ABSTRACT
              Several factors to take into account when assessing
the effectiveness of programs for teaching educational administration
are reviewed in this paper. Three of these factors relate to those
engaged in learning: their stages of individual development, their
tendency toward initial dependence, and their needs to master and to
belong. Three more factors relate to the setting in which the
learning takes place: the use of student assessment, the grouping of
students from disparate backgrounds (including different educational
organizations), and the dynamics of group teaching. The last two
factors considered in the paper relate to course content: first, the
goodness of fit between the teaching styles adopted and the learning
objectives sought, and second, the effectiveness of the different
degrees and types of "reality" of the content, particularly in light
of the level of economic development of the countries from which the
students come. A 19-item checklist based on the paper's conclusions
regarding these factors is provided as a tool for use in assessing
program effectiveness. (PGD)

ASSESSING EFFECTIVENESS IN THE FIELD OF

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION PROGRAMMES

IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

by

Dr. Bill Mulford
A Principal Lecturer in Educational Administration
Chairman, Dept. of Adult Learning and Teaching
School of Education
Canberra College of Advanced Education
A.C.T.

INTRODUCTION

It could be argued that there is no one best approach to professional preparation programmes in educational administration. Because each approach is appropriate for some learners, in some settings, and for some content, it could be further argued that the matter is far too complex for meaningful analysis and application. While this may in fact be the case, it would seem to be an abrogation of our responsibility as teachers of educational administration to simply accept such an argument without first making our own attempt to unravel the complexities involved.

Although there is a degree of conflict over the most appropriate paradigm for use in the area of education administration,[1] the content of our subject appears similar across courses offered by different institutions and teachers.[2] What, then, are some of the factors that need to be taken into consideration in assessing the effectiveness of professional development programmes in educational administration?

In what follows, it is not my intention to provide yet another "cook book" on how to evaluate. There is much written in this area that is readily accessible (see for example, Henderson[3]). It is my intention to examine the complexities involved and in so doing to highlight what I consider to be major aspects of what needs to be assessed.

For convenience, let me divide the examination into three interrelated areas-- the learners, setting and content.

1. THE LEARNER

What is learnt can often be different from what was intended by the teacher. The learner will respond not only to planned content and activities but also to the skills, strategies, meanings, and values implied as the teacher teaches. As well, the learners themselves will be different.

What are some characteristics of the learner that will help determine different responses to what is taught? The first area examined for answers to this question is that of **stages of adult development.** Particular emphasis is then placed on the issue of **dependence.** Finally, two trends in individual learning, **to master and to belong,** are discussed.

1.1 Stages of Individual Development

A comprehensive review of andragogy (adult learning) and its implications for teacher training can be found elsewhere.[4] For the purposes of this paper, however, it is worth repeating in chart form a highly speculative and tentative attempt to make relationships between adult personality characteristics and, on the one hand, student learning (such as their motives for education, and the attitudes towards the origin and use of knowledge), and, on the other hand, teaching practices (such as approaches, student-teacher relationships and evaluation).

Four of Loevinger's[5] stages of ego development are used as a base for the adult characteristics in Chart I.[6] These stages are "Self-protective Opportunistic" (I'll do what I'm told to do or whatever I can get away with), "Conformist" (I'll do only what others do, what is expected of me, what is best for my career advancement), "Conscientious" (I'll do what is best for the organization or what the job demands), and "Autonomous" (I'll do what is best for my own development but in so doing will respect others' autonomy and be aware of the need for interdependence between people).

The data concerning developmental stages can help us think more clearly about both content and process. They clarify the larger motives behind the investments of time, money and energy and behind the personal sacrifices made by adult students. They show us the more fundamental purposes that underlie degree aspirations, the pursuit of promotion or a career change, the desire to meet new persons, read more widely, explore new ideas and interests. They remind us that the existential questions of meaning, purpose, vocation, and social responsibility, dependence, human relationships which so many adolescents face with difficulty, are re-confronted by many thirty, forty, and sixty-year-olds.

With such information in our working knowledge we can more effectively distinguish between those whose aim is simply professional training and those people whose professional concerns involve clarification of the major expectations of a job or the career patterns associated with it. We can better recognise that the thirty-five-year-old who comes to educational administration courses for clearly specified professional knowledge or competence, need for promotion or a new opportunity will define a programme and approach it very differently from the forty-five-year-old who wonders whether all those long hours, family sacrifices, shortchanged human relationships and atrophied interests are really worth it. Both of these teachers or educational administrators will be different, as students, from the twenty-five-year-old eagerly exploring the potentials of a first career choice.

With respect to programme evaluation, there is the clear implication that courses that rely on various forms of student feedback should take into account characteristics of respondents in assessing the reasons behind the positive or negative results. For example, is it "good" or "bad" that 25% of respondents disliked your course because they say it was unstructured with not enough lectures from those in charge and that students had too much to say, especially in respect to evaluation?

