

TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION  
ASSUMED BY KANSAS SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

by

Doyle Koontz  
B.S., University of Wichita, 1943  
M.S., University of Kansas, 1949

Submitted to the Department of  
Education and the Faculty of  
the Graduate School of the Uni-  
versity of Kansas in partial  
fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of  
Education.

August, 1953

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

It is impossible to acknowledge personally all who have helped to make this study possible. A debt of gratitude is due the principals who cooperated and to those who helped by giving their judgment in the formulation of the check sheet. To my wife I owe much for help in the recording and arranging of the data.

With sincere appreciation for the considerate help given to me by my advisory committee, I wish to thank Professor J. W. Twente, who served as chairman and major advisor, Professor Kenneth E. Anderson, and Professor E. E. Bayles.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<u>CHAPTER</u>	<u>PAGE</u>
I. INTRODUCTION AND RELATED LITERATURE . . . . .	1
Introduction . . . . .	1
Related Literature . . . . .	9
II. THE PROBLEM . . . . .	69
Statement of the Problem . . . . .	69
Discussion of Terms Used . . . . .	70
Importance of the Study . . . . .	72
Scope and Method of Procedure . . . . .	74
Development of the Questionnaire . . . . .	75
III. PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA . .	79
Part I. The Setting . . . . .	79
Part II. Evaluation and Frequency of Use of Techniques . . . . .	98
Part III. Faculty-Principal Relationships . . . . .	119
Part IV. Comparison of Two Groups of Principals in Regard to Evaluation and Frequency of Use of Techniques . . . . .	147
IV. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS .	163
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	175
APPENDICES . . . . .	182
ABSTRACT . . . . .	208

## LIST OF TABLES

<u>TABLE</u>	<u>PAGE</u>
1. Enrollment in Full Time Publicly and Privately Controlled Secondary Schools, 1899-1900 to 1947-1948 . . . . .	8
2. Distribution of Cooperating Schools by Pupil Enrollment . . . . .	81
3. Distribution of Cooperating Schools by Number of Teachers Employed in Addition to the High School Principal . . . .	82
4. Distribution of Cooperating Schools by Number of New Teachers Employed to the Faculty for the School Year 1952-1953 . . . .	83
5. Distribution of Cooperating Schools by Number Beginning Teachers Employed to the Faculty for the School Year 1952-1953 . .	84
6. Distribution of Principals Cooperating in the Study by Number Years Served in Present Position . . . . .	86
7. Distribution of Principals Cooperating in the Study by Number of Classes Taught . .	87
8. Statistical Comparison of the Cooperating Group of Schools in the Study with the Eligible Invited Schools . . . . .	88
9. Distribution of Principals Cooperating in the Study by Undergraduate Major and my Graduate Major . . . . .	90
10. Distribution of Principals Cooperating in the Study by Number Years Administrative Experience . . . . .	92
11. Distribution of Principals Cooperating in the Study by Percentage of Time Indicated Spent Performing Duties in Supervision of Instruction and Working with Teachers in In-Service Training . . . . .	93

## LIST OF TABLES (Continued)

TABLE	PAGE
12. Distribution of Principals Cooperating in the Study by Percentage of Time Indicated They Should Spend in Performing Duties in Supervision of Instruction and Working with Teachers in In-Service Training .....	95
13. Distribution of a Homogeneous Group of Cooperating Principals Based on Size of Faculty Showing Number Classes Taught, Median Time Spent and Median Time Which was Thought Should be Spent in Supervision of Instruction and Working with Teachers in In-Service Training .....	96
14. Frequency of Use and Evaluation of Techniques for Improvement of Instruction .....	105
15. Areas in Which Cooperating Principals Would Like to Improve Themselves in Working with Teachers in Service .....	120
16. Frequency of Use of Techniques by Two Groups of Cooperating Principals .....	150
17. Evaluation of Techniques by Two Groups of Cooperating Principals .....	157

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION AND RELATED LITERATURE

#### Introduction

The various activities of educational supervision developed with our schools to meet recognized educational needs. Responsibility for educational supervision was gradually vested in certain individuals, including the principal of a school. It is a phase of this traditionally inherited responsibility of the principal for the improvement of instruction with which this study is concerned.

Barr, Burton, and Brueckner,<sup>1</sup> wrote about early supervision. Kyte<sup>2</sup> gave an account of how supervision developed. As soon as schools were established in the New England Colonies, the selectmen of the town were directed by the General Courts to secure teachers having certain religious and moral qualities. In 1709, in Boston, committees of citizens were appointed to visit and inspect school and pupil achievement. It was many years later before mention was made of inspecting teachers' methods, or of criticizing and advising them concerning teaching.

---

1 A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner, Supervision, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1947, p. 3.

2 George C. Kyte, How to Supervise, Chicago, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930, p. 3.

Until 1714, the committees were made up largely of ministers. Shortly after 1714, selectmen began serving on these committees. This was considered a beginning of laymen assuming public responsibility for inspection of schools. By the close of the century, many towns had appointed standing school-committees.

As towns and cities grew, schools increased in size and often several teachers were assigned to one building. It became difficult for laymen to devote the necessary amount of time to school matters. Under these conditions, a head teacher was appointed and given various administrative and managerial duties. It was not until 1837 that Buffalo and Louisville were first to center control of the purely educational activities and functions under a single executive. Supervision as we understand it today began with the appointment of these school executives.

The head teacher became known as principal. With the turn of the twentieth century he became not only the administrator but also the supervisor responsible for the instruction in his building. In time, some of the teaching principals were freed entirely from regular teaching duties and they became building or administrative principals. Sometimes building principals were called supervising principals in order to emphasize their obligation to direct the teaching in their own schools.

The principal was then, as now, not always the best qualified person to supervise instruction. However, general practice now is to delegate responsibility for instruction to the principal. There still remain school boards which are reluctant to give up direct control of the school in favor of placing greater authority in a trained executive. Nor are all principals in complete agreement that the principal should act as supervisor. Field observations<sup>1</sup> reveal that there are three types of principals: (a) those who are neither willing nor prepared to be supervisors; (b) those who are willing, but poorly equipped, to do supervision, and (c) those who are both eager and trained to do supervisory work. In a study by Engelhart, Zeigel, and Billet<sup>2</sup> it was reported that school systems were visited in which principals of high schools definitely stated that they believed that supervision in secondary schools was neither practicable nor desirable.

The Principal is Responsible for Improvement of Instruction. Regardless of opinions held by individuals, it is an inescapable fact that in general practice the

---

1 National Education Association, Research Division, "The Principal as Supervisor," Research Bulletin 7 (1929), p. 281.

2 Fred Engelhart, W. H. Zeigel, and R. O. Billet, "Administration and Supervision," U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 11, p. 131.

principal is assigned responsibility for supervision of instruction. In several ways the principal is the most logical person to be responsible for supervision of instruction. He is near the scene, he is placed in a position of official leadership, and he is qualified by reason of experience, selection, and training for the position.

The principal is an appointed head of a public institution whose primary purpose is instruction. It follows that improvement of such instruction should certainly be a primary concern of the principal.

Educational associations and educational authorities recognize that supervision of instruction is a responsibility of the principal. The following quotations are representative of the general opinion held by authoritative sources which believe that the principal should be strengthened in his role as supervisor.

In the Eighth Yearbook<sup>1</sup> of the Department of Superintendence is found:

"To the full extent that building principals are qualified, they should be placed in entire charge of the instructional program within their respective buildings. The principal should be responsible for

---

<sup>1</sup> \_\_\_\_\_, The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, Department of Superintendence, Eighth Yearbook, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1930, p. 45.

operating the course of study, for supervising all activities within his building, for carrying out the superintendent's policies, and for providing teachers with stimulative professional leadership."

In speaking of the principal's responsibility as supervisor, Andree<sup>1</sup> says:

"Competence of a principal is so often measured in terms other than competence in supervision. Yet, if his school is to survive, much less grow, this must remain the primary measuring rod."

Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsdon,<sup>2</sup> discussed the principal as supervisor and stated this responsibility very pointedly as follows: "The principal is now held responsible for the improvement of instruction, as well as management, in the local school." Kyte<sup>3</sup> commented on the movement toward making the principal a more important supervisory person.

---

1 Robert G. Andree, "Supervisory Personnel," Part II, Supervision Problems in Secondary Schools, N.E.A., Department of Secondary School Principal's Bulletin, Volume 34, December, 1950, p. 23.

2 Paul B. Jacobson, William C. Reavis, and James D. Logsdon, Duties of School Principals, second edition, New York, Prentice Hall, Inc., 1950, p. 736.

3 George C. Kyte, How to Supervise, Chicago, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930, p. 82.

"In the past few years, considerable momentum has been given to the acceptance of two educational principles regarding the building principal which will contribute to fixing the responsibility for the improvement of teaching and to making the supervisory activities involved more effective.

1. The principal shall be responsible for the improvement of teaching in the school of which he is the head.

2. The most important work of the principal is the improvement of teaching, as marked by the improvement of the pupils in his school."

Need for Instructional Improvement. The increased need for improved instruction in high school becomes evident as one observes recent changes in size and status of that school. Early high schools acted primarily as preparatory schools for higher educational institutions. Close textbook instruction of pupils was practiced in an effort to impart a body of facts and other rote learnings, necessary for entrance to universities. Only a small percentage of American children attended high school at that time and they were usually of the elite.

Today the role of the high school is to try to offer an education to every boy and girl who can possibly benefit by attendance. The high school now not only prepares for colleges and professional work, but finds itself also trying to carry out a program of both general and vocational training.

The high school has an enrollment of pupils who will try to find their places in a world of work in which

there are hundreds of thousands of different occupations. These pupils need to be taught how to live in a democracy; to develop habits of health, of study and inquiry, of better home living, in addition to academic learnings.

Table 1 shows the growth of the secondary school enrollment in the past sixty years. The rapid growth not only includes number of enrollees but also the percentage of that age-population enrolled. The decrease shown by the 1947-48 enrollment figure was probably a result of the depression years in the early thirties. Many instructional problems were created and fostered by this rapid growth. These problems became challenging for teachers and supervisors of the schools. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner,<sup>1</sup> discussed some of these problems as did Douglas and Boardman.<sup>2</sup>

The increased number of high schools and attendant growth in percentage of pupils enrolled has caused a change in heterogeneity of pupil populations. There is wider range in intellectual ability, interests, and aptitudes. Teachers are pressed for greater adaptation of methods and materials. High school teachers are faced with the important problem of studying learners as

---

1 Barr, Burton, and Brueckner, op. cit., pp. 36-37.

2 H. R. Douglas and C. W. Boardman, Supervision in Secondary Schools, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934, pp. 3-10.

well as subject fields. In this rapid development of education the principal has an obligation to try to keep abreast of the developments and to aid and encourage his faculty to do the same.

\*Table 1

ENROLLMENT IN FULL TIME PUBLICLY AND PRIVATELY  
CONTROLLED SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1889-1890 TO 1949-50

Year	Total Secondary School Enrollment	Per Cent of Age 14-17 Years Enrolled
1889-1890	359,949	7
1899-1900	699,403	11
1909-1910	1,115,398	15
1919-1920	2,500,176	32
1929-1930	4,804,255	51
1939-1940	7,123,009	73
1949-1950	6,427,042	74

\* Biennial Survey of Education, 1947-48, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., pp. 22, 25, 27. See also 1949-50 edition, p. 23.

### Related Literature

The literature revealed that the majority of studies on in-service education of teachers were carried on at the elementary school level. Doctoral studies pertaining to the role of the principal in in-service education in secondary schools were not found. However, some studies of the elementary school level will be reviewed as they may be considered applicable and pertinent for secondary education.

The studies reviewed on in-service education were obtained from six sources: (1) Departments of the National Education Association; (2) The Commission on Teacher Education; (3) The Biennial Surveys of Education; (4) The North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges; (5) Unpublished Doctoral Dissertations; and (6) Other studies.

#### Departments of the National Education Association.

An entire recent bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals<sup>1</sup> is devoted to supervisory problems in the secondary school. The bulletin took the position that a principal's job could, and possibly should, be a primary full-time supervisory function rather than one

---

1 National Association of Secondary School Principals, National Education Association, Department of Secondary School Principals, Bulletin No. 174, Volume 34, December, 1950.

of routine administrative issues.

The advisory committee for compiling this publication ran an advertisement in two successive issues of the bulletin asking readers to submit brief, written statements of supervisory problems which they would like to have discussed in an issue devoted exclusively to supervision.

The list of problems was compiled and mailed to a jury of more than one hundred high-school principals in all sections of the country. These principals were asked to check the problems with which they were most concerned as well as those which they thought should be discussed in the publication on supervision. A frequency count of the problems checked in the replies was made and used as the basis for developing the outline of this publication.

This bulletin is a comprehensive presentation. The organization consisted of five parts: (1) An Introduction on Supervision Today; (2) Supervisory Personnel; (3) Special Problems; (4) Techniques; and (5) Evaluation.

By analyzing part three of the bulletin the supervisory problems which principals most frequently mentioned as troublesome were:

1. How to plan a supervisory program
2. Orienting new teachers
3. Problems of guidance and teaching
4. Helping teachers meet individual differences in the classroom
5. Experienced teachers and new methods
6. Creating a wholesome classroom environment

7. Creating attitudes favorable to change
8. Staff morale
9. Problems of curriculum development
10. Minimizing additional teacher work

The Eighth Yearbook<sup>1</sup> of the Department of Superintendence deals with supervision from the administrative standpoint. Chapter ten was specifically concerned with the training of teachers in service through supervision. The Yearbook was the work of a committee of ten prominent educators who were appointed to the committee by the president of the Department of Superintendence. The Department of Superintendence in 1938 became the American Association of School Administrators. In the Yearbook superintendents were told that whatever pattern the professional growth program may take or the techniques used in its promotion, means of evaluation should be established. Four methods of evaluation were listed. These include: (1) measured changes in the achievement of pupils, (2) measured changes in teaching procedures, (3) observed changes in the teaching or learning situation and in the community, and (4) judgment of individuals.<sup>2</sup> Most in harmony with the concept of professional growth developed in this study would be evaluation in terms of pupil growth as the cooperative effort of

---

1 \_\_\_\_\_, The Superintendent Surveys Supervision, Department of Superintendence, Eighth Yearbook, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1930.

2 Ibid., p. 99.

all individuals and groups involved in the in-service program. This cooperative effort of evaluation would include the initial step of setting up educational goals and objectives to accomplish.

The Eighth Yearbook also had this to say concerning administrator and supervisor on improvement of instruction.

"Improvement of instruction, as improvement in any other field, must come about by the working of two types of forces--those which tend to consolidate and stabilize advances already made, and those which make for a change. In a very real sense, both administrator and supervisor exemplify the working of these two factors in organized educational procedure. While good administration is essential to the maintenance of efficiency, it also inspires and stimulates desirable changes which make improvement possible. On the other hand, while good supervision seeks to promote improvement of instruction through constructive changes, it is also concerned with maintaining and rendering effective advances already made."<sup>1</sup>

The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction has published a study each year dealing with some different aspect of the supervisory function in education. These Yearbooks, written by appointed committees, are pointed toward the special supervisor or curriculum director of a school system. Much in these studies is applicable to the principal as supervisor. Five of these

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 15.

Yearbooks are considered as pertinent to this study. The first three published by the Department deal with the broad general aspects of supervision. The third is noteworthy. In discussing problems of supervision the Third Yearbook<sup>1</sup> reported that these criteria of supervision were used as guiding principles: (1) Supervision is philosophic, it seeks new truth, and continuously evaluates aims and objectives; (2) Supervision is cooperative, it unifies work toward common ends and it works toward the solution of mutual problems; (3) Supervision is creative, it seeks latent talent; (4) Supervision is scientific, it seeks proof of its own accomplishment, encourages experimentation in proper controls, and applies the scientific method to the study of the teaching process; (5) Supervision is effective, it coordinates theory and practice and helps teachers secure working knowledge of the tools of teaching.

Supervision helps teachers to do effective teaching, as a result many teacher difficulties resolve themselves. The kind of difficulties encountered by teachers as reported in the Third Yearbook<sup>2</sup> were mostly in four areas of which aims and methods of teaching had the most

---

1 \_\_\_\_\_, Current Problems in Supervision, Third Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1930.

2 Ibid.,

problems. Nearly one-fourth of the teachers reported needing help in pupil control. Classroom organization and problems of administration were the other two areas in which teachers reported needing help.

Criteria for the purpose of evaluating supervision appeared in the Fourth Yearbook. The criteria were used to mean nothing more nor less than bases of judgment. A standard of values used to judge will depend upon the philosophy of the individual judging. Criteria presented as a basis for judgment were:

"That supervision is good:

1. Which has desirable and lasting effects, primarily upon pupils and community, and secondarily upon teaching materials, teaching methods, principals, and the supervisors themselves.
2. Which consists of activities that are in accord with accepted standards of procedure--this is, which are believed to be those most likely to produce the results as suggested in 1.
3. Which is carried on by persons possessing certain characteristics which are accepted as being desirable for supervisory agents, that is, which are believed to be those most likely to produce the results suggested above."<sup>1</sup>

The Fourth Yearbook took the viewpoint that the evaluation of supervision is a case of applied science.

---

<sup>1</sup> \_\_\_\_\_, Evaluation of Supervision, Fourth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1931, p. 15.

The problems are set up to determine which is the better of two proposed plans. Four phases were recommended as a procedure in evaluating supervisory activities.

- "1. Definition and delimitation of the problem.
- 2. Choice and weight of the criteria or bases of judgment, and provision for measurement.
- 3. Control of all significant factors except the one supervisory factor whose effect is to be measured.
- 4. Organization and interpretation of the results."<sup>1</sup>

Application of the scientific method in evaluation is used less often than informal methods of evaluation in the role of supervision in working with creative teachers. The Fifth Yearbook<sup>2</sup> describes the problems, principles, and procedures of supervision for creative teaching in its first three chapters. The eighth chapter is specific to creative activity of teachers in secondary schools. Creative activity is described in the preface as activities involving initiative, originality, individuality, inventiveness, and self-directed thinking. "A creative act is an act which represents for the creator a new thought, a new

---

1. Ibid., p. 27.

2. \_\_\_\_\_, Supervision and the Creative Teacher, Fifth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1932.

idea, a new solution, a new analysis or a new synthesis."<sup>1</sup> The idea is not a new one. It means nothing more than using self expression and originality toward constructive effort.

A significant factor in "creative supervision" is that it tends to break down the pattern where teachers are expected to teach by the rules and methods prescribed to them by superiors. The encouragement of teachers by supervisors to do creative work was a step toward a more democratic school environment. The flexibility that resulted gave teachers a greater opportunity to do creative work which would better meet the needs of individual differences in children.

In building a program for the promotion of growth of teachers in service the Seventh Yearbook<sup>2</sup> stated that supervisors and principals should take these steps: (1) Attack the problem of developing in teachers attitudes which are favorable to growth; (2) Because, for the present, a teacher's growth is probably best measured in terms of his pupils' growth the supervisor must lead in selecting the distinctive characteristics of such teaching as results

---

1 Ibid., p. 5.

2 \_\_\_\_\_, Scientific Method in Supervisory Programs, Seventh Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1934, p. 92.

in optimum pupil growth; (3) Cooperatively collect data upon which to appraise the program; (4) Study with the teacher the products of learning with a view to further improvement.

