview guide questions by the researcher required that he have a relatively strong background knowledge of the subject matter in question. Such background knowledge was, in part, based on a thorough review of pertinent literature, but also drew upon the researcher's personal and professional experience. While this background knowledge was helpful to the researcher in facilitating the gathering of data through the interviews, it also required that he exercise restraint in participating in the discussions, biasing inappropriately the direction of the questions, or refuting what he perceived to be ill-informed comments by interviewees. The researcher is satisfied that such restraint was, in fact, practised as all of the interviewees who participated in the first round of interviews agreed to participate in the second – something they probably would not have done had the researcher been too intrusive in the interviews.

The use of a follow-up set of interviews as part of the data gathering process is recommended. In the present study, the second round of interviews, based on printed material derived from the initial round, afforded participants the opportunity to review some of their previously stated ideas in juxtaposition with those of other interviewees. This allowed them to reconsider and restate their respective positions. In addition, the second round of interviews

presented the researcher with an additional opportunity to clarify

concepts and refine his understanding of the issues affecting the study.

Paradigms and Policy Research.

In the review of policy-related literature in Chapter II, Guba's
opinions (1984) were cited regarding the significance and impact of the
analyst's selection of a guiding definition of policy for each study.
Such advice is valid but fails to provide the analyst with a theoretical
rationale to guide the choice of definition. In the context of the
present study, the author found that this deficiency was overcome to a
great degree by reference to Mitchell's description (1984) of the four
social science paradigms (structural, functional, exchange, and inter-
action), as applied to policy analysis. Insight into the implications
of each paradigm for the interpretation of the policy environment and
the various definitions of policy can be very useful in helping the
analyst consider the values, assumptions, and metaphors implicit in
policy definitions drawn from particular paradigms. Such insight
provides a basis from which the analyst can examine his or her personal
biases with regard to policy issues, and allows him or her to match the
nature of the policy environment and the definition to be chosen.

A second benefit derived from reference to policy paradigms is
the framework the paradigms provide to the analyst to aid his or her
understanding of comments made by interviewees. Although the policy
researcher normally selects, as data sources, individuals who are
knowledgeable in the subject being studied, such individuals may not
have previously developed reasoned positions and articulated them
clearly. This lack of explicit positions accounts for inconsistencies

in arguments and points of view. Through reference to the elements of the policy paradigms, as shown in Figure 2.1, the analyst is able to check the interviewee's statements for consistency and ask for clarification or explanation of unclear points. Such an exercise is possible and useful as individuals typically function at any given time in a manner consistent with only one paradigm.

In addition to assisting the analyst in selecting a suitable policy definition, and helping him or her to understand the points of view of informants, the analyst can refer to the policy paradigms of the respective decision makers and policy actors to infer the type and degree of policy change which is feasible in a particular context. In the present study, for example, the inclinations of some actors were toward policies which would have affected sudden and dramatic change, i.e. the introduction of certification requirements for educational administrators. Such policies might have been appropriate if the structural, functional, or exchange paradigmatic perspectives were held by all or most of the policy actors. However, because implementation of such policies would require communication with, and·the cooperation of, several different reference groups and a great many individuals, implying the lack of a unified organisational authority structure, uncertain objectives, and a varied and changing social environment, reference to the interaction paradigm held more promise for effective implementation. In short, reference to the implications of the four policy paradigms provided the theoretical background upon which the analyst based his recommendations. These recommendations urged a more incremental and consultative approach than would have been appropriate

had he only considered the great differences between the legal,

political, and financial power of the provincial government vis a vis

the other reference groups, and the dispositions of senior members of

Alberta Education.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

252

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alberta School Trustees' Association
   1984   Superintendent of Schools:. Alberta Issues/Canadian
           Legislation. Edmonton, Alberta: A.S.T.A.

Alberta Teachers' Association
   1984   Members Handbook. Edmonton, Alberta: A.T.A.

Allison, D.
   1983   "Toward an Improved Understanding of the Organisational Nature
           of Schools." Educational Administration Quarterly Vol. 19,
           No. 4.

Allison, D. and Renihan, P.
   1977   "From Classroom To Office." Education Canada Vol. 17, No. 1.

Almond, G. and Powell, G.
   1978   Comparative Politics. Boston: Little Brown.

Anderson, R., Dueck, K., and McIntosh, R.G.
   1982   "Planning Teacher Development From A Career Perspective."
           Report of a tri-university committee: University of
           Lethbridge, University of Calgary, University of Alberta.

Anderson, R. and Kasl, E.
   1982   The Costs and Financing of Adult Education and Training.
           Lexington, Massachusetts: D.C. Heath.

Bardes, B. and Dubnick, M.
   1980   "Motives and Methods in Policy Analysis" in Improving Policy
           Analysis. Nagel, S., ed. Beveraly Hills: Sage.

Bennis, W.
   1976   The Unconscious Conspiracy. New York: Amacom.

   1984   "The 4 Competencies of Leadership" Training and Development
           Journal, August, 1984.

Boettinger, H.
   1980   "Is Management Really An Art?" Paths Toward Personal
           Progress. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Bogdan, R. and Biklen, S.
   1982   Qualitative Research For Education: An Introduction To
           Theory and Methods. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Brubaker, D. and Nelson, R.
   1974   Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies. Berkeley,
           California: McCutchan.

Cameron, K. and Whetton, D.
    1983   Organisational Effectiveness: A Comparison of Multiple
            Models. New York: Academic Press.

Campbell, L.
    1969   "Expectations for Required Competencies of the Provincially
            Appointed School Superintendent." Edmonton: University of
            Alberta, unpublished M.Ed. dissertation.

Campbell, R.
    1981   "The Professorship in Educational Administration."
            Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 17, No. 1.

Culbertson, J.
    1969   Preparing Educational Leaders for the Seventies. Columbus,
            Ohio: University Council for Educational Administration.

Dexter, L.
    1970   Elite and Specialized interviewing. Evanston, Ill.:
            Northwestern University Press.

Downey, L.
    1976   The School Superintendency in Alberta--1976. Edmonton:
            Alberta Education.

Downey, L. and Greenfield, T.
    1961   Leadership Training for Educational Administrators. Edmonton:
            University of Alberta.

Dror, Y.
    1968   Public Policymaking Reexamined. San Francisco: Chandler.

Duignan, P.
    1980   "How School Superintendents Spend Their Working Time." The
            Canadian Administrator Vol. XIX, No. 5.

Dunn, W.
    1981   Public Policy Analysis. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-
            Hall.

Dye, T.
    1978   Understanding Public Policy. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:
            Prentice-Hall.