It would appear that few adults--including educational administrators-- naturally progress through the developmental stages. Movement from one developmental stage to the next occurs through cycles of challenge and response, cognitive dissonance, cultural discontinuity, differentiation and integration. It occurs when a person confronts situations for which old ways are not adequate and which require new ways of thinking and acting. The experience may be upsetting and uncomfortable. After all, coping with

CHART 1

Four of Loevinger's Ego Development Stages	Motive for Education	What Use is Knowledge?	Where does Knowledge Come From?	Teaching Practices	Student-Teacher Relationships	Evaluation
Self protective opportunitistic	Instrumental: satisfy immediate needs	Education to get means to concrete ends, used by self to obtain effects in world	From external authority from asking how to get things	Lecture-exam	Teacher is authority, transmitter, judge student is receiver, judged	By teacher only
Conformist	Impress signifi-cant others gain social acceptance, obtain creden-tials and recognition	Education to be: social approval appearance, status used by self to achieve according to expectations and standards of significant others	From external authority from asking what others expect and how to do it	Teacher-led dialogue or discussion / Open 'leaderless' learner centred discussion	(as above) / Teacher is a 'model' for student identification	By teacher only / By teacher and peers
Conscientious	Achieve competence regarding competitive or normative standards; increase capacity to meet social responsibilities	Education to do: competence in work and social roles, used to achieve internalised standards of excellence and to serve society	Personal inte-gration of information based on rational inquiry from setting goals from asking what is needed, how things work, and why	Programmed learning, correspondence study, televised interaction	"Teaching" is an abstraction behind system student a recipient	By system
Autonomous	Deepen understanding of self, world and life cycle, develop increasing capacity to manage own destiny	Education to become: self-knowledge, self development used to transform self and the world	Personal experience and reflection, personally generated paradigms, insights, judgements	Contract learning 1: Time, objectives activities, evaluation, negotiated between student and teacher at the outset and held throughout	Student defines purposes in collegial relationship with teacher	By teacher, peer, system, self, teacher final judge
				Contract Learning 2: Time, objectives activities, evaluation, defined generally by student, modifiable with experience	Teacher is resource, contributes to planning and evaluation	By teacher, peers, system, self self final judge

disequilibrium, learning new skills, assimilating new knowledge, and resolving value conflicts does not always happen simply and smoothly. The principle involved here is best illustrated in a learning style based on "transforming" rather than a learning style based on "forming."

Past experience always enters into adult learning. Learning, therefore, focuses on modifying transforming and reintegrating meanings, values, strategies, and skills, rather than on forming and accumulating them as in childhood. The learning processes involved in transformations are different from those involved in formations.[7]

- Transformations require greater input of energy because the body invests considerable energy in maintaining established patterns, which must be overcome first if a pattern is to be transformed.

- Transformations require more time than formations.

- Transformations require that established meanings, values, skills, and strategies be raised to a conscious level and be thoroughly examined before being altered.

- Transformations require that the related new behaviour be tested out in "safe" situations before being put into use in daily life, in order to reduce potential threat to the self.

The task of those responsible for the education of educators seems to be the creation of challenge, dissonance, discontinuity which fosters increased differentiation. It is also necessary to help educational administrators as students to learn effective responses, resolve dissonance and discontinuities so that integration can occur at a higher level of development. The difficulty is achieving that optimal distance between where the student is and wh t the new situations require so that the student is challenged but not "bowled over;" so that change is possible without provoking trauma, entrenchment, or flight.

The developmental nature of the work on adult stages as well as the material presented later in this paper on stages of group development pose a number of questions for the teacher of educational administration. Perhaps the most important is: does the teacher have a responsibility to develop his or her students through the stages? I think he/she does and would therefore, in assessing the quality of a programme, look for evidence that the approach took such development into account. One quick way of measuring this would be to analyse how the program handled the issue of dependence.

1.2 Always Dependence?

The issue that permeates much of the topic under discussion in this paper is that of student dependence. Factors in the setting of many courses in educational administration make student dependence on the teacher in the initial stages of these courses almost inevitable. Of particular relevance here is the issue of student assessment.

Although most adults when entering a new learning experience do begin with dependent-type behaviours they will, with a good program, move first to independent behaviour and then to interdependent behaviour during the course of the learning activities. The progression can be facilitated by a teacher who is prepared to provide, for example, some structure and direction at the beginning of the learning activities; to move then to encouraging individual activities; and finally to provide opportunities for interdependent activities within the group and for integrative processes for individuals.[8]

On the other hand, if on the basis of his initial response in a class we describe an adult learner as using dependent behaviour, we may come to think of that description as a fixed trait. We would then proceed to treat the student as if he or she were a dependent person and not recognise that the initial behaviour has changed as anxiety has diminished or as he or she has gained mastery of the learning content. At a later date the student may come to resent being treated as a dependent. Or this learner might never move from the initial dependent behaviour and our teaching behaviour would help hold him or her there and deny him or her room to develop independently.[9]

In brief, adult learning behaviours tend to change as a result of increasing familiarity with a learning program, content, or setting. Simultaneously, teaching modes need also to change in response. The predictable sequence of teaching styles will be from directing through facilitating to collaborating. Does the course you are assessing have such a developmental sequence?

One of the problems for many programmes in achieving development is that behaviour involving mastery dominates expected outcomes.[10]

1.3 To Master AND to Belong

Mastery as it is used here relates to feelings of autonomy, to independent behaviour within society, and to a sense of personal control over the conditions of one's life. Learnings related to this trend include meanings, strategies, and skills required to function independently and values which reflect positive feelings about oneself as competent and worthwhile. Such learnings lead to a reduction of feelings of helplessness and inferiority and assist in meeting survival, achievement and self-esteem needs. This type of learning responds best to behavioural or task-related feedback.[11]

Belonging behaviour seems less emphasised in educational administration programmes. Belonging behaviour here relates to feelings of affection, to interdependent behaviour with other members of society, and to a sense of interpersonal involvement. Learnings related to this trend include personal and shared meanings and values, and the skills and strategies necessary to function interpersonally and cooperatively. Such learnings lead to a reduction of feelings of isolation and alienation and assist in meeting security, belonging, and affiliation needs. This type of learning responds best to feeling-oriented feedback.[12]

The lack of emphasis on belonging behaviour is somewhat surprising given the nature of successful educational administration.