In approaching the problem of promoting teacher growth an attitude should be taken that all teachers can improve if they wish to improve. The teachers must also be made to feel that they have an important part in the school program by having them share directly or indirectly in the selection of educational objectives.

In working for teacher improvement these are the objectives supervisors should try to get teachers to accomplish according to the Seventh Yearbook:<sup>1</sup> (1) Possession of a philosophy of education; (2) Not only knowledge of, but skill in, applying psychological principles; (3) Acquaintance with, and the ability to use, the techniques of fact finding, curriculum making, and research; (4) Knowledge of the scientific method to be used to diagnose success or failure of classroom learning, both individual and group; (5) An understanding of children's behavior, means of growth, and needs in terms of basic values.

The socialization of supervision through cooperative group processes is another method of supervision

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 94.

which is presented in the Eleventh Yearbook. This Yearbook is important because it is devoted to an attempt to bring democratic practices into methods of supervision. In democratic cooperation every member would be group conscious. Each member would voluntarily carry as full responsibility for leadership and creative thinking as a leader does. There would be no officers. Organization would be for purposes of coordination, execution, and record. Leadership would be a function, not a person, and would pass from person to person as anyone had a creative suggestion to make. The Yearbook<sup>1</sup> reported there would be three phases of corporate activity. These would be:

"(1) A creative planning phase in which all would participate as equal leaders; (2) an action phase in which one would serve as agent to direct the carrying out of the group thinking and planning; and (3) a reflective phase in which all again would participate as equals in appraising the results of action and in making generalizations." The foregoing is an ideal for the achievement of democratic cooperation which depends upon unity, group consciousness, and regard for the individual.

---

<sup>1</sup> Cooperation: Principles and Practices, Eleventh Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1938.

The Twenty-First Yearbook<sup>1</sup> of the National Department of Elementary School Principals, published in 1942, is devoted to teacher growth in service. It contains descriptions of local in-service activities by principals and supervisors from school systems throughout the country. Many articles are about workshops and their value in training teachers in service. Attention was given to the importance of human relationships. Emphasis was given the need for continued training of teachers on the job, and the responsibility of the principal in this area. The principal needs to recognize that to be successful in any measurable degree the program must be based on sound educational theory. Since education is concerned with growth and facilitating learning some basic principles of learning should be considered. Three such principles are important in in-service education as follows:

"(a) Learning takes place best when it begins with matters of real interest and concern to the learner; (b) the rate of learning is likely to increase as the area of his concern is extended, and (c) continued learning is dependent upon the development of the individual's particular interests and potentialities."

---

<sup>1</sup> National Association of Elementary School Principals, In-Service Growth of School Personnel, Twenty-First Yearbook, Volume 21, No. 6, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1942.

From these principles of learning it is apparent that the most effective program must provide for growth by furnishing the opportunity for self-directed activities. Learning, under such a concept, cannot be imposed upon the teacher as something done to him. The teacher will grow on the job only when he discovers his own needs and takes steps to meet them. This means that the effective program is planned, but definitely flexible, for obviously the needs of teachers are so varied that a specific attack upon all of them is impossible at any one time. A planned program should insure that the most pressing needs common to a majority of teachers will receive first attention. Planning the program is a responsibility of all concerned and should be done on a cooperative basis.

The Commission on Teacher Education has published, or sponsored the publication of, a series of eight books resulting from its projects over the period 1939-1944. Four of these books are particularly pertinent to in-service education at the secondary level although the series seems to be slanted more toward the elementary school. These books have been very influential in their effect on present trends and points of view about in-service education of teachers. The Commission's philosophy appears to be more child-centered than sociologically oriented. This is evident in the descriptions of most of the projects sponsored by this group.

The Commission, itself, made two major reports published in book form. The first of these was Teachers For Our Times<sup>1</sup>, which sets forth the Commission's basic point of view respecting the problems with which it was asked to deal by the American Council on Education. This report attempts to recognize the social conditions and settings within which education must function.

This first volume called attention to the increasing trend toward encouraging self-improvement on the part of experienced teachers. Teachers are being encouraged to participate in the planning and carrying out of experiences designed to result in self-improvement.

"The teacher's own interest in continuous growth is recognized and given scope, and in-service education is less and less thought of as something that is 'done to' teachers."<sup>2</sup>

Another volume sponsored by the Commission, Evaluation in Teacher Education,<sup>3</sup> analyzes the evaluative efforts in eight major areas of teacher education which are described in the projects of the Commission. One of

---

1 Commission on Teacher Education, Teachers For Our Times, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944.

2 Ibid., p. 19.

3. Maurice E. Troyer and C. Robert Pace, Evaluation in Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944.

these major areas is evaluation of in-service programs.

The authors, Troyer and Pace,<sup>1</sup> support the informal nature of evaluation in in-service programs. They emphasize thinking about the effectiveness of group activity. They stress further that evaluation should be used as a means of contributing to, as well as for estimating, growth and improvement.

Prall and Cushman,<sup>2</sup> describe a project in which several school systems carried out city-wide programs of in-service teacher education with the help of Commission consultants. These projects illustrate most clearly the purpose of the Commission, and of the Consultation Service to bridge the gap between theory and practice. The Commission Consultants, however, took little direct leadership in the different school system programs.

The Commission's work was to describe and analyze specific practices employed in the affiliated programs. The results were organized into techniques found to be particularly effective for releasing the potential of teachers in service. Cooperative activities were emphasized such as the work of school policies councils, study groups, workshops, school curriculum development projects, inter-

---

1 Ibid., p. 308.

2 Charles E. Prall and C. Leslie Cushman, Teacher Education In-Service, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944.

system improvement programs, county-wide studies, and personnel practices. The importance of recognizing teacher needs and interests was stressed as a direct means of strengthening an in-service training program.

The Biennial Surveys of Education, by the United States Office of Education, review Bulletins of that Office for each two year period. In 1932 a bulletin was published which was the result of a survey of secondary education.<sup>1</sup> The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools took the lead in urging that this study be made.

The survey purported to discover and report that which was new during the last thirty years in secondary education. Supervisory problems was one of the many areas covered. This study is significant because it considered the role of the high school principal as supervisor.

It was found that principals of small high schools gave from forty to forty-five percent of their time to teaching. The reports indicated that approximately ninety-seven percent of them spend some time in duties relating to supervision of instruction, the amount of time devoted varying from fifteen to twenty-five percent.

---

1 Fred Engelhardt, W. H. Zeigel, and R. O. Billett, "Administration and Supervision," U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin, No. 17, 1932, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 11, pp. 117, 164.

In the replies to the question, "What seem to you to be the outstanding elements of the supervisory program in your school?", four words were frequently given: simplicity, informality, cooperation, and enthusiasm.

Two prerequisites of successful supervision were stated:

- "1. A plan - The typical supervisor in the school studied begins the year with a definite plan.
- 2. A right attitude toward the supervised. The supervisor's program is developed through close cooperation with the teachers who are to participate in it. The supervisor is recognized as one of the group in a co-operative endeavor and not as an inspector dispensing negative criticism."

The North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges began a committee study in 1942 under the direction of C. A. Weber.<sup>1</sup> The study grew out of recognition that the development of programs of in-service education is rapidly becoming one of the major responsibilities and needs of school administration. The committee appointed to do the study was to inventory, describe, and evaluate the techniques employed in the secondary schools of the Association for the education of teachers in service. The problem of the inquiry was as follows:

---

1 C. A. Weber, "Basic Assumptions for Evaluation of Techniques Employed in Secondary Schools for Educating Teachers in Service," North Central Association Quarterly, 17(1942)19-27.

- "1. What techniques are being employed in the secondary schools of the North Central Association for education teachers in service?
2. What are the characteristics of these techniques?
3. Of what value are the techniques and which ones have the greatest promise?"<sup>1</sup>

Basic assumptions were set up to guide the investigators in evaluating the techniques. For each assumption criteria were formulated for the evaluation of techniques employed in the in-service education of teachers.

Weber<sup>2</sup> summarized these assumptions in this way:

"In-service education of teachers should seek to create an environment which will be conducive to the maximum growth of teachers; afford maximum opportunity for engendering biological vigor of teachers; encourage democratic cooperation of all concerned with the educative process; engender effective methods of problem solving; and provide maximum opportunity for creative thinking."

In a second article Weber<sup>3</sup> presents techniques which were reported by teachers and principals. By applying the criteria of evaluation principles, frequency of use, opinion of principals, and a jury of 479 teachers,

---

1 Ibid., p. 19.

2 Ibid., p. 27.

3 C. A. Weber, "Techniques of In-Service Education Applied in North Central Secondary Schools," North Central Association Quarterly, 17(1942)195-198.

thirty-eight techniques were selected as promising for improving instruction. Forty-five techniques were selected as promising for improving staff relations, nineteen techniques were selected as promising for improving community relations, and twenty-five techniques were selected as least valuable.

The following were found to be promising techniques for improving instruction:

1. Visiting teachers in one's own school according to a plan devised by teachers themselves
2. Visiting teachers in other schools according to plans devised by the staff
3. Holding departmental meetings to study curriculum development
4. Experimenting with new classroom procedures according to plans devised by the staff
5. Making surveys of pupil problems, interests, and needs
6. Surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development
7. Holding departmental seminars open to all teachers to discuss departmental problems
8. Exchanging teachers with other schools
9. Having pupils and parents, as well as teachers, serve on committees concerned with pupil activities and problems
10. Electing committees to conduct experiments within the school
11. Electing committees to evaluate practices, experiments, etc.
12. Having teachers participate in the selection of instructional material
13. Having teachers of one grade meet to discuss common problems
14. Having teachers visit homes of pupils
15. Having teachers devise criteria for the evaluation of teaching
16. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out a program of cooperative research in summer school

17. Organizing teachers to study recent educational research bearing on problems of the school
18. Setting up problems for study which require experimentation
19. Having teachers arrange exhibits of work done in their classes
20. Having two or more teachers cooperatively teach one class, working and planning together
21. Electing teachers to study tests and testing
22. Making careful study of maladjusted pupils
23. Providing an adequate professional library
24. Having teachers, through committees, develop a guidance bulletin
25. Surveying the vocational opportunities in the community
26. Providing time for teachers to interview pupils
27. Organizing the staff to study the socio-economic background of every pupil
28. Electing committees to study particular phases of curriculum development
29. Organizing the entire staff into committees to study curriculum development
30. Organizing small group study meetings for study of the curriculum
31. Experimenting with a "Core curriculum"
32. Devising (by teachers) an organized program of summer study for the purpose of making a cooperative attack upon specific school problems
33. Organizing a summer work-shop to study curriculum development
34. Including parents and pupils on curriculum committees
35. Electing committees to study recent theories of learning and to keep staff informed through oral and written reports
36. Electing committees to keep staff informed regarding current educational research
37. Electing committees to keep staff informed of current experiments in progress in classroom procedures, curriculum, etc.
38. Showing movies to illustrate newer methods of teaching

The following were found to be promising techniques for improving staff relations:

1. Having teachers preside at general meetings of the staff
2. Keeping accurate minutes of general staff meetings
3. Making minutes of staff meetings available to teachers
4. Electing committees to plan staff meetings
5. Holding staff meetings on school time by making provision for them in the program
6. Serving light refreshments in connection with staff meetings
7. Extensive use of panel discussions
8. Having committees make reports on topics selected by the staff
9. Having open discussion following panel or committee discussions
10. Selecting staff members to talk to the group on specific topics
11. Organizing teachers into committees to study specific topics.
12. Having teachers prepare and issue school handbooks for new teachers and new pupils
13. Providing for sabbatical leave to study, travel, or recover health
14. Providing cumulative sick leave for teachers
15. Providing periodic health examinations at school expense
16. Providing a cooperative medical, hospital, and health service for teachers
17. Having teachers cooperatively plan recreational and social activities for teachers
18. Having teachers develop a cooperative program for securing improved living conditions for teachers
19. Giving teachers a definite part in the selection of new staff members
20. Having teachers plan and execute procedures for the orientation of new teachers
21. Electing rather than having the principal appoint committees
22. Having teachers determine who is to appoint committees
23. Selecting committees, the selecting being done by teachers, to devise plans of action in connection with policy making
24. Having teachers select committees to gather facts needed for policy making or devising plans of action

25. Using committee reports for bases of plans of action of the staff
26. Holding a series of seminars a week before school opens to study plans for the year
27. Providing for teacher participation in planning new buildings
28. Having teachers prepare a standard supply list for use in purchasing supplies
29. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use of the staff in planning faculty meetings
30. Having teachers choose their own leaders for discussion
31. Electing a committee of teachers to work with the administrator in planning the school budget
32. Electing a committee of teachers to work with the administrator and board of education in developing a salary schedule
33. Having teachers cooperatively develop a statement of their philosophy
34. Electing committees to suggest readings for teachers
35. Electing a principal's advisory committee
36. Holding joint meetings of boards of education and faculty
37. Electing committees to assist in planning the class schedule
38. Holding informal meetings of the staff
39. Having teachers select topics for special study
40. Having teachers devise a plan for basing salary increases on evidence of growth
41. Granting teachers short leaves with pay to attend conventions
42. Giving salary increments or bonuses for active participation in experimentation within the school
43. Giving salary increases or bonuses for extensive activity in study of local problems, curriculum revision, guidance, etc.
44. Giving salary increases for publication of magazine articles growing out of a study of problems within the school
45. Providing a faculty browsing room and lounge

The following techniques were considered least

valuable:

1. Having the principal preside over teachers' meetings
2. Having the principal plan the faculty meetings
3. Holding staff meetings without adequate planning
4. Holding meetings after school when teachers are tired
5. Discussing routine matters
6. Holding faculty meetings at irregular intervals
7. Holding "reading circle" meetings
8. Demonstration teaching
9. Having principal do most of the talking
10. Domination by the principal in discussions
11. Visiting classes by principal or supervisor
12. Holding individual conferences by invitation of the principal
13. Basing salary increases on summer study without concern for other evidences of growth
14. Basing salary increases on earning advanced degrees without other evidences of growth
15. Basing salary schedules on years of service without regard to other evidence of growth
16. Giving teachers leaves without pay
17. Deducting from salaries for short absences due to illness
18. Appointing committees when electing could be the procedure to employ
19. Issuing circulars and bulletins to teachers
20. Creating curriculum committees by appointing only department heads to serve
21. Issuing bibliographies to teachers
22. Having the principal review current literature
23. Having principals issue orders to teachers when teachers could work out their own procedures
24. Principal becomes overly concerned with technical rules and regulations regarding teachers
25. Making faculty meetings resemble college classroom situations

Weber reported that cooperative techniques, that is, those techniques which involve active teacher partici-

pation in planning and policy making, have the greatest promise. Traditional, inspectorial, authoritarian, techniques which stem largely from administrative initiative, appear to have least promise.

Doctoral Dissertations. Four theses are reviewed as representative of various types in areas as follows: (1) an analytical case study of an elementary teacher in-service training program; (2) a study based on small graded systems and the administrators responsibility for supervision; (3) a study of in-service activities of elementary teachers in towns of over five thousand; (4) a study concerned with ways teacher institutions could help in meeting in-service teacher needs.

Geddis<sup>1</sup> reported the results of a program of in-service education in a California city. A staff of Stanford University consultants was invited to work with three elementary-school faculties in studying the problem of grouping children.

This was an analytical case study, conducted through observation and the use of transcriptions. The purpose was to discover the nature of the processes involved and the ways in which they influenced the development of the program.

---

<sup>1</sup> T. B. Geddis, "An In-Service Program of Teacher Education," Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, Stanford University, 1952.

Attention was focused on such factors as purposes, procedures, commitments, leadership, evaluation, and human relationships. The interaction of these factors is what Geddis meant by processes. Examples of processes presented were: leadership influencing commitments, evaluation influencing purposes, purposes influencing procedure.

In reviewing and studying the transcriptions and observations of the work with the three school faculties, Geddis<sup>1</sup> found that the nature of processes involved had implications for in-service education as follows:

"Teachers should have a part in planning purposes.

Unless teachers are invited to participate in deciding the overall purposes of a program of in-service education, the fundamental source of teacher interest and initiative is disregarded.

Program purposes should be in harmony with teacher purposes.

The purposes of a program should be directed toward meeting needs and interests of teachers, and toward problems which teachers recognize as important. This can be done most effectively through teacher representation at the policy making level. Beginning where teachers are does not imply remaining there. Purposes do not have to be confined to teacher recognized purposes, but they may well begin with them.

The more extensive and meaningful the participation, the more effective the program.

The quality of participation is more important than the frequency or quantity of participation. The effectiveness of participation can be evaluated only in terms of behavior changes in

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 146.

the individual who participated, as expressed in his activities and relationships with others. The most effective participation in in-service opportunities, then will be voluntary--not forced or expected-- participation.

Teacher resistances can be anticipated and minimized.

Teacher resistance can be expected in a program when teachers have not been adequately prepared to accept new ideas, or when the views and values of teachers have been ignored. Adequate evaluation of proposed procedures can serve to warn of potential resistances.

A common reaction of most groups is to resist change of any kind; frequently such resistance may be traced to the manner of presentation rather than to the fact that the idea is new.

Abstract concepts must be made meaningful or be discarded.

Programs of in-service teacher education face the task of dealing with abstract concepts. There is a desperate need in the oververbalized profession of teaching to bring abstractions down to earth.

An analysis of commitments should be made.

An analysis of commitments in an in-service program of teacher education can serve to indicate where the program should begin, how fast it may move and in what direction, and may serve to reveal the sources of barriers and resistances which may be anticipated. More positively, such an analysis may serve to mark the sources of support and point to new avenues of development in a program.

Cooptation can be employed to strengthen a program.

The leadership in a program should be alert to all possibilities for securing additional support through the process of involving key personnel and other groups in their projects.

Evaluation must be an integral part of a program, and it must be a continuous process involving all whom the program affects.

Unbiased evaluation does not always confirm the present course and purposes. The results of evaluation may prove of highest value when they

indicate the need for a change in direction, or a change in goal.

Measurement of tangible elements by precision instruments is a very secure kind of evaluation. There is little such security for the evaluator of an in-service education program; neither are his elements tangible, nor are his instruments precise. Yet, if he attains a new kind of sociological perspective, his evaluative efforts need be no less rewarding.

Effective human relationships must be a primary and basic concern of every in-service program of teacher education.

The program of in-service education should be continuously analyzed for the possibility of enhancing effective human relations. The responsibility for effecting sound human relationships rests with each individual regardless of his status in a program. A basic human relationship kit should contain at least three skills: (1) the ability to be interested in others; (2) the ability to disagree and still maintain mutual respect; added to these should be the virtues of patience and humility."

Schmidt<sup>1</sup> made a study of the supervisory responsibilities of the superintendent of schools in the elementary grades of small, twelve-grade Nebraska school systems. His purpose was to develop a plan for the provision of effective supervision in small schools.

A study by visitation was made of four selected schools. Other schools were surveyed by questionnaire. A list of recommended in-service training techniques was

---

1 R. L. W. Schmidt, "Supervisory Responsibilities of the Superintendent of Schools in the Elementary Grades of Small, Twelve-Grade Nebraska School Systems," Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1951.

compiled for the superintendent or principal to use in small schools. These techniques were selected by evaluation through frequency of use and by a set of supervision principles formulated from the literature. Schmidt found that superintendents of small schools needed to do further planning and expanding of the supervisory program.

Certain fundamental criteria that should serve as guideposts in supervisory programs were identified by analyzing textbooks, yearbooks, and other articles. Schmidt<sup>1</sup> formulated nine principles as expressing the nature of good supervision.