Edwards, G. and Sharkansky, I.
    1978   The Policy Predicament. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman.

Ferriera, J.
    1970   "The Administrative Internship and Role Change: A Study of
            the Relationship Between Interaction and Attitudes."
            Educational Administration Quarterly Vol. 6, No. 1, Winter,
            1970.

Floden, R. and Weiner, S.
   1978   "Rationality to Ritual: The Multiple Roles of Evaluation in
           Governmental Processes."   Policy Sciences No. 9.

Fullan, M.
   1982   The Meaning of Educational Change.   Toronto: Ontario
           Institute for the Study of Education.

Gemar, R.
   1979   "State of the Art -- There Are Programs Available."   Thrust
           Vol. 8, No. 4.

Goodlad, J.
   1984   A Place Called School. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gousha, R.
   1976   "Educational Administration and the Recovery of Rhetoric" in
           Training Educational Leaders.   Drachler, N., and Kaplan, G.,
           ed., Washington: George Washington University.

Government of Alberta
   1970   The School Act.   Edmonton, Alberta: Alberta Education.

   1984   Program Policy Manual.   Edmonton, Alberta: Alberta Education.

   1984   Public Education in Alberta: Report by the Committee on
           Tolerance and Understanding.   Edmonton, Alberta: Alberta
           Education.

   1985   Partners in Education.   Edmonton, Alberta: Alberta Education.

Greenfield, T.
   1980   "The Man Who Comes Back Through the Door in the Wall."
           Educational Administration Quarterly Vol. 16, No. 3.

Greenfield, W.
   1982   "Research on School Principals: An Analysis" in The Effective
           Principal.   Reston, Virginia: N.A.S.S.P.

Guba, E.
   1984   "The Effect of Definitions of Policy on the Nature and
           Outcomes of Policy Analysis."   Educational Leadership Vol. 42,
           No. 2.

Hasenfeld, Y.
   1983   Human Service Organizations.   Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:
           Prentice-Hall.

Hills, J.
   1983   "The Preparation of Educational Leaders: What's Needed and
           What's Next?" unpublished paper, U.C.E.A., Columbus, Ohio:
           E.R.I.C. 239386.

House, P.
  1982   The Art of Public Policy Analysis. Beverly Hills: Sage.

House, P., and Coleman, J.
  1980   "Realities of Public Policy Analysis" in Improving Policy
          Analysis. Nagel, S., ed., Beverly Hills: Sage.

Howsam, R. and Morphet, E.
  1958   "Certification of Educational Administrators." Journal of
          Teacher Education Vol. 9, No. 2.

Hoyle, J.
  1982   Critical Challenges for Leaders Who Anticipate and Manage the
          Future. Columbus, Ohio: University Council for Educational
          Administration.

  1982   Guidelines for the Preparation of School Administrators.
          Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School
          Administrators.

  1985   "Programs In Educational Administration and the A.A.S.A.
          Preparation Guidelines." Educational Administration Quarterly
          Vol. 21, No. 1.

Ingram, E.
  1985   Information Package: The Management of Education in Alberta.
          Unpublished document. Edmonton, Alberta.

Ingram, E. and Miklos, E.
  1977   Guidelines for the Employment of School Superintendents.
          Edmonton, Alberta: University of Alberta.

Kaplan, A.
  1964   The Conduct of Inquiry. San Francisco: Chandler.

Katz, R.
  1980   "Skills of an Effective Administrator." Paths Toward
          Personal Progress. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University
          Press.

Kelly, G.
  1984   "On The Way To The Principalship." Canadian School Executive
          Vol. 4., No. 4.

Kelly, J.
  1980   Organisational Behaviour. Georgetown, Ontario: Irwin-Dorsey.

son, L., Busson, R. and Vicars, W.
  1981   The Nature of A School Superintendent's Work, Final Technical
          Report. Carbondale, Illinois: Southern Illinois University.

Lipham, J.
   1981   Effective Principal, Effective School. Reston, Virginia:
           N.A.S.S.P.

Livingstone, J.
   1980   "Myth of the Well-Educated Manager." Paths Toward Personal
           Progress. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Mackett, M. and Steele, D.
   1982   Society and Education: Educational Management for the 1980's
           and Beyond. Columbus, Ohio: University Council for
           Educational Administration.

MacPhail-Wilcox, B.
   1983   "Effectiveness Research and School Administration."
           N.A.S.S.P. Bulletin Vol. 67, No. 465.

Manasse, L.
   1984   A Policymaker's Guide to Improving Conditions for A
           Principal's Effectiveness. Arlington, Virginia: National
           Association of State Boards of Education.

March, J.
   1974   "Analytical Skills and the University Training of Educational
           Administrators." Journal of Educational Administration Vol.
           XII, No. 1.

   1978   "American Public School Administration: A Short Analysis."
           School Review Vol. 86, No. 2.

Martin, W. and Willower, D.
   1981   "The Managerial Behaviour of High School Principals."
           Educational Administration Quarterly Vol. 17, No. 1.

Mayer, R. and Greenwood, E.
   1980   The Design of Social Policy Research. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:
           Prentice-Hall.

McLeary, L. and McIntyre, K.
   1972   "Competency Development and University Methodology."
           N.A.S.S.P. Bulletin Vol. 56, No. 362.

McRae, D.
   1980   "Policy Analysis Methods and Governmental Functions" in
           Improving Policy Analysis. Nagel, S., ed., Beverly Hills,
           California: Sage.

Meyer, J. and Rowan, B.
   1983   Organizational Environments. Meyer, J. and Scott, W. ed.,
           Beverly Hills, California: Sage.

Miklos, E.
   1980   "Some Thoughts on Reshaping A Field of Study." Unpublished
           conference paper, Edmonton, Alberta: University of Alberta.

   1983   "Evolution in Administrator Preparation Programs."
           Educational Administration Quarterly Vol. 19, No. 3.

Miller, P. and Taylor, G.
   1984   "The Theory-Practice Relationship in Teacher Education: Need
           There Be Any?" Alberta Journal of Educational Research Vol.
           30, No. 4.

Mintzberg, H.
   1976   "Planning On the Left Side and Managing On The Right."
           Harvard Business Review, July-August.

   1979   The Structuring of Organizations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:
           Prentice-Hall.

Mitchell, D.
   1984   "Educational Policy Analysis: The State of the Art."
           Educational Administration Quarterly Vol. 20, No. 3.

Mitchell, D. and Encarnation, D.
   1984   "Alternative State Policy Mechanisms for Influencing School
           Performance." Educational Researcher Vol. 13, No. 5.

