



# Review

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## *Opportunities and Challenges of School Collaboration*

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Collaborative work organizations and related themes (such as community, cooperation, etc.) have become the focus of both research and practice in education during the past few years. Some may view emphasis on collaboration (or community) in schools as the second stage of the initial “site-based management” movement initiated in the late 1980’s. School organizations have begun expanding their democratic governance emphasis with teacher, parent, and community advisory councils, engaging in partnerships with other human service agencies or businesses, or redesigning educators’ work to add a group or team emphasis.

Most scholars focus on only one particular type of collaborative work arrangement — such as school-business partnerships, industry-education collaboration, regular education-special education collaborations, or even schools as “learning communities.” Further, they approach the study of collaboration from a single conceptual or disciplinary framework or lens. However, because collaboration may increase the complexity of organizing and managing, a single lens, framework, or disciplinary approach is inadequate to understand such complex organizational phenomena. Further, practicing administrators and teachers need to consider multiple factors when building collaborative schools — such as: 1) What organizational structure will enhance collaborative school efforts? 2) What change processes are important in building school collaboration? 3) What are the costs (in effort, energy, time, or other resources) in collaborating with other external agencies? 4) How can teachers’ work be redesigned to enhance collaboration between teachers and what are the outcomes for teachers and students? 5) How can educators (e.g. administrators, teachers, special education teachers, counselors, psychologists) overcome their separate role socializations to build collaborative work relationships within schools? and 6) What are the implications of school collaboration for teaching and learning, school leadership, and lead-

ership preparation?

Thus, a couple of years ago, some of my Utah colleagues and I wrote a book on collaboration which discusses collaboration research and practice from multiple perspectives, each chapter addressing one of the questions identified above from a specific conceptual or disciplinary framework (see Pounder, 1998a). Each chapter author brought his or her professional and scholarly expertise in a particular disciplinary area to the work, including organizational theory (Bob Johnson), organizational change and development (James Barott & Rebecca Raybould), organizational economics (Patrick Galvin), group work design and personnel administration (Diana Pounder), work roles and professional socialization (Ann Weaver Hart), instructional leadership (Karen Evans Stout), leadership and the school principal (Gary Crow), and leadership preparation (Joseph Matthews).

The challenge for me as the book’s editor was to synthesize the themes or issues that seemed to cut across the book’s multiple perspectives and chapter topics. It is these synthesizing issues and dilemmas that I will present here, in part excerpted from the closing chapter of the collaboration book. These dilemmas are framed as collaboration’s “promises versus pitfalls” — or opportunities versus challenges for schools. The synthesizing issues include: 1) the need for change toward more collaborative schools versus the persistence of schools; 2) resource gains versus costs of collaboration; 3) professional interdependence versus professional autonomy or discretion (and the related concepts of independence, privacy, and isolation); 4) shared influence (or leadership) versus shared accountability (or responsibility); and 5) balance of influence versus over-control or under-involvement among collaborative parties.

*The Need for Collaborative Change Versus  
the Persistence of Schools*

There are many reasons that schools may desire or even

need to become more collaborative. Johnson (1998) introduces two commonly touted reasons for increasing collaboration in schools: 1) to increase the democratization of schools; and 2) to enhance school effectiveness and/or productivity. Galvin (1998) discusses historical events and trends that influenced schools to become more collaborative with other agencies. These events included the 1980's calls for reform to address our "failing" education system and a corresponding crisis in America's social services, struggling to effectively meet the growing needs of children and families plagued by poverty, unemployment, violence, homelessness, teen-age pregnancy, and other social welfare problems. Pounder (1998b) argues that increased collaboration among teachers and professional educators can tighten the connection between educators' work and student outcomes, especially increasing educators' comprehensive knowledge and responsibility for students' learning and school experiences. Organizing and designing work around students may increase student learning, achievement, and other valued school outcomes. Correspondingly, students' fractionalized school experience and sense of detachment or alienation from school may be decreased. Also, collaborative work approaches, moreso than in-

dividual job enhancement, may enrich educators' work and increase involvement across all educators without violating the norms of egalitarianism so prevalent among school professionals. Hart (1998) reinforces the argument that increased collaboration can improve student outcomes and school effectiveness. She reminds us that students' needs are becoming increasingly complex due to greater numbers of culturally diverse and special needs students. This increased complexity necessitates greater collaboration and sharing among education professionals with varied and complementary expertise. Stout (1998) traces the reasoning that collaboration may enhance student learning by changing the instructional process and the way teachers work. However, she points out that research findings largely emphasize the effect of instructional collaboration on teachers' work lives. Only a few recent studies have explored and found favorable relationships between instructional collaboration, teachers' learning and work lives, and enhanced student learning (e.g. Smylie, Lazurus, and Brownlee-Conyers, 1996).

In spite of these and other reasons for schools to become more collaborative, Stout (1998) and Barott et. al. (1998) remind us of the persistence, stability, even inertia of schools. That is, schools are notoriously slow or even resistant to change. Barott and Raybould explain the nature of change, types of change, and the paradoxical relationship between change and persistence. It is this persistence, or inertia, that Stout describes when addressing the stability of instructional methods used in schools for decades. There are many reasons that schools persist in their instructional methods, organizational structure, work roles, and general operating dynamics. The book's authors have addressed some of these reasons, several of which are discussed in greater detail below as key dilemmas for collaborative schools. One such factor that strongly contributes to schools' persistence is the norm of autonomy or independence that runs counter to norms of collaboration (see Johnson, 1998; Barott et. al., 1998; Hart, 1998; Pounder, 1998b; and Stout, 1998). This autonomy or privacy norm is often reinforced by professional train-

ing and socialization (Matthews, 1998; Hart, 1998). Also identified are the dynamics of exchange relationships, including costs (e.g. coordination, communication, monitoring) incurred to collaborate (Galvin, 1998). If collaboration unduly increases organizational costs and complexity, especially in an environment noted for its stimulus overload (Johnson, 1998), educators could be expected to resist collaborative work relationships. Also, because schools have needs to be buffered from their environment, there will always be clear limits to the ways or degree to which schools will collaborate with (or bridge) external agencies or parties (Ogawa, 1996). Further, some types of collaboration may require far-reaching and thorough organizational change. If existing incentives, rewards, and organizational structures run counter to collaborative work dynamics and objectives, schools will persist in their traditional ways of operating.

This tension between needs for collaborative school change and the stability or persistence of schools presents a dilemma for those considering collaborative endeavors. Developing a more collaborative school demands careful negotiation and navigation of the change process and is unlikely to be worth the effort unless the collaborative endeavors are organized around the core technology of schools — the teaching-learning process. Collaboration efforts that are largely symbolic may reflect our democratic ideals but are unlikely to result in substantive improvement in school and student outcomes.

*Resource Gains Versus Costs of Collaboration*

There are a range of benefits and costs associated with collaboration. Many of the benefits could be characterized as resource gains. These gains include resources such as increased expertise, knowledge, and skills available for shared educational problem-solving. Also, the efforts of more personnel, with a greater array of information and perspectives, may be available to address student learning or related concerns. Inter-agency collaboration can also increase fiscal resources available to the cooperating agencies such as shared facilities, equipment, personnel, or other resources. These combined resource gains promise to enhance school effec-

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tiveness.

However, these resource gains may be offset by the costs associated with increased collaboration. These costs include increased time and effort associated with joint planning, communication, coordination, and monitoring of complex collaborative programs and processes. (Galvin, 1998, offers significant detail about the nature of costs associated with collaboration). These costs can contribute to inefficiencies in achieving educational goals and objectives. Inconsistent or inadequate commitment, input, and information among collaborative parties can further compromise the effectiveness and/or efficiency of shared efforts.

In sum, the gains in school effectiveness promised by school collaboration may be compromised by the costs or inefficiencies that can occur with collaboration. Those initiating collaborative programs or functions must give serious consideration to organizing structures and processes that minimize the costs that can kill collaborative efforts. In other words, collaboration leaders must consistently consider how to reduce "hindrance" factors such as unclear goals and expectations, unproductive meetings, complicated communication patterns, complex coordination plans, or excessive paperwork, documentation, or other costly monitoring functions. Leaders must explore ways to capture the rewards of collaborative work without making the work too difficult, time-consuming, or frustrating to accomplish.

#### *Professional Interdependence Versus Professional Autonomy*

An important contextual consideration for school collaboration is the existing culture and norms of schools and education professionals. Particularly prevalent is the norm of professional autonomy or discretion, often associated with professional independence, privacy, or isolation. Although educators and researchers often lament the isolation associated with teaching, professional isolation is only one side of the professional autonomy coin. That is, as much as teachers may embrace collaboration to reduce professional isolation, they also fear the loss of professional discretion, independence, and privacy. Collaboration necessitates a certain professional interdependence in planning, decision-

making, instructional and service delivery, and other important aspects of educators' work.