**Principle I. Democratic and Cooperative**

Supervision must seek the participation of all members of the educational system in the cooperative enterprise of improving the teaching-learning situation.

**Principle II. Closely Associated with Administration**

Supervision cannot be separated from administration. They are complementary, having as their common purpose the provision of all means and conditions favorable to better learning and teaching.

**Principle III. Organized**

Supervision must be a cooperatively formulated, well planned, definitely organized program based upon the educational needs of the school system. It must be flexible in order to adapt itself to the needs of the teaching-learning situation.

**Principle IV. Scientific**

Supervision must be scientific. This end is achieved when appropriate tests, educational materials, methods and research findings are

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibid., Chapter II.

utilized in the improvement of the teaching-learning situation.

**Principle V. Creative**

Supervision should be creative. It should encourage teachers to develop sound teaching objectives and methods in accordance with individual talents and in light of the needs of the teaching-learning situation. It must be adapted to the training, personality and ability of the individual teacher.

**Principle VI. Intended to Improve Instruction by In-Service Experience of Teachers**

Supervision should help the teacher grow in efficiency and self-direction.

**Principle VII. Cumulative**

Supervision must be cumulative. Continuity must be provided in order to prevent repetitious practices and procedures among the educational staff. Each new development in the supervisory program shall be based upon the established results of previous practice.

**Principle VIII. Coordinated**

The interests of all elements--community, pupil, teacher, supervisor, administrator--in the school situation must be considered to the extent that appropriate weight is given each of them in the development of the total program.

**Principle IX. Subject to Evaluation**

Supervision must be evaluated. It must be evaluated in terms of the effects upon the pupil, instructional staff and community. It must be evaluated in terms of the standards and objectives of supervision. Evaluation should also be continuous.

Burk<sup>1</sup> made a study on the status of in-service education for teachers in the elementary schools of Indiana.

---

1 R. Burdette Burk, "A Study of In-Service Education in Selected Public Elementary Schools of Indiana," Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, University of Indiana, 1952.

His purpose was to discover the kinds of in-service activities offered to and engaged in by the teachers. His study was based on elementary schools in cities having a population of five thousand or more.

Teachers were surveyed by questionnaire. In the major findings of his study the following items were pertinent:

1. The teachers were offered a variety of in-service activities. Large city school systems offered more activities than smaller school systems.
2. The superintendent and the supervisory staff were largely responsible for the initiation of in-service activities. In-service activities were seldom initiated by teachers; especially was this true in small school systems.
3. Teachers ranked intrinsic incentives above extrinsic incentives as motivating factors that encouraged participation in in-service education.
4. Leadership to guide in-service activities tended to be a shared responsibility, with the supervisors assuming a substantial role in larger school systems and lesser role in small school systems. Classroom teachers tended to assume responsibility for approximately one-third of the leadership to guide the in-service activities initiated.
5. Approximately forty-five percent of the teachers felt they were given sufficient opportunities to assist in formulating school policies.
6. The many cross references made in the study pointed out clearly that, where teachers were participating in in-service activities, they were more laudable of the contributions of such leadership.
7. Approximately one-third of the teachers were in school systems requiring periodic additional

training. Teachers being required to earn periodic training units showed a very favorable attitude toward the requirements. The most commonly required units were five to seven semester hours each five years.

8. Evaluation of teaching was largely a responsibility of the principal and the supervisor. Approximately half of the teachers in small schools reported "no plan" for evaluation of teaching.
9. A little over half of the teachers were teaching in school systems providing professional library facilities. School systems offering professional libraries tended: (a) to be offering more in-service activities, (b) to have more teachers participating in in-service activities, and (c) to have the present school curriculum evaluated favorably by the teachers.
10. Teachers judging the curriculum as being easily adapted to children's needs or being revised in accordance with modern trends tended to report fewer perplexing problems. Likewise, teachers feeling that they were given sufficient opportunity to determine school policies reported a lesser number of perplexing problems.

The ten most perplexing problems of teachers, as reported by Burk,<sup>1</sup> were ranked in the following order: (1) children's problems; (2) classroom enrollment; (3) teaching load; (4) administrative-staff relationships; (5) slow learning child; (6) individual differences; (7) discipline; (8) instructional activities; (9) instructional materials, and (10) curriculum.

Dent<sup>2</sup> made a study in which he proposed to find

1 Ibid.

2 Charles H. Dent, "Connecticut Teachers Needs For In-Service Education," Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, New York University, 1951.

out the needs as reported by teachers of Connecticut for in-service education. He also included recommendations for meeting certain of these needs through the seventeen teacher education institutions of the state. Teachers and administrators were surveyed as to the status of teacher preparation in order to plan for continuing professional development. Administrative personnel of the teacher education institutions and lay members of school community study groups were polled on what they thought teachers should have further preparation in.

Following are the findings Dent<sup>1</sup> reports as general needs for professional growth and development of school personnel in Connecticut as indicated by them.

<u>General Needs</u>	<u>Percent</u>
1. Improved teaching procedure in line with current demands on the school	21.2
2. Planning curriculum content	13.7
3. More understanding of contemporary national and international problems in their social, economic, political, and educational manifestations	13.3
4. Fuller understanding of philosophy and aims of present day education	11.8
5. More understanding and skill in group processes	10.4
6. More knowledge of subject matter	9.1

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 83.

7. More understanding of how children grow and develop	8.1
8. More ability to exert and foster educational leadership	6.9
9. Other miscellaneous needs	3.4
10. No needs	<u>2.2</u>
Total	100 %

Other Studies. By interviewing 460 teachers, principals, and superintendents during the summer session of 1946, Bail<sup>1</sup> and a graduate class he was teaching made an interesting study. Ninety-two percent of the group interviewed were classroom teachers.

The purpose of the study was to answer two questions, as follows:

1. What type of supervision do teachers desire?
2. What type of supervision do teachers receive?

The persons interviewed were asked these two questions:

1. What do you want of supervision?
2. What kind of supervision do you receive?

The type of supervision desired by the teachers is expressed in the following list.

<sup>1</sup> Paul M. Bail, "Do Teachers Receive the Kind of Supervision They Desire?", Journal of Educational Research, 40(May, 1947)713-716.

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Type of Supervision</u>	<u>Frequency of Mention</u>	<u>Per-cent</u>
1	Constructive criticism	259	56.3
2	Recommended new techniques and methods	120	26.1
3	Demonstration teaching	115	25.0
4	Recommended materials and equipment	107	23.3
5	Recommended professional books and articles	60	13.0
6	Assistance with special problems	36	7.8
7	Assistance with classroom control	35	7.6
8	Inspirational supervision	32	6.9
9	Interview following visitation	31	6.7
10	Cooperative supervision	27	5.8

It can be readily seen that the first four items form the major portion of the desired help. The teachers desired constructive criticism, new techniques, and better working materials.

In response to the question, "What kind of supervision do you receive?", the teachers gave these replies:

	<u>Frequency of Mention</u>	<u>Per-cent</u>
Regular inspection only	185	40.2
Very little	137	29.2
No supervision	118	25.7
Democratic, helpful supervision	20	4.3

Comparison of the two preceding lists will disclose that there is a vast gap between practice and the elements of supervision desired by the teachers. Baill<sup>1</sup>

---

1 Ibid., p. 716.

had these conclusions to make:

- "1. Teachers desire most frequently supervision which provides constructive criticism, new techniques and methods, demonstration teaching, suggested materials and equipment.
2. Teachers do not receive from supervision the services which they desire."

Antell<sup>1</sup> made a similar study to test teacher appraisal of the worth of common supervisory practices. He made a list of the twenty-five most common practices of supervision and presented them to a sampling of New York teachers for appraisal.

Teachers rated high those practices which made available resource materials for their own improvement. Practices of high rating were:

1. Availability of professional library in school
2. The supervisor acts as a consultant or technical advisor
3. Visiting an outstanding school
4. Participation in the formulation of school policies
5. In-service courses or workshops
6. Participation in course of study making

Teachers indicated detrimental to teacher growth the practice of rigid adherence to a fixed daily schedule or program, and practices which are supervisor dominated.

---

<sup>1</sup> Henry Antell, "Teachers Appraise Supervision," Journal of Educational Research, 38(April, 1945)606-611.

Antell<sup>1</sup> concluded in his study that:

"The teacher responses to the items in the questionnaire showed that they favored those supervisory practices which gave them widest latitude to participate in curriculum improvement, which made available to them sources of pertinent information, and which gave them genuine assistance. They resented all forms of imposition. They wanted help in their every-day tasks. They did not care for inspectorial supervision.

Supervisors should readjust their thinking in regard to the value of the various supervisory practices. If the latter are to be used with the chief purpose of improving teachers in service, they should be constantly evaluated on this basis. Merely standing the test of time is not a proper qualification for an approved supervisory practice."

The performance of the principal in improving in his school often hinges on his ability to help teachers maintain mental health.

In most cases the principal is not a trained counselor but he is frequently faced with the task of trying to help a teacher confronted with a personal problem. The importance of identifying and proceeding from problems which teachers consider important has frequently been emphasized. The solution to personal problems may well be the solution to classroom problems that teachers are having. Symonds<sup>2</sup> made a study of the personal problems of

---

1 Ibid., p. 611.

2 P. M. Symonds, "How Teachers Solve Personal Problems," Journal of Educational Research, 38(1945)641-52.

teachers and how they solve them. This study had implications for the role a principal may take in mental hygiene of teachers. A sympathetic and understanding principal who is willing to hear the problems of his teachers can do much to help them. Symonds has this to say about the opportunity for teachers to talk over their problems.

"An individual gains most in insight by talking to another person--it matters little who--and having the spotlight turned on himself as he reveals himself by his own expression."

The idea that it does not matter who, may be a little farfetched. Usually a person will seek out an individual who has his confidence and respect.

In another study of autobiographies of fifty teachers, Symonds<sup>1</sup> found that need for recognition of achievement occurred most frequently. The next greatest need was to form friendships.

What are the conditions which most frequently threaten the teacher and lower his effectiveness on the job? Kvaraceus<sup>2</sup> made a study to find information to help answer the question. The fifteen items most frequently checked as mental health hazards with reference to the

---

1 P. M. Symonds, "Needs of Teachers as Shown in Autobiographies," Journal of Educational Research, 36(1943) 662-77.

2 W. C. Kvaraceus, "Mental Health Hazards Facing Teachers," Phi Delta Kappan, 32(April, 1951)349.

classroom teacher are listed in rank order as follows:

- (1) Teacher load too heavy; (2) Overcrowded classrooms;
- (3) Conflicting personalities among teachers; (4) Jealousies among school personnel; (5) Danger of expressing honest opinion about schools; (6) Teachers' pay less than custodian's; (7) Supplies and equipment inadequate; (8) Desire for matrimony; (9) Teachers in conflict with administrative policy; (10) Housing for teachers inadequate; (11) Malfunctioning of PTA; (12) Administrator-teacher personality conflicts; (13) Lack of recognition for work well done; (14) Poorly arranged teaching schedules; (15) Criticisms by superiors.

Opportunity to improve teacher mental health lies directly with the administration in five out of seven of the last items. The alert principal in view of those items will want to work toward good human relations by giving recognition for work well done, by minimizing personality conflicts, by being constructive and tactful in giving criticism, and having teachers share in scheduling and policy making. Skill in maintaining mental health among the faculty is an asset every principal needs to strive for in administering an instructional program.

The mental health of new teachers is frequently dependent upon the kind of help principals give them at the very beginning of their careers. Knowledge of the difficulties that most frequently confront young teachers might

well form the basis of helping these teachers to get off to a smooth start. The principal is frequently busy with duties incidental to the opening of the school year, and inadvertently leaves his beginning teachers to flounder their way around. Many teachers look back to the first week of school with a feeling that they have gone through a period of anxiety and unrest.

In a study by Barr and Rudisill<sup>1</sup> they found fifteen difficulties to be the most frequent of all teachers. They are listed in rank order starting with the most frequent as follows:

1. Control over pupils
2. Provision for individual differences
3. Presentation of subject matter
4. Motivation
5. Organization of work and teaching materials
6. Conditions for work
7. Measuring achievement
8. Teacher and pupil participation in the recitation
9. Making assignments
10. Adjustment by teacher to classroom situation
11. Teacher's preparation for teaching
12. Personal characteristics of teacher
13. Standards (how much to expect of pupils)
14. Teaching pupils how to study
15. The handling of routine

These five difficulties were mentioned frequently by the beginning teachers as peculiar to the first two weeks of teaching. The first two items were most prominent.

---

1 A. S. Barr and Mabel Rudisell, "The Inexperienced Teachers Who Fail and Why," Nations Schools, 5(February, 1930) 30-34.

1. Adjustment by teacher
2. Standards of work (finding level of pupils)
3. Lesson planning
4. Administrative details
5. Classroom procedure

The difficulties that decreased steadily as teaching experience was gained were:

1. Control over pupils
2. Presenting subject matter
3. Measuring achievement
4. The assignment
5. Teacher and pupil preparation
6. Teacher preparation

The difficulties that decreased little for the beginning teacher during the first two years were:

1. Motivation of pupils
2. Conditions for work (locating reference materials)
3. Organization of work and materials
4. Teaching pupils how to study

Wallace<sup>1</sup> reported a study in which his purpose was two-fold: (1) to identify the problems involved in the induction of new teachers, and (2) to determine the techniques that are employed in the schools to facilitate the induction process. This study covered twenty-seven states. A large portion of the teachers participating in the study resided in urban areas.

---

<sup>1</sup> Morris S. Wallace, "The Induction of New Teachers in School and Community," The North Central Association Quarterly, 25(1950)238-251.

Wallace<sup>1</sup> found the ten most frequent problems of induction experienced by teachers were the following by order of rank:

1. Learning administrative routines, reports and procedures
2. Problem of gaining an understanding of the school's system of evaluating pupil achievement
3. Disciplinary problems
4. Conditions of work - inadequate materials
5. Problem of gaining a workable understanding of the school philosophy
6. Establishing good teacher-pupil relationships
7. Problem of professional adjustment to other teaching personnel
8. Conditions of work - inadequate building facilities
9. Teacher-class load
10. Demands for teacher's time and energy after school hours

In the two preceding studies similarities in findings were noted. Although worded differently, both agreed on the first and second greatest difficulty of beginning teachers as teacher adjustment to administrative routines, and the problem of evaluating and finding the level of pupil work.

The process of helping the newly appointed teacher to achieve maximal initial teaching success in a new teaching situation may have a definite bearing on the tenure of that teacher. Teacher turnover is a problem existing in many small high schools. Job dissatisfactions and the lure

---

1 Ibid., p. 249.

of larger school systems cause many teachers to change positions. Careful planning by the principal can be of value in lessening the rate of turnover.

Tate<sup>1</sup> made a study of teacher-induction programs in the medium-sized high schools in Idaho. He asked teachers to state one or more adjustment problems they have had as a teacher new to a position. These problems were grouped into eight areas in order of frequency of mention as follows:

1. Problems related to school discipline
2. Problems the teacher believes to be caused by teaching outside field of preparation
3. Problems related to understanding philosophy and objectives of the school
4. Problems arising in adjustment to other teachers
5. Problems related to housing and living conditions
6. Problem of finding recreation
7. Problem of getting conferences with the busy superintendent
8. Problem of finding time to take part in civic affairs

Tate<sup>2</sup> found that in the opinion of the majority of the new teachers, the chronological pattern of a maximally helpful induction program would include:

- "1. At the time of application, election or as soon as possible after election -devices

---

1 M. W. Tate, "The Induction of Secondary School Teachers," School Review, 51(1943)153.

2 Ibid., p. 157.

for supplying information regarding the teaching assignment, basic textbooks, housing and living conditions, desired emphases and aims of the assigned subjects, general philosophy and objectives of the school, principles underlying discipline, personal traits and conduct expected of the teacher.

2. Before the opening of school - new-teacher individual and group conferences with the superintendent regarding the unique features of the curriculum and instructional methods.
3. At the time of the opening of the school year - general teacher's meetings devoted to the discussion of organization and routine.
4. Early in the year - individual conferences with the superintendent following classroom visits, more general teachers' meeting devoted to discussion of routine."

In the same manner that a carefully planned program can give impetus to teacher adjustment an ill conceived supervisory program can be the cause of teacher turnover as a result of job dissatisfaction. Byrnes<sup>1</sup> discovered twenty-three criteria that teachers reported as affecting their job satisfaction. From these criteria he drew fourteen conclusions of which these five have direct implication in planning a program for teachers in service.

1. Causes for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were found mainly in four

---

<sup>1</sup> A. F. Byrnes, "A Study of Job Satisfactions and Dis-satisfactions of Teachers in Selected Schools of Indiana," 1951, in Abstracts of Theses, 1951-52, New York University, 1951.

areas: (a) administration; (b) physical conditions; (c) relationships with the community; (d) within the faculty and with students and parents.

2. Over half the faculty functions were dominated by the principal.
3. Faculty meetings were not interesting to teachers.
4. The type of supervision was not desirable.
5. Feelings of insecurity, and failure to become a part of the community.

One of the oldest techniques used in supervision of teachers is that of classroom visitation. It was first used for the purpose of inspection and to some extent it is still used with that concept in mind. Hughes<sup>1</sup> made a study based mostly on classroom visitation as a supervision technique used by superintendents, principals, and supervisors. The study had two purposes: (1) to find out from high-school teachers the amount and nature of supervision received by them through the medium of classroom visitation; (2) to determine, through a study of supervisory procedure in classroom visitation, the extent to which supervisory policies are discoverable.

The study was made by use of a questionnaire sent to high-school teachers. These pertinent findings on classroom visitation were reported:

---

1 J. M. Hughes, "A Study in High School Supervision," School Review, 34(1926)112-22, 192-98.

1. The teachers' reports indicated that there was almost a total lack of classroom visitation. The principal averaged about one visit per semester. Ninety percent of the teachers received no visit at all.
2. Teachers developed an attitude of disrespect and antipathy for supervision.
3. The teachers felt a need for sympathetic, constructive help.
4. The factors of training and tenure seem to have had little effect on policies of supervision, while the factor of experience seems to have had slight effect. The inexperienced teachers were more closely supervised.

In addition to the above it was interesting to know that superintendents and principals visited the shop teachers more often than they visited the teachers of other subjects.

Although classroom visitation by the principal has become an accepted and expected thing, the practice of teachers visiting classrooms has often been neglected. Teachers frequently desire the opportunity to observe other teachers working under similar circumstances. Principals would do well to facilitate such a practice. Johnson<sup>1</sup> tells about teacher observation as a method for improvement of instruction for experienced teachers. He has this to say of classroom visits:

"This type of experience is of undoubted value to the teacher-to-be, although it is probable

---

<sup>1</sup> E. G. Johnson, "Class Observation and Professional Growth," Educational Record, 21(1940)140.

that the observation visit has much less significance to him than it would have for the experienced teacher."

A research study reported by Whitney<sup>1</sup> dealt with trends noted from some of his previous research on methods used to promote the growth of teachers in service. By repetition of an earlier study, he made a comparison of accepted practice in 1923 with what he found to be the best practice in 1936. Whitney reported the following rankings for methods in teacher improvement in small schools.