Morris, V., Crowson, R., Hurwitz, E., and Porter-Gehre, C.
   1981   "The Urban Principal: Discretionary Decision Making In a
           Large Educational Organization." Encyclopedia of Educational
           Research, 1982 Edition. Vol. 1, New York: The Free Press.

Musella, D.
   1983.   Selecting School Administrators. Toronto: O.I.S.E.

Newcombe, J. and Conrad, C.
   1981   "A Theory of Mandated Academic Change." Journal of Higher
           Education Vol. 52, No. 6.

Nixon, M.
   1985   "Women In Administration: Is It Wishful Thinking?" The
           A.T.A. Magazine Vol. 65, No. 4.

Nixon, M. and Miklos, E.
   1979   "Admission Practices and Placement Patterns In Educational
           Administration Programmes." The Canadian Administrator Vol.
           18, No. 4.

Odynak, S.
   1963   The Alberta Teachers' Association As An Interest Group.
           Unpublished doctoral thesis. Edmonton, Alberta: University
           of Alberta.

Partlow, H., Turner, J. and Cummins, A.
    1980   The Supervisory Officer In Ontario.   Toronto: O.I.S.E.

Pitner, N. and Ogawa, R.
    1981   "Organisational Leadership: The Case of the School
            Superintendent." Educational Administration Quarterly Vol.
            17, No. 2.

Popkewich, T.
    1984   Paradigm and Ideology In Educational Research.   London:
            Falmer Press.

Pressman, J. and Wildavsky, A.
    1973   Implementation.   Berkeley, Cal.: University of California
            Press.

Proudfoot, A.
    1983   "From Downey to Now." Unpublished paper.   Calgary, Alberta:
            Conference of Alberta School Superintendents.

Quade, E.
    1975   Analysis for Public Decisions.   New York: American Elsevier.

Ratsoy, E.
    1983   "Assessing Effectiveness in Educational Organisations." The
            Canadian Administrator Vol. 23, No. 3.

Renihan, P.
    1984   The Saskatchewan Principalship Study.   Regina, Saskatchewan:
            Saskatchewan School Trustees Association.

Rothman, J., Erlich, J., and Teresa, J.
    1981   Changing Organisations and Community Programs.   Beverly Hills:
            Sage.

Sanders, C.
    1980   "Assessing the Inservice Training Needs of Principals."
            Unpublished M.Ed. thesis.   Edmonton, Alberta: University of
            Alberta.

Seaton, E.
    1978   "Selected Preparation Programme Needs For Educational
            Administrator in the Province of Alberta." Unpublished Ph.D.
            thesis, Calgary, Alberta: University of Calgary.

Schmitt, N., Merritt, R., Fitzgerald, M. and Noe, R.
    1982   "The N.A.S.S.P. Assessment Center: A Validity Report."
            N.A.S.S.P. Bulletin Vol. 66, No. 455.

Silver, P.
    1975   "Principals' Conceptual Ability." Educational Administration
            Quarterly Vol. 11, No. 3.

1980   "The Development of a Knowledge Base For the Practice of
        Educational Administration." Administrator's Notebook Vol.
        XXIX. No. 1.

Silver, P. and Moyle, C.
    1984   "The Impact of Intensive Inservice Programs on Educational
            Leaders and Their Organisations." Planning and Changing Vol.
            15, No. 1.

Smith, T.
    1973   "The Policy Implementation Process." Policy Sciences, No. 4.

Smyth, W.
    1983   "Educational Leadership and Staff Development." N.A.S.S.P.
            Bulletin Vol. 67, No. 461.

Stufflebeam, D.
    1977   "Needs Assessment In Evaluation." Unpublished paper. San
            Francisco: American Educational Research Association.

Swift, W.
    1970   Educational Administration In Canada. Toronto: Macmillan.

Thomas, R.
    1982   The Training and Certification of Principals and Supervisory
            Officers In Ontario. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education.

Turner, B.
    1981   "Some Practical Aspects of Qualitative Data Analysis: One Way
            of Organising the Cognitive Process Associated With the
            Generation of Grounded Theory." Quality and Quantity Vol. 15,
            No. 3.

Tymko, L.
    1984   "Assessment Center Program: Draft." Unpublished paper.
            Edmonton, Alberta: Alberta School Trustees' Association.

    1984   "Center for Educational Leadership In Alberta: Draft."
            Unpublished paper. Edmonton, Alberta: Alberta School
            Trustees' Association.

University Council for Educational Administration
    1985   "U.C.E.A. Deans Conference." U.C.E.A. Review Vol. XXVI, No.
            1.

University of Alberta
    1980   "Tasks of Alberta Principals." Project for the Development
            of Administrator Skills and Knowledge. Edmonton, Alberta:
            Department of Educational Administration.

    1984   Calendar. Edmonton, Alberta.

University of Calgary
  1984   Calendar. Lethbridge, Alberta.

Usdan, M.
  1976   "The Training Task: Broadening The Base" in Training
          Educational Leaders, A Search For Alternatives. Drachler, N.
          and Kaplan, G. ed., Washington: George Washington University.

Votruba, J.
  1981   "Strategies for Organisational Change." New Directions for
          Continuing Education, No. 9.

Weick, K.
  1976   "Educational Organizations As Loosely Coupled Systems."
          Administrative Science Quarterly Vol. 21, March.

Williams, T.
  1983   "Politics and Principals." Canadian School Executive Vol. 2,
          No. 7.

Willower, D. and Fraser, R.
  1980   "The Work of School Superintendents" Administrator's Notebook
          Vol. 28, No. 5.

Wynne, E.
  1981   "Looking At Good Schools." Phi Delta Kappan Vol. 62, No. 5.

Yukl, G.
  1982   "Managerial Leadership and the Effective Principal." The
          Effective Principal. Reston, Virginia: N.A.S.S.P.

Zeckhauser, R. and Schaeffer, E.
  1968   "Public Policy and Normative Economic Theory." In The Study
          of Policy Formation. Bauer, R. and Gergen, K., eds. New York:
          Free Press.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Interview #1

QUESTIONS RELATED TO GOALS DETERMINATION AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

1. What do you consider to be important areas of (a) conceptual development and (b) skill development for educational administrators?

2. What institutions or organisations should be involved in providing preservice learning opportunities for the education and training of educational administrators?

3. Is it appropriate in preservice training programmes to distinguish between the elements of knowledge and skills needed by those aspiring to different administrative roles (i.e. the assistant principalship, the principalship, a central office role, the superintendency)?

4. Do you consider any particular level of university Educational Administration programme, as presently available in Alberta (professional diploma, master's degree, post-graduate diploma or doctorate), to be providing for (a) the conceptual development, and (b) the skill development needed by aspiring educational administrators? Please elaborate.