To be brief, the crux of my argument is that for more successful teaching of educational administration there is a need to give greater emphasis to implementation and that the most important aspect of effective implementation is obtaining cooperation among school people. This, in turn, calls for a strong emphasis on developing understandings and skills in the interpersonal area. There are strong and predictable reasons why effective cooperation in schools is already poor in many schools[13] and will continue to be difficult to achieve.[14] But such a situation does not provide an excuse for the teacher of educational administration to ignore the development of such a vital area--an area clearly recognised as important by both practising educators,[15] students of graduate educational administration programmes,[16] and research which demonstrates positive associations between having a positive collegial group on a programme and superior field ratings and lower attrition rates.[17]

Given these findings, perhaps we teachers of educational administration in assessing the effectiveness of programmes need to take a closer look at the balance in courses between mastery and belonging, that is between understandings and skills focusing on independence and interdependence.

2. THE SETTING

At least three apsects of the setting have implications for those teaching educational administration. The first has to do with courses that include evaluation of participant performance and are thus prone to the assist/assess dilemma. The second involves courses whose participants come from separate organizations and by so doing make the likelihood of effective "back-home" implementation more difficult. The third revolves around the predominant use of group teaching which implies that the course is subject to the dynamics of the group itself.

2.1 "Assist/Assess" Dilemma

Current forms of school-based student assessment, particularly at the end of high school, have encountered the assist/assess dilemma. When teachers are seen as assessors by their students their relationship with them changes. But the same effect can be seen in any relationship between a superior and subordinate, e.g., principal and teacher, inspector and principal, teacher of educational administration and student. Abraham Maslow has highlighted this dilemma for the tertiary teacher in the following way:

> In my early years of teaching I certainly looked at my
> students and felt very close to them. I learned only
> slowly that while I could keep my smiles and friendliness
> and so on separated from the grades, i.e. I could
> certainly love somebody who wasn't a very good student
> of psychology, they rarely could accept and understand
> this. Normally, when I was friends with students they
> felt I had betrayed them if they got bad grades. They
> thought of me as a hypocrite, as a turncoat ... slowly
> I had to give up, until now, especially in large
> classes, I keep my distance and maintain English-style
> relationships rather than getting very close and
> buddy-like.[18]

When the teacher is seen as an assessor by the students a negation of his or her assisting role would seem to occur. Assistance is usually made more difficult by the typical response to the threat of being assessed, the playing of the withdrawal game. This game involves putting as much social distance as possible between superior and subordinate, scrupulously avoiding any kind of genuine personal or expressive behavior. In short, each tries to remain as faceless as possible. Having established the social distance ("English-style relationship"?) the next step is to try to reduce uncertainty by providing as much structure and as many rules as possible.

Underlying much of the possible anguish created by the assist/assess dilemma and the ineffectiveness resulting from the playing of the withdrawal game is the teacher's own attitudes towards the superior/subordinate relationship. Is it tending toward McGregor's Theory X or Theory Y?[19] Is it based on Miles's concept of Human Relations or Human Resources?[20] We need to remember that students will respond not only to planned content and activities but also to the skills, strategies and values implied as the teacher teaches.

I would welcome suggestions on how to overcome the assess/assist dilemma. Perhaps it is not a dilemma for you.
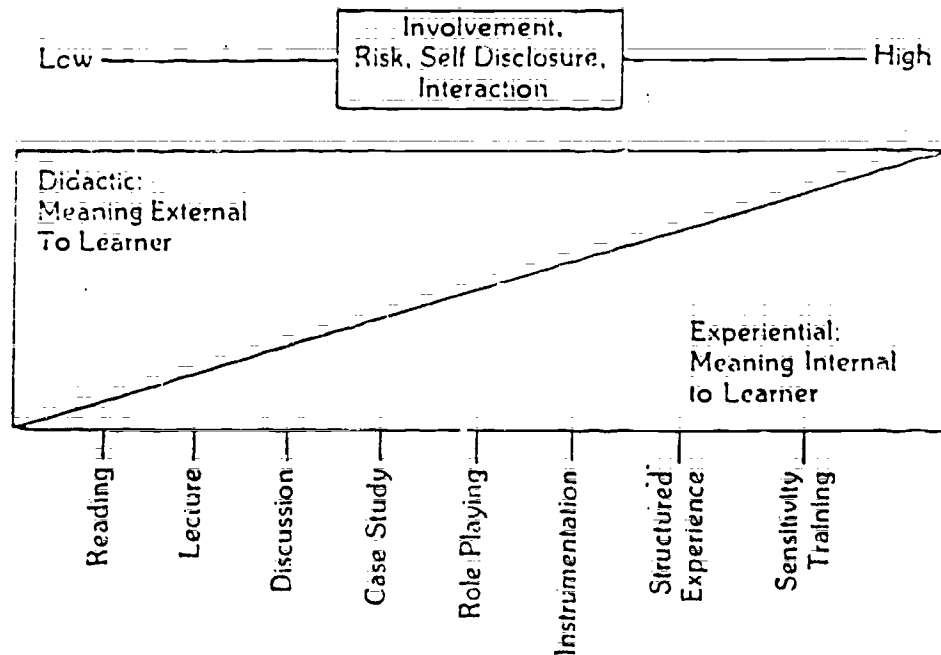
2.2 Students from Different Organizations

Taking individuals out of educational organizations and into courses run by teachers of educational administration is very like taking out one piece of a jig-saw (that is, the organization) and, if the course is successful, changing its shape only to find that it will not fit when returned to the jig-saw. Not ony will the piece not fit but it then has to suffer the anguish and frustration of being "knocked" back into a shape that resembles the original and with which the remainder of the jig-saw can feel comfortable. We Australians are very good at what is called "lopping tall poppies"--bringing the better members of a group back to the level of the rest of the group!