<u>1923 rank order</u>	<u>Methods in teacher improvement</u>	<u>1936 rank order</u>
1	Personal conferences	3
2	Reading professional literature	1
3	Classroom visitation by superior officer	4
4	General teachers' meetings at regular intervals	9
5	Group conferences on special problems	10
6	Visiting other teachers	--
7	Demonstration teaching	--
8	Supervisory bulletins	--
9	Measuring the results of teaching	2
10	Participation in curriculum making	--

In 1936, methods listed in positions 6, 7, 8, 10 were:

-	Membership in and attendance at teacher's associations	6
-	Establishing happy community relationships	7
-	Summer school attendance	8
-	Supervision by general or special supervisors	10

---

<sup>1</sup> Frederick L. Whitney, "Trends in Methods of Teacher Improvement," American School Board Journal, 93(December, 1936)18-19.

The trends noted by Whitney<sup>1</sup> in his study were compiled from questions submitted to teachers, administrators, and professors of education.

Weber<sup>2</sup> reported the reactions of teachers to various in-service devices. One group of schools used techniques characterized as cooperative; the second group used principal-centered traditional techniques. Reactions were secured by questionnaire. Examples of teacher-centered techniques used were:

1. Having teachers preside at faculty meetings most of the time
2. Electing committees to plan faculty meetings
3. Employing panel discussions for conducting faculty meetings
4. Giving teachers a definite part in selection of new members of the staff
5. Having teachers choose their own leaders for discussion meetings

Examples of principal-centered techniques used were:

1. Principal plans faculty meetings
2. Principal presides at faculty meetings
3. Principal visits classes and confers with teachers after visiting
4. Principal lectures on educational topics at faculty meetings
5. The principal appoints committees

---

1 Ibid., p. 19.

2 C. A. Weber, "Reactions of Teachers to In-Service Education in Their Schools," School Review, 51(1943) 234-40.

The conclusions reached were that shared experiences such as policy shaping, planning and conducting faculty meetings, and cooperative problem solving were superior. Those to which teachers did not react favorably were classified as supervisory, inspectorial, authoritarian, and principal-dominated.

In discussing in-service training many techniques have been brought to attention that one may employ to improve instruction. Little has been said about the obstacles to be met and overcome in planning the program. Some of the more serious obstacles are summarized in this table by Weber.<sup>1</sup>

**THE MOST SERIOUS OBSTACLES ENCOURAGED IN PROGRAMS  
OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION**

Obstacle	Number Listing	Percent Schools
Lack of time, heavy teaching loads, extra curricular loads . . . . .	112	45.5
Unprofessional attitudes of teachers . . .	99	40.2
Lack of money for providing professional library facilities for staff . . . . .	34	13.8
Lack of planning . . . . .	21	8.5
Conflicts in personality among staff . . .	14	5.7
Weariness of teachers, ill health . . . .	12	4.9
General unrest in school and community . .	11	4.5
Authoritarian administration . . . . .	10	4.1
Teacher turnover . . . . .	9	3.7
Lack of supervision . . . . .	8	3.2
Life certificates . . . . .	8	3.2
Petty arguments . . . . .	7	2.8
Reading of bulletin by principal . . . .	6	2.4

<sup>1</sup> C. A. Weber, "Obstacles to be Overcome in a Program of Educating Teachers in Service," Educational Administration and Supervision, 28(November, 1942)609-614.

A further finding in Weber's<sup>1</sup> study led to this significant conclusion: "The use of cooperative techniques for educating teachers in service tends to eliminate the obstacle 'unprofessional attitudes of teachers.' Participation in planning and policy making causes the isolations, gaps, and barriers to melt away in the experience of shared decision."

In a study by Chase<sup>2</sup> he found that "school systems where teacher morale is high are distinguished from low morale systems by the greater opportunity for teachers to share in planning."

The preceding conclusions concerning the use of cooperative techniques for improving instruction may well bring up the question of the role of the principal in group action. Few will deny that the principal plays a strategic role in one of democracy's essential institutions. The manner in which he discharges his responsibility depends upon his concept of educational leadership. The use of democratic methods in leadership is a means of improving staff relationships.

The principal, in striving to exercise leadership in a program for improvement of instruction, is constantly

---

1 Ibid., p. 612.

2 F. S. Chase, "The Teacher and Policy Making," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1(May, 1952) No. 1.

facing problems such as how to get teachers started and interested in activities which lead to professional improvement.

Savage<sup>1</sup> reported that when teachers lack interest in attacking their problems they are exhibiting a symptom of a cause that should have the principal's attention. He reported seven possible causes as follows:

1. Lack of interest can be, but usually is not, a symptom of professional decease
2. Lack of interest may be a symptom of internal friction and factionalism in a faculty
3. Lack of interest may be a symptom of too many directives issued by the administrator
4. Lack of interest may be a symptom of emphasis on the wrong need
5. Lack of interest may be a symptom of the administrator's domination
6. Lack of interest may be a symptom of low morale in areas outside the classroom such as poor salaries and working conditions
7. Lack of interest may be a symptom of the policies of an administrator's predecessor

A conscious effort to listen more and talk less will enable an administrator to learn more about teacher attitudes and interests. Opportunities taken for informal conversations gives the administrator a better understanding of his staff. He may create a feeling between himself and his staff that they are part of the same team.

---

1 W. W. Savage, "My Teachers Are Not Interested," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1(November, 1952)No. 4.

Programs of in-service education should be continuously analyzed for the possibility of enhancing effective human relations. School principals need to recognize that successful in-service programs are closely related to the ability to engender a high quality of human relations. The job of coordinating the faculty in working together demands competence in social skills and the use of democratic methods.

The competent principal, in working with individuals and groups, has a responsibility for helping others to learn the techniques necessary for a high level of co-operation. Miel<sup>1</sup> stated it this way:

"Perhaps the chief obligation of the status leader, if he is to play a role that is consistent with democratic theory, is that he be concerned primarily with developing power, responsibility and leadership ability in others. Like all democratic techniques, evocative leadership is an art that has to be cultivated with all help that the science of human development can offer."

Recent research in areas pertaining to human relations has many implications for teacher in-service education programs. Some of these findings are presented as having possible application to the principal's job in working with the faculty.

The search for insights into the behavior of individuals and groups as they engage in social action has

---

<sup>1</sup> Alice Miel, Changing the Curriculum, New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1946, p. 161.

been undertaken by various agencies, organizations, research teams and individuals. Notably, these bodies have been active: National Education Association, universities, industry, United States Government, the Armed Services, and the Congress of Industrial Organization.

Social effectiveness consists of certain habits and skills which can be acquired by practice. Link's<sup>1</sup> studies led him to conclude that most people can learn the skills of social effectiveness. Link says,

"Leadership is an aspect of social effectiveness--leaders are not merely born, they are persons who have developed social effectiveness to an unusual degree. That 'only a few are born to be leaders, the great majority must be followers,' is a fallacy."

One of the skills of social effectiveness which principals need is the skill of serving others in working with them. This skill calls for knowledge of how groups function and methods for improving the functions of groups. Benne, Bradford, and Lippitt,<sup>2</sup> in recalling that a collection of mature adults can form a very immature group, stated,

---

1 H. C. Link, "Definition of Social Effectiveness and Leadership Through Measurement," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 4(1944)57-67.

2 K. Benne, R. Bradford, and R. Lippitt, "Toward Improved Skill in Group Living - A Discussion," Educational Leadership, 5(February, 1948)288.

"Leadership is a function or responsibility that endeavors to help the group grow in ability rather than to force the group to a product that is the leader's."

Perhaps one of the major difficulties of persons in status leadership roles stems from an inadequate conception of democratic leadership or inability to cope with its requirements.

"We often blame our group failure on the democratic method rather than on the fact that we have done nothing about helping groups grow to proper strength for democratic behavior."<sup>1</sup>

Although leaders of groups need to develop a permissive attitude, this does not mean that there should be an absence of direction and organization. The false identification of genuine democratic leadership with a laissez-faire attitude regarding responsibility for group growth has caused much confusion. Studies have demonstrated that "complete license is the most restrictive of all controls and the most frustrating."<sup>2</sup>

Studies made with children's groups indicate that a leader can exert a strong influence on the emotional climate of a group setting. This has a direct effect on the behavior of the members. A study by Lippitt and

---

1 Ibid., p. 292.

2 R. Lippitt and L. Bradford, "Building a Democratic Work Group," Personnel, 22(November, 1945)147.

White<sup>1</sup> was based on children's groups in which each adult leader intentionally led by laissez-faire, authoritarian, or democratic methods. The findings disclosed that the result of dominating leadership was internal and external aggression, scape-goating, avoidance of responsibility, and lack of initiative. Autocratic leadership did not contribute much to group growth. Members felt obligated to act for the sake of the leader rather than from an inner compulsion due to a recognized need to act. The laissez-faire type of induced leadership bred indifference, neglect of purpose, failure to produce and possible anarchy. In most cases the democratic leader's group excelled in the experiment. A suggestive implication can be gained from an additional finding that once a group experienced democratic methods of leadership and were later given an authoritarian leader, the group resisted the leader.

Frequently there are leaders whose manner of functioning is out of harmony with the expectancies of the situation. This often happens where policies are formulated and decisions are reached without the participation of those who are affected in the application of the

---

1 R. Lippitt and R. K. White, "An Experimental Study of Leadership and Group Life," Readings in Social Psychology, T. M. Newcomb, et. al., (Eds) New York, Henry Holt and Company, 1947, pp. 315-331.

policies and decisions. It has been found to be helpful if group members themselves engage in setting the goals, or if a group as a unit arrives at a decision to accept the goals. A group decision results in commitment and motivation to action in a very different way from a mere understanding of the goal.

Kurt Lewin<sup>1</sup> has pointed to the superiority of group made changes and suggests an explanation.

"We know from experiments in level of aspiration that goal-setting is strongly dependent on group standards. Experience in leadership training. . . indicates that it is easier to change the ideology and social practice of a small group handled together than of single individuals. One of the reasons why 'group carried changes' are more readily brought about seems to be the unwillingness of the individual to depart too far from group standards; he is likely to change only if the group changes."

This concept suggests that workshops and training sessions might more profitably be attended in teams rather than singly. Often only one representative or delegate is sent, a general report is returned to the group, and little if any change occurs as a result.

"It was predicted that leaders who came along to a training center from a particular community or organization would show less

---

1 Kurt Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," Readings in Social Psychology, T. M. Newcomb, et.al., (Eds), New York, Henry Holt and Company, 1947, p. 337.

effect of the training in their 'back-home' performance than persons who came as members of a team of two or more. It was hypothesized that the psychological reinforcement of the social expectations from co-trainees about changes in performance would be a major factor preventing regression and supporting significant personal change. So 'teams' and 'isolates' were recruited from matched communities and measurements of community leadership performance were made six months after the training laboratory which emphasized practice of human relations skills. The data confirm the hypotheses and cast considerable light on the reasons for the frequent failure of workshops and in-service training institutes to effect significant changes."<sup>1</sup>

It would seem that this concept, suggesting advantages in changing individuals in a group or team setting over attempts to change them separately, might bear investigation by school administrators. It may speed up school improvement through the team approach to conference, workshop, and other modifications of in-service training.

Canter<sup>2</sup> recently developed, applied, and evaluated a human relations course for business supervisors at Ohio State University. Leadership, in his view, calls for

---

1 National Training Laboratory for Group Development, Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session, Bulletin No. 3, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1948, p. 3.

2 Ralph R. Canter, Jr., "An Experimental Study of a Human Relations Training Program," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1949.

proficiency in human relations which is improvable through practice. Several qualifications of a human relations expert were listed:

1. Personality assets such as interest in people, emotional adjustment to the needs of individuals in a group, self-confidence or the lack of inferiority
2. A democratic point of view toward group control
3. Knowledge of individual and group behavior
4. Skill in using group techniques
5. Sensitivity to others about him
6. Regard for behavior in human relations as a cause and effect phenomenon

School executives who are beginning to recognize the need for democratic administration have found that to organize, deputize, and supervise is not enough. School administration has grown and the school leader needs to study social engineering in order to be a good educational practitioner. Pillard<sup>1</sup> made a study of emerging concepts of human relations for school administrators. He reported six major concepts which appear to be growing in significance.

"In the first place it is proposed that human relations skills can be learned, and they are improvable through practice. Expertness in human relations has been

---

1 M. J. Pillard, "Emerging Concepts of Human Relations for School Administrators," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, New York, Columbia University, 1951.

characterized as the very essence of leadership. A second proposition holds that groups have a growth process. A collection of individuals striving to further a common purpose can progressively strengthen the effectiveness of their joint efforts. The third concept asserts that groups can train their own membership toward improved functioning. This entails a responsibility by the members to recognize the evolving needs of the group and to utilize the special talents of the individuals for the benefit of the group as a whole. The fourth concept proposed is that it is as much the responsibility of a school executive to encourage the emergence of leadership which is indigenous to a particular group as it is to provide it himself. The fifth seems particularly important, namely, leadership training methods should be consistent with the objectives sought. As much as possible, training should take place in realistic settings which call for the use of the very skills to be learned. The last of the six concepts avers that there are advantages in utilizing group-oriented efforts to bring about social change over attempts to change individuals separately. It is often difficult to persuade some people to conform to policies which these individuals had no part in making. On the other hand, where members of a group arrive at a decision and commit themselves in the presence of others, the likelihood of appropriate action is very strong."

The principal should work skillfully and conscientiously with his staff as a co-worker in an effort to facilitate a more effective program of education for children. It should not be forgotten that for the same reasons that education of teachers in service should be a continuous thing, so also should it be for the principal. In consideration of all that has been said it should be remembered the principal is a teacher.

Summary and Implications

Among the studies reviewed in this chapter were several which gave the reports of teachers concerning their needs, difficulties, and dissatisfactions in their work. Teachers stated that although they desired constructive and cooperative supervision to help them solve their problems they received, in most cases, only inspectional visits, or little or no supervision.

Principals of schools are looked up to for leadership in initiating and coordinating efforts for the improvement of instruction through an in-service education program. Teachers seldom initiate in-service activities.

An effective in-service program should start with a plan. Teachers reported their schools as planless in regard to in-service education. Planning calls for proper administrative attitude which encourages democratic cooperation, engenders effective methods for problem solving, is conducive to good teacher mental health, gives recognition to teacher achievement, and is adapted to the problems, needs, interests, and ability of the faculty.

The best techniques are those that involve cooperative group participation in planning, evaluating, and policy making. The least promising techniques are principal-centered and authoritarian in nature. The use of

cooperative techniques for educating teachers in service tends to eliminate unprofessional attitudes of teachers.

Teachers ranked high those practices which made available resource materials and a professional library in the school.

The most frequent difficulties expressed by teachers were: control over pupils, provision for individual differences, presentation of subject matter, motivation of pupils, and organization of work and teaching materials.

The most frequent difficulties expressed by beginning teachers were: adjustment by the teacher, finding level of pupils, lesson planning, administrative details, classroom procedure, and disciplinary problems.

A carefully planned induction program is needed to aid teacher adjustment, erase job dissatisfactions, and decrease teacher turnover. The greatest area of job dissatisfaction reported by teachers was with administration and supervision.

The most serious obstacles to in-service programs for improvement of instruction were lack of time, teaching loads, lack of money, and lack of planning.

The principal should start with the interests and concerns of the teachers in an endeavor to increase the area of concern. The more extensive and meaningful the participation, the more effective the program.

The principal should use leadership techniques which are compatible with democratic methods. Leadership is considered as social effectiveness, the building of good human relations, and the developing of group effectiveness. The status leader should recognize that leadership is not endowed in one individual but is peculiar to the situation according to talents and abilities individuals may contribute.

Working with teams and groups is more effective in bringing about change than working with individuals. The principal should encourage workshops and other such cooperative group or committee enterprises in place of working from individual to individual.

Because principals are in a position of status leadership, and therefore need to know how to promote group functioning; because principals are responsible for supervision for improvement of instruction; because the principal is expected to initiate the in-service education program; and because studies show that teachers need help but are not getting the kind of help they need and desire, studies need to be made, regarding the principal, with an effort toward improving his efficiency in fulfilling his responsibility for improvement of instruction.

## CHAPTER II

### THE PROBLEM

#### Statement of the Problem

One of the principal functions of administrators in the public schools is to help plan and facilitate a program of instruction. It is also recognized by educational leaders that a continuous and strong program of in-service education of teachers is desirable for improvement of instruction. Future programs for improvement of instruction would most likely be based on an appraisal of the current status of the program in operation.

The problem proposed for this study is to make an analysis of the techniques and responsibilities as assumed by principals in the secondary schools of Kansas for improvement of instruction through the improvement of teachers in service. The study will attempt to answer the following questions, and others that may arise later in the development of the problem.

1. What are some personal and professional qualifications the principals in the study have for the role of supervisor?
2. What is the nature of the average position in which the principals are employed?
3. What are the responsibilities assumed and

techniques employed by the principals for improving instruction?

4. In what way would the principals like to improve themselves in supervising and working with teachers?
5. What are some attitudes held by the principals toward staff relationships and the school program?

#### Discussion of Terms

Supervision. Supervision as a term is often used in a broad and general way that it is difficult to draw a line of demarcation between that which is supervision and that which is administration. For the purpose of this study, supervision will be used to mean the activities of the local principal which are directly related to improvement of instruction.

In-service teacher training. In-service teacher training will be used to mean the activities of employed teachers that contribute to professional competency and instructional efficiency as promoted and encouraged by the principal of the local school.

Curriculum development. When the term "curriculum development" is used, it is not intended as a process separate from supervision. Supervision and curriculum development are considered as interrelated. Supervision is

a means of developing curricula.

Leadership. The principal of a school is appointed to his position of leadership. A person in such role is said to have status leadership or to be an official leader. The official leader is often concerned with developing leadership in the group he is working with. It is this type leadership with which we are concerned. A leadership that is specific to the situation; it is recognized talent for the occasion. Such leadership represents social effectiveness and expertness in human relations.

Pro-leader ness. Pro-leader ness has been used to designate the attitude of a status leader in feeling that he is the responsible leader for all occasions. It is also intended to mean a desire to lead group action. Authoritarianism is a frequent result of this sincere effort to lead. The dominating influence of the status leader tends to suppress individual and group expression.

Non-leader ness. Non-leader ness has been used to designate the action where a status leader holds himself aloof or apart from group action. He does not participate but passes final judgment by approving or disapproving group decisions. It is laissez faire in procedure, but authoritarian in final essence.

Evaluation. Evaluation is to include all formal and informal attempts to place a judgment of value on

individual and group activities, feelings and opinions.

Human relations. Human relations is used in talking about social effectiveness or the processes employed in group endeavor. Discussion concerning human relations may be found in the literature under related headings such as: leadership functions, group dynamics, group processes, group interactions, and social engineering.

The scientific study of human relations is concerned with: (a) the relation of one individual with one or more other individuals; (b) the relation of one group with one or more other groups; and (c) the relation of a leader with his group and with the individuals within it.

#### Importance of the Study

A study of the type here undertaken becomes significant when one realizes the current need for better supervision as emphasized in the first chapter. The importance of this study rests on two basic assumptions: (1) the improvement of teachers through an in-service education program will better the learning processes in the classroom; (2) the development of in-service programs, under the assistance and direction of trained and informed leaders working in a democratic manner, is a desirable method of encouraging and developing professional growth in the teaching profession.

Numerous statements may be formulated to give support to the need for a study based on the foregoing assumptions. A few general statements are considered to be sufficient at this point.