EXPERIENCE

1. a. Is it desirable for aspiring educational administrators to have experience as teachers?

   b. If no, please explain why not.

   c. If yes, what criteria should be applied to identify the adequacy of such experience?

2. a. Should applicants for higher level administrative positions have administrative experience in subordinate roles?

   b. If no, please explain why not.

   c. If yes, what criteria should be applied to identify the adequacy of such experience?

CERTIFICATION

1. Does the role of the educational administrator influence the educational process sufficiently to warrant special regulation?

2. Is educational administration a function so different from teaching that a special set of regulations, credentials or certificates is warranted?

3. Should there be different regulations, credentials or certificates for the respective administrative roles (assistant principal, principal, assistant superintendent, and superintendent)?

4. Should the role of the province be essentially one of leadership or of control with regard to issues related to the training and experience criteria associated with the appointment of educational administrators?

603B Michener Park

Edmonton, Alberta

T6H 5A1

May 17, 1985

Dear   :

At this time I would like to express my gratitude to you for participating in the first round of interviews associated with my dissertation study, "Developing an Alternative Approach for Educational Administrator Preparation in Alberta". Your candid comments considered with those of your colleagues and those expressed by representatives of other response groups have been most helpful to me in identifying appropriate goals, needs, and objectives related to the issues in question. I am most pleased that you, along with each of the other interviewees, were kind enough to agree to participate in the second (final) round of group interviews, and respectfully submit the enclosed policy alternatives for your consideration and reaction.

Space, and I am sure, your valuable time, do not permit a full report of the results of the analysis of the first round of interviews, however, you may recall that the purpose of the first interviews was to identify suitable goals, needs, and objectives pertaining to the three issue areas of:

a.   the formal preparation of educational administrators;

b.   the professional experience of educational administrators; and

c.   approaches to recognising training and experience.

These goals, needs and objectives have been stated operationally in the forms of four policy alternatives which address specific goals.

The policy alternatives have been designed to address the following three goals:

a.   Educational administrators will have the opportunity to develop, through formal preparation programmes, competencies germane to their profession.

b.   Individuals aspiring to particular educational administration roles will have the opportunity to acquire appropriate preliminary professional experience.

c.   Individuals applying for particular educational administration roles will be able to establish that they are qualified.

Please read the pages which follow so that in the forthcoming group interview you will be able to address the following tasks:

a.   On the basis of your personal experience, please comment on the feasibility of each alternative, with regard to its apparent efficiency, potential for effectiveness and political acceptability.

b.   From the perspective of your organization which aspects of each policy alternative do you think would be regarded favourably, which aspects would be seen as unacceptable, and, finally, what would you anticipate would be the likely reaction of your organization should any of the alternatives be implemented?

Please bear in mind that the policy alternatives are in a preliminary form. While they are based on the content of the first round of interviews, they are more intended to stimulate discussion and to help to clarify concepts, than they are meant to represent final policy positions. In the context of the interview, please feel free to suggest modifications to the alternatives, to regroup certain concepts, or

indeed to suggest completely new ideas.

I look forward to meeting with you and your colleagues in early June and shall be in touch within the next few days to arrange a convenient time for the group interview. Again, thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Donald B. Duncan

Preliminary Policy Alternatives

Issue 1

The Formal Preparation of Educational Admininstrators

Analysis of the content of the first round of interviews revealed complete agreement that well-rounded conceptual development is essential to the successful practice of educational administration, and further, that it is in the context of the university that such development should be fostered. There is, as well, general agreement about the areas of conceptual development that might be considered to be important to educational administrators. The belief was generally expressed that the formal education of educational administrators could not be effectively pursued as a discrete pre-service activity but should be addressed both before and during the administrative career. Such consensus, however, does not seem to exist regarding the nature of university Educational Administration programmes per se. The two alternatives which follow reflect different views of the nature and role of the university Educational Administration programmes, and approaches to the formal preparation of educational administrators.

Alternative 1

"Academically-Based Educational Administrator Preparation Programmes"

Educational Administration is a field of study normally pursued by students after a first degree. As such, most courses offered in Educational Administration programmes are at the graduate level and therefore should be subject to all of the expectations, regulations, and standards set within the respective universities by the Faculty of Graduate Studies. Admission criteria and standards for students applying for entry to Educational Administration programmes should be set so as to predict success within the programmes and should not consider the potential the applicants might possess as practising administrators. Similarly, criteria for success within the programmes should be those which have traditionally prevailed in academic settings, with strong emphasis placed on research and writing skills.

Universities are essentially academic communities. Although universities have an important contribution to make to the intellectual development of educational administrators, they should concentrate on elements of knowledge and understanding. By and large, universities are neither effective nor efficient contexts in which to develop proficiencies in the execution of technical-level skills.

In order to provide for the acquisition and development of technical-level skills of practice, in-service training programmes would be organized and sponsored by a consortium of interest groups (such as the proposed Centre for Educational Leadership in Alberta), individual professional organizations (A.T.A., C.A.S.S., C.S.A.), or individual school jurisdictions or consortia thereof. In-service activity would centre around short courses which would:

1. Introduce skills, providing a rationale explaining why they are significant and appropriate;

2. Demonstrate and explain the practice of the skills;

3. Afford opportunities for the participants to practise the skills;

4. Provide feedback to participants regarding their performance and provide further practice and feedback;

5. Record the levels of proficiency of the practitioners, issue reports participants, and provide follow-up support as needed.

The costs of these increased in-service activities would be borne jointly by Alberta Education, school jurisdictions, and individual participants.

Alternative 2

"Competency-Based Educational Administrator Preparation Programmes"

Educational Administration is less a field of study than it is a field of practice. As such, the primary purpose of university based Educational Administration programmes is the preparation of competent administrators rather than the fostering of successful students and incipient scholars and researchers. Although predictors of academic success should be considered among criteria of admission to Educational

Administration programmes, consideration should also be given to predictors of success in professional practice.

The main focus of Educational Administration programmes should be the development of competencies that can contribute to the effective practice of administration. Competence implies mastery by the student of knowledge and understanding, related to significant topics. It also demands the ability to apply effectively, in real or simulated situations, that knowledge and understanding. With the development of competencies becoming the focus of Educational Administration programmes, the criteria traditionally used to judge graduate students' success will have to be shifted away from an emphasis on the traditional academic competencies of research and writing.

A move to competency-based university Educational Administration programmes has implications for the content, methodology and staffing of university departments. First, extensive and on-going consultation among the several stakeholder groups should be initiated on a systematic basis. Such consultation would apprise the universities of the competencies seen by those in the field as being important and would provide feedback to the universities regarding the apparent effectiveness of their programmes. Second, in order to increase the opportunities of students to practise their skills in real educational settings, administrative internships or practica could be implemented on an optional basis. The design and coordination of such internships could be facilitated through formal consultation among stakeholders.