To be judged effective we will need to decide whether a programme has squarely faced the joint issues of responsibility for and the most effective approaches to back-home application of course material. In particular, is assignment work and culminating activities intimately and systematically related to the student's practical context?

Having individuals from different organizations in our courses also poses a dilemma for the teacher in the running of classes. On the one hand, there is evidence to suggest that adults have extensive life experiences which tend to structure and limit new learnings. Adults tend to value their own experience as a rich resource for further learning. On the other hand, most courses only have a limited amount of time at their disposal. Allowing course participants to keep the discussion down to what for them is the least threatening situation, but which I would term the "lowest common denominator" in terms of effectiveness ("You listen quietly while I recount what happens in my school and then ask elaborative-type questions-- then I'll do the same for you") an absorb an inordinate amount of time.

One resolve of this dilemma is to make extensive use of teaching approaches that provide students with common frames of reference during class contact time, e.g. structured experiences, simulations, role plays, case studies, and look for the major integration of past and current experiences in assignment work.

Given the strong emphasis in this article on the development of individuals and groups, it is worth pointing out that the use of these "common frames of reference" light need to be carefully planned to meet the current or next stage development. The next section on stages of group development pursues his idea further, but, for now, the following continuum of teaching approaches (Chart 2) might provide a useful checklist not only for alerting us to whether or not common frames of reference are used, but also to the extent of their use and the thought put into their use over the sequence of a programme.

10

CHART 2   38

Involvement.
Low ——————————— Risk, Self Disclosure, ——————————— High
Interaction

Didactic:
Meaning External
To Learner

Experiential:
Meaning Internal
to Learner

Reading | Lecture | Discussion | Case Study | Role Playing | Instrumentation | Structured Experience | Sensitivity Training

2.3 Group Teaching

The predominant use of group teaching in educational administration should
lead assessors of programmes in this subject to examine the awareness and
use of group development models and techniques by teachers in running their
programmes.

Most task-oriented groups can pass through a number of clearly identifiable
and sequential stages of development. More importantly, much can be done
to assist a group through to a more effective later stage of "Performing."
If left to their own devices some groups may not progress beyond the early,
less productive stages of "Forming," "Storming," and "Norming." When
"Forming" group members are polite, they avoid conflict, they are concerned
about being accepted or rejected and their orientation is towards the task.
Then, group members become involved in conflict ("Storming") because of the
concerns about status, power and organization. The "pecking order" or "who
is good at what" needs to be sorted out. Next, there is more cohesion
between members as there is more affection, open-mindedness and willingness
to share. However, the pressures to conform to the group ("Norming") may
detract from the task at hand. At the fourth stage there is a supportive
group climate. Concerns about interdependence and independence are
resolved so that both can occur along with the dominant need to solve
problems in a creative way ("Performing"). A final stage is "Mourning"
which can occur after any of the first four stages and as the group is
about to break up. It involves the breaking down of group cohesion as
members are more concerned about disengaging from the group and established
relationships and reasserting their individuality.[21] It is also the time
at which most student feedback on courses is gathered!

As the most effective groups, both in terms of task accomplishment and effective human relationships, are those at the "Performing" stage of development, there would appear to be some responsibility on the part of the teacher to develop his or her groups to this level. Is this evident in the programme you are assessing?

But there is another reason why these stages of group development may be useful in assessing the effectiveness of programmes. It could be argued that the stages of group development closely parallel a necessary sequence, or hierarchy, in teaching the content of educational administration. The necessary base of such a hierarchy is communication which in the main involves resolving the issues of "Forming" and "Storming" and acts as a prerequisite for the next stage--Decision-making. This second stage involves resolving issues not only of "Storming" but also "Norming" e.g. not only consensus but also group think. The third and final stage of Action or implementation involves "Norming" and "Performing."

That is, these three functions--Communicaiton, Decision-making, Action-- are not only the foundation stones for effectiv administration but are themselves, like the stages of group developmen. also developmental or cumulative in nature. There can be little effective action in schools without effective decision-making and little effective decision-making without effective communication.

If a programme is of a general and perhaps introductory nature then such a hierarchy, Communication--Decision-making--Action, could be used to make some sort of assessment of both its comprehensiveness and the logic in sequence of topics.

3. THE CONTENT

Two of many aspects in assessing the content of programmes are the closeness of fit between learning objectives and teaching approaches and the "reality" of the programme.

3.1 Horses for Courses:

It would seem sensible to suggest that a good programme demonstrates some awareness that certain desired learning outcomes can best be accomplished by certain teaching strategies. For example, Burgoyne and Stuart,[22] as a result of a review of the literature on learning theory and the design of management development programmes, differentiated what they called eight "schools of thought" about learning theory. These "schools of thought,"

their summary metaphors and an example strategy are described as:

- Conditioning (Telephone Exchange) Programmed Learning
- Trait Modification (Tool Kit) Profiles
- Information Transfer (Library or Filing System) Telling
- Cybernetic (Complex Computer) Simulations
- Cognitive (Navigator with a Personal Map) Learning/Problem Centred Discussion
- Experiential (Like Us) Structured Experiences, Encounter Groups
- Social Influence (Actor with Rights and Responsibilities) Role Playing
- Pragmatic (Learning is Common Sense) Case Studies, Project Work

Burjoyne and Stuart also developed a model of management skills--skills which appeared to equate with successful managerial performance. In brief, ten skills or learning goals are identified: situational facts, professional knowledge, sensitivity to events, problem-solving skills, social skills, emotional resiliance, proactivity, creativity, mental agility, and balanced learning habits.