As introduced earlier, collaboration brings greater professional interdependence among individuals. However, collaboration can allow, encourage, or even necessitate increased autonomy and discretion as a group or collaborative unit. Instructional options, service provisions, or decision influences that are unavailable to educators as individuals may be more commonplace or "do-able" in collaborative work groups. In other words, collaboration may reduce *individual* autonomy (and individual discretion, privacy, and isolation) but increase group autonomy or discretion (Pounder, 1998b).

Educators engaging in school collaboration efforts may initially fail to realize the full potential of collaborative groups to exercise greater freedom, independence, or discretion in their decision-making and choices of action. To attain this group autonomy, members must establish new work paradigms — brainstorm new ways for achieving their instructional and educational objectives. Through new work methods and organizational arrangements, educators may come to appreciate the discretion available to them as group members. Professional interdependence may be appreciated in spite of some reduction of individual independence or privacy. And, the corresponding reduction in feelings of professional isolation would probably be appreciated by most teachers.

#### *Shared Influence Versus Shared Accountability*

Collaborative schools tend to expand decision influence and leadership to teachers and other organizational members, and can also extend influence to others outside the school such as parents, external agency members, or other community participants. The dynamics of shared influence and leadership have been a popular focus of research during the past few years, especially as shared leadership relates to restructured schools (see Crow, 1998, for an extensive discussion of this literature). However, there has been limited discussion of the accountability or responsibility that necessarily must correspond to broadened leadership or influence by teachers and others.

As teachers and other school employees and constituents become involved in collaborative endeavors, it is understandable and desirable that they exercise greater leadership, decision and organizational influence. However, as Crow (1998) and Matthews (1998) suggest, school administrators may feel reluctant to relinquish some of their influence, authority, or control — especially if they must be accountable for the independent decisions and actions of others. That is, if teachers and others are going to expand their influence and leadership through collaborative work, they must also assume responsibility and accountability for their decisions and actions. Collaborative work groups must be willing to answer to parents, school board members, and others for their collective decisions and actions rather than expecting school administrators to take a protective role by supporting their actions under all circumstances.

This is an uncomfortable transition for both collaborative work groups and administrators. Administrators have long been expected to "support" teachers when they face criticism from or conflict with parents, students, board members, or other community groups. For the most part, this support has meant running interference for or protecting a single teacher from criticism or complaint about his/her individual actions in the classroom. However, as collaborative work groups expand their leadership roles, spheres of influence, and range of responsibilities, school administrators may be expected to support decisions over which that they have only minimal knowledge or control. And, teachers may be uncomfortable stepping up to the plate of public scrutiny. However, the dynamics of shared leadership — especially between school administrators and collaborative school groups — cannot be successful if those who make decisions are unwilling to take responsibility or be accountable for those decisions. Increased collaborative leadership and influence *require* increased responsibility and accountability.

#### *Balance of Influence Versus Over-Control or Under-Involvement of Members*

A certain degree of conflict is inherent to collaborative work (see Barott and Raybould, 1998; Crow, 1998; Galvin,

*Pounder continued on page 9*



# UCEA Convention '99

This year the University Council for Educational Administration will hold its thirteenth annual convention in Minneapolis, Minnesota. The convention, co-hosted by the University of Minnesota, takes place October 29-31 at the Hyatt Regency in downtown Minneapolis. The theme is "Contradictions in Accountability," suggesting the program's emphasis on tensions inherent in today's accountability movement.



The official opening of the convention takes place Friday at 11:00 a.m. with welcomes by Steven R. Yussen, Dean of the College of Education and Human Development at the University of Minnesota, and Patrick B. Forsyth, UCEA Executive Director. The welcoming will be followed by the ninth Pennsylvania State University Mitstifer Lecture by Barbara R. Bergmann (American University, University of Maryland). Bergmann, distinguished professor of economics, is an authority on women's issues, labor economics, racial discrimination, welfare reform, the economics of college sports, and social policy. Her presentation is entitled "The Schools' Roles in Alleviating Childhood Poverty."

Gary Orfield will deliver the invited address, "Diversity Challenged: The Legal Battle & New Evidence on Educational Impacts," on Saturday at 4:00 p.m. Orfield is professor of education and social policy at Harvard University and his research interests lie in civil rights, urban policy, and minority opportunity. The closing session will be a panel discussion of "Public Accountability in an Era of Private Reform." Panelists are Peter W. Cookson, Jr. (Teacher's College, Columbia University), Margaret Goertz (University of Pennsylvania) and Barbara Schneider (University of Chicago). The distinguished panel will explore such reform proposals as charters, vouchers, and magnets in the context of accountability.

Between sessions, convention participants can browse through the exhibit area (Hyatt Exhibition Hall), which houses the book displays of publishers and a concession cafe. The hall will be open Friday and Saturday from 8:00 a.m. to 5:30 p.m.

## Convention '99 Schedule

### THURSDAY

- Registration: 2:00-8:00 PM
- Pre-Sessions: 2:00-10:00 PM

### FRIDAY

- 7:30 AM-6:00 PM Registration
- 12:45-2:15 PM Graduate Student Symposium (I)
- 8:00-9:15 AM Session 3
- 9:30-10:45 AM Session 4

11:00 AM-12:30 PM Convention Opening

**Barbara R. Bergmann**  
Mitstifer Lecture

- 12:45-2:15 PM Session 6
- 2:30-4:00 PM Session 7

### SATURDAY

- 7:30-8:45 AM Session 9
- 9:00-10:30 AM Session 10
- 10:45 AM-12:15 PM Session 11
- 12:30-2:00 PM Session 12
- 2:15-3:45 PM Session 13

4:00-5:15 PM General Session 14

**Gary Orfield**  
Invited Address

6:00-9:00 PM Convention Banquet

- 6:00 - 6:30 Cash Bar
- 6:30 - 7:30 Dinner
- 7:30 - 9:00 Program

### SUNDAY

- 7:00-8:30 AM Session 15
- 8:45-10:00 AM Graduate Student Symposium
- 8:45-10:00 AM Session 16

10:15-11:30 AM General Session 17

**Invited Panel: Public Accountability in an Era of Private Reform**

- Peter Willis Cookson
- Margaret Goertz
- Barbara Schneider

# Twin Cities Sights and Attractions

While attending Convention '99, take time to explore and enjoy the Minneapolis-St. Paul area. The Twin Cities are the largest cultural center between Chicago and the Pacific Northwest and offer a wide variety of artistic and recreational activities. Downtown Minneapolis is bounded by the Mississippi River on the north side and by Loring Park to the south.



The riverfront, dubbed the "Mississippi Mile," has been developed for strolling, dining and entertainment. Downtown's major stores line up along the pedestrian **Nicollet Mall**. **Hennepin Avenue**, a block west, has been revitalized as an entertainment district with the restored historic Orpheum and State theaters which host Broadway shows and top-quality concerts.

The **IDS Center**, on the Mall, is the city's tallest building and contains an indoor glass atrium, the Crystal Court. The **Skyway** system of elevated, climate-controlled glassed walkways, designed to escape Minnesota extreme winters, connects over forty buildings. Minneapolis' museums include the **Walker Art Center**, with its seven-acre outdoor sculpture garden; the **Minneapolis Institute of Arts**; the **American Swedish Institute**, housed in a

turn-of-the-century mansion; and the **Frederick R. Weisman Museum**, set in architect Frank O. Gehry's stainless steel-faced structure overlooking the Mississippi on the University of Minnesota campus. Just a few miles from downtown lie the city's "big three" lakes, Calhoun, Harriet, and Lake of the Isles. **Minnehaha Falls**, in Minnehaha Park on the Mississippi, is another popular attraction, made famous by Longfellow's poem "The Song of Hiawatha."



Saint Paul, the older of the two cities and the state capital, is noted for its city squares and stately architecture. West of downtown, Summit Avenue stretches from the Mississippi to the Capitol. The unsupported marble dome atop the **State Capitol** is one of the world's largest.



**St. Paul's Cathedral**, stylistically resembling St. Peter's in Rome, overlooks the Capitol. The nearby **Minnesota History Center** features three exhibit galleries on Minnesota History, and the **City Hall and Courthouse** in the heart of Saint Paul are impressive examples of art deco architecture. **Fort Snelling State Park**, located at the fork of the Mississippi and Minnesota Rivers, is the site of

an original garrison built in 1819. The park recreates life in the fur-trading era and features role-playing actors and guides, nature programs, and hiking trails.

The University of Minnesota, co-host for Convention '99, is located in the heart of metropolitan Minneapolis-St. Paul. The largest of the four campuses in the state university system, the University was founded in 1851 as a preparatory school. It hosts a number of nationally-

recognized, highly ranked programs and has an annual enrollment of approximately 40,000 students.