1. Improvement of instruction has become an increasingly pressing and difficult problem in our educational system.
2. The graduate of a teacher-training program is not a finished product. Teachers recognize the need for help through in-service education.
3. The continuous development of new techniques, concepts, processes, and products calls for continuous growth of teachers.
4. Beginning teachers need and desire assistance in their professional debut.
5. Experienced teachers need and desire to have stimulating opportunities for personal and professional improvement.
6. The in-service program is a way of co-ordinating and building "esprit de corps" in faculties with diversity of training and experience.
7. A knowledge of the current status of in-service education of teachers is important for planning and developing effective programs.

### Scope and Method of Procedure

This study bases its findings on responses by principals in Kansas high schools of second and third class cities, rural high schools, and county or community high schools. Principals of these schools were selected to participate in the study if they had two qualifications: (1) A minimum high-school faculty of four full-time teachers in addition to the principal; and (2) the principal must not be carrying a teaching load of more than three class periods per day.

Data for the study were obtained through a questionnaire in the form of a check sheet. Four hundred sixty principals were selected from the Kansas Educational Directory<sup>1</sup> as eligible to participate. A card was mailed to each asking for his help in the study. Two hundred seventy-one principals, or 59 percent, returned their cards indicating willingness to participate, and a questionnaire was mailed to them. A total of 240 completed questionnaires was received within an eight-week period. This was 90 percent of the 271 who returned their cards. Two hundred thirty-five questionnaires were considered usable. The completed and usable questionnaires obtained for the study were 51 percent of the total 460 selected as eligible to participate.

---

<sup>1</sup> \_\_\_\_\_, Public School Directory, 1952 to 1953, State Department of Education, Bulletin, Topeka, Kansas.

### Development of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was formulated with two guiding principles kept in mind. First, the method of indicating a response should be clear and simple so as not to discourage participation. To meet this principle, a check sheet was decided upon. Second, the number of items should be held to a minimum but be sufficient in number to include the most important data.

The check sheet was made to include three parts. In part one were eleven items intended to give personal and professional information about the principal and the school in which he worked. This information was considered necessary to establish the setting of the study.

In part two were fifty-eight items comprising a list of techniques and responsibilities often assumed by principals in an effort to improve the instructional ability of teachers. Each item was to be checked twice. One check was to give an opinion as to whether the technique was considered good, fair, or poor; the second check was to indicate frequency of use. This list of items was composed by calling upon personal experience, by surveying the literature in the field, and by studying lists other authors<sup>1</sup>

---

1 Fred Engelhardt, William H. Zeigel, Jr., and Roy O. Billet, "Administration and Supervision," National Survey of Secondary Education, Bulletin, No. 17, U.S. Office of Education, 1932, pp. 155-157.

had made. It was not considered necessary to judge the worth of a technique before using it on the check sheet as this was expected to be a part of the findings.

The most difficult to formulate was part three which contains fifteen items with three sub-choices for each item. This section is intended to be concerned with the opinions which principals have toward certain actions or behavior they might take in relation to the faculty and the instructional program of the school. The purpose of including this section was to give some attention in the study to the part which good human relationships play in helping to improve the instructional ability of the school faculty.

A survey of the literature was made pertaining to this area and twenty-five items were composed. Each item had three sub-choices arranged in random order. The items were planned so that responding principals could check the one sub-choice with which they most nearly agreed. The three sub-choices were written with the intention of reflecting the following categories of action or behavior.

---

Frank G. Dickey, "Developing Supervision in Kentucky," Kentucky Bulletin of Bureau of School Service, Volume 20, No. 3, University of Kentucky, March, 1948.

C. A. Weber, "Techniques of In-service Education Applied in North Central Secondary Schools," North Central Association Quarterly, Volume 17, 1942, pp. 195-198.

1. To show a pro-leaderliness, or a tendency toward desire to dominate the faculty.  
Pro-leaderliness is used to imply the position such as a lead sled dog who takes pride in being at the head of all team action.
2. To show a desire for group membership, a democratic and peer relationship in working with the faculty.
3. To indicate non-leaderliness, in some cases possibly either an aloof or laissez faire attitude of relationship.

It was necessary to establish whether the sub-choices differentiated in the expected direction according to the categories set up. A check was also desirable for strength of wording, communication of thought, and general fitness of the items. To make this check each of the twenty-five items was written so that, in lieu of the three sub-choices, three separate and complete statements were made. This made a total of seventy-five statements in all. These statements were placed in random order and submitted to fifteen judges to rank and criticize according to the three categories previously described.

By changing the form to seventy-five independent statements and having them judged by placing them in random order, it was considered more stringent than to use the form of the final check sheet where sub-choices of the items

illuminate each other through proximity and contrast.

The committee of judges was composed of one superintendent of schools, one grade school principal, two public school teachers, eight doctoral candidates in the School of Education, and three professors of Education not members of the advisory committee.

The field of twenty-five items was cut in number to fifteen for the final check sheet. Items were eliminated on the basis of criticism by the judges and on the failure or weakness of sub-choices to differentiate toward the expected category in the marking of the judges. In Appendix B by visual inspection it can be concluded that in the fifteen items retained for this study the choices, with few exceptions, fell into the expected category very strongly according to tally of the judges' marks.

Choices 2a, 5b, 6c, and 14c were the only ones showing lack of overwhelming majority in the marking of the judges. In the final check sheet, mailed to principals in the study, these choices were strengthened in their categories by minor word changes based on suggestive criticism made by the judges.

## CHAPTER III

### PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

#### Part I, The Setting

Two hundred forty schools cooperated to make this study possible. It was desired to make a descriptive comparison of the characteristics of this group with the total group of 460 schools invited to participate to establish representativeness of the obtained sample. In order to do this, data on 183 of the 220 schools who chose not to cooperate was acquired from the principal's annual report submitted to the State Department of Public Instruction. The discrepancy of thirty-seven schools occurred because the principals' reports were either ambiguous or deficient in information.

For purposes of further reference in discussion, the total four hundred sixty schools selected to participate will be referred to as the invited group and those who did participate will be known as the cooperating schools.

Statistics on size of enrollment, size of faculty, present principal tenure, number new teachers employed to the faculty, beginning teachers employed to the faculty, and number of classes the principals teach will be compared for both groups. These figures are based on reports for the 1952-1953 school year.

The high schools of Kansas are predominately a part of an eight-four public school organization. The six-six plan is much in minority along with the six-three-three plan which is the organization used by most of the larger public school systems.

In this study there were 198 schools classified in the eight-four organization, twenty-seven in the six-six plan, and nine in a six-three-three plan of organization. Only one school in the study was a part of a six-four-four organization. This school was located in a town supporting a junior college as a part of its system.

There is wide range in enrollment of the schools in the study. The smallest school enrollment was twenty pupils as compared with the largest school enrollment of 1,926 pupils. Both of these schools are rural high schools according to classification by the State Department of Public Instruction. These two schools were also the largest and smallest of the total invited group. The distribution of schools from smallest to largest is very positively skewed. For that reason the median enrollment was computed and taken to be a more representative average than the mean. The median enrollment of the cooperating schools in the study is 97.3 pupils. This enrollment is slightly higher than the median enrollment of 87.8 pupils for the invited schools.

TABLE 2

## DISTRIBUTION OF COOPERATING SCHOOLS BY PUPIL ENROLLMENT

Size Schools by Enrollment	Number Schools	Size Schools by Enrollment	Number Schools
1- 50	45	351-400	2
51-100	78	401-450	6
101-150	37	451-500	0
151-200	27	500-750	9
201-250	12	751-1000	3
251-300	6	1068	1
301-350	8	1926	1

Median = 97.3

N = 235

Since a minimum faculty size was placed upon the schools for eligibility to participate in the study, the smallest number of teachers in addition to the principal of the school was four. A large majority of schools in the cooperating group, and in the total invited group, had a faculty of from four to sixteen members. At the upper extreme of the cooperating group were two schools, one with a faculty of forty-three, another with seventy-six. The faculty of seventy-six was also the largest of the total invited group.

The size of faculty paralleled size of school; therefore the distribution of schools by faculty size was also positively skewed. The median size faculty for the

cooperating schools was eight teachers. This was one more faculty member than the 6.9 median faculty size for the total invited group.

TABLE 3

## DISTRIBUTION OF COOPERATING SCHOOLS BY NUMBER OF TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN ADDITION TO THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Number Teachers	Number Schools	Number Teachers	Number Schools	Number Teachers	Number Schools
4	21	16	6	28	3
5	30	17	1	29	1
6	30	18	1	30	0
7	28	19	0	31	1
8	18	20	5	32	2
9	13	21	0	33	1
10	11	22	1	34	0
11	14	23	1	35	2
12	11	24	0	36	2
13	7	25	1	--	-
14	10	26	1	43	1
15	9	27	2	76	1

Median faculty = 8

N = 235

Only sixteen schools in the cooperating group indicated that they did not have a new member on the faculty for the 1952-53 school year. This meant that approximately ninety-three percent of the schools were inducting new

members to the faculty. Fourteen new faculty members were added to two cooperating schools comprising approximately thirty-nine percent of one faculty and eighteen percent for the other school faculty. Fourteen was also high for the total invited group. A median number of 2.2 teachers per school were inducted to the faculties of both co-operating and total invited group. Since the median size faculty for the cooperating schools is eight teachers, one may make the assumption that approximately one out of every four faculty members will be new to the staffs of the schools in the study.

TABLE 4

DISTRIBUTION OF COOPERATING SCHOOLS BY NUMBER OF NEW  
TEACHERS EMPLOYED TO THE FACULTY FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR  
1952-53

New Teachers Employed	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 - 14	
Number Schools Employing	16	56	64	50	20	17	5	3	0	1	1	2
Median new teachers 2.2												N = 235

Seven percent of the schools in the study did not have a new teacher, and 106 or forty-five percent indicated that they did not employ an inexperienced teacher. On the other side of the ledger this means that fifty-five percent of the schools were faced with the responsibility of helping

at least one beginning teacher to make a start in the teaching profession.

The picture was approximately the same for the total invited group in that fifty-four percent of the schools employed a beginning teacher. This was just one percent less than the cooperating group. The median number beginning teachers added to the staffs of the co-operating group was .67 teachers per school as compared with .61 teachers per school for the total invited group. Table 5 indicates the distribution of schools in the co-operating group by the number beginning teachers added to the faculty. It is interesting to note that at the upper extreme two schools added nine beginning teachers to their faculties. Such numbers would emphasize a probable need for a well planned inductive program for these new teachers.

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF COOPERATING SCHOOLS BY NUMBER BEGINNING TEACHERS EMPLOYED TO THE FACULTY FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR  
1952-53

Number Beginning Teachers	0	1	2	3	4	6	-	9
Schools Employing that Number	106	76	37	8	5	1		2
Median beginning teachers	.67						N = 235	

The median number years that principals in the total invited group had served in their present positions was 3.4. This median number coincided with the median for the cooperating principals. Forty-eight of the cooperating principals were serving the first year in their present position. This meant that twenty percent of the schools in the study had new principals for the school year 1952-53. The longest time any principal had served in his present position was thirty-five years. This was also the greatest number years of administrative experience reported.

Since the median number years of administrative experience is 11.8 and the median number years tenure is 3.4, one might make a bold inference that the average principal in the study is serving his third school as an administrator. Table 6 presents a distribution of co-operating principals by number of years served in present position. One may note that the smallest numbers of years have high frequencies. This may indicate a need for better principal tenure.

TABLE 6

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS COOPERATING IN THE STUDY  
BY NUMBER YEARS SERVED IN PRESENT POSITION

Years Served	Number Principals	Years Served	Number Principals	Years Served	Number Principals
1	48	12	3	23	1
2	38	13	2	24	0
3	37	14	1	25	0
4	21	15	1	26	2
5	15	16	4	27	0
6	17	17	0	28	1
7	12	18	1	29	0
8	11	19	0	30	1
9	2	20	2	31	0
10	4	21	1	32	1
11	4	22	4	*35	1

\*Skips in years are zero. Median years 3.4 N = 235

One of the most frequent complaints of principals in high schools is that they have to spend too much of their time doing routine duties and teaching classes. The latter seems verified among the principals of this study since eighty percent of them teach one to three classes per day. Thirty-seven and one-half percent of the cooperating principals teach three classes per day. The median number of classes taught per day by both the total invited group

and the cooperating principals is two classes. It can be readily seen from Table 7 that the largest number of principals teach three classes and that only one-fifth of the principals teach no classes at all.

TABLE 7

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS COOPERATING IN THE STUDY  
BY NUMBER OF CLASSES TAUGHT

Number Classes Taught	0	1	2	3
Number Principals Teaching	46	41	60	88
Percentage of Principals	19.6	17.5	25.3	37.5
Median classes taught	2			N = 235

The comparisons of the groups, the invited and cooperating, indicate that the sample on which the data of the study are based, is representative of the total invited group on the basis of the six criteria chosen for contrast. Although there were slight differences between the groups, none of the differences on the six comparisons were found to be statistically significant. (Refer Table 8)

TABLE 8

## STATISTICAL COMPARISON OF THE COOPERATING GROUP OF SCHOOLS IN THE STUDY WITH THE ELIGIBLE INVITED SCHOOLS

	<u>Median</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Range</u>
<u>Pupil Enrollment</u>				
Cooperating group	97.3	159.7	199	1908
Invited group	87.8	137.9	178	1908
<u>Faculty Size</u>				
Cooperating group	8.0	10.71	8.50	73
Invited group	6.9	9.63	7.94	73
<u>New Teachers</u>				
Cooperating group	2.2	2.47	1.67	0-14
Invited group	2.2	2.39	1.64	0-14
<u>Beginning Teachers</u>				
Cooperating group	.67	.994	1.255	0 - 9
Invited group	.61	.914	1.095	0 - 9
<u>Classes Taught by Principals</u>				
Cooperating group	2.0	1.79	.96	0 - 3
Invited group	2.0	1.84	.99	0 - 3
<u>Present Principal Tenure</u>				
Cooperating group	3.4	5.56	6.1	35
Invited group	3.4	5.59	6.1	35

The State of Kansas requires that a school person before being eligible for an administrator's certificate must have had two years successful teaching experience and a master's degree from a recognized graduate institution. Eight semester hours of the graduate work must be in organization, administration, and supervision of schools and school finance.

All principals of schools in this study have master's degrees except for four principals. These men with long years of experience obtained life administrative certificates at a time when the state issued certificates on the bachelor of arts degree. One principal of the study indicated that he has a doctor of education degree.

Undergraduate preparation of the principals indicated a wide variation in choice of subject fields. The area of social science as a major included the largest number of principals with sixty-nine. Only ten principals declared a major in education. Moving up to the graduate level there is a marked shift to professional preparation in education. One hundred eighty-nine principals indicated having taken education as a major in graduate preparation; the other forty-two principals signified major graduate preparation in other fields. Table 9 shows the spread of subject preparation of the principals. On the graduate side those under school administration and

TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS COOPERATING IN THE STUDY  
BY UNDERGRADUATE MAJOR AND BY GRADUATE MAJOR

Number Principals	Undergraduate Major	Number Principals	Graduate Major
2	Agriculture	77	Administration (school)
1	Bible, Philosophy	-	
17	Biological Science	1	Biological Science
25	Business, Economics Commerce	6	Business Admin., Economics
10	Education	112	Education
1	Foreign Language	-	
14	General Science	-	
1	Geology	-	
18	Industrial Arts, Mechanics	2	Industrial Arts
35	Mathematics	5	Mathematics
3	Music	-	
12	Physical Science	5	Physical Science
5	Physical Education	3	Physical Education
3	Political Science	2	Political Science
69	Social Science (History)	12	Social Science (History)
3	Sociology	5	Sociology
1	Speech	-	

N = 234

N = 231

those under education could have been combined; however, they were kept separate as the principals had indicated. Those marking "school administration" showed emphasis in training toward that area whereas the marking "education" could mean that a major exists in other areas such as guidance, evaluation, or curriculum. One hundred forty-five of the principals indicated they had taken one or more courses or workshops within the past four years in either supervision of instruction, measurement and evaluation, psychology of learning, or curriculum. Only sixty-five principals reported that they had not had at least one of these four courses within the past four years. This does not mean that they have not had other courses within that time. It is safe to say that a large proportion have had recent schooling.

A wide range in administrative experience existed among the principals in the study. Eighteen principals were having their first year of school administrative experience. This was 7.6 percent of the principals. While one of every fourteen principals was a new administrator, there was a fairly even distribution of principals by years of experience. There were six seasoned veterans with over thirty years of experience, the highest having thirty-five years. The median term of experience for the group was 11.8 years.

TABLE 10

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS COOPERATING IN THE STUDY  
BY NUMBER YEARS ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE

Years Experience	Number Principals	Years Experience	Number Principals
1	18	19-20	11
2	18	21-22	7
3- 4	29	23-24	14
5- 6	26	25-26	6
7- 8	7	27-28	7
9-10	12	29-30	9
11-12	23	31-32	4
13-14	12	33-34	2
15-16	17	35	1
17-18	11		N = 234

Median years experience 11.8

The principals in the study were asked to indicate the percentage of time they spend performing duties in supervision of instruction and working with teachers in in-service training. Four principals marked that they gave no time at all to such duties and two principals signified that they gave from seventy to seventy-five percent of their time to supervision of instruction. Ten percent was the modal amount of time principals said they gave to supervisory duties. The median amount of time given was 10.2 percent.

TABLE 11

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS IN THE STUDY BY PERCENTAGE  
 OF TIME INDICATED SPENT PERFORMING DUTIES IN  
 SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION AND WORKING WITH TEACHERS  
 IN IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Percentage of Time Spent	0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30
Number Principals	4	42	75	20	35	20	7
Percentage of Principals	1.7	18	32	8.6	15	8.6	3
Percentage of Time Spent	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	70	75
Number Principals	4	9	0	15	0	1	1
Percentage of Principals	1.7	3.9	0	6.4	0	.4	.4

Median time spent 10.2 percent

N = 233

The preceding data can be brought into an interesting comparison with the indicated percentage of time principals thought they should spend in performing duties in supervision of instruction and working with teachers in in-service education. By inspection of the returned check sheets it appeared that most principals thought they should spend about three times as much time as each is now spending. This observation was partially substantiated by the fact that 35.9 percent was the median time indicated by the principals that they should spend in such duties. This

was three and one-half times as much as the 10.2 percent median time spent.

No principal thought that he should spend less than five percent of his time in supervision. Six principals would go so far as to spend a minimum of ninety percent of their time if it were possible. The largest number of principals marked 46-50 percent as the portion of time the administrator should allot to supervision.

Only thirteen principals signified they felt they were already giving sufficient time to supervision of instruction and in-service training of teachers. Three of these were giving ten percent of their time and at the other extreme one stated that he was giving seventy-five percent of his time.

To discover if the amount of time given to supervision, as indicated by the principals, varied as the number of classes taught, a homogenous group based on size of faculty was tabulated. The group was composed of the schools in which the principals were working with six to ten teachers inclusive. This scope included all schools of the study within two teachers above and below the median size staff of eight teachers.