From their study of fourteen management development programmes,[23] the authors suggest that the nature of learning theories adopted affects the level of, and areas in which, learning outcomes will be those "intended" (or "unintended") by programme organisers. Conclusions on the learning theories that were found appropriate for different kinds of learning goals are summarised in Chart 3 which follows.

CHART 3

Learning Goals	Learning Theories							
	Conditioning	Trait Modification	Information Transfer	Cybernetic	Cognitive	Experiential	Social Influence	Pragmatic
Situational Facts		+	+ •	+		+ +	+ +	
		+					+	
Professional Knowledge		+		+				+
Sensitivity to Events					+ +			+
				+	+			
Problem Solving Skills				-	+			
					+			
Social Skills						+		
Emotional Resiliance						+		
Proactivity				-			+ ••	
Creativity					+	+ +		
Mental Agility			+ ••• +	+				+
			+					
Balanced Learning Habits				-	+ +		+ +	
					+			

• +   = positive relationship
·   = negative relationship
+ +   = combined positive relationship
••   = where programme is developing a unified approach but not where it is more eclectic
•••   = but relating ideas to practice must be done independently

Such a chart could perhaps be used as a checklist in assessing the effectiveness of our programmes. But perhaps also, we will need to take into account the fact that we do not live in a totally rational world. As Burgoyne and Stuart point out:

> In a totally rational world, choice would not be problematic.
> A problem would be observed (for example, a need to develop
> social skills in managers), alternative means of solving the
> problem suggested (for example, to do more of what we've done
> in the past, i.e. five more lectures on communication; or,
> alternatively, to adopt a different teaching strategy altogether)
> and a choice would be made (for example, the data ... suggest
> that an experiential approach offers the best means of
> achieving a goal of developing social skills in managers).
> In the real world, however, all kinds of other considerations
> need to be taken into account, apart from what is the
> apparent "best" way of achieving a goal. Take the last
> example, what might be some of the constraints to adopting an
> experiential approach to social skill development? From talking
> with some of the management teachers in our sample, it appears
> that such constraints are numerous and varied. Consideration must
> be given to precedent, institutional norms of behaviour and conduct
> available resources and facilities, the expectations of examining
> bodies, students and their employers, and the reactions of the
> teacher's peers and colleagues, to name but a few.[24]

If nothing else, the above material should help us question strongly the effectiveness of programmes that rely on single learning modes.

3.2 Reality: Unidimensional? Always Best?[25]

There is no doubt that the need for educational administrator training to be grounded in practical experience and real life situations has become a loud and frequently heard cry. "That sounds fine, but the reality is ...," "... in reality things aren't like that...," "... but when I get back to the real world..." are familiar student comments. The assumption underlying this need is that learning events that are characterised by high reality are also those which maximise the opportunity for "significant" learning, which is more readily transferable to behaviour in the educational administrator's work situation.

Is the link between reality and effective teaching that simple and straightforward? On further reflection, it could be maintained that answers are required to at least three more specific questions. What is meant by "high reality," is reality a uni-dimensional concept in the learning situation, and does it follow that high reality learning events are always the most effective? Let me briefly explore each of these questions.

3.2.1 What is meant by high reality?

It would appear that a learning event is perceived to be of high reality following comparison of the activities of the event with those past, present and conceived future experiences which the educational administrator has, is, or will shortly be, ac ruing in his or her work role. Thus, reality is a subjective property conferred on a learning event by an individual.

3.2.2 Is reality a uni-dimensional concept in learning situations?

Any learning event can be described in terms of its perceived, subjective reality along at least three dimensions--content, process and environment. For example, a discovery based simulation aimed at developed understanding of leadership roles in a group where participants are required to build a tower of Lego bricks may have low content reality, high process reality (in that the decision making process required to achieve an un-real task might be very similar to the decision-making processes the administrator experiences in his or her school or system), and low environment reality (in that the luxurious appointments of the carpeted seminar room compare unfavourably with the stark reality of the school staff room).

But there are also at least three modes of learning each of which gives a unique quality to the reality of learning activities: reception of input (described, talked about reality), discovery (experienced reality) and reflection (thought about, contemplated reality).

Taking account of these dimensions and modes of learning we can construct a reality matrix, as shown below, and use this to closely define the reality of a particular learning event.

Modes of Learning

Dimensions of Learning-Event		Described	Experienced	Contemplated
	Content			
	Process			
	Environment			

Does the matrix work? Well, without the benefit of the modes of learning dimensions of the matrix we might argue that a situation such as a lecture on staff development given in a motel conference room to a group of middle-level educational administrators would be perceived as high on content reality but low on both process and environmental reality. In fact, it might be concluded that most lectures will have low process and environmental reality and therefore transfer of learning will be poor. There is, however,an inconsistency in this analysis that the matrix can help to correct.

The content reality in the above example is based on the perceived reality of what is being **described**, whereas process and environmental reality are based on what is being **experienced**. To be consistent we have to associate reality with the modes of learning which are being used.

Process and environmental reality could be high in the example being used if, for example, the lecturer vividly describes some human interaction and transports us from our seat to actually reliving the scene in a familiar school.

3.2.3 <u>Does it follow that high reality learning events are always the most efficient?</u>

Are there certain situations where high reality events would appear inappropriate and often dysfunctional? There may sometimes be good cause to move away from reality in our teaching of educational administration. For example, high reality learning events would appear to be inappropriate and often dysfunctional when there is a need for **growth** rather than maintenance oriented learning and where there is sufficient **threat** invoked in a high reality situation for it to be a barrier to learning.