Of course, no trip to the Twin Cities area would be

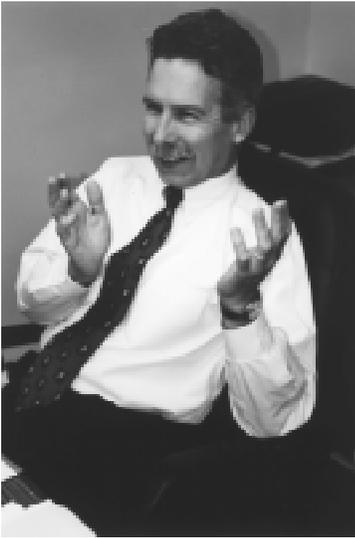
complete without a visit to the **Mall of America**, a monument to American consumerism and the country's largest combined retail and entertainment center. The Mall is spread over 18 acres in Bloomington, minutes from downtown Minneapolis. [Sources: The Ultimate Guide - Area Guide Minneapolis (infospace.com); Rough Guide to Minneapolis/St. Paul (travel.yahoo.com)]



**Convention '99  
Governance Meetings**

**Executive Committee  
Wednesday 8:00 AM -  
Thursday Noon**

**Plenum  
Thursday 1:00 PM -  
Friday 10:45**



# *Educational Administration: An Odyssey*

*Patrick B. Forsyth  
UCEA Executive Director*

[Based on "A Decade of Changes: Analysis and Comment," by Patrick B. Forsyth and Joseph Murphy. In J. Murphy and P. B. Forsyth (Eds.), *Educational Administration: A Decade of Reform*, pp. 253-272. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, 1999.]

In this paper, I examine the historical relationship between professional knowledge and professional preparation. Educational administration, like every human endeavor, is informed by a mixture of knowledge and skill gained through both personal experience and knowledge and skill passed on in some organized or codified way from others (see Harris, pp. 17-33). For every endeavor, the proportions of knowledge and skill derived from these two sources are different. What distinguishes human endeavors that can defensibly be called "professions" is that their expert practice requires the mastery of an extensive body of technical and codified knowledge **and** the mastery of an impressive array of non-routine experiential knowledge and skill. Additionally, professional practice holds out the individual client or patient's well-being as its goal, making use of contextual and other idiosyncratic and experiential observations, as well as codified information, to heal, to educate, to help or protect.

To be precise, by technical knowledge, I mean an organized system of theoretical explanation and systematic evidence related to a set of phenomena constituting a professional practice, or simply, codified, specialized knowledge (Oakeshott, 1962, p. 7). Technical knowledge can be taught and learned in

lecture halls, laboratories, etc. By practice knowledge, I refer to a kind of knowledge that only exists in use. Practice knowledge, "...know-how, artistry, insight, judgment, and connoisseurship are expressed only in practice and learned only through experience with practice" (Harris, 1993, p. 22). This kind of knowledge cannot be taught, but it can be learned through the extended observation of expert practitioners.

The nature of the dialectic between technical knowledge and practice knowledge dominates the history of professional education. For hundreds of years there has been a tension between universities and practitioners for control of professional induction. As a rule, when universities control professional preparation, they undervalue the knowledge of artistry and the importance of experience, sometimes to the point of making professional preparation irrelevant. When practitioners control preparation, they undervalue technical knowledge and research. Rather than a search for balance, the history of professional education can be characterized as a tug-of-war between purists from these two knowledge camps.

In medieval Europe the major professions were learned at the university, transmitted primarily by lecture, with virtually no emphasis on practice. This trend continued through the Renaissance, ultimately reaching an extreme imbalance as demonstrated by the study of law at Oxford and Cambridge, which became exclusively academic (based on Roman jurisprudence). Those who intended to practice in the English courts were forced to study elsewhere to be trained in the common law, disdained by the the two prestigious universities as local law and unworthy of university study (Brubacher, pp. 52-53). In this country, after an initial period of relying on European-trained professionals, colonial America necessarily favored an apprenticeship approach for training. Early professional proprietary schools evolved from the apprenticeship system

and for a while, the two systems operated simultaneously, with the lower standards common to the apprenticeship system prevailing (Brubacher, pp. 60-61).

At the turn of the Century, there was a limited return to an emphasis on technical knowledge as some university affiliated professional schools began to draw on the sciences and other university disciplines. Still, even as late as 1895, Paulsen claimed there were no professional schools of university rank in this country, save Harvard in law and Johns Hopkins in medicine (Paulsen). Despite these exceptions, professional education was in such a deplorable state early in the 20th Century that the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching commissioned Flexner to conduct a study first of medical schools and then of law schools, in an effort to inspire reform. The first Flexner Report (1910) was highly critical of medical schools and had revolutionary consequences, including a drastic reduction in their number, the merger of proprietary schools with universities, and an increasing separation of learning from practice (Hughes, 1973). After Flexner, medical schools continued to have practice training, but only after extended exposure to relevant sciences. Although not as homogeneous as post-Flexner medicine, when law preparation moved to the American university, training for practice was effectively abolished. Increasingly throughout the 20th Century, professional training affiliated with universities moved away from practice and became preoccupied with "the development of an abstract and systematic body of theory, sufficiently complex and esoteric to justify the profession's claim to unique competence over its chosen sphere of activity" (Thorne, p. 30).

In the 1970's, there was some press to reintroduce practice knowledge, marked by the work of The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education and chaired by Clark Kerr. In one of the Commission's reports, Schein summarized criticisms of the professions, spe-

cifically noting that:

Professional education generally underutilizes the applied behavioral sciences, especially in helping professionals to increase their self-insight, their ability to diagnose and manage client relationships and complex social problems, their ability to sort out the ethical and value issues inherent in their professional role, and their ability to continue to learn throughout their career. (Schein, p. 60)

It is clear from Schein's critique that, already 30 years ago there was an emerging concern that the balance between technical and practice knowledge was in need of adjustment. Later in the same report, Schein sketches "the new professional school," a precursor of problem based learning, which he says

. . . should start with a learning theory that integrates basic sciences, applied sciences, and professional skills within single learning modules rather than separating them into successive core courses," "applied courses," and "practicum" (Schein, p. 129).

Ten years after Schein, the late Donald Schön moved the critique and argument for reform of professional preparation with even greater incisiveness in his widely cited *The Reflective Practitioner* (1983) and again four years later with the publication of *Educating the Reflective Practitioner* (1987). Schön argued that professional education relied on a technical rationalist epistemology which views professional competence as the application of techniques and theories derived from systematic (scientific) research to instrumental problems of practice (Schön, 1987, p. 33). In both routine and unfamiliar situations, thinking like a professional consists in rule-governed inquiry (p. 34). In this epistemology, artistry has little place and ". . . there is no way [for professionals] to talk about their artistry--except, perhaps, to say that they are following rules that have not yet been made explicit" (p. 35).

Advancing the case for an alternative epistemology of practice, Schön pointed to professional artistry understood in terms of reflection-in-action, which is central to an understanding of professional competence (p. 35). According

to Schön, using this epistemology, practitioners frequently experience the unexpected, causing them to go beyond the rules, facts, theories, and operations. They respond by restructuring some ". . . strategies of action, theories of phenomena, or ways of framing the problem . . ." and they invent experiments to test new understandings (p. 35). Most of Schön's book focuses on developing a new kind of professional education that might foster practitioners' reflection-in-action, what has earlier called "practice knowledge."

The argument for this kind of preparatory experience is supported by research on the formation of expertise in cognitive psychology. Gordon, for example, claims that "although we possess static, verbalizable knowledge, much of our learning and skilled behavior is driven by a dynamic, procedural knowledge that is not verbalizable (Gordon, 1992, p. 114). Thus, much of what a professional does cannot be taught as codified technical knowledge. Indeed, it cannot be articulated at all. Practice knowledge must be learned through experience, the kind of experience that is not acquired in lecture halls, libraries, or even laboratories.

Schön has raised an important challenge that goes to the heart of the issue: "Can the prevailing concepts of professional education ever yield a curriculum adequate to the complex, unstable, uncertain, and conflictual worlds of practice?" (1997, p. 12). The question is even more troublesome for the "minor professions" where there may be no agreement on the very existence of a useful body of technical knowledge, and hence, no persuasive argument for housing professional preparation in the university.

In sum, the general history of professional preparation can be described as the product of legitimate interest and emphasis on two kinds of knowledge, technical and practice. Extreme imbalance has tended to provoke correction. In the United States, control of preparation by practitioners through apprenticeship and proprietary professional schools secured an emphasis on practice knowledge right up until the beginning of the 20th Century. In the first decade of the Century, the inadequacies of this approach were exposed and professional preparation was absorbed by universi-

ties. Predictably, the universities emphasized technical knowledge and scientific research, often creating extraordinary theoretical advances, but in some cases neglecting practice knowledge to the extreme. Around the middle of the Century, there was heard some grumbling about addressing practice knowledge again. The work of Schön has been a significant catalyst, helping professions understand this problem, motivating professional curriculum revision, and encouraging experiment with innovative instructional delivery such as problem-based learning.