TABLE 12

DISTRIBUTION OF COOPERATING PRINCIPALS IN THE STUDY BY PERCENTAGE OF TIME INDICATED THEY SHOULD SPEND IN PERFORMING DUTIES IN SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION AND WORKING WITH TEACHERS IN IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Percentage of Time Should Spend	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30
Number Principals	0	15	8	23	37	17
Percentage of Principals	0	6.6	3.5	10.1	16.2	7.5
Percentage of Time Should Spend	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-60
Number Principals	13	14	1	65	1	9
Percentage of Principals	5.7	6.1	.4	28.5	.4	3.9
Percentage of Time Should Spend	61-65	66-70	71-75	76-80	81-85	90+
Number Principals	1	3	9	5	1	6
Percentage of Principals	.4	1.2	3.9	2.2	.4	2.6

Median time should spend 35.9 percent

N = 228

It was to be expected that the amount spent by the principals in supervision would decrease as the number of classes taught increased. Such was found to be true except for those principals who taught no classes indicated markedly the least amount of time spent in supervision. No explanation can be offered as to why these principals who

seemingly could spend the most time in improvement of instruction, spend the least. Those principals who taught no classes also indicated the smallest amount of time principals should spend on supervision.

TABLE 13

DISTRIBUTION OF A HOMOGENEOUS GROUP OF COOPERATING PRINCIPALS BASED ON SIZE OF FACULTY SHOWING NUMBER CLASSES TAUGHT, MEDIAN TIME SPENT AND MEDIAN TIME WHICH WAS THOUGHT SHOULD BE SPENT IN SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION AND WORKING WITH TEACHERS IN IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Number Classes Taught	0	1	2	3
Principals Teaching That Number	7	16	34	34
Median Percent Time Spent in Supervision	8.8	17.2	13	9.7
Median Percent Time Thought Should Spend	24.3	46.8	36.8	33

Summary

If the mythical average could exist in one person, the average principal of high school in this study could be described approximately by the following remarks concluded from the check sheet data.

He has a master's degree and he has attended summer school within the past four years. He works in a high school which is a part of an eight-four organization. He has twelve years of experience as a school administrator. His present job has had his services for either three or four years and it is likely that this is his third school served as an administrator.

The school in which he works has ninety-seven pupils and he has eight teachers on the faculty. It is probable that two of the eight teachers are new to the system. Furthermore, it is likely that one of the teachers will be inexperienced because fifty-five per cent of the schools will have at least one beginning teacher.

He will teach two classes during the school day. He feels that he should give at least a third of his time to the improvement of instruction but he will spend only ten percent of his time in this way.

## Part II. Evaluation and Frequency of Use of Techniques

In Part II of the check sheet were listed techniques and responsibilities which often are assumed by principals in an effort to improve the instructional ability of teachers. Principals were requested to evaluate each technique as a good, fair, or poor one in working with teachers. For purposes of gaining a graphic picture of the results, numerical values were assigned to each evaluation step and the mean was computed for each technique. A technique was given two points for each check of good, one point for each check of fair, and no points for a check of poor.

Similar treatment was given to each technique regarding frequency of use. The principals were asked to indicate whether they used each technique frequently, occasionally, or none. A check of frequently received two points; occasionally, one point; and none, no points. The frequency mean was computed for each technique.

A technique receiving a mean evaluation score between .5 and 1.5 was considered to be fair. A mean of 1.5 or higher was considered good. A mean below .5 was considered poor. Of the fifty-eight techniques for the principals to evaluate, thirty-eight of them were considered good, nineteen fair, and only one was considered poor.

For determining frequency of use, a technique receiving a mean frequency value of 1.5 or better was considered to be used frequently, between 1.5 and .5 was considered as used occasionally and those receiving less than .5 were used rarely or not at all. Of the fifty-eight techniques which the principals were asked to check for frequency of use seven were used frequently, forty occasionally, and eleven rarely or not at all. Interpretation of frequency of use must be made very cautiously because it is a relative matter. A faculty meeting once a month may not be considered frequent, whereas arranging for a teacher leave of absence once every two years might be considered frequent.

It is readily observed from the graphs that evaluation means are markedly higher than the frequency of use means. There were only three techniques in which a mean was obtained from the principals markings of frequency of use which exceeded the evaluation mean. Acting as chairman of faculty meetings was evaluated as a fair technique but indicated as used frequently. An inference might be made that principals feel that they act as chairmen of faculty meetings more often than they should.

Principals thought it a good technique to have teachers make a list of their problems for use by the staff in planning faculty meetings, yet they indicated use of this technique only occasionally. If the principal acts

as chairman and calls faculty meetings only when he feels the administrative need, this may be one reason why many teachers feel their meetings are dull and unimportant. Possibly the meetings should be more teacher centered based on teacher talent, interests, and recognized needs.

The only technique evaluated as poor was giving special recognition, such as, news items, salary increases, or bonuses, for publication of articles of research and study of problems within the school. No reason is known for evaluating this technique as poor but the principals did indicate using the technique occasionally. In a related item principals rated high the technique of encouraging teacher growth by devising ways of giving recognition to those with outstanding achievement. They also considered working with teachers in doing experimental projects as a good technique.

Providing clerical help to teachers to aid in preparation of instructional materials and equipment was the third technique given a higher mean for frequency of use than for evaluation. Statistically this implies that clerical help given is adequate in amount. One is more likely to postulate that the opposite is more true in practice.

A problem often mentioned by the principals was induction of new teachers. They indicated they frequently held pre-school institutes or conferences with new teachers

for induction and adjustment to the school program. The principals seem to overlook the role which returning staff members play or can play. They reported that seldom have staff members been used to prepare handbooks or plan for the induction of new teachers.

Visiting teachers in the classroom at the teacher's request was given a high evaluation as a technique. Visiting in the classroom without previous appointment or by administrative appointment was rated as fair with administrative appointment ranking the higher of the two. In practice the principals indicated that they visited classrooms as often without appointment as at the teacher's request and more than by previous administrative appointment. An inference might be drawn that the surprise visit is used just as often as the arranged visit.

The principals thought it good technique to prepare bulletins of supervisory nature for teacher use and to edit policy handbooks to aid teacher adjustment to the school. They reported these techniques to be used occasionally. Working with teachers in preparation of a guidance bulletin for teacher-pupil-parent use was considered a good technique but seldom used. Indications are that the principals administer a great deal through directives, bulletins, and handbooks and do not include the teachers enough in the actual process of policy making.

Having teachers cooperatively formulate a written philosophy of education was evaluated as only a fair technique and was not used often. There is reason to believe that there is much difference in the philosophy which is put in written form, that which is believed, and that which is practiced. It may be that principals feel that a staff philosophy develops best through solving problems together, the problems being the basis for clarifying group thinking. Evidence that teachers do feel a need for fuller understanding of the philosophy and aims of present day education was found in Dent's<sup>1</sup> study. From teachers' reports this need ranked fourth.

The principals thought that it was only a fair technique to help teachers establish and use a professional library, yet they thought it a good technique to help teachers utilize the school library in connection with classwork. It would seem that the principals want to improve classroom instruction but do little to afford opportunity for teachers to improve themselves through an adequate professional library. One of the greatest desires of principals in this study is for themselves and their teachers to know the latest and best instructional techniques and methods. Cooperative establishment of an up-to-date staff library would seem to be one step in the

---

<sup>1</sup> Dent, Op. cit.

right direction. Bail<sup>1</sup> found that teachers expressed a desire for recommended professional books and articles.

In Antell's<sup>2</sup> study teachers rated highest the supervisory practice of making available a professional library in the school.

Helping teachers survey and study problems faced by adolescents, and making case studies of children were evaluated as good techniques. Holding conferences with and advising individual teachers in classroom discipline and mechanics was given a higher evaluation by principals than the first techniques mentioned. Principals indicated that they frequently hold conferences with teachers to advise them on classroom discipline and mechanics but only occasionally help teachers to make studies of children.

An inference might be made that a greater portion of the conferences consist of dishing out advice to teachers on how to regain control of a situation, or giving caution to exercise greater control. More emphasis should be placed on discovering the causative factors of poor discipline by gaining a greater understanding of pupil behavior.

The tables on the following pages are presented to show the mean scale rating computed for each technique

---

1 Bail, Op. Cit.

2 Antell, Op. Cit.

judged by the principals in the study. The broken line connects the evaluation means and the solid line connects the means for frequency of use.

It was expected that the mean evaluation of items would in most cases be higher than the mean frequency of use. A comment received from a principal on his check sheet is explanatory enough. "There is a big gap between what we know to do and what we get done."

TABLE 14

FREQUENCY OF USE AND EVALUATION OF  
TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

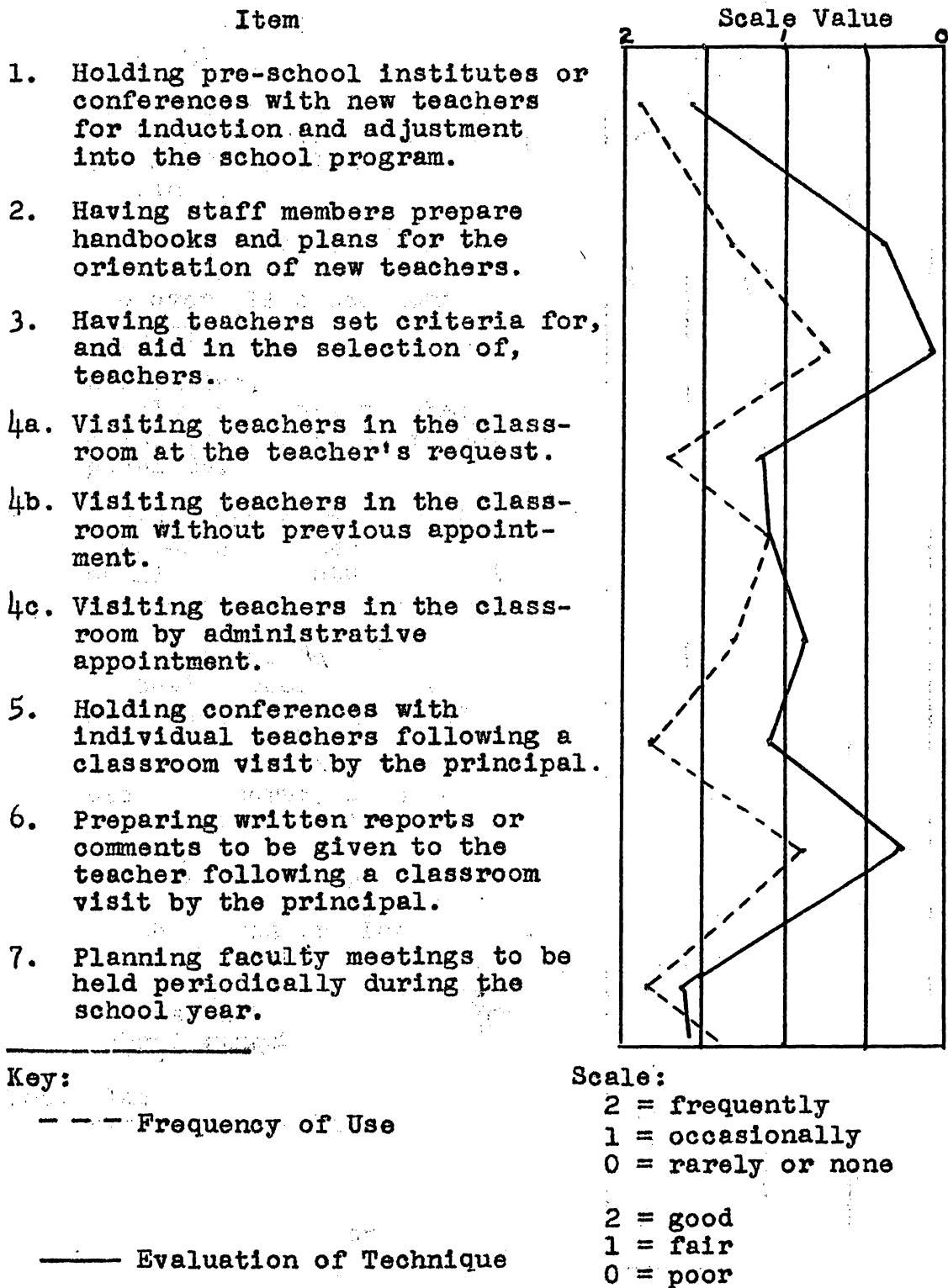


TABLE 14 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
8. Acting as chairman of faculty meetings.	
9. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use by the staff in planning faculty meetings.	
10. Studying, with teachers, methods for improvement of the over-all educational program.	
11. Appointing, or having the faculty appoint, teacher committees to study school problems.	
12. Having pupils and parents work with teachers in committees to study school problems.	
13. Re-arranging school schedule so that school time may be had for teacher meetings.	
14. Planning with teachers who are to observe, or to do, a demonstration lesson.	
15. Holding follow-up conferences with the observing teachers of the demonstration lesson.	
16b. Planning with teachers for visits to teachers in other school systems.	
16c. Planning with teachers for visits in the homes of the community.	
17. Holding follow-up conferences after above visits.	

TABLE 14 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
18. Arranging for teachers to visit other schools as a representative of a faculty committee.	
19. Giving special recognition, such as, news items, salary increases, or bonuses, for publication of articles of research and study of problems within the school.	
20. Working with teachers in doing experimental projects.	
21. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out programs of cooperative research in summer school.	
22. Arranging for conferences between psychologists or guidance specialist and individual teachers to discuss problem cases.	
23. Encouraging teacher growth by devising ways of giving recognition to those with outstanding achievement.	
24. Preparing bulletins, of supervisory nature, for teacher use.	
25. Editing policy handbooks to aid teacher adjustment to the school.	
26. Having teachers cooperatively work out a written philosophy of education.	
27. Working with teachers in preparation of a guidance bulletin for use of pupils, teachers, and parents.	

TABLE 14 (Continued)

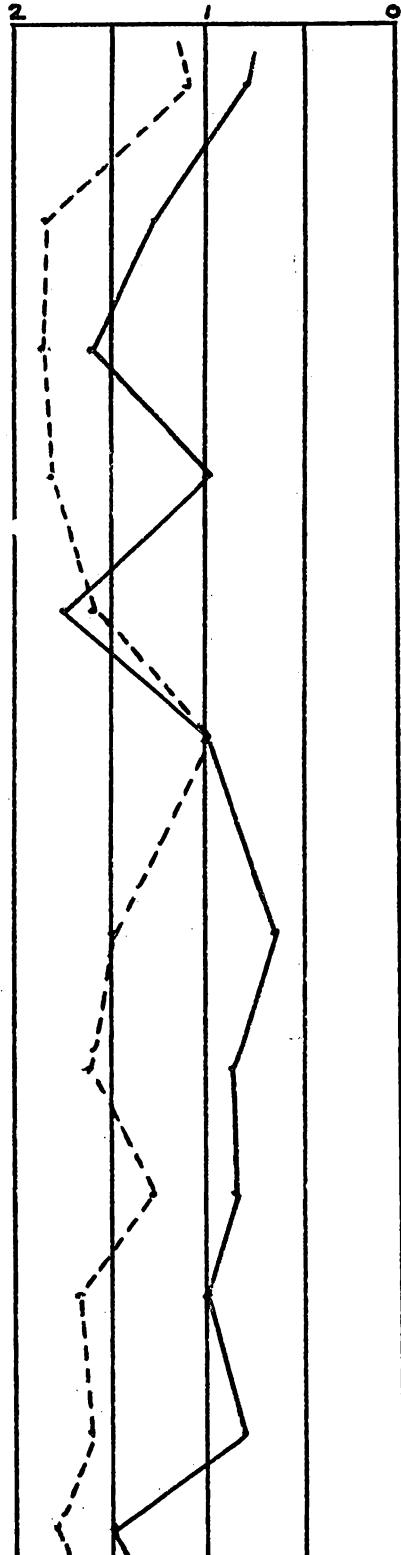
Item	Scale Value
28. Helping teachers establish and use a professional staff library.	
29. Helping teachers utilize the school library in connection with class work.	
30. Recommending and securing audio-visual aids for classroom use.	
31. Helping teachers select and use instructional materials and equipment.	
32. Providing clerical help to teachers to aid in preparation of instructional materials.	
33. Helping teachers work with and in community agencies, such as, County Agent, City Departments, Civic and Service Clubs, and 4-H.	
34. Helping teachers make surveys of the community served by the school.	
35. Following up and surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development.	
36. Helping teachers develop lesson plans or units of work.	
37. Helping teachers survey and study problems faced by adolescents.	
38. Helping teachers make case studies of children.	
39. Holding conferences with and advising individual teachers in classroom discipline and mechanics.	

TABLE 14 (Continued)