Extreme high reality may lock the learner into current and past experience and curtail visions of a different future. Techniques such as those involving playing of unfamiliar roles might allow an educational administrator to consider radical alternatives, behaviour, ideas, etc. A similar outcome might result from the use of structured experiences, simulations, role reversal, using unfamiliar case studies (e.g. from other countries), problem-solving in small support groups, and personal or group growth activities.

Too high a reality may also threaten an individual learner's comfortable, reconciled views of himself or herself and his or her administrative work. A non-accepting and unsupportive learning climate might inhibit rather than encourage self-revelation and change.

We must be careful not to automatically equate low reality with low threat. It is quite possible to threaten learners in a low reality event, if the learning process is itself threatening or unfamiliar to the learner, e.g. many Sensitivity Training exercises that focus on the individual's personality or even videotaping seminar performance for later playback and group analysis.

We must also not forget that ultimately the learner must return to high reality when he or she resumes work. Thus while low reality designs would appear to be necessary in the earlier stages of a course, there will eventually be a need to include consideration of how to help learners back to high reality.

As one of the aims of this C bbean symposium is to explore issues related to the professional pr ration and development of educational administration in developing areas of the world, an important aspect of reality relates to the relevance of "developed" country theory and practice for developing countries.

Kiggundu et al[26] reviewed 94 articles on organizations in developing countries. They found articles that focussed on the technical and organizational "core" of an organization, that is on a closed system, were most likely to find no significant problems in the use of Western theory in developing countries. The authors suggested that this occurs because the articles concentrate on the technical, that is such things as organization development, budgeting and use of computers, which require internal organizational expertise and little interaction with the environment.

However, those articles that focussed on the organization's relationship with its environment were more likely to find serious difficulties in the use of Western ideas thus necessitating major adjustments to "conventional" theory. Cultural, economic and political/institutional factors were all considered as aspects of the "environment".

Some of the more specific reasons for weak fit due to the culture factor were:

- Deep personal insecurity dominated by formalism, ritualism, paper fetish and amoral familialism ...

- Caste system, religious taboos, differing concepts of time, deep rooted traditions of centralization and informality ...

- Trade practices, friendship patterns, cultural norms and expectations, patriotism ...

- Extended-family concept and kinship relations, authority of the elder, collective responsibility ...

- Smoothing mode of conflict resolution, closer emotional interactions ...

- Corruption, elitism, and status related to personal and group alignment rather than merit ... [27]

Specific economic factors included abundant labour supply yet shortage of skilled labour and professionals, monopolistic patterns, "infant industries," rapid change, and a combination of small size, lack of specialization and lack of competition.[28]

Developing countries were seen to generally have highly centralized governments, large public sectors, and a small middle class. Kiggundu et al also suggests that political influence and corruption undermine managerial action and that this leads to management by crisis in developing countries.[29]

While so called developed countries cannot claim to be free of these characteristics, Kiggundu et al's conclusion remains relevant (emphasis in original):

> In general, each time the environment is involved,
> the theory developed for Western settings does not
> apply, because it assumes contingencies that may
> not be valid for developing countries. In these
> situations, utilization must be preceded by a
> situational analysis to identify the relevant
> contingencies and their interrelationships. To the
> extent that contingencies for the utilization of
> administration science in developing countries differ
> from those in industrialized countries, the transfer
> of management knowledge and technology (e.g. management
> development, curriculum development, technical assistance)
> should emphasize process rather than content theories ...
> and methods.[30]

CONCLUSION

This article has attempted to set down some thoughts on factors to consider in assessing the effectiveness of programmes in educational administration. It has delved briefly into three interrelated aspects: the learners and their stages of individual development, their tendency toward initial dependence, and their needs to master and belong; the setting, particularly such factors as assessment, the inclusion of students from different organizations, and group teaching; the content with respect to how different learning objectives might be met by different teaching approaches and its reality.

It is concluded that teachers of educational administration have a responsibility to develop their students to higher levels of individual and group development. In developing individual learners, however, care needs to be taken to base teaching approaches on adult learning principles. The essence of these principles revolves around the point that adult learners are involved with transformations, as opposed to formations, in their learning. In contrast to formations, transformations require more time and greater effort. They also require that established meanings and values be raised to conscious level and that new behaviours have a chance to be tested in "safe" situations before being adopted.

Awareness of adult learning principles should also result in changes in teaching styles as the student develops. Particularly important are changes in teaching approaches to ensure that the student does not remain dependent on the teacher. A sequence of teaching styles is suggested ("directing-- facilitating--collaborating") as a stimulus to further discussion.

Spending time in developing educational administration classes through the early and less productive stages of group development, that is "Forming-- Storming--Norming," and to the "Performing" stage will also have benefits for the learners. Not only will benefits accrue in the area of mastery of course content, but also students will gain greater understanding and kills in a most vital area of educational administration, the interpersonal.

Developing understandings and skills in the interpersonal area, working with and through other people should help the student of educational administration to more effectively cope with a somewhat neglected area in the teaching of the subject, the effective implementation of learnings in his or her own educational setting.

Group teaching is, however, subject to much of the limited course time being wasted in unproductive student discussions with the "lowest common denominator" predominating. Careful consideration needs to be given by the teacher of educational administration to approaches that provide students with a common frame of reference, for example, case studies, structured experiences and role playing. It is suggested that such approaches might be used at different stages in a course depending on their inherent threat or risk and the student's ability to cope with this threat or risk.

It is further concluded that, as students are likely to pick up as much learning from the way a course is taught as from what is taught, it is important for the teachers of educational administration to be very clearly aware of their own attitudes toward the superior/subordinate relationship. This is of particular significance in teacher/student interactions, in the continued dependence of the student on the teacher, as well as in the "assist/assess" dilemma and its concomitant "withdrawal game." Teachers of educational administration need to be careful that action by or demanded of them at the early states of a course does not negate development to later stages of individual and group development.