Turning specifically to educational administration as a profession, it has as its focus the organization, maintenance, and improvement of educational enterprises. Typical of what Glazer calls the minor professions, the appropriate mixture of technical and practice knowledge for this field is somewhat volatile and made more so by the fact that educational administration is eclectic and diffuse. Pedagogy, child psychology, law, finance, organizational analysis, human relations, and perhaps a myriad of other specialties are integrally part of the applied specialty of educational administration. This characteristic of diffuseness sets educational administration apart from focused professions such as medicine and law, complicating the achievement of balance.

Historically, the formal training and preparation of school administrators in the U.S. had essentially been carried out in the university. Control of school administrator preparation during the first half of the Century was primarily in the hands of former school administrators who moved to the university and conducted programs and classes. Many were intellectual giants, but administrator induction consisted of aspirants hearing lectures relating the experiences of these former administrators. The curriculum effectively conveyed neither technical nor practice knowledge about school administration as defined earlier.

#### *Practice Knowledge: Broad Strokes*

It was not until nearly mid-Century that universities began to foster practice knowledge in educational administration preparation. At a 1947 meeting of The National Conference for Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA), interest in "internship" for school admin-

istrators was stimulated, at a time when only two universities had internship requirements (Milstein, Bobroff & Restine, 1991, p. 4). While the internship was virtually unheard of in 1947, by 1987 over 80 percent of educational administration programs surveyed indicated they required the internship (Skalski et al 1987).

Despite the nearly universal embrace of internship as a way to provide practice knowledge, predictably, universities did not manage and nurture this preparatory exercise adequately. Milstein chronicles the failure thus:

Too often field sites are chosen haphazardly and/or are not closely monitored. The potential for interns being constrained to passive observation, being placed in roles which do not fit closely with their career goals, or being used as "go-fers," is great when clear and agreed-upon expectations are not developed. Likewise, campus-based practicums and seminars on a regular basis are rarely available or required and clinical experiences are often isolated from the rest of a students' program flow. Finally, the connecting linkages between on-campus experiences and field-based experiences are rarely adequately developed. (Milstein, 1991, p. 121)

I have been equally pessimistic, noting that "... administrator preparation either abandons a key element of professional preparation, internship, or it approaches this element with neither enthusiasm nor resources" (Forsyth, 1992, p. 324).

In addition to internship, educational administration has experimented with "bringing the reality of administration into the classroom through such media as written cases, simulated situations, . . ." (Culbertson, 1962, p. 166). Other professions have also experimented with the fostering of practice knowledge in the classroom. Particularly interesting is the use of the simulated patient in medicine (actors trained to mimic the symptoms and complaints of a specific pathological condition). UCEA, among others, has been active in promoting and publishing cases and simulations since the 1950s. Although these materials



## The University Council for Educational Administration

### Executive Director

University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) seeks a dynamic individual to be its next Executive Director. The Executive Director is the chief executive officer, having leadership, management, and fiscal responsibility for the corporation. He/she reports to two policy-making bodies designated in the bylaws: The Executive Committee (legal board of directors) and The Plenum (legislature). UCEA is a non-profit international consortium of 60 educational administration doctoral programs housed in research universities, whose primary goal is to improve the quality of school administrator preparation and foster research related to administrative practice and education policy. UCEA publishes *Educational Administration Quarterly*, the premier research journal of the field, along with a newsletter (*The UCEA Review*), an electronic *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership*, and timely monographs and instructional materials.

UCEA is housed until 2006 at the University of Missouri. The staff consists of an Executive Director, an Associate Director, an Administrative Assistant, a Financial Director and four graduate assistants. UCEA's primary sources of revenue are membership dues, host university contributions, royalties, earnings on investments, and grants, with a current annual budget of approximately \$360,000.

Qualifications for applicants include an earned doctorate (preferably in K-12 educational administration), scholarly and policy expertise related to school administrator preparation, service orientation, leadership, managerial, and interpersonal skills, as well as written and oral communication skills. The position of Executive Director is a full-time management position with 20 paid vacation days per year, competitive retirement and other benefits and a minimum starting salary of \$80,000. Relocation costs will be subsidized for the successful candidate. At the discretion of the host university, non-tenured faculty status at appropriate rank may be granted. Candidate nominations or letters of application with vita and three reference listings should be sent to: UCEA Search Committee, 205 Hill Hall, Columbia, MO 65211. Candidate screening will begin October 1 and the search will remain open until filled. Official starting date is negotiable. UCEA is an equal opportunity employer.

have been used by some to introduce administration students to practice knowledge, their use has not been widespread.

#### *Technical Knowledge: Broad Strokes*

Events around the middle of the Century also changed the nature of administrator preparation by promoting the development of technical knowledge. In 1947, Walter D. Cocking gathered a group of professors and academics "... to take a measure of the field by considering the changing nature of administra-

tive practice, the growing need for theory and research, and emerging demands on graduate programs" (Campbell, et al, (1987), pp. 13-14). This group evolved into the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA). Its formation was followed by the Kellogg Foundation's funding of the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA), and ten years later, by the founding of the University Council for Educational Administration

*Forsyth continued on page 14*

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1998; Hart, 1998). Conflict can occur over a host of issues, including differences in educational philosophies, values, goals, instructional techniques, work priorities, role expectations, etc. However, one area that seems to have particularly strong potential for conflict is the imbalance of inputs and influence by collaborative group members. When there is a reasonable balance of inputs among the participating parties, there is much greater potential for effective problem-solving, decision-making, work effort, and work results; this enhanced group effectiveness tends to correspond with group harmony. However, collaborative groups may include parties who tend to exercise too much control over the group's actions or, conversely, offer little input or support for group activities. "Controlling members" as well as "shirking members" create critical problems for collaborative groups and their work.

There may be many reasons that members engage in either controlling behavior or shirking behavior. A lack of trust may explain some members' behavior (Galvin, 1998; Stout, 1998). When group members do not trust the intentions, competence, or motivations of other members, they may tend to try to control the direction and decisions of the group or they may withdraw from the group to the degree possible. Controlling or shirking behavior may also reflect members' general lack of commitment to change toward a more collaborative school. Whether members behave in an aggressive or passive-aggressive fashion, their intentions may be to resist change and to persist with the current school organization and processes. Either type behavior (controlling or shirking) can threaten the survival and effectiveness of the group, upsetting the balance of inputs among members and potentially alienating other group members.

An imbalance in member involvement and participation in group activities is a touchy interpersonal process to address and remedy. However, failure to openly and directly deal with the problem will only allow the group dynamics to spin more out of balance. Although there is risk involved for a group to openly address any type of interpersonal problem,

feelings of trust and commitment are more likely to increase with candid and open exchanges than with continued unspoken assumptions and attributions. Often a neutral outside party can be helpful in facilitating these types of direct and honest communication.

*Closing Comments*

It is my hope that readers can appreciate the complexity that accompanies school collaboration efforts. Collaborative school architects must consider many factors, starting with the *organizational structure* of schools. How do existing structures enhance or inhibit the likelihood of effective collaboration? For example, do school rewards, incentives, communication networks, and coordination tools facilitate or undermine potential collaborative efforts? How can these and other school structures be modified to be more consistent with the goals of collaboration?

Next, how should the *change process* be approached? Is first order change or second order change more appropriate? What persistence dynamics can be expected, worked with, and worked through as a natural part of the change process? What are the anticipated *costs and benefits* of collaboration? How can organizational structures and group processes be designed to minimize costs in relation to collaboration's benefits or resource gains? To what degree can collaboration among teachers and other school professionals enhance student learning and favorable school experiences? If so, how can *teachers' work be redesigned* to encourage work group effectiveness? What work group structures, processes, and contextual factors can be developed to increase work group effectiveness to best serve the needs of students? Similarly, how can other education or social service agency professionals' work be aligned more closely with teachers' work for the purpose of better serving students? How can these professionals learn to overcome their separate *role socialization* to work effectively together? What are the anticipated effects of school collaboration on *teaching and learning* and *school leadership*? What kinds of *professional preparation and development* are needed to help educators learn to work collaboratively?

The difficulty with implementing any

collaborative effort is that all of these factors must be considered in combination — as interacting factors. These multiple considerations or perspectives do not operate in isolation of one another; a wholistic approach is required. Therein lies the complexity of school collaboration. The salience of one factor relative to another may vary depending on the particular school, collaborative effort, point in time, or key players involved. Thus, few of us would be willing to offer strict formulas for effective collaboration.

However, we do offer two strong and resounding recommendations to those embarking on collaborative school efforts. First, the primary reason that schools should engage in collaborative work is to enhance the benefits and services to students. All other purposes of collaboration are subordinate to that of effectively meeting students' needs. Second, collaborative work structures and processes should be developed around the teaching-learning process. Improved teaching and learning should be the highest priority and focus of collaborative schools.

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## UCEA Staff for the New Millennium

This past summer brought many staff changes to UCEA headquarters. James R. Crawford, former UCEA Graduate Assistant, was appointed UCEA Associate Director effective July 1, replacing Richard V. Hatley who retired from the position in May. James holds a master's degree in educational administration (University of Idaho) and a Ph.D. from the University of Missouri. In addition to other duties, he will be responsible for management of the UCEA program centers.