A competency-based approach to educational administrator preparation implies the increased use of instructional methodology akin to that outlined in Alternative 1 for in-service programmes. It is envisioned that a substantial proportion of coursework may be addressed using a competency-based approach, however, it must be noted that a strength of the university setting is its ability to foster conceptual growth. This ability should be highlighted in all courses, those which lend themselves to being competency-based, as well as those which are more esoteric and theoretical.

In order to deliver Educational Administration programmes which are more competency-based, it will be necessary for universities to employ faculty members who themselves possess the competencies. This implies, perhaps, a degree of differentiation of staffing within university departments, with both accomplished practitioners and able researchers and scholars being hired. It may also imply the increased need for departments to engage, on a sessional or secondment basis, exemplary administrators to design or teach specific courses.

Although an increased emphasis on competency-based courses may heighten the performance levels of graduating students, it will not lessen the appropriateness of on-going inservice activities as outlined in Alternative I.

Issue 2

Preliminary Professional Experience

Analysis of the data from the first round of interviews revealed general agreement among the reference groups on the following points:

1. Educational administrators should have experience as teachers.

2. Such teaching experience should have been successful, should have been relatively broad (at several levels and subject areas), and should evidence examples of instructional, professional, and extra-curricular leadership.

3. No fixed period of experience was seen as generally appropriate, however, at least two years of successful teaching experience before assuming a formal administrative role was considered necessary.

4. Experience in junior administrative roles was seen as desirable for those aspiring to senior positions. However, most respondents opposed a formal lock-step career ladder forumla.

5. As was the case with teaching experience, preliminary administrative experience should have been successful, relatively broad, evidence instructional, professional, and extra-curricular leadership, and also demonstrate the administrator's ability to communicate effectively with the community.

As there was such general agreement on the desirability and nature of preliminary professional experience, no discrete policy alternatives in this area will be presented. It should, however, be noted that the administrative internship or practicum as noted above in Issue 1, Alternative 2, was seen by some respondents as an acceptable substitute for formal administrative experience. Attention is also paid to the question of preliminary professional experience in the section dealing with recognizing preparation and experience, immediately following.

Issue 3

Recognizing Preparation and Experience

Analysis of the data from the first round of interviews generated two distinct approaches regarding the recognition of the formal preparation and professional experience acquired by educational administrators. As the legal authority to deal with these matters rests at the provincial level, the policy alternatives are stated in forms used by Alberta Education. One approach, described below in Alternative 3, emphasizes the accountability of the Minister of Education regarding the licensing of professional educators, and sets out in the form typical of Alberta Education regulations, standards seen by some respondents as being at once responsible but not unduly restrictive. The second approach, outlined below in Alternative 4, devolves more responsibility to school jurisdictions and is stated in the form used by Alberta Education in the Program Policy Manual.

Alternative 3

"The Certification of Educational Administrators"

Background

As the Minister of Education is responsible for the provision of basic education in Alberta; and as the performance of educational administrators significantly affects the quality of educational service; and as educational administration involves a set of competencies that are dissimilar from those for which teachers are trained and certified; Alberta Education proposes to issue two

categories of certificates to educational administrators. One level of certificate will be issued to qualified school-level administrators (principals and assistant principals) and the second level of certificate will be issued to system-level administrators (superintendents and assistant superintendents with line authority over teachers). Each category of certificate may be issued on either an interim or permanent basis.

1. The School-level Administrator's Certificate.

    In order to qualify for an Interim School-level Administrator's Certificate, the applicant must;

    a. Have completed a minimum of two years of successful teaching as established by supervisors' evaluations and school jurisdiction records.

    b. Hold a valid permanent professional teaching certificate issued by a Canadian province, and hold or qualify for an Alberta professional teaching certificate.

    c. Have successfully completed at least 24 semester credit hours of senior level courses with a concentration in Educational Administration at an Alberta university or university of like standing.

2. The System-level Administrator's Certificate

    In order to qualify for an Interim System-level Administrator's Certificate, the applicant must;

    a. Have completed a minimum of two years of successful teaching experience as established by supervisors' evaluations and school jurisdiction records.

    b. Have completed a minimum of two years of successful administrative experience in a supervisory position as attested to by supervisors' reports and school jurisdiction records.

    c. Hold a valid permanent professional teaching certificate issued by a Canadian province, and hold or qualify for, an Alberta professional teaching certificate.

    d. Have successfully completed a Master's degree with a concentration in Educational Administration from an Alberta university or university of

like standing.

Upon application to the Registrar's Office of Alberta Education, the submission of suitable documentation, and the payment of an accreditation fee, the Minister may issue an interim school-level or system-level certificate which will be valid for a period of five years.

Upon the successful completion of two years of work in an administrative role in Alberta, as attested to in writing by supervisors, or in the case of superintendents, by the chairman of the employing school board, the administrator may apply to the Minister through the Office of the Registrar for a permanent administrator's certificate.

Possession of a System-level Administrator's Certificate also qualifies the holder to practise as a building-level administrator.

Incumbent administrators are not requried to possess Administrators Cerfificates as long as they retain their current positions. However, should they request a transfer to a similar position or be promoted to a more senior position, they will be required to hold an appropriate certificate. Nevertheless, it is recommended that all qualified administrators apply for certificates as soon as possible.

In order to allow aspiring administrators time to enrol in suitable university programmes, these regulations will not be implemented for two years following their adoption by the Minister.

Alternative 4
"A Policy-Driven Approach"

Background

The following characteristics pertain to educational administration in Alberta's schools and school jurisdictions.

1.   School and school-system level administrators are employed by and are

accountable to local jurisdictions.

2. Each educational administration position demands a unique set of competencies.

3. The development of competencies among administrators is a career-long process which requires the interaction of the mastery of theory and practice.

In recognition of these characteristics, and in order to encourage the continuing professional development of educational administrators through in-service learning activities, the policy which follows has been developed.

Policy

> In order to establish and maintain a consistently high standard of
> administration in Alberta's schools and school systems, each jurisdiction
> will develop policies which provide for appropriate recruitment and
> selection procedures, administrator evaluation, and professional
> development. Alberta Education provides support for educational
> administrator in-service activities that contribute to higher quality
> education for students by improving administrator performance.

Guidelines

1. The primary responsibility for the recruitment, selection and evaluation of educational administrators rests with each school jurisdiction.