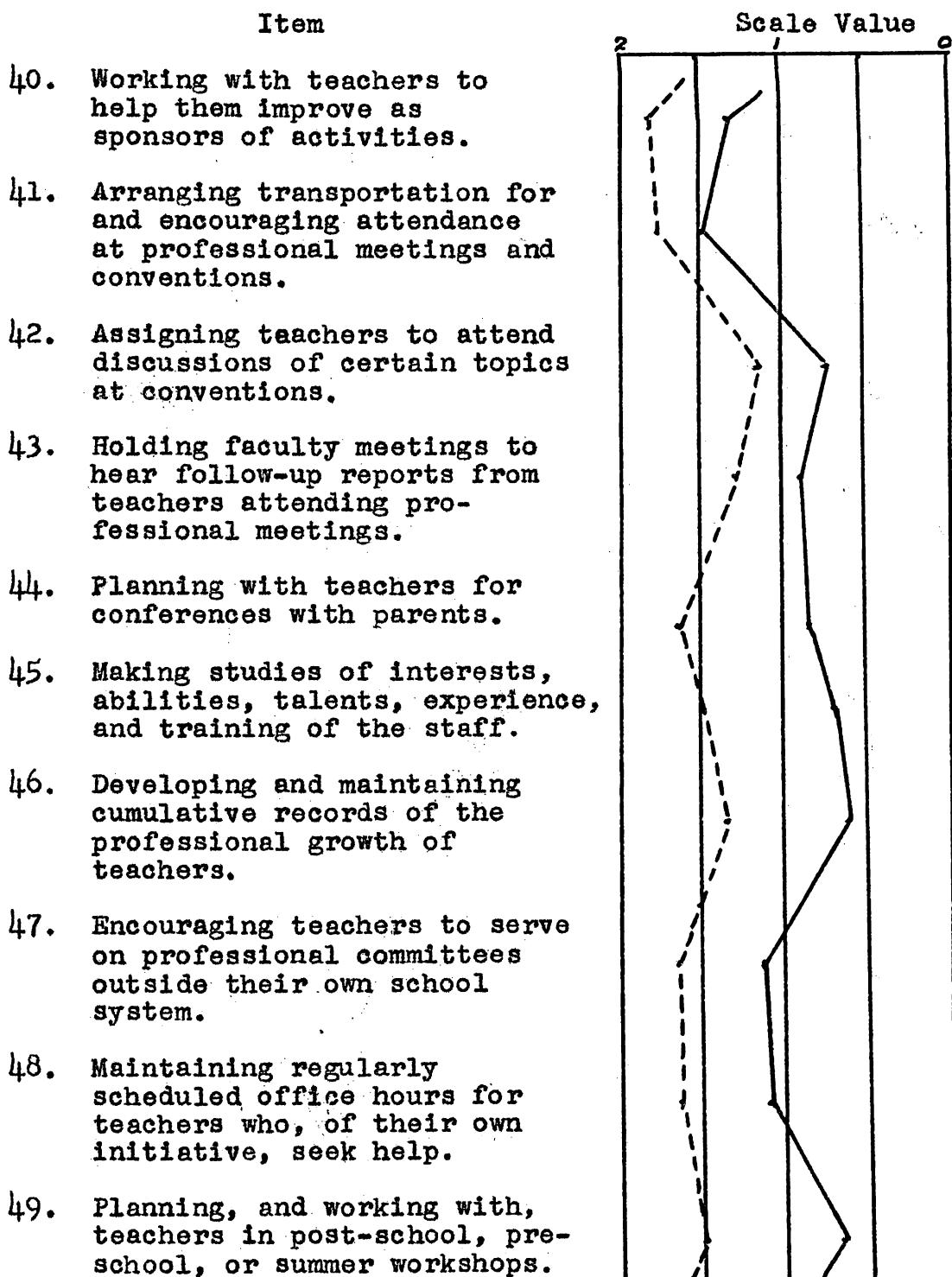
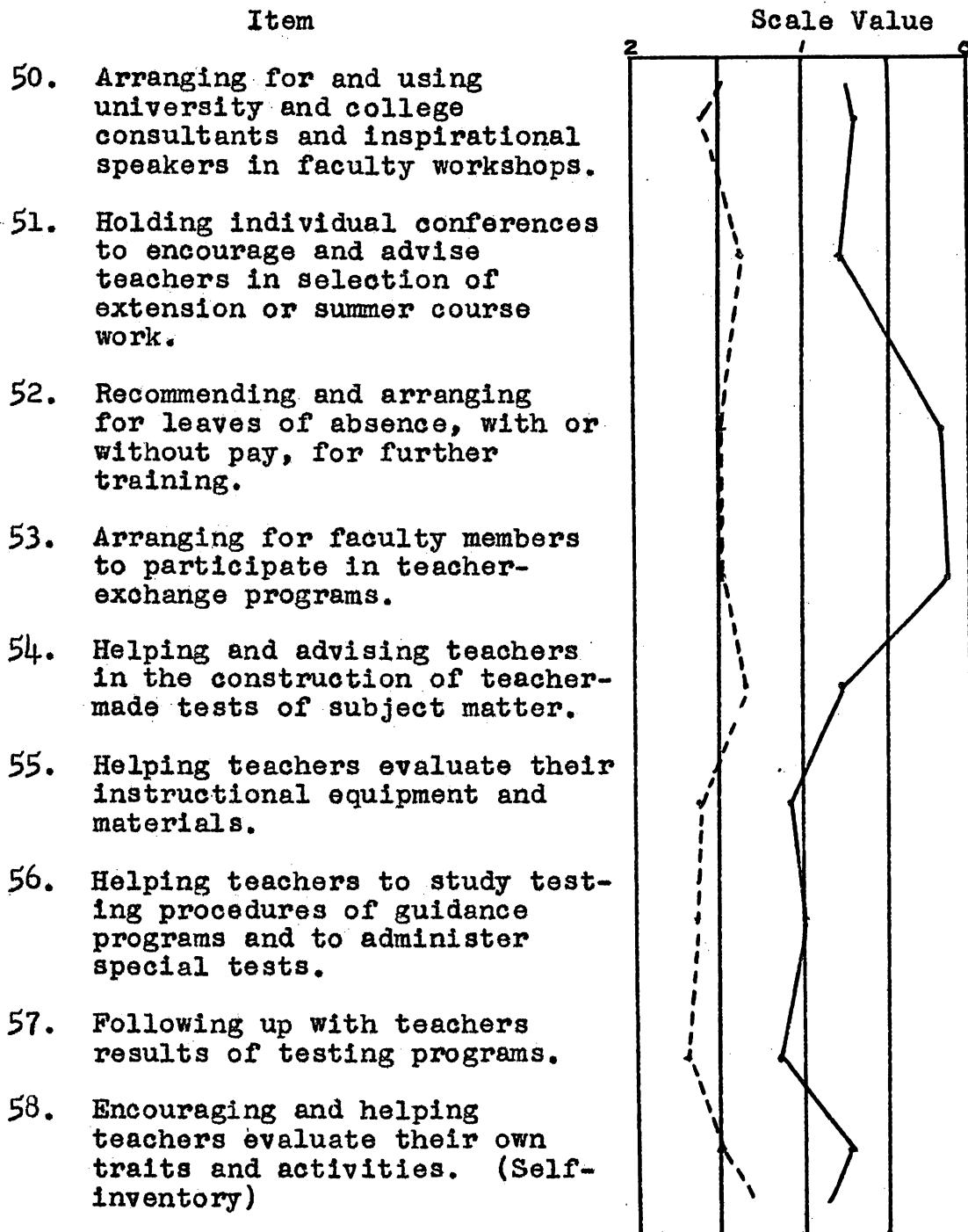


TABLE 14 (Continued)



The fifty-eight techniques which the principals judged were divided into six lists. Three were made by placing the techniques in a good, fair, or poor classification according to evaluation means. Three others were made in a similar way for frequency of use, which show the techniques used frequently, occasionally, rarely or none.

The lists were analyzed to discover any characteristic or trend for each list. None appeared to exist. There seemed to be no distinction in status of use or value between individual and group techniques, indirect (bulletins) and direct (conferences) techniques.

The techniques the principals marked as having been used frequently appear to be principal centered whereas those marked as used rarely seem to be more teacher centered. However, it should be pointed out that the amount a technique is used may be determined by its nature in the situation. Whether or not it be principal or teacher centered may be an independent factor.

Techniques principals marked as using frequently:

1. Holding pre-school institutes or conferences with new teachers for induction and adjustment into the school program.
7. Planning faculty meetings to be held periodically during school year.
8. Acting as chairman of faculty meetings.

30. Recommending and securing audio-visual aids for classroom use.
32. Providing clerical help to teachers to aid in preparation of instructional materials.
39. Holding conferences with and advising individual teachers in classroom discipline and mechanics.
41. Arranging transportation for and encouraging attendance at professional meetings and conventions.

Techniques principals marked as using occasionally:

- 4a. Visiting teachers in the classroom at the teacher's request.
- 4b. Visiting teachers in the classroom without previous appointment.
- 4c. Visiting teachers in the classroom by administrative appointment.
9. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use by the staff in planning faculty meetings.
10. Studying, with teachers, methods for improvement of the overall educational program.
11. Appointing, or having the faculty appoint, teacher committees to study school problems.
13. Re-arranging school schedule so that school time may be had for teacher meetings.
- 16b. Planning with teachers for visits to teachers in other school systems.
- 16c. Planning with teachers for visits in the homes of the community.
17. Holding follow-up conferences after above visits.
19. Giving special recognition, such as, news items, salary increases, or bonuses, for publication of articles of research and study of problems within the school.
20. Working with teachers in doing experimental projects.
23. Encouraging teacher growth by devising ways of giving recognition to those with outstanding achievement.
24. Preparing bulletins, of supervisory nature, for teacher use.

25. Editing policy handbooks to aid teacher adjustment to the school.
26. Having teachers cooperatively work out a written philosophy of education.
27. Working with teachers in preparation of a guidance bulletin for use of pupils, teachers, and parents.
28. Helping teachers establish and use a professional staff library.
29. Helping teachers utilize the school library in connection with class work.
31. Helping teachers select and use instructional materials and equipment.
33. Helping teachers work with and in community agencies, such as, County Agent, City Department, Civic and Service Clubs, and 4-H.
34. Helping teachers make surveys of the community served by the school.
35. Following up and surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development.
36. Helping teachers develop lesson plans or units of work.
37. Helping teachers survey and study problems faced by adolescents.
38. Helping teachers make case studies of children.
40. Working with teachers to help them improve as sponsors of activities.
42. Assigning teachers to attend discussions of certain topics at conventions.
43. Holding faculty meetings to hear follow-up reports from teachers attending professional meetings.
44. Planning with teachers for conferences with parents.
45. Making studies of interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff.
46. Developing and maintaining cumulative records of the professional growth of teachers.
47. Encouraging teachers to serve on professional committees outside their own school system.
48. Maintaining regularly scheduled office hours for teachers who, of their own initiative, seek help.
49. Planning, and working with, teachers in post-school, pre-school, or summer workshops.
50. Arranging for and using university and college consultants and inspirational speakers in faculty workshops.

51. Holding individual conferences to encourage and advise teachers in selection of extension or summer course work.
54. Helping and advising teachers in the construction of teacher-made tests of subject matter.
55. Helping teachers evaluate their instructional equipment and materials.
56. Helping teachers to study testing procedures of guidance programs and to administer special tests.
57. Following up with teachers results of testing programs.
58. Encouraging and helping teachers evaluate their own traits and activities. (Self-inventory)

Techniques principals marked as using rarely or not at all.

2. Having staff members prepare handbooks, and plans for the orientation of new teachers.
3. Having teachers set criteria for, and aid in the selection of, teachers.
6. Preparing written reports or comments to be given to the teacher following a classroom visit by the principal.
12. Having pupils and parents work with teachers in committees to study school problems.
14. Planning with teachers who are to observe, or to do, a demonstration lesson.
15. Holding follow-up conferences with the observing teachers of the demonstration lesson.
18. Arranging for teachers to visit other schools as a representative of a faculty committee.
21. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out programs of cooperative research in summer school.
22. Arranging for conferences between psychologist or guidance specialist and individual teachers to discuss problem cases.
52. Recommending and arranging for leaves of absence, with or without pay, for further training.
53. Arranging for faculty members to participate in teacher-exchange programs.

Techniques which principals evaluated as good:

1. Holding pre-school institutes or conferences with new teachers for induction and adjustment into the school program.
4. Visiting teachers in the classroom at the teacher's request.
5. Holding conferences with individual teachers following a classroom visit by the principal.
7. Planning faculty meetings to be held periodically during the school year.
9. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use by the staff in planning faculty meetings.
10. Studying, with teachers, methods for improvement of the overall educational program.
11. Appointing, or having the faculty appoint, teacher committees to study school problems.
15. Holding follow-up conferences with the observing teachers of the demonstration lesson.
- 16b. Planning with teachers for visits to teachers in other school systems.
- 16c. Planning with teachers for visits in the homes of the community.
17. Holding follow-up conferences after above visits.
18. Arranging for teachers to visit other schools as a representative of a faculty committee.
20. Working with teachers in doing experimental projects.
22. Arranging for conferences between psychologist or guidance specialist and individual teachers to discuss problem cases.
23. Encouraging teacher growth by devising ways of giving recognition to those with outstanding achievement.
24. Preparing bulletins, of supervisory nature, for teacher use.
25. Editing policy handbooks to aid teacher adjustment to the school.
27. Working with teachers in preparation of a guidance bulletin for use of pupils, teachers, and parents.
29. Helping teachers utilize the school library in connection with class work.
30. Recommending and securing audio-visual aids for classroom use.
31. Helping teachers select and use instructional materials and equipment.

32. Providing clerical help to teachers to aid in preparation of instructional materials.
34. Helping teachers make surveys of the community served by the school.
35. Following up and surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development.
37. Helping teachers survey and study problems faced by adolescents.
38. Helping teachers make case studies of children.
39. Holding conferences with and advising individual teachers in classroom discipline and mechanics.
40. Working with teachers to help them improve as sponsors of activities.
41. Arranging transportation for and encouraging attendance at professional meetings and conventions.
44. Planning with teachers for conferences with parents.
45. Making studies of interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff.
47. Encouraging teachers to serve on professional committees outside their own school system.
48. Maintaining regularly scheduled office hours for teachers who, of their own initiative, seek help.
49. Planning, and working with, teachers in post-school, pre-school, or summer workshops.
50. Arranging for and using university and college consultants and inspirational speakers in faculty workshops.
52. Recommending and arranging for leaves of absence, with or without pay, for further training.
53. Arranging for faculty members to participate in teacher-exchange programs.
55. Helping teachers evaluate their instructional equipment and materials.
56. Helping teachers to study testing procedures of guidance programs and to administer special tests.
57. Following up with teachers results of testing programs.
58. Encouraging and helping teachers evaluate their own traits and activities. (Self-inventory)

Techniques which principals evaluated as fair:

2. Having staff members prepare handbooks and plans for the orientation of new teachers.
3. Having teachers set criteria for, and aid in the selection of, teachers.
- 4b. Visiting teachers in the classroom without previous appointment.
- 4c. Visiting teachers in the classroom by administrative appointment.
6. Preparing written reports or comments to be given to the teacher following a classroom visit by the principal.
8. Acting as chairman of faculty meetings.
12. Having pupils and parents work with teachers in committees to study school problems.
13. Re-arranging school schedule so that school time may be had for teacher meetings.
14. Planning with teachers who are to observe, or to do, a demonstration lesson.
21. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out programs of cooperative research in summer school.
26. Having teachers cooperatively work out a written philosophy of education.
28. Helping teachers establish and use a professional staff library.
33. Helping teachers work with and in community agencies, such as, County Agent, City Department, Civic and Service Clubs, and 4-H.
36. Helping teachers develop lesson plans or units of work.
42. Assigning teachers to attend discussions of certain topics at conventions.
43. Holding faculty meetings to hear follow-up reports from teachers attending professional meetings.
46. Developing and maintaining cumulative records of the professional growth of teachers.
51. Holding individual conferences to encourage and advise teachers in selection of extension or summer course work.
54. Helping and advising teachers in the construction of teacher-made tests of subject matter.

Techniques which principals evaluated as poor:

19. Giving special recognition, such as, news items, salary increases, or bonuses, for publication of articles of research and study of problems within the school.

### Part III. Faculty-Principal Relationships

The principals were asked to reply to this question on the checksheet, "What way would you like to improve yourself most in supervising and working with teachers?" Many of the replies to this question were expressions of complaints of which the most common was lack of time. There were 133 usable statements in reply to the question.

The statements were analyzed and they seemed to fall into thirteen arbitrary divisions of problems. Table 15 displays the treatment given to the group of statements. The area of human relations presented the most problems for principals. Approximately forty-six percent of the statements would fall into the human relations area if divisions number two, three, four, and seven were considered together since they involve problems of working with individuals and groups.

In the presentation of related literature in Chapter I five studies<sup>1</sup> were reviewed in which teachers reported their most frequent problems, their needs, and supervisory help desired. It is significant to note that the areas which teachers recognized as needing help with problems were the same areas in which principals of this study wanted most to improve themselves in order to help teachers.

---

<sup>1</sup> Burk, Op. Cit. (see p. 38); Dent, Op. Cit. (see p. 39); Bail, Op. Cit. (see p. 40); Antell, Op. Cit. (see p. 42); Barr and Rudisell, Op. Cit. (see p. 46).

TABLE 15

## AREAS IN WHICH PRINCIPALS WOULD LIKE TO IMPROVE THEMSELVES IN WORKING WITH TEACHERS IN SERVICE

Area	Frequency	Percent
1. How to initiate and administer teacher in-service education programs.	18	13.5
2. Improving staff relationships and morale.	18	13.5
3. Helping teachers understand children	17	12.8
4. Ability to develop better professional attitudes and ethics among the faculty.	17	12.8
5. To develop an understanding for myself and my faculty of the latest effective techniques and methods of presenting subject matter.	14	10.5
6. To be more effective in guidance and counseling of teachers and pupils.	13	9.8
7. Learn ways to work more democratically.	9	6.8
8. Inducting and helping new teachers.	8	6.0
9. Selecting teachers and evaluating teaching.	5	3.8
10. Administering the extra-curricular activity program.	4	3.0
11. Promote curriculum revision and development.	4	3.0
12. Help teachers obtain and use resource materials.	3	2.3
13. How to cause teachers to identify weaknesses in their instruction.	3	2.3
Total	133	100.

Only three areas which were problems of the principals in this study did not appear as teacher problems. They were: (a) ability to develop better professional attitudes and ethics among the faculty; (b) selecting teachers and evaluating teaching; and (c) how to cause teachers to identify weaknesses in their instruction.

Commendation and credit should be given to the principals in this study for identifying and acknowledging one of the major obstacles to in-service education of teachers. It is lack of "administrative know-how" in initiating and motivating an in-service program. This obstacle was not among the thirteen reported by Weber<sup>1</sup> as necessary to overcome in order to plan in-service educational programs.

The following quotations are selected statements which principals gave concerning in-service training in reply to the question, "How would you like to improve yourself most in supervising and working with teachers?":

"To improve group approach to promote in-service training and growth"

"Would like to know what can be done in the way of in-service training and how to go about getting it done"

"Be better informed on how to initiate in-service training"

---

1 Weber, Op. Cit., see p.

"Prepare with teachers a means of supervising them"

"How to have better organization and utilization of teacher meetings"

"Helping teachers see the need for continued educational training and growth"

"How to make better use of faculty meetings"

"In-service training - get teachers to want to do a better job and then do something about it"

Often the dissatisfaction a teacher has with his position is caused by poor relationships with other members of the faculty or with the administration. The principal's success depends in large part upon his ability in establishing proper staff relationships. Principals in this study recognized the problem and placed importance upon it to the extent that it tied for first with initiating in-service training as an area in which they wished to improve themselves.

The remarks of the principals indicate their desire to know more about human relations in order to work more effectively with others. These quotations are illustrative of the thinking in recognition of the problem of improving staff relationships and morale:

"Develop a more cooperative spirit among teachers"

"To be able to understand each teacher"

"To broaden my own understanding of human relationships"

"Methods of dealing with human beings"

"To be able to always win the sincere confidence of the group"

"Getting teachers to realize we have more than their department to provide for"

"Some means to reduce jealousies among women teachers"

"To build better staff relations - we do not have enough faculty harmony and morale"

It is unfortunate that in the teaching profession teachers do not have an adequate understanding of the children which they are trying to teach. To make teaching either a profession or an art demands an understanding of the material with which we work.

Evidence that children are not understood is seen in the fact that discipline problems cause failure of many teachers. When lists of teacher problems are compiled discipline nearly always ranks near the top. For lack of understanding teachers too frequently concentrate on the symptoms of behavior rather than the causes of behavior. Teachers have difficulty setting up a healthy social climate in the classroom. Materials are taught by abstract methods rather than through meaningful learning experience and finally the children are judged in terms of adult standards.

The problem of understanding and helping teachers to understand children tied for second in frequency of mention by principals of the study. The principals not only recognized the problem but from these statements a desire is shown to overcome the difficulty:

"Inspire teachers to want to work together to help students above everything else"

"How to get weak teacher in disciplinary matters to overcome the difficulty"

"How to get teachers to spend more time on dull students, instead of ignoring them"

"To get teachers to understand the roots of discipline problems and thus often change their methods of approach to combat them"

"To help teachers realize the individual differences of students and the relation of the home to the actions and thinking of the student"

"I would like to have the ability to teach teachers to teach children and not just courses"

"Be able to help teachers to overcome discipline problems"

"To be able to help beginning teachers in handling teaching situations that arise as to discipline methods"

"I would like to employ an entire faculty, each member of which possessed a deep love for and understanding of children"

"To be able to convince the teacher that the pupils future depends a great deal upon her success with him or her while in her classes"

The desire of principals to improve their ability to develop better professional attitudes and ethics among the faculty tied for second in frequency of mention with the desire to improve in helping teachers understand children. Developing proper attitudes and professional ethics has been a problem that has continued right along with the effort to build teaching into a profession. These are selected replies made by the principals.