Elton R. Boone replaces Sean A. Flynt as Assistant to the Director. Elton holds a double bachelor's degree in English and anthropology (Illinois State). His responsibilities include database management, publication editing and layout, convention registration, invoices, mailings, and general service.



Lisa C. Wright will be continuing as UCEA's Financial Director. Lisa is a certified public accountant with a master's degree in accounting from the University of Missouri. She manages billings, dues payments, investments, and accounting.



Three University of Missouri graduate assistants serve the Consortium this

year. Timothy O. Smith, who has been with UCEA since 1996, will continue as a graduate assistant while completing his doctorate. He currently holds a master's degree in economics (University of Missouri). Tim will be assisting with various research projects, particularly the multi-state administrative pipeline study, as well as working on awards programs and UCEA website maintenance.



Two new graduate assistants join UCEA this year. Jeffrey A. St. Omer will serve as UCEA's census manager and publication project manager as well as coordinating convention exhibits. Jeffrey holds a bachelor's degree in history (Tuskegee University) and is currently pursuing a joint J.D. and master's degree in higher education administration.



Mary E. French will be editor of the *UCEA Review* and will be responsible for maintaining UCEA's electronic *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership* and the UCEA website. Mary holds a master's degree in anthropology (University of Arkansas) and is currently pursuing a second master's in library science. ❖



### UCEA Mourns a Distinguished Colleague



**John T. Greer**

John T. "Jack" Greer, retired Professor of Educational Administration at Georgia State University, died July 18, 1999. In 1969, Greer became founding chairman of the Georgia State University educational administration department. He acquired a national reputation for his involvement with UCEA and his work in South America as a consultant to the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. Greer served as UCEA's president from 1987-1988 and, in 1998, was awarded the first Lifetime Achievement Award given by the Southern Regional Conference of Educational Administrators. Since his retirement in 1997, Greer devoted much of his time to community organizations and to serving as editor of the local newspaper in his adopted home of Big Canoe, Georgia.

### UCEA EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE 1999-2000

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# The Status of Collaboration in the Preparation of School Leaders

M. Scott Norton  
Arizona State University



Universities involved in the preparation of school leaders are currently experiencing increased criticism regarding their effectiveness. Practitioners have expressed the view that preparation programs lack relevance and in some instances they have proposed that administrators can best be prepared by practitioners in an on-the-job setting. Business groups and administrator associations have expressed similar opinions and have stated that universities should not be given the full responsibility for administrator preparation and licensure. These groups say that they must be involved in the preparation of school leaders if excellence is to be achieved. On the other hand, university faculty are confident concerning the quality of their preparation programs. They claim to have the necessary research knowledge and thus are in the best position to provide both the conceptual and practical preparation of school leaders. Collaboration is one strategy that serves to gain the participation of the various individuals and groups interested in preparing quality administrators.

## The Study

In the Spring of 1999, a national study of the status of collaborative efforts in preparation programs for school leaders was initiated by the UCEA Program Center for Preparation Programs. The purpose of the study was to ascertain the status of collaborative activities between/among preparation programs in UCEA universities and the several constituencies noted above. Each UCEA program was asked to describe the department's collaborative activities relative to the preparation of school leaders. It was assumed that this information would provide a basis for determining the extent to which educational administration programs were involving other individuals and groups in the

preparation of school leaders.

An instrument was designed based on input from members of the Advisory Committee of the UCEA Program Center and practitioners of educational administration. The instrument focused on the following areas: (1) Collaborative Activities Within Departments or Divisions of Educational Administration, (2) Collaborative Activities Between Educational Administration and Other Units (Departments) Within the College, (3) Collaborative Activities Between the Educational Administration Unit and Other Colleges Within the University, (4) Collaboration Between the Educational Administration Unit and Schools and/or School Districts, Educational Associations or Agencies, (5) Collaborative Activities With Business Enterprises, and (6) Other Collaborative Activities and/or Collaborative Arrangements of Educational Administration Units. Forty-six UCEA member institutions participated in the study.

## Study Findings

(1) Collaborative Activities Within Departments or Divisions of Educational Administration.

among the various programs (e.g., educational administration, higher education, policy studies, etc.) within the unit?" 86.7% department chairs responded positively. Only four chairs reported that this type of collaboration did not occur. It is possible that these four programs were singular rather than multiple in their organizational structure. Nevertheless, the overwhelming majority of education administration programs were working collaboratively with other programs in the unit in some manner.

Six specific collaborative activities were listed for the respondent's consideration with an opportunity for listing additional activities. Table 1 reveals the specific collaborative activities and the percent of chairs reporting that the activity was on-going

Within the units that housed educational administration, nearly 75% of reporting UCEA universities collaborated with other unit programs in the determination of faculty representation on master's and doctoral student committees. Although no specific pattern for cross-program representation was determined, a few specific procedures were

Type of Collaboration	% of Utilization
Service on Master's and Doctoral Student Committees	73.3%
Selection of Faculty for the Educational Administration Unit	66.7%
Delivery of Specific Courses (other faculty teach EDA courses)	63.3%
Program Design in Educational Administration	53.3%
Student Admissions in Educational Administration	40.0%
Team Teaching Arrangements	30.0%
Other Collaborative Activities	20.0%

**Table 1: Collaborative Activities Among Programs Within the Educational Administration Unit**

To the question: "Does your educational administration unit have specific collaborative activities between and/or

noted. For example, in some cases committee selection was based on the prospective member's expertise in such ar-

eas as research methodology, policy planning and evaluation. In other instances, a committee member was selected based on the student's research topic and the faculty member's expertise in that field. In other situations, representation on committees was assigned with faculty load in mind. That is, faculty from other program areas in the unit were utilized to reduce the committee load of educational administration faculty.

Selection of faculty for the educational administration program was another area in which collaboration between and among program areas was prominent. Two-thirds of the respondents reported that selection of new faculty was collaborative. One institution reported that search committees for faculty had unit-wide representation. Another chair noted that "all department faculty participate in the selection process for new faculty" (i.e., educational administration, higher education and policy studies). Faculty from all program emphases within the unit served on faculty selection committees in 66.7% of reporting universities.

Faculty from other program areas taught specific educational administration courses at nearly two-thirds of responding universities. One participant noted that all courses in the organizational unit were available to all students in educational administration. Common core requirements that included courses in the various program areas were common. Many program options included courses taught across program areas. Another common form of collaboration was the use of faculty from areas other than educational administration to teach a unit or present guest lectures in educational administration courses. One participant reported that new faculty were expected to teach in more than one program area. One chair noted, "we use a common student admission form and process." Faculty members from each program emphasis in the unit acted on student admissions.

(2) Collaborative Activities Between the Educational Administration Unit and Other Units (Departments) Within the College

Eighty percent of the reporting universities actively collaborated with other program units within the college. Such

collaboration was most prominent in the areas of representation on master's and doctoral committees and in the delivery of instruction whereby other unit faculty taught specific courses in educational administration. Nearly 60% of the chairs reported student committee collaboration and 50% of them listed the teaching of courses by other program unit faculty personnel as a collaborative activity. Limited collaboration between educational administration programs and other college program units took place in such areas as faculty selection activities, program design in educational administration, and team teaching arrangements. However, joint activities took place at the college level in areas such as governance committee work, research projects, and the restructuring of major programs such as teacher education.

In the area of degree programs, one institution noted the existence of joint degree programs between educational administration and other units. Students were admitted in both educational administration and a collaborative unit. Most common, however, was the practice of requiring some credits from courses in other programs such as psychology or curriculum and instruction. In one instance, a master's degree program required courses from three different program units.

One university reported several collaborative programs between the educational administration program and other programs in the college. For example, the M.Ed. in teacher leadership was a collaborative program of two departments, educational administration and curriculum and instruction. Additionally, educational administration faculty sometimes taught courses in curriculum and instruction and in educational psychology. In regard to student doctoral committees, all committees were required to have at least two members outside the department.

Another common collaborative effort reported was the cross-listing of courses. Educational administration units frequently cross-listed courses with such programs as educational policies, urban planning, curriculum and instruction, educational psychology, and others.

(3) Collaborative Activities Between the Educational Administration Unit and

Other Colleges Within the University

Exactly one-half of the 46 UCEA universities reported some form of collaborative activity between the educational administration unit and other colleges within the university. Of the 23 programs involved in such collaboration, 30% listed faculty representation from other colleges on master's and/or doctoral committees and 26.7% reported that faculty personnel from other colleges delivered specific courses to educational administration students. Few educational administration programs reported that faculty from other colleges in the university served in the selection of educational administration faculty, were involved in team teaching arrangements with educational administration faculty, or participated in educational administration program design. However, several chairs noted such collaborative practices as joint degree programs (business and educational administration) or the offering of special courses by other colleges for educational administration students. With the exception of service on student committees and the teaching of specific courses in educational administration by faculty in other colleges, collaboration between the educational administration programs and other colleges in the university was limited.