2. As successful administrative practice is based on the exercise of a wide range of competencies by educational administrators, and as competencies are developed, at least in part, in the context of university programmes, the recruitment and selection policies of school jurisdictions should emphasise the value of formal preparation for educational administration.

3. As administrative competencies are, in part, also developed through direct work experience, the recruitment and selection policies of school jurisdictions should emphasise the value of relevant professional experience.

4. From time to time Alberta Education may suggest elements of educational administrator training that should be addressed by grant applicants (local school jurisdictions and non-profit E.C.S. operators).

5. Activities and expenditures qualifying for support include:

    a. Tuition or course fees associated with short courses of at least five days duration which address the development of specific administrative

competencies which have the potential to enhance the instructional leadership capabilities of the administrator.

b.* Tuition or course fees (including texts and supplies) associated with courses from an Alberta university or university of like standing in the field of Educational Administration· or related area which will improve the instructional leadership provided by the administrator.

6. Activities not qualifying for support are:

a. Costs associated with sabbaticals or extended study leaves.

b. Attendance of individuals at conferences.

c. Salaries for administration of the in-service programmes.

7. Alberta Education will provide a grant of up to $500 per individual administrator (assistant principal, principal, assistant superintendent and superintendent) to jurisdictions which have developed local policies and guidelines that are in keeping with this policy.

8. Local policies and guidelines should:

a. Involve local educational administrators in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of administrator in-service activities.

b. Focus on the development of competencies which will improve the administrative and instructional leadership skills of educational administrators.

c. Accomodate the legitimate special needs and interests of individual educational administrators.

9. All stakeholder groups associated with the development of the competencies of educational administrators are encouraged to develop and deliver programmes which meet the criteria identified in Guideline 5, above.

APPENDIX 3

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Summary of Chapter I

An overview of the dissertation was presented in Chapter 1. A
brief introduction to the nature of the study was followed by a
statement of purpose. The background to the study was described with
particular attention given to the political and organisational context
and the current regulations governing the appointment of educational
administrators in Alberta. The significance of the study was discussed
with particular emphasis on the potential effects of policy action on
the several reference groups and individuals associated with educational
administration in this province. The conceptual model which guided the
study as a whole, and the model of the policy development process which
provided the framework for the methodology of the policy analysis were
presented. The objectives and subobjectives for the study which
ultimately are satisfied by the policy recommendations stated in the
concluding chapter were cited, as were the delimitation, limitations,
assumptions and definitions applied to this research project. An
overview of the content of each chapter of the dissertation concluded
Chapter 1.

Summary of Chapter II

This chapter has presented a review of three broad areas of
literature: 1. that which is related to policy and policy analysis; 2.
that which dealt with the practice of educational administration; and 3.

that which pertained to the preparation and the professional development of educational administrators.

The policy literature revealed that although there is no one generally applicable definition of policy, the choice of a particular definition is important in that it profoundly influences the nature of the final product of the analysis process. To inform the choice of a suitable definition of policy for the present study, reference was made to the four paradigms and their attendant assumptions and values. The literature also recommended the reference by the analyst to the policy context so that a choice of policy definition would be made that suited the issues being analyzed. As a consequence of these considerations, the author chose to define policy in the present study in the manner of the interaction paradigm: "the concious attempt of officials, legislators, and interested publics to find constructive responses to the needs and pathologies which they perceive in their surrounding culture."

The review of policy literature also examined the meaning, methods and limitations of policy analysis as they impinge on this study. Policy analysis was defined and the roles of policy maker and policy analyst were distinguished. Some processes of policy analysis were cited with particular attention to the appropriateness of the techniques of assumptional analysis as represented in the policy development process used in this study. Criteria for assessing the adequacy of policy recommendations were identified.

The limitations of policy analysis were discussed with particular emphasis on the effects of political and professional biases

on the products of the analysis. It was also emphasized that policy analysis, unlike physical or behavioural sciences, does not lend itself to the universal application of a standard methodology or technology, but rather, requires the analyst to select or create analytic processes which are suited to the policy issues, environment and stakeholders in the particular situation under consideration.

The first section noted some of the techniques of analysis chosen for use in the present study, specifically the use of interviews as means of data gathering, and the use of data sorting procedures.

The final aspect of policy literature to be considered dealt with policy implementation and change. It was noted that consideration should be given by the analyst to the implications of implementation during the policy development process. Implementation was described as a complex process involving the interaction of many elements. Consequently, it was recommended that the multiple realities of the many actors and stakeholders be considered by the analyst in the development process--a factor which argues in favour of the selection, in this context, of the definition of policy from the interaction paradigm.

Reference was made to the important roles played by the many individuals responsible for policy implementation, and the analyst was cautioned to consider both the direct and indirect consequences of a policy. Mention was made of strategies which may be used to increase the likelihood of policy implementation with specific reference to approaches found to successfully induce change in post-secondary institutions. In conclusion, the observation was made that much of the "change" theory and techniques are, in fact, more geared to conservation

and preservation of value and power structures than they are directed toward effecting profound organizational change.

The second major area of literature which was reviewed addressed the practice of educational administration. The administrative behaviour of school uperintendents was examined through the writings of researchers, consultants, and academics. Five works were cited which dealt with the Alberta superintendency, establishing the skills and competencies seen as important to success, indicating the nature of the work and how superintendents spent their working time, outlining role expectations, and noting common problems associated with the role. An Ontario study was outlined which stated the personal qualities and competencies needed by supervisory officers, and which also listed the criteria most commonly used by school boards in hiring senior educational administrators.

Three studies conducted in the United States regarding school superintendents outlined time use, interaction patterns and job satisfaction. These studies also addressed the nature of the leadership role performed by superintendents, emphasizing the importance of information processing skills and abilities.

Regarding the administrative behaviour of school principals, studies were cited which identified the range of skills and knowledge required by successful principals. Observations were made which reflected that, in many respects, the roles of principals were similar to the roles of superintendents regarding skills, knowledge, and time use. A number of areas which were seen by principals as challenging or

problematic were identified, and the need for principals to function effectively in an increasingly complex political environment was noted.

Although educational administrators should always consider the implications of the unique nature of educational organizations, their behaviour can be informed by perspectives from other areas of administration. The third sub-section in this area dealt with the general characteristics of administrators, noting specifically the attributes and skills demonstrated by successful organizational leaders. Each of the cited authors referred to the need for administrators to display certain complex conceptual abilities not as commonly shown by those who are not successful leaders.

Consideration was given to the organizational context in which educational administration is practised. Although the unique qualities of each situation were acknowledged, certain organizational qualities were identified as being characteristic. The educational goals which formally govern the operations of schools and school systems were discussed, and the influence of political values was gauged. It was posited that the interaction of educational and political values fostered the development of the professional bureaucratic organizational form, and the roles of administrators in such contexts were discussed. The sub-section concluded with consideration of the dysfunctions which were seen to be implicit in the professional bureaucracy.