It is concluded that a fertile field for further examination in the teacher
of educational administration lies in the matching of course objectives and
teaching strategies along the lines commenced by Burgoyne and Stuart.

Finally, it is concluded that "reality" is not a unidimensional concept of
the learning situation and that high reality learning events are not always
the most efficient. Any learning event needs to be analysed along at least
three dimensions--content, process and environment--and three learning modes
--described, experienced and contemplated. In addition, low reality learning
designs may be necessary in the early stages of a course to help a student
break a maintenance orientation or overcome the possible threat invoked by a
high reality situation.

An analysis of the "reality" of theory and practice from so called developed
countries for developing countries suggested that focussing on the technical
and organization core of an organization facilitates a transfer of learning.
However, concentrating on the organization's relationship with the cultural,
economic and political/institutional environment necessitates major
adjustments to developed country theory and practice. It was concluded that
utilization of developed country theory and practice must be preceded by a
situation analysis to identify the relevant contingencies and their
interrelationships. Emphasis should be on process rather than content
theories and methods.

For convenience, the majority of these conclusions could be formed into a
checklist for assessing the effectiveness of professional development
programmes in educational administration. Such a checklist is appended to
this paper.

Writing in a confessional vein, Reddin[31] explains that as a change agent
(teacher of educational administration?) he has been attached to different
organizations (classes?) as "servant, master, captive behavioural scientist,
visiting professor, tame seal, and resident magician." He adds, "I sometimes
have to remind my clients that I have not walked on water recently.
Sometimes I have to remind myself." The two points made by Reddin, the
overdependence of the student on the teacher and the over-confidence of the
teachers of educational administration in their own abilities and importance,
are indeed salutory ones. Both issues have been emphasised in this paper,
the former explicitly and the latter implicitly. In respect of the latter,
it is only when we expect of ourselves what we expect of our students, that
is that performance comes to depend not only on intuitive skill or "art" but
also on explainable techniques and procedures, that we will transform a craft
into a profession.

REFERENCES

[1] In broad terms, this conflict would seem to focus on the difference between --on the one hand--the singular, qualitative, subjective, and meaningful, and --on the other--the aggregative, qualitative, objective, and probabilistic. See, for example, Herda, E. "Implications of a Critical Discussion in Educational Administration Thoery: The Griffiths/Greenfield Debate Examined from a Philosophy of Science Perspective," unpublished doctoral dissertation, (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1978).

[2] See for example, Shinkfield, A. "Alternative Ways of Training Educational Administrators" in Alternative Ways of Organization Education, (ACEA, 1980), p. 115.

[3] Henderson, E., The Evaluation of In-Service Teaching Training, (Croom Helm, 1978).

[4] Mulford, W., "Andragogy and Some Implications for Teacher Educators" in Mulford, W. et al. A.C.T. Papers on Education 1978-79. (Canberra: Canberra College of Advanced Education, 1979), pp. 153-171.

[5] Loevinger, J. Ego Development, (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976).

[6] One of the many other developmental area or stage (events, morals, ego, or cognition) theorists could have been employed as the base. See Mulford, op.cit., for a summary of these other theorists.

[7] Brundage, D. and MacKeracher, D., Adult Learning Principals and Their Application to Program Planning. (Ontario: Ministry of Education, 1980), p. 33.

[8] Ibid., p. 21.

[9] Ibid., p. 55.

[10] See the many papers in Farquhar, R. and Housego, I. (eds.), Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration, (Vancouver: Education Extension, Centre for Continuing Education, The University of British Columbia, 1980). For example, Hill, J., "Critical Issues in the Preparation of Educational Administrators in North America" p. 233.

[11] Brundage and MacKeracher, op.cit., p. 13.

[12] Ibid.

[13] Elaborated in Mulford, W., "Consulting with Education Systems is About the Facilitation of Co-ordinated Effort" in H. Gray (ed.), The Management of Educational Institutions: Practice, Consultancy, Research, (London: Falmer, 1981), and includes evidence from Australian studies by: Hearn, P. and Ogilvie, D. "Operation Stocktake" Administrator's Bulletin, 4,3, (1973); Campbell, J. et. al., Some Consequences of the Radford Scheme for Schools, Teachers and Students in Queensland, AACRDE Report No. 7, (Canberra: AGP, 1976); Mulford, W., "Two ACT High Schools and Their Responses to the Criteria for a Good School Questionnaire" in Mulford, W. et. al (eds.), ACT Papers on Education 1975-76, (Canberra College of Advanced Education, 1976), pp. 7-10; Mulford, W. and Zinkel, C., "Assisting School Evaluation: Four ACT Schools and Their Responses to the Criteria for a Good School Questionnaire" in Mulford, W., et at., (eds.), ACT Papers on Education 1976-77, (Canberra: Canberra CAE, 1977), pp. 130-137; Ogilvie, D., "Organized Climate in Six High Schools" Administrator's Bulletin, (1975), 6,3.

[14]Elaborated in Mulford, 1981, _Ibid_, and based on factors such as school reward structures, physical structures, use of professionals, multiple goals and processes, assist/assess dilemma in operation, and stages of individual teacher and staff development.