The cross-listing of courses between educational administration and other colleges was quite common (e.g., educational administration and business) and team teaching arrangements with such colleges as business and public administration were also noted. One chair reported a joint degree program in operation between educational administration and the law school, and another chair reported an inter-departmental minor in the area of sports management with the school of business, athletic department, health department and the department of human performance. In a related example, one university reported current activity on a collaborative program with health-related faculty (e.g., dental and medical schools) in which the doctoral committees consisted of members from each program emphasis.

(4) Collaboration Between Educational Administration Programs and School Districts, Educational Associations or Agencies.

Nearly 87% of the participating educational administration programs reported collaboration activities with school systems, educational administration or agencies. Over three-fourths (76.7%) of the chairs reported collaborative internship programs and 53% were involved in school district partnerships for school leader preparation. Other prominent programs with school districts included advisory arrangements concerning curriculum design and course offerings in educational administration (50.0%), the use of school facilities for instructional purposes (46.7%), and the participation of school districts or other educational agencies in cooperative research activities (46.7%). Nearly 25% of the respondents reported the use of a local school as an "administrative laboratory." Other specific examples of practices in this area of collaboration were as follows:

In several cases, local school districts collaborated with university programs in the supervision of field experiences, practica and internships. School and university research partnerships were also common. School study councils and other special school collaborative projects were reported. One active school study council, which had over 100 member schools, worked with one educational administration program and the university on various research projects and professional development activities. Leadership institutes, held on a statewide basis, were reported as collaborative programs by four universities. The practices of using specific school sites for delivering courses in educational administration and serving as special certification cohorts were reported by several chairs. In one instance, educational administration program candidates were interviewed by local administrators in relative to admission qualifications by several chairs. In one instance, educational administration program candidates were interviewed by local administrators in relative to admission qualifications.

#### (5) Collaborative Activities With Business Enterprises

Only 16.7% of the universities reported collaborative activities with the business field. Five chairs reported the involvement of business leaders in "advisory capacities" related to program

design and program relevance. Three reported receiving financial support from businesses, three reported the use of business personnel for instructional purposes, and one chair reported financial support for a student. Nevertheless, collaborative programs between departments of educational administration and business were limited.

#### (6) Other Collaborative Activities Reported by Units of Educational Administration

Study participants were asked to report other collaborative activities that had not been included in their previous reports. The University of Nevada-Las Vegas described its collaborative Principal Preparation Program. This program is a master's degree program offered through the educational administration department and leads to K-12 administrative licensure. Specifically, the program is designed as a collaborative effort between the University and the Clark County School District. Teachers currently employed by the Clark County School District, who are nominated by their building principals, may be considered for admission. Selected participants complete degree requirements in a two-year cohort program. A unique feature of the program is that each cohort member is assigned a mentor principal who is a practicing administrator in the district.

The University of Minnesota described its cooperative doctoral program in Educational Policy and Administration with Mankato State University and Winona State University. Courses are offered at the University of Minnesota Rochester Center and other convenient sites. Some courses may be offered by Internet or other distance education technologies. Students who complete the program requirements earn an Ed.D. degree in Educational Policy and Administration from the University of Minnesota. A second cohort was underway at the time this study was being conducted with St. Cloud State University; a first cohort was being planned with state universities in Winona and Mankato beginning for the Summer of 1999.

Another chair reported that, due to the area school districts' concern with quantity and quality of applicants for administrative vacancies, the educational administration department had instituted

partnerships with districts near the campus as well as in the metropolitan area 60 miles from campus. These partnerships involved district and university personnel in recruiting, delivering of the program and guiding the program through a steering committee. These programs are for educators seeking principal licensing and the M.A. or educational specialist degrees.

The University of Kentucky had initiated a collaborative school superintendency certification program involving all state universities. Beginning in the fall of 1999, all universities will use common course titles, common course numbers, and common course syllabi. Students will be able to take any required certification course at any participating university.

The University of Nebraska at Lincoln reported collaborative programs with several European/Australian universities to develop and deliver programs for the doctorate in higher education.

One UCEA member department indicated that it maintained a placement file that was used by regional school districts for the recruitment and selection of administrative personnel. Several other departments underscored close working relationships with state and national educational administration councils, institutes and associations.

#### *Summary and Conclusions*

The following summarizes the information gathered from 46 UCEA universities regarding the status of collaborative efforts in preparation programs for school leaders.

(a) educational administration units housed with other program emphases were using collaborative activities within these programs to a relatively high degree. The service of inter-unit faculty members on master's and doctoral committees was practiced by nearly 75%. More than 50% reported collaborative activities within the unit in the selection of new faculty, course delivery, and in the design of student programs in educational administration.

(b) collaboration of departments of educational administration and other program units within the college was also common. The representation of faculty members from other college programs on master's and doctoral committees and in course delivery were most

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(UCEA). These events conspired significantly to change educational administrator preparation.

The field of educational administration is a relatively new one, especially when we think of a field as having claim to a specialized body of knowledge. Prior to the middle of the 20th Century, no authoritative claims of this kind were made. It is true that earlier in the Century, there were flirtations with scientific management, human relations, and other intellectual “movements,” but professors of educational administration were still essentially practitioners who pragmatically embraced popular ideas of the day as the foundation for their curricula. By mid-Century, however, within the university, the press was on for educational administration to have a body of technical knowledge that was “scientific.” Thus was born what has been called the theory movement in educational administration, a period whose illusions lasted about ten years.

Although some of the earliest (1950s) advocates of a scientific approach to building knowledge in educational administration were naively taken with logical positivism, it is not clear that positivism in its essential form was ever embraced by researchers in this field. The movement did raise unrealistic hopes for a coherent grand theory of administration and a science-like corpus of general knowledge that might serve as a platform for practice, but it soon settled for much less. Additionally, the theory movement did raise the bar as far as expectations for defensible systematic inquiry are concerned. But, aside from Getzels and Guba’s initial demonstration theory, there are few examples in the half century since, of theory construction or the nearly mathematical deduction of propositions and claims of objectivity advanced by card-carrying logical positivists. There have been examples of theory development of limited scope — efforts to develop causal models of limited phenomena. This is not, however, the stuff logical positivism is made of.

The belief in, and hope for, a scientific theory of administration did create in some an intellectual arrogance that was, to say the least, off-putting and hardly justified. Guba, parodying that

attitude at its height:

Well, we would say, ‘practice is hardly our concern. We don’t know what the practical problems are. It’s up to you administrators who have to deal with these problems every day to make the application. And as for not understanding our language, well, you can hardly fault us for that. If we are in the ivory tower, then you are surely in the basement. If we should descend so as to speak your language, why don’t you ascend and meet us at least halfway up?’ (1975, p. 372).

Momentum for a theory movement in educational administration can be traced to the early 1950s with the presentation of the Getzels Guba model. But, already by 1967, Halpin had declared the movement dead (Monohan, 1975, p. 4). It is somewhat mysterious, then, that Greenfield’s notorious critique of the theory movement almost seven years later (1974) could cause such a stir. Greenfield himself was surprised by the hostile reaction to his notorious attack on social science and the separation of fact from value (Greenfield, 1993, p. 243). His critique would have been more comprehensible if, at the time of its delivery, there had been a great cohort of productive positivist researchers turning out sheaves of theoretical explanation about schools and children, socializing fledgling school administrators to manipulate these findings and theories without contextual consciousness or even a bow to community values. But there was not. Even during the height of educational administration’s infatuation with pseudo-positivism, there were not enough manuscripts produced consistent with that paradigm, even interpreting its features loosely, to fill four issues of *Educational Administration Quarterly*, making it the only quarterly published thrice yearly.

It did not take the extremes of a flirtation with logical positivism for educational administration as a profession to be wary of placing exclusive trust in technical knowledge. Fewer than ten years into the theory movement, Culbertson provided caution against an unwarranted reliance on science:

Knowledge about the social sciences cannot provide complete

guides for dealing with administrative processes. Moral issues face school leaders as they engage in these processes, and such issues transcend scientific theories. Thus, science can provide pertinent understandings through such concepts as “community power structure.” However, it cannot give a complete answer to administrators about the manner or the extent to which they should manipulate the “power structure.” (1962, p. 161).

Two years later, Willower made a similar point: “Commitment to reflective methods is itself a value, and it is an essential one if aims are to be achieved effectively; however, broad educational ideals which reflect sensitivity to human dignity and potentials must guide action as well. Science after all, should be man’s servant, not his master” (1964, p. 94-95). Most recently, Wiggins has made the indictment absolutely clear: “The promise of a science of administration has never been fulfilled, and research in the field has made little contribution to the practice of administration” (Wiggins, 1992, p. 5). Many debatable questions remain about the theory movement in educational administration and its contributions/effects and they will not be settled here.