Attention was then given to the body of literature which focused on exemplary or "effective" educational organizations and administrators. The concept of effectiveness was reviewed, and the administrative emphases of successful leaders were cited.

The final main area of literature to be reviewed pertained to the preparation and professional development of educational admini- strators. Attention was given to the historical development of university-based programmes which went through phases of dealing with the development of technical skills among practitioners, through increasing concentration on formal academic endeavours with particular emphasis on analytical-behavioural sciences. The opinions of some authors were noted regarding the failure of most university programmes to include content from the humanities, and the lack of field experiences was seen to reflect a growing separation of theory from practice. Commonly used instructional methods were identified and particular attention was paid to a 1978 study of the Educational Admini- stration programmes at the University of Alberta and the University of Calgary.

The assumptions which underlie competency-based programmes were identified as were the arguments against their adequacy. Consideration was then given to the need for a more fully-developed partnership between the universities, the profession, jurisdictions, and government in fostering the professional growth of teachers in general and educational administrators in particular. Such a partnership would see not only improved communication and cooperation among the members, but would also encourage each to make contributions to the endeavour which were most in keeping with their special characteristics.

Summary of Chapter III

Chapter III presented information which pertained to the policy environment in which the three issues addressed by this study are

considered. The first section dealt with the levels of training and experience set as entry level standards by each Canadian province and some American states for the respective educational administration roles. Information received from other jurisdictions, especially in Canada, suggested that no common standards have been set. Some provinces, notably Ontario and New Brunswick have a tradition of setting minimum standards and issuing certificates to school-level administrators while only Ontario issues certificates to system-level personnel. Seven provinces, however, do set minimum standards for training and experience for school superintendents. Formal criteria for appointment, including the possession of an administrator's certificate appears to be the norm in the United States.

The second section presented data regarding the levels of formal preparation and academic achievement of each category of educational administrator in Alberta. It is noteworthy that at least 82 percent of superintendents have voluntarily achieved academic levels beyond those required by regulation. Similarly, although only a teaching certificate is formally required, most other administrators (80 per cent of assistant superintendents, 55 per cent of principals, and 46 percent of assistant principals) have chosen to pursue formal courses beyond the bachelor degree. These last figures are the more impressive as they also include personnel in Alberta's smallest and remote schools.

Information was also presented which detailed the universities in Alberta chosen by given numbers of incumbent educational administrators. In addition to showing the distribution of students among Alberta's three conventional universities, the statistics indicated that

a substantial number of administrators, have chosen to attend
universities outside the province with presumably many registering in
United States universities. This last fact is significant in that it
implies limitations on the ability of interested stakeholders to consult
on questions of programme content or co-ordination.

The final section of this chapter referred to interview data and
information published in the calendars of Alberta's three conventional
universities to provide an overview of programme content, structure and
1984-1985 enrolment.

Summary of Chapter IV

The chapter began by outlining the nature and particular
characteristics of social policy research, explaining that unlike the
study of natural phenomena, social policy research endeavours to apply
empirical methods to the study of value-based activities. Such activity
was described as leading to the development and application of normative
theory. Attention was paid to the notion that in social policy
research, the values of the researcher have a legitimate role to play in
the design of the study but should not bias the conduct of the study nor
the interpretation of data.

Authors were cited (Dror, 1968; McRae, 1980; Dunn, 1981) who
pointed out that policy analysis, unlike some other social and natural
sciences, was not limited in methodology. It was emphasized that the
choice of methodology was left to the analyst who would select an
approach which was situationally appropriate and which appeared to have
the potential to generate results deemed to be useful to decision makers
or other actors in the policy environment.

The appropriateness of the use of group interviews was established in the present context, and the questions of validity and reliability of data derived from such interviews were reviewed. The author concluded that under the circumstances in which the interviews were conducted, that the data corresponded to the indicators he sought and were therefore valid. In that the data recorded apparently corresponded to what was stated in the interviews (as was confirmed in the second round of interviews) the methodology was considered to be reliable.

As more than 500 individual concepts were recorded it was decided that a representative set would be quoted, and consequently, within the appropriate categories and sub-categories, a set of interview comments was presented which expressed the range of salient points made by the respondents.

The data which was thus presented was then used to support the development of a set of three goal statements which were seen by the researcher to reflect the level at which all referents had expressed consensus. The goals were stated in such a way that they addressed the respective issues which made up the independent variable of the study's conceptual framework.

The needs assessment stage of the policy development process was explained and needs assessment was defined in keeping with a discrepancy view of needs. Needs were identified with respect to each of the goals previously cited.

The specification of objectives, in effect, restated the goals in such a way as to address the identified needs and to detail the "what", "whom", and "when" of subsequent policy action.

The final section of the chapter explained the intent and derivation of the preliminary policy alternatives which are presented in Appendix 2. A definition of "formal preparation" for educational administrators was presented which considered both preservice and inservice education and training. The section outlined the dichotomic nature of the comments of interview respondents regarding the mission and role of university Educational Administration programmes, with some emphasizing a very strong academic bent while others emphasized the importance of preparing practitioners. In both Alternatives 1 and 2, the need for the involvement of non-university organisations in the preparation process was noted.

As there was apparent consensus among respondents regarding the appropriateness of educational administrators having a range of successful teaching experience, no alternatives were developed. Similarly, interviewees agreed that a pattern of experience in progressively more responsible administrative positions was desirable but should not be mandated by policy or regulation.

The final paragraphs of the chapter explained the rationale underlying Alternatives 3 and 4. Both alternatives address the issue of establishing the qualifications of aspiring and incumbent educational administrators. The former alternative prescribed the attainment of a provincially issued administrator's certificate based on levels of university programmes completed and preliminary professional experience.

The latter alternative stressed the accountability of administrators to their employers, and the responsibility of local jurisdictions to deal with situational needs with appropriate recruitment, selection, evaluation, and professional development policies.

Summary of Chapter V

In this chapter dealing with the presentation of data, statements were cited which were considered by the researcher to be representative of the range of opinion expressed by interviewees within eight categories of ideas. Regarding university programmes, the comments generally indicated that a balance between the extremes of Alternatives 1 and 2 was favoured, with all groups advocating a role for universities which included both academic and competency development aspects. The relationship of theory and practice was discussed with the respective groups emphasising varying degrees of attention to each. The place of content derived from other disciplines was noted and the desirability of including the study of curriculum and pedagogy was stated. Interview participants discussed the appropriateness of admission criteria including consideration of applicants' administrative potential as well as their scholastic records. They also commented on the implications of the nature of the programmes and the desirability of faculty members having backgrounds as both scholars and practitioners.