[15]See, for example Martin, R., "Skills and Understandings Considered by Administrators and Teachers to be Essential to the Role of the Educational Administrator." Interim Report to ACEA Board, (August 1980); and Ogilvie, D. and Bartlett, L. "Departmental Heads in England and Australia: Some Comparisons," _CCEA Studies in Educational Administration_, (15 June 1979). See also, McRae, K., "Observing a Principal at Work" in Mulford, W. et. al. (eds.), _Papers on ACT Education 1974-75_, (Canberra College of Advanced Education, 1975); O'Dempsey, K., "Time Analysis of Activities, Work Patterns and Roles of High School Principals," Unpublished M.Ed. Adm. thesis, (University of Queensland, 1976); Willis, Q., "The Work Activity of School Principals: An Observational Study," _The Journal of Educational Administration_, 18, 1, 1980, pp. 27-54.

[16]Steinhoff, C. and Bishop, L. "Factors Differentiating Preparation Programs in Educational Administration: CEA Study of Student Organizational Environment," _Educational Administration Quarterly_, 10, 2, (1974), pp. 35-50.

Similar conclusions were reached by a number of North American doctoral dissertations as summarised by Briggs, D. and O'Brien, P., "In-Service Preparation of Teachers for Administrative Responsibility," _The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education_, 4,3, (1976), pp. 244-251, which investigated the opinions of graduates concerning the educational administration programmes through which they had passed. In the words of Briggs and O'Brien (p. 248), "The emphasis thus was on personal relationships amongst staff and students, personal involvement by students in designing their own programmes, flexibility and individuality, problem solving, and a substantial component of field-work or internship." Shinkfield, _op.cit._ p. 120, also lists skills in human relationships as being of prime importance.

[17]Stern, as reported in Steinhoff and Bishop, _op. cit._, p. 49.

[18]Maslow,A. _Eupsychian Management: A Journal_, (Homewood Illinois: Richard Irwin and Dorsey, 1965), p. 177.

[19]McGregor, D., "The Human Side of Enterprise" in _Adventures in Thought and Action_, (M.I.T.), 1957, pp. 23-30.

[20]Miles, R., "Human Relations or Human Resources," _Harvard Business Review_, (Summer, 1965).

[21]Taken from Mulford, W., Vallee, J. and Watson, H., _Structured Experiences and Group Development_, (Canberra: Curriculum Development Centre, 1981).

[22]See: Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R., "Implicit Learning Theories as Determinants of the Effects of Management Development Programmes," Personal Review, 6,2, (1977); Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R. "The Learning Goals and Outcomes of Management Development Programmes," Personnel Review, 6,1, (1977); Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R. "The Nature, Use and Acquisition of Managerial Skills and Other Attributes," Personnel Review, 5,4, (1976); Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R., "Teaching and Training Skills for Translating Learning Theory into Practice in Management Development Programmes," Personnel Review, 6,3, (1977), p. 89-47; Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R., "Teaching and Learning Methods in Management Development," Personnel Review, 7,1, (1978), pp. 53-58.

[23]An important point about the form they adopted for describing learning theory assumptions was that it relied on three levels of analysis: Philosophy of a Programme; Strategy (or sequence); and Methods (or tactics). This approach helps overcome the possible differences between what course organisers and documents espouse and what actually happens.

[24]Ibid., (1977), p. 41.

[25]This section is based on work by Binstead and Stuart. See Binstead, D. and Stuart, R., "Designing 'Reality' Into Management Learning Events," Personnel Review, 8,3, (1979), pp. 12-19; 8,4, (1979), pp. 5-9; and 9,1, (1980), pp. 12-18.

[26]Kiggundu, M.N., Jorgensen, J.J., and Hafsi, R., "Administrative Theory and Practice in Developing Countries: A Synthesis," Administrative Science Quarterly, 28, (March, 1983), pp. 66-84.

[27]Ibid., pp. 78-79.

[28]Ibid., p. 79.

[29]Ibid.

[30]Ibid., p. 81.

[31]Reddin, W., "Confessions of an Organization Change Agent," Group and Organization Studies, 2,1, (1977), pp. 33-41.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│     CHECKLIST FOR ASSESSING THE EFFECTIVENESS     │
│     OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES         │
│            IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

1. DO courses take into account characteristics of respondents in assessing the reasons behind feedback?

2. Does the approach used take responsibility for developing participants through the stages of individual development?

3. Does it do this in such a way that the participant is challenged but not "bowled over"--so that change/development occurs without trauma, entrenchment or flight?

4. Does the programme contain a sequence that results in a movement of students from dependence to independence to interdependence e.g. by using teaching styles in the sequence of directing through facilitating to collaborating?

5. Is there a balance in the programme's expected outcomes between mastery and belonging behaviour?

6. Does the programme contain an awareness of or attempts to overcome the assess/assist dilemma?

7. Is there evidence showing the use of common frames of reference where there are participants from different organizations?

8. Is there evidence that these approaches take into account the stage of development of the individual and group?

9. Does the programme demonstrate awareness and use of group development models and techniques?

10. Have the participants in the programme achieved the "Performing" level of group development?

11. If the programme is of a general and introductory nature does it cover the three basic areas of Communication, Decision-making and Action?

12. Does it do this in such a way to recognise the sequential/hierarchical nature of these areas?

13. Does the programme demonstrate awareness of different learning outcomes?

14. Does the programme demonstate awareness and use of different teaching strategies?

15. Does the programme attempt to match learning outcomes with the most appropriate teaching strategies?

16. Is there a realization in the programme that "reality" is a multi-dimensional concept in learning skills?

17. Is there an appropriate use of low-reality approaches e.g. when there is a need for growth or where there is sufficient threat from high reality for it to be a barrier to learning?

18. Is there consideration of how to help learners back to high reality?

19. Does the programme use theory and practice from developed countries and if so does it

    --restrict itself to the technical and organization core of organizations?

    --precede its use by a situational analysis to identify the relevant contingencies and their interrelationships?