What then were future practitioners of educational administration learning and, what technical knowledge were they being exposed to during and after the theory movement? It may be that the effects of the theory movement have been vastly exaggerated. For example, Hills, writing in the first issue of *EAQ* about those effects, assures us that “there seem to be relatively few concrete indications of any sweeping changes in the field” (1965, p. 58). In that same issue, Andrew Halpin, in characteristic directness, announced that he “. . . started out with high hope. But now as I look at the field ten years later, I find myself dismayed by the trivial progress that we have achieved” (p. 53).

At least two points can be made. First, there was a gradual inclusion of social science content in educational administration curriculum after the mid-1950s. Increasingly, professors with interests in sociology, economics, and psychology backgrounds replaced the traditional re-

tired practitioners as program faculty. A little later, law was added as a specialty. But, few of these professors were trained social scientists, lawyers or economists; most were graduates of educational administration programs who had emphasized research during their own doctoral training and had been influenced by a like mentor-scholar. General courses in school administration gave way to courses in the specialties and faculty were expected to teach and do research in their specialties. The courses lacked integration with each other and did not generally constitute a cohesive professional preparation program

Second, the list of specialties and courses offered in educational administration programs stabilized relatively quickly. By the 1960s, courses in organizational theory, school finance, school business administration, personnel, instructional supervision, facilities planning and role courses (superintendent and principal) were standard fare. This list is not significantly different from the list of the 1970s (McNally & Dean, pp. 113-114), or indeed, the list found by Silver & Spuck in 1978 (Silver & Spuck, 1978).

In sum, early in the thirty-three year period that covers the theory movement until The National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration Report (1987), technical knowledge in educational administration programs became specialized. Some of the specialties (especially law, finance, organizational theory) appeared to gain a place in the curriculum because there was existing or emerging technical knowledge and esoteric content in these specialties that could be borrowed and/or adapted, giving substance and credibility to these specialists and courses. Other curriculum elements remained closer to practice and the content of these remained soft. A great part of the enduring corpus of technical knowledge making up the educational administration curriculum was, and continued to be, borrowed. Self criticisms by academics in the years leading up to the National Commission called the technical knowledge of the field marginally relevant, immature, and unrelated to successful practice (See Murphy, 1992, pp. 84-87).

Practice knowledge for preparing school administrators was also severely

criticized at the end of this period. Some efforts at establishing internship, use of cases, simulations, and other practice oriented learning had all but disappeared from the university. Getting a degree and license in school administration was akin to "getting your ticket punched." Many were skeptical about whether it had much to do with the successful practice of school leadership.

*What has happened during the last decade in educational administration?*

In the arena of reform, rhetoric often outstrips reality. The desire to improve this profession is widespread and we want so much to believe that we are efficacious that it is easy to convince ourselves, and others, that we have made more progress than the facts might support.

In 1992, Murphy's Landscape of Leadership Preparation provided a comprehensive review and synthesis of research and commentary on professional preparation for this field (1992). In reference to practice knowledge and preparation, Murphy concluded that:

The field-based component continues to be infected with weaknesses that have been revisited on a regular basis since the first decade of the behavioral science revolution in administrative preparation: (a) "unclear or even conflicting objectives" (Cronin & Horoschak, 1973, p. 16); (b) inadequate number of clinical experiences; (c) activities arranged on the basis of convenience; (d) overemphasis on role-centered as opposed to problem-centered experiences; (e) "lack of individualization in 'molding' field experiences to students' individual needs and goals" (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971, p. 12); (f) poor planning, supervision, and follow-up; (g) absence of "connecting linkages between on-campus experiences and field-based experiences" (Milstein, 1990, p. 121); and (h) overemphasis on low-level (orientation and passive observation type) activities (Clark, 1988; Daresh, 1987, Milstein, 1990).

At the midpoint of the decade, Murphy was equally critical of progress in the development and delivery of technical

knowledge:

...the indiscriminate adoption of practices untested (Culbertson, 1988) and uninformed by educational values and purposes (Bates, 1984); serious fragmentation (Erickson, 1979; Willower, 1988); the separation of the practice and academic arms of the profession (Carver, 1988; Farquhar, 1968; Goldhammer, 1983); relatively nonrobust strategies for generating new knowledge (Achilles, 1990; Immegart, 1977), the neglect of ethics (Farquhar, 1968); an infatuation with the study of administration for its own sake (Evans, 1991), and the concomitant failure to address outcomes (Boyd & Crowson, 1981; Erickson, 1977, 1979). . . . In short, preparation programs as a group are not only failing to address the right things, they are also doing a fairly poor job of accomplishing the things on which they have chosen to work (Murphy, 1992, pp. 85-86).

McCarthy and Kuh supported this view indicating that "The content specializations of faculty members in 1994 for the most part mirrored traditional course areas included in leadership preparation programs. . ." (1997, p. 247).

The most recent stock-taking is based on data collected by Murphy from educational leadership department chairs at the end of 1996. The results of this survey permit a comparison of department chairs' 1989 reform views with those from 1996. In 1989, only one specified area (clinical experiences) was designated by chairs as having changed "somewhat." In 1996, ten of the 16 specified areas (recruitment of students, selection of students, monitoring/assessing progress, clinical experiences, program content, teaching and learning strategies, practitioner involvement in development, practitioner involvement in delivery, mix of students, and departmental mission/agenda) had been changed more than "somewhat," according to the department chairs. This is no cause for uninhibited rejoicing. However, a decade after strident calls for reform, rigorous and relevant scholarship, concern for practice, and closer ties between the academy and practice, there

seems to be some movement. These data have their limitations and the change reported is modest, but they may signal the downfall of complacency that has characterized faculty since Campbell and Newell studied them in 1972 and as reconfirmed by both McCarthy replications of that work (1988 and 1997).

#### *The Future: Some Possibilities*

While mildly optimistic about the possibilities incremental reform offers the field of educational administration, I pose two questions, the answers to which might guide future reform. The first is, Why has our technical knowledge tended to be irrelevant and unrelated to practice when many clearly wanted it to be both relevant and rigorous? Readers should speculate with me, but a number of factors can be pointed to. Our technical knowledge came after our preparation programs existed and university conditions required that it come into being in a few short years. Consequently, much of it was borrowed from technical knowledge already existing within university specialties, rather than growing out of the tasks of our profession. Often, the fit was far from perfect and it could even be argued that the wrong specialties emerged because of this rapid retrofit of social science and school administration.

Also, the specialties evolved a system of knowledge organization that linked educational administration specialists with other, non-education university specialists, instead of creating conceptual frameworks and language linkages with school practitioners. Early research in this field often focused on administrative behavior rather than on the professional tasks of administration and their relationship to effective school-wide teaching and learning. That seems parallel to studying how physicians behave, rather than how diagnostics and intervention strategies maintain or restore the health of patients.

Instead of developing a specialty in school law or organizational theory, it might for example, have made more sense to create a specialty around building and maintaining positive affective environments in schools. Such a specialty would, of course, have legal and organizational, as well as psychological and sociological aspects to it. But, the technical knowledge that would evolve

from the establishment of such a specialty would be directly related to critical work tasks of school leaders. Its utility would be evident.

On another level, our technical knowledge is not irrelevant. *The Handbook of Research on Educational Administration* (1988), *Educational Administration: The UCEA Document Base* (1996), and the new *Handbook* (Second Edition, 1999) provide a compelling 50 year record of original scholarship and active borrowing. Practicing administrators, cognitive dissonance aside, often regale academics with claims of the utility for theoretical frameworks. When making a case for change, principals and superintendents can pull together a persuasive array of research findings supporting their positions. Yet somehow, much of our technical knowledge seems to have a kind of utility that is remote from practice.

This brings me back to the question of the organization of knowledge and professional preparation. Elsewhere I have argued for an alternative approach to organizing professional knowledge, one that is inductive, arising from the work of school administrators. Instead of having preparation and knowledge organized around university evolved disciplines, it might be organized around "problems of practice," focal work tasks of school administration specified at a middle-range of abstraction (Forsyth & Tallerico, 1993, p. ix). Advantages to such an organizational approach include its obvious relevance to practice, the potential for a distinctive technical and practice knowledge base, and the formation of a common and useful language for scholars and practitioners in our field.

Ilene B. Harris, dual professor of medical education at the University of Minnesota Medical School and College of Education has written a great deal about professional education from her unusual vantage point. At the conclusion of a chapter examining professional competence, Harris asks:

How would education for the professions change if these perspectives were taken seriously? If accreditation bodies, licensure boards, professional schools, institutions of practice, educational policy committees, course directors, teachers, students, and con-

sumers--everyone holding a stake in professional education--were to take these recommendations seriously, what would they do differently? (Harris, 1993, pp. 51).

Her answer to her rhetorical question is that "With respect to the content and process of professional education, (1) education for the professions, at every level, should be organized to a greater extent around the problems of practice. . ." (Harris, 1993, pp. 51).