Competency-based programmes were generally not viewed favourably by interviewees. They agreed that although universities should endeavour to develop skills of practice among administrators, a programme that were explicitly competency-based would tend to become

backward-looking, and would promote a view of administration that was too instrumental and mechanistic.

The internship for administrators was seen by all groups as potentially desirable as a means of bridging the theories addressed in university classrooms and the challenges of the administrators' world. The attendant costs, the need for close liaison among participating groups, and the important roles of supervising administrators were all noted. Most groups recommended the inclusion of internships as a non-compulsory element in university graduate-level Educational Administration programmes.

All groups agreed that the professional development of educational administrators should be accomplished through a coordinated programme of preservice and on-going inservice activity. Such a programme would recognize the particular instructional potential of the universities, jurisdictions, academics, and professional associations in meeting the various learning needs of aspiring and incumbent administrators.

The state of communications among the agencies involved in the development of educational administrators is regarded by reference groups as sporadic and in need of improvement. Although several avenues of communication among the groups were identified, most were either of a casual nature or focused on other topics dealing only tangentally with educational administration. Each group seemed aware of the desirability of more effective communication and was willing to participate in advisory or ad hoc committees, but none indicated a willingness to initiate or coordinate such fora.

The interviewees generally endorsed the statements made in the interview support material regarding preliminary professional experience for educational administrators detailed in Appendix 2.

Alternative 3, outlining a certification scheme for educational administrators, met with a dichotomous response. Individuals from three groups, Alberta Education, the University of Calgary and the University of Lethbridge supported the principles of certification, while those from the A.S.T.A., the A.T.A., C.A.S.S. and the University of Alberta were strongly opposed, favouring instead the principles underlying the policy-driven approach detailed in Alternative 4. These differences are discussed in detail in the following chapter.

The concluding pages of this chapter addressed the positions taken by the individuals associated with the respective organisations with regard to the germane issues of this study. This approach was taken so as to provide a basis from which to assess the political implications of the policy recommendations presented in the chapter which follows.

Summary of Chapter VI

Chapter VI served three main purposes: first, it reviewed the legal and political context in which policy action was being considered; second, it synthesized the content of the related literature, data pertaining to the present policy environment, data gathered from communication with reference groups, and the implications of the political context in the form of five recommendations for policy action; and, third, it presented some concluding comments based on a retrospective view of the study.

The first section of this chapter discussed the legal, political, and organisational dimensions of the present policy context. The legal authority of the Minister of Education to promulgate policy changes regarding educational administrators was established with reference to pieces of federal and provincial legislation. An exploration of the propensity of organisations to temper objective consideration of issues with attention to internal organisational interests followed, with reference made to the analysis of intra-organisational forces (Odynak, 1963) and the metavalues identified by Hodgkinson (1978), growth, maintenance, efficiency, and effectiveness. Note was made that in the present policy context, most reference groups did not place a high priority on effecting change to the status quo, indicating that although they were prepared to cooperate in the policy review process, and were willing to make some changes in their operations regarding educational administrators, they were disinclined to make substantial change or to commit their scarce human or financial resources to new practices. It was concluded, therefore, that any policy action would have to involve both committed leadership and substantial financial resources from the provincial government in order to effect significant change.

Two concepts were discussed which established the parameters bounding the policy recommendations which were to stem from the study. First, the notion of symbolic policy was developed with particular emphasis on the dysfunctions attendant upon its use. Second, the principle of parsimony was introduced. The policy recommendations which were developed were designed to realise effects which put them beyond

the bounds of symbolic policy, while seeking to accomplish their purposes without requiring more than minimal resources.

The concluding paragraphs of the section dealing with the policy environment noted the principles of decentralization, partnership, and consultation espoused in recent publications of Alberta Education, and concluded that the same qualities should be reflected in the recommendations to be generated by the present study.

The Policy Recommendations section of this chapter is the focal point of the research project, offering a set of recommendations which were derived from a synthesis of the content of pertinent literature, the insights of senior educators, and the products of policy analysis methods. The recommendations address the three issues associated with the policy problem as identified in the study's conceptual model; the education, experience, and criteria of appointment for educational administrators. The formulation of the recommendations was also guided the four criteria of adequacy; potential effectiveness, efficiency, political feasibility, and ethical acceptability, specified as important by Mayer and Greenwood (1980).

The first policy recommendation encouraged Alberta Education to convene a forum within which reference groups could coordinate professional preparatory and development opportunities for educational administrators. The discussion following the recommendation detailed specific roles which could be played by the respective reference groups in its implementation.

Recommendation Two suggested that the three Alberta universities working with educational administrators conduct programme reviews which

take into consideration the points of view of clients, professional associations, and interest groups.

Recommendation Three proposed that Alberta's conventional universities conduct surveys of their service areas in order to determine the demand for formal professional development courses. The survey results would inform programme proposals which would be submitted to Alberta Education and Advanced Education for possible funding by the province.

Recommendation Four encouraged the production of a monograph commissioned by Alberta Education which would elaborate benefits to be derived from employing educational administrators with suitable prepreparatory professional experience; and recommend systematic approaches which could be taken by jurisdictions of various sizes to foster staff career development.

Recommendation Five provided a comprehensive policy-driven approach to recognizing the qualifications of applicants for administrative positions requiring jurisdictions to consider the formal educational background, preparatory professional experience, and ongoing professional development of administrators.

Summary of Chapter VII

This concluding chapter offered retrospective thoughts on the extent to which the five policy recommendations met the demands of the conceptual model which guided the study, and satisfied the criteria of adequacy set out in earlier chapters.

Because of the dichotomous nature of interviewees' responses to the alternatives of a certification scheme or a policy-driven approach

to recognizing the qualifications of educational administrators, it was important to clearly state the arguments in opposition to the former approach and those favouring the latter. As the case in favour of a policy-driven approach was thoroughly presented earlier, the concluding section presented only a summary of the thirteen points militating against certification.

Comments were made regarding the efficacy of the research methodology used in this study, with particular emphasis on the use of group interviews as a method for gathering valid data on a complex subject. The need for the interviewer to be at once knowledgeable and unbiased in conducting the study was addressed.

The final paragraphs of the chapter addressed the usefulness of the concepts associated with policy paradigms to the policy researchers. Reference to policy paradigms was recommended in order to help the analyst identify a suitable definition of policy for his or her study, to help the analyst understand the perspectives of informants, and to guide the analyst in recommending directions and degrees of policy change.