The move to a "problems of practice" organization of knowledge, scholarship and delivery in educational administration would not be easily accomplished. Experimentation with this approach has been going on in medical and law schools for some time and our field has also had advocates for problem based learning (Bridges, 1992). Without a major restructuring of technical knowledge, research agendas, and specialties around a set of "problems of practice," adopting a problem based learning approach could easily trivialize preparation in this field, eliminating both breath and depth. The current trend toward lock-step, group delivery of administrator preparation, without supporting and parallel changes in knowledge organization, will produce contented, but weak content cohort experiences and unprepared school leaders.

A second question is, Why have practice knowledge experiences such as the internship been so unstable in this field, despite nearly universal agreement about their importance to the preparation of practitioners? It could be argued that the professors of educational administration of recent decades don't know much about practice. Consequently they are not very interested in practice or designing practice learning experiences. Moreover, their employing university will punish them for this kind of effort, seeing such activity as inconsistent with its focus on being listed in the absolutely silly and meaningless "top ten program" lists.

Take for example an educational administration equivalent of grand rounds in medicine. At a weekly gathering of an advanced practicum, an educational administration intern reports on a field case she has been assigned to, reporting that, over a period of six months, a large group of middle school parents have

become extremely divided over curriculum decisions made by the school the previous year, at the urging of a progressive group of history and literature teachers. Some of the upset parents have children previously in gifted programs and who, their parents claim, are now bored to tears because they are in classes covering old material. A parent group of similar size is distraught at what they view as the unfair placement of their children in a series of classes that moves too quickly through the curriculum. They have not learned the foundational material and they are unprepared to move on.

A professor of educational administration may not be very well equipped to shepherd a sophisticated analysis of the above situation, one that produces understanding and reviews administrative, legal, policy, psychological, sociological, etc. theory and research related to the case under consideration. A professor's instincts may be entirely wrong for a practice environment. The professor may have never practiced school administration or anything except research design. The professor may, in fact, have no practice knowledge. Her ability to sift through salient context, separate what is unique about this volatile situation from what is pattern, focus on the important features and generate potential strategies that help children, may not be very impressive. This, despite the fact she may be a highly regarded scholar. Having separated the delivery of practice knowledge and technical knowledge for so long, and having effectively removed practice preparation from the university, professors seem not well prepared to plan, organize, and provide this critical part of professional preparation.

I have discussed our profession, from the perspective of technical and practice knowledge, arguing that a balance of these two is needed and that both knowledge domains need a great deal of attention in the field of educational administration. Some directions for future movement have been hinted at, work to be done that builds on a foundation of reform efforts now more than ten years old. In my view, it would be a great loss to the profession if research universities were to lose their right to participate in the preparation of school administrators.

However, I believe they will lose that right, unless they can abandon a preoccupation with lines of research that are irrelevant to practice, and design and provide rigorous preparation in both technical and practice knowledge.

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## UCEA Welcomes Two Universities

The University Council for Educational Administration would like to extend a warm welcome to its two most recent members, **Kent State University** and **Iowa State University**. UCEA now has 60 member universities.

Kent State University's Department of Teaching, Leadership and Curriculum Studies joins UCEA with the following faculty: Dale Cook (chair), Fred Feitler, Catherine Hackney, Awilda Hamilton, John F. Heflin, Elaine S. Hogard, William Konnert, Patrick Love, Steve O. Michael (Plenary Session Representative), and Stephen Thomas.

The Educational Leadership and Policy Studies department at Iowa State University brings faculty members Larry Ebbers, Fenwick English, Nancy Evans, Jerry Gilley, Donald Hackmann (Plenary Session Representative), Alexandra Hall, Florence Hamrick, Mary Huba, Deborah Kilgore, Barbara Licklider, John Littrell, Richard Manatt, Emily Moore, Ellen Mullen, William Poston, Daniel Robinson, John Schuh (chair), Betty Steffy, Thomas Thielen, and John Van Ast to UCEA.

If you would like information about admission criteria for UCEA, please contact the University Council for Educational Administration at 205 Hill Hall, Columbia, MO 62511.

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### New Job Posting Service

UCEA will again post educational administration positions. To submit a posting, e-mail the following to Mary French at [c733639@showme.missouri.edu](mailto:c733639@showme.missouri.edu):

- position title
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- URL (Web address at your university where interested individuals can view the job description and application procedure)

*Norton continued from page 13*

common.

(c) fifty percent of the programs reported collaboration activities with other colleges in the university. Most common was the representation of faculty from other colleges on student graduate committees and the delivery of courses to educational administration students.

(d) nearly 90% of the programs in the study had collaborative arrangements with local school districts. Such activities as collaborative internships, program advisory arrangements, use of school facilities for instructional purposes and cooperative research activities were common.

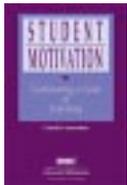
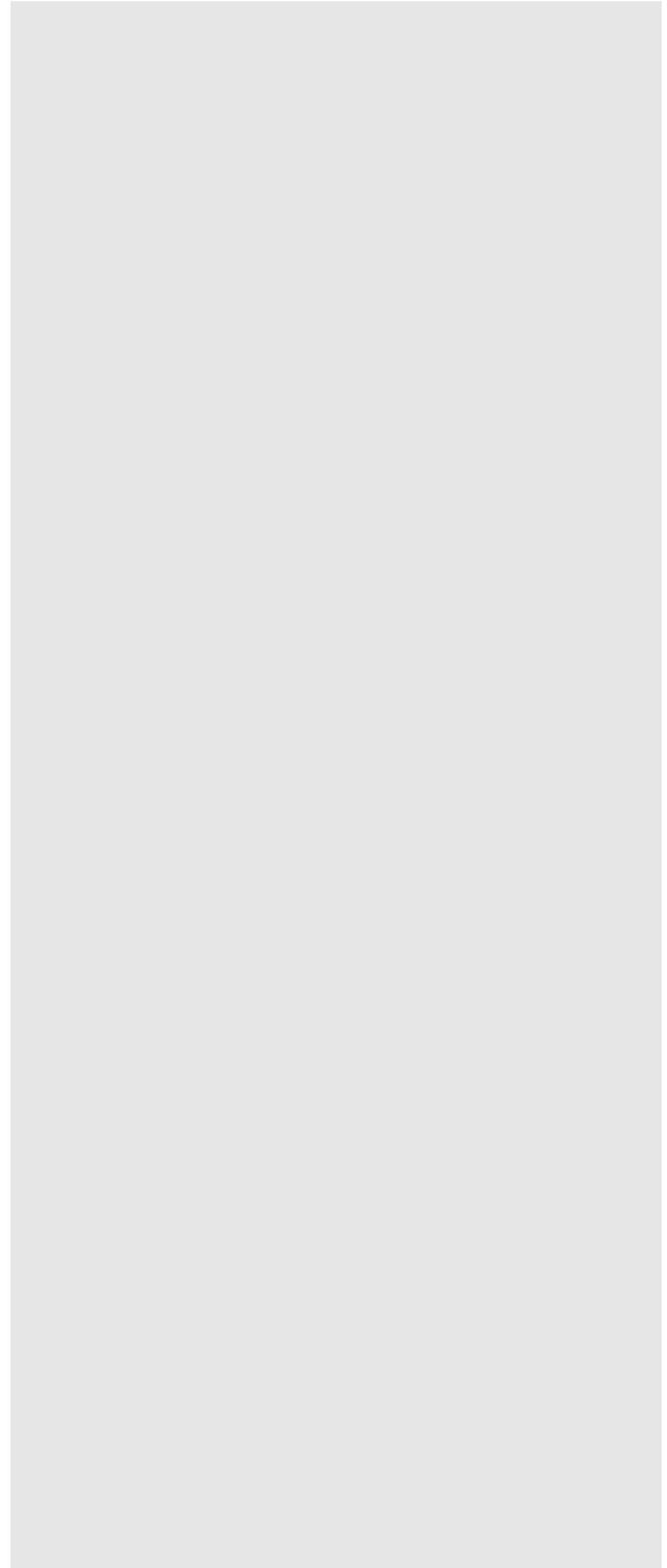
(e) UCEA universities were involved in collaborative activities with business enterprises in a limited way (16.7%). In some cases, the use of business leaders in an "advisory capacity" concerning program design and relevance was practiced.

(f) several educational administration departments had collaborative degree program arrangements with other universities in the state. Several collaborative degree and certification programs between departments of educational administration and local school districts were noted. One university described the collaborative effort taking place within the state for superintendency certification. All state universities will have common course titles, numbers, and syllabi, and students will be able to enroll in any required certification course at any of the participating universities.

Although the study served the purpose of providing needed information concerning the extent of collaborative activities in school leadership preparation, it did not provide related data on program accountability or program quality. Have collaboration activities within departments and divisions of educational leadership resulted in a different perspective of program accountability? Have such activities resulted in the attraction of better students to the field of educational administration or resulted in significant curricular changes that have brought a higher degree of program "relevance?"

The UCEA Program Center for Preparation Programs plans to design other follow-up studies that will serve to provide

better answers to these and other such questions. If left unanswered, educational administration programs possibly could be collaborating just for the "sake of collaboration," rather than for the important reasons that center on program improvement.



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