"To be able to instill professional spirit in teachers"

"Get teachers to cooperate and participate voluntarily in educational meeting of the county"

"I should like to be able to select teachers interested in professional improvement"

"The ability to stimulate and improve more professional attitudes on the part of teachers"

"How to impress upon teachers that we are in a service profession, not merely a forty hour-a-week job"

"Establishing a conference which does not become just a mutual gripe session"

"I seem to have weakness in that teachers gossip among themselves about their social relations with their pupils"

"To be able to sell education to those teachers who go after it in a half-hearted manner"

"Would like to help some teachers realize that teaching is not to be a stepping stone"

"I would like to be able to impress teachers with their place in the education of high school students. From this I think would

come more of a 'oneness' of teachers in place of separate subject matter instructors. High school teachers want time for their activities without giving up a like time to another teacher"

Teachers desire to know better methods and techniques of teaching. Recommended new techniques and methods ranked second in Bail's<sup>1</sup> study in which he asked teachers what they wanted of supervision. This problem ranked fifth in frequency of mention by principals in this study who desired to become more efficient in helping teachers. The principals expressed themselves in such ways as:

"Know better methods of teaching"

"Be able to advise on teaching subject matter"

"To be able to help teachers do better lesson planning"

"Help with instructional methods and other problems in the classroom"

"To be better qualified to help teachers on techniques of teaching"

"Practical knowledge of suggestions which might help teachers in classroom situations"

"I would like to be able to bridge the gap of theory and the practice of reality in the classroom"

"I would like to help teachers by being able to offer specific, concrete help when wanted"

---

1 Bail, Op. Cit., p. 40.

Evidently the principals did not feel they always fully understood teachers and their problems, or even if they did, they do not feel adequate in counseling teachers. This problem seemed to be challenging enough to the principals that it ranked sixth in frequency of mention of desired improvement in working with teachers. Some replies to the question on the checksheet which relate to this area were:

"Help teachers solve perplexing problems which they meet"

"Improve individual and group conferences with teachers"

"Causing teachers to use the results obtained from tests for improving individual abilities"

"Would like to learn techniques of counseling teachers"

"Obtain more training in personnel work and instruction"

"More thorough understanding of individual teachers and their problems"

"I would like to have a better understanding of what really makes people act like they do and then have the ability to get them to understand the same thing"

"Help teachers fit their lives into community life"

Administrators are becoming more conscious of the need to learn ways of working democratically in our schools. Some principals expressed a desire to know more

about how to function democratically; others expressed the problem of educating the faculty for their role in democratic administration. It is commendable of the principals that the problem of learning how to work more democratically ranked as high as seventh in frequency of mention for desired improvement. Some statements of the principals were:

- "To guide rather than dictate the activities of teachers"
- "To cooperatively develop school policies and objectives"
- "To accomplish aims without dictatorship"
- "Teacher cooperation without coercion"
- "To be able to work democratically and at the same time efficiently with the group"
- "Supporting teachers in their decisions while helping them make better ones"
- "I would like to develop the ability to get teachers to participate more actively in formulating school policy"
- "To help teachers who want democratic administration, yet do not want the responsibility that goes with making decisions"

The area concerning inducting and helping new teachers received six percent of the replies for desired improvement in helping teachers. The problem ranked eighth in frequency of mention. Although the replies were not too expressive, it was readily sensed that the principals felt responsibility for helping new teachers attain initial

success.

"Helping new inexperienced teachers get a good start"

"More careful help for beginning teachers"

"Develop a feeling of confidence on part of beginning teacher"

"Working with beginning teachers who do not realize that they are not doing as good a job as they should"

"To get new teachers to allow students a chance to give their opinions and not to feel they, the teacher, should always have the final and correct solution"

"Orienting new teachers to our system at the beginning of the school year"

The last five areas in which principals reported they would like to improve their help did not receive high mention; however, the areas have important problems to consider. Five principals stated they wished to improve themselves most in selecting teachers and evaluating teaching. Sample statements are as follows:

"I would like to know how to select teachers more carefully"

"How can I learn more about the objectives and methods in various fields so that I can more fairly evaluate teaching?"

"Methods of arriving at a fair evaluation of a teacher's effectiveness and efficiency without having teacher feel embarrassed or by snopping"

The extra-curricular activity program is a recognized major problem of teachers and principals in the secondary schools. The program must be coordinated, have time arranged for it, and sponsored. The principals feel a need to lighten teacher load by coordinating and reducing the number of activities and teachers should be matched to activities they are competent to sponsor.

Replies of the principals were:

"I would like to know how to coordinate the extra-curricular activity program"

"Solve the problems involved in assigning extra-curricular duties to teachers"

"I think the biggest problem of the secondary school principal is extra-curricular activities. They take so much of a teacher's and principal's time and energy that the other things mentioned get crowded out"

The problems of curriculum revision and development, and that of causing teachers to identify weaknesses in their instruction are a part of the problem of initiating and administering a program of in-service education. The two were given separate recognition since they were mentioned specifically as a way in which the principals wished to improve themselves in helping teachers. These two replies cover the principals expression on curriculum.

"I wish to improve in helping teachers with curriculum revision"

"To promote curriculum development"

These replies concerned the problem of causing teachers to see instructional weakness.

"How do I get teachers to desire more help"

"To develop greater tact through methods of pointing out shortcomings"

"How can I be more diplomatic in suggesting improvements in teaching technique so that teachers will not be offended"

In Bail's<sup>1</sup> study, recommended materials and equipment ranked fourth according to what teachers wanted of supervision. Burk<sup>2</sup> found that use of instructional materials ranked ninth among teacher reported problems. It should be recalled that earlier in this chapter it was reported that principals in the study rated high the technique of helping teachers with materials and resources, but in recognizing it as a problem they did not give it the importance that the teachers did. The principals stated they would like to improve in:

"Making available materials for helping a teacher"

"Referring teachers to best sources of desired material and equipment"

---

1 Bail, Op. Cit.

2 Burk, Op. Cit.

In resume of the foregoing it may be said that although the amount and manner of help may be questioned which principals try to give teachers in an in-service education program, it may be assumed that principals who participated in this study do a good job recognizing the major problems of teachers and feel inadequate to help in a supervisory capacity; that is, they feel they would like to improve most in those areas which teachers in other studies reported as wanting help most.

In Part III of the checksheet for the study were fifteen items. Each item had three sub-parts and the principals were to complete the item by checking the sub-part with which they most nearly agreed. This part of the checksheet was for the purpose of gaining further information of some attitudes principals might have toward faculty relationships. Occasionally principals indicated they would like to combine two sub-parts, or they had difficulty in choosing between sub-parts.

An attempt was made to have each sub-part of an item fit one of these categories: (a) authoritarian or principal-dominated; (b) democratic, cooperative, or a peer relationship; and (c) laissez faire, or non-leadership of the principal. It is acknowledged that there may be situations in which each of the sub-parts would play a part. For example, a chaotic situation may have to be approached in an autocratic manner by a principal who

believes in the democratic ideal. The principals were placed in the position of making a forced choice of one of the three sub-parts.

In fourteen of the items the sub-part classified as democratic and cooperative was chosen by the greatest number of principals. Thirteen were choices by an overwhelming majority. In one item the principals chose, by a small margin, the item classified as laissez faire.

In a democratic society it is believed desirable that when possible decisions should be made by the groups affected rather than individuals. The situation may be that the people delegate power to an official representative to make decisions. The principal of a school is an example of this. He is responsible and accountable to the people for programs sponsored in their behalf. There is no way a principal can completely escape this responsibility. This fact is recognized in regard to this part of the study; however, the emphasis is centered on attitude toward staff relationships and not on line and staff organization for authority and responsibility.

Forty-nine percent of the principals felt that in group planning the program should be organized so that teachers would be held responsible to the faculty group. Along with the privilege of participating in cooperative planning should go the obligation of helping to carry out the plans of the group. It is therefore assumed that a

teacher who participated in planning has such a responsibility. Twenty-eight percent of the principals checked that responsibility of each teacher should be to the principal. The principal in this case would become the central figure and the group process would be apt to deteriorate. Nineteen percent of the principals felt that responsibility of each teacher should be to himself. Such a state would be conducive to anarchy and would not contribute to group planning and follow through.

There was much disagreement by principals on the way teachers should teach. Thirty-one percent thought that teachers should be encouraged to teach in the way they wish so long as their pupils could measure up to accepted standards. Twenty-seven percent felt that teachers should accept and adhere to the best methods of teaching as developed by supervisors and authorities. The first attitude was considered laissez faire because it does not place any importance on the teaching process and is concerned only with the final outcome in comparison to standards. The second attitude places importance on the method of teaching but assumes that the knowledge of best methods of teaching is vested in supervisors and authorities. Causing the teacher to accept and adhere to those methods is considered authoritarian and ignores the role teachers may play in developing new methods. Forty-

one percent of the principals thought teachers should be encouraged to experiment with new methods even at the risk of some lack of order and the making of mistakes. This attitude seems to show awareness that advances and learning come about as the result of mistakes as well as successes.

Twenty percent of the principals thought a new principal should win the confidence of the teaching staff by displaying evidence of strong leadership and a plan of action for the school year. Eight percent felt that the new principal should let teachers carry on as usual until he becomes acquainted and then he could work things out as they arise. Neither approach is cooperative in attitude. In one, the principal has a plan and asks his faculty to adopt it, and, in the other, it is laissez faire because it is planless. Seventy-one percent thought the approach a new principal should use was to show willingness to learn, and to seek the help and cooperation of the faculty in forming plans for the school year. This cooperative attitude should create the feeling that the program is not just the principal's but belongs to the whole staff. Such a feeling would be likely to gain greater faculty support for the program.

Sixty-five percent of the principals agreed that in coming to a faculty decision concerning school matters in which the faculty has jurisdiction the principal should

present his ideas to the group as one of the group and abide by the group decision. In this peer or co-operative relationship the principal's opinion or vote would carry no more weight than any other faculty member. Thirty-two percent of the principals thought they should retain veto power over the decision should they consider it a bad one. This would be denying the very fact that the faculty had any jurisdiction over the matter in question. If that were true, it should never have been brought up for faculty action. If the matter was given for decision and then the decision was vetoed the principal would soon destroy the initiative and confidence of his faculty by such domineering tactics. Only three percent of the principals thought that in matters for faculty jurisdiction they should withhold opinion, remain neutral, and accept the decision. To completely withdraw and not participate at all in making the decision is considered a display of non-leadership.

Four percent of the principals indicated that principals should not hold membership in the City Teacher's Association, but be officially informed of its actions. In such a situation a principal is withdrawn from group participation and is thereby laissez faire in his relationship with the association. Twenty-nine percent thought that the principal should be a member of the City Teacher's

Association with eligibility to hold office or in many cases act as ex-officio chairman. The principal is already an official leader by reason of his appointed status; to become an official or act as chairman of the City Teacher's Association would appear to be expanding administration into a double role of leadership. Some faculty associations have a by-law which prevents a school official from holding office in the association. A better relationship would seem to exist if the principal were a full participating member except for privilege of holding office or chairmanship. Sixty-seven percent of the principals made the latter relationship their choice.

Seventy-seven percent of the principals in the study thought that a principal, as an experienced person in a position of leadership, should start with the concerns of the group and deepen the teachers insight toward needed programs through group thinking and action. Starting with the concerns of the group is a way of building unity and self-confidence for cooperative action. Nineteen percent of the principals believed the status leader should establish the goals for the faculty to attain, and direct and encourage the group in such a way that the goals will emerge. The principal in this case would have pre-conceived goals for the group. His task would be to "work on" the faculty and maneuver them toward those goals. He must dominate the action for the desired outcome. An

attitude chosen by four percent of the principals was to aid teachers upon request after the teachers felt or saw the need for a new program. The principal is ignoring the opportunity to help teachers identify their needs, and to do something about it.

Forty-two percent of the principals felt that a principal should work in such a way that he acts as a catalyst which releases the potential leadership and ideas of each teacher as he works with them. As official leader he should spread the leadership in the group to help members grow in ability. Talent may be recognized and matched to the occasion; also a teacher may be given a leadership position to cause him to grow and mature with the responsibility. This idea of developing and sharing leadership was the only sub-part classified as democratic and cooperative which was not chosen by the higher percentage of principals. Fifty-one percent thought that the principal should allow leadership to emerge naturally from the group because some are fitted to be leaders and others are not. This was considered to be laissez faire because the principal is taking no responsibility for discovering or developing leadership ability. Leadership need not be thought of entirely as something which a person is born with because it is something which in many cases may be developed. Seven percent believed the principal should be the type of leader who can build unity around himself by

skillfully influencing his staff to accept his ideas. This was considered authoritarian because the principal uses methods to dominate and control the outcome in terms of his ideas.

In helping teachers improve materials or in helping them with class procedures, seventy-nine percent of principals thought they should conduct themselves in such a way that a teacher would call upon them for assistance as a resource person in solving problems. Seventeen percent felt the principal should give help as soon as he feels the teacher is in need. Help of this nature would be considered authoritarian unless the teacher was first led to feel a need for such help through a democratic approach. Only three percent thought the principal should provide materials and let the teachers employ them as they wish.

Approximately four percent of the principals thought that after the plans for the school year had been made and duties assigned, a principal should rest full responsibility for success or failure with the teacher in the execution of assignments. It is considered a laissez faire practice for a principal to attempt to absolve himself from any responsibility for the results of assignments given teachers. Thirty-two percent of the principals believed that after duties have been assigned teachers, a principal should delegate full responsibility to a teacher

but stand ready to regain control of the situation if and when he sees the teacher making a mistake. If the principal stands ready to regain control, he really has not given the teacher the responsibility. If he intrudes he is likely to embarrass the teacher. He is exercising an authoritarian measure. Sixty-four percent of the principals felt that it would be better if the principal shared responsibility by planning with a teacher possible ways of carrying out a given task. Teachers can work with greater confidence if they know they have the understanding and support of the principal.

Eighty-seven percent of the principals believed that in pre-planning a meeting to discuss a problem, the principal should be prepared to suggest procedures and ways by which the group can attack the problem. The principal is acting democratically as a helpful resource if he can suggest alternatives with opportunity for further alternatives to be suggested and acted on by the faculty. Approximately ten percent thought that the principal should exercise authority by planning ways to influence the group toward accepting a desired solution to the problem. The principal in such a case is assuming that he has the right answer and he knows best. Possibly with this attitude he should not present the problem to the faculty. Four percent of the principals indicated a laissez faire choice. They would call attention to the problem which they wish

to present along with other business and let the teachers attack or ignore the problem as they are inclined.

Seventy-three percent of the principals agreed that a good administrative program is one which shares authority to attain improved human relations and to develop the faculty as individuals in the group. Twenty-one percent thought that authority should be centralized in order to give ample organization to expedite and increase instructional efficiency of the staff as a whole. Only six percent expressed a choice for the laissez faire program which administers school business and other mechanical tasks while letting the faculty take the responsibility for classroom instruction.

There were three choices of working relationships given which the principals could have with a faculty. Sixty-two percent made the choice of identifying themselves a good deal with the teachers in a teacher-to-teacher relationship. Such was considered a desire to establish a peer relationship. Ten percent felt that principals should dignify their positions of leadership by maintaining some distinction of authority over the faculty. This concept probably includes a misconception that respect for a position of authority is synonymous with respect for the person in authority. Twenty-eight percent thought that the principal should avoid familiarity with the faculty, but

willingness to place into execution wishes of the group.

In regard to major controversial issues only a little over one percent of the principals thought that teachers should avoid teaching topics which are controversial. It was believed by seventy-nine percent of the principals that teachers should present to the class in an impartial manner all viewpoints regarding controversial issues. Several principals indicated that the teacher should go further by having the class discuss and criticize the different viewpoints in an effort to arrive at a decision. Twenty percent of the principals felt the teacher should teach with an effort to present the right view of a controversial issue. The teacher in such a case poses as an authority. The question may arise as to how teachers become endowed with the "right" view in controversial issues. A democratic approach would require critical analysis by the group of all viewpoints in an effort to reach a decision by concensus.

A similar situation to the foregoing was posed when the principals were asked what they would do in regard to a routine action of which the principal was in favor and the faculty was divided in opinion. Twenty percent felt that the principal should put the action into effect although faculty opinion was divided. This would be considered an authoritarian move on the principal's part. However, such action is frequently desired by teachers in

order to break a faculty stalemate. Seventy-nine percent felt that the principal should not take action before gaining faculty approval. One percent felt the principal should drop any idea over which faculty opinion is divided.

Eight percent of the principals preferred an authoritarian approach toward school philosophy. They believed that the principal should work to bring the school into conformity with the philosophy of education which he has formulated. Eighty-six percent believed that the principal should work cooperatively with the faculty in writing out a workable philosophy of education. Unity of purpose and compatibility of methods and procedures of the faculty are desired outcomes of working out a philosophy together. However, six percent thought that the educational philosophy of each teacher should prevail in the classroom. This system of anarchy could result in confusion for children when teachers work at cross purposes. Several principals remarked that the individual philosophy of each teacher should be encouraged as long as it was in harmony with group purpose.

Though the principals checked a large proportion of items classified as democratic and cooperative, the frequency of some remarks made by the principals indicates that they operate in a laissez faire manner. The

remarks further implied that they did not have a planned program of in-service education, or that they believed that meeting a teacher in the hall following class to dispense information would suffice as an in-service program in a small school. The following are typical comments:

"Many of the items do not pertain to a school of our size. We have personal contact with all faculty members each day"

"Many of these items I believe would be of value in a larger school although we do not make use of them in a school as small as ours where I have an opportunity to talk to each teacher practically every day"

"It seems to me that your study applies more to larger school systems. I try to talk over the problems of each teacher with the teacher. General meetings are held to give out general information"

It was taken for granted that the items referred to by the principals in the quotes above pertained mostly to the techniques given in the checksheet.

Some principals did not care for the cooperative and democratic ideas suggested in the checksheet. The writer received these words of caution to heed in working with a faculty:

"I think one should remember that the principal is often charged with certain responsibilities, and many of his decisions are made in view of the fact that he will have to be responsible for the results and

the individual teachers do not always care to accept the responsibility along with privileges."

"Obviously your entire questionnaire deals with group planning, group decision, group action. Do not 'go to seed' on group relationship with your staff. There are still a large group of teachers who would sooner leave the decisions to the administration and feel that group action is merely another means for an administrator to shift responsibility."

"I feel that in this whole check list you have taken the viewpoint of the young teacher who has listened to the theorist of his college classroom. Are you going to run your school, or is the faculty of 23 year old teachers, 35 year old teachers, and 50 year old teachers each having different ideas."\*

It may be appropriate at this point to include several statements from principals who were favorably impressed with the checksheet. In addition to the many helpful criticisms there were complimentary comments such as the following which express interest and enthusiasm:

"Thanks for the opportunity given to me to answer the questionnaire. It is an educational experience in itself. Send me the results of your study."

"You've got some very fine ideas put together. A principal, as I see it, needs to be very careful, plan with his group, exert leadership but never try to force anything upon a group. They must all work at what is to be done. A teacher must be given as much freedom as she can possibly use wisely."

---

\* These statements were made by principals who marked a majority of democratic-cooperative items.

"This has been quite an inspiration and a thought-provoking experience in filling out this questionnaire. It will probably point out my own individual weaknesses which I trust will be beneficial to me. I am happy to cooperate in this project."

"This is one of the best prepared surveys that has come to my attention. This survey challenges an administrator and also his faculty members. I would like to have a copy with the number of choices received by each item."

Fifty-five principals which constitute twenty-three percent of the participating group expressed interest by requesting that a summary of the findings be sent to them.

Part IV. Comparison of Two Groups of Principals in  
Regard to Evaluation and Frequency of Use  
of Techniques

By use of Part III of the checksheet on staff relationships the writer desired to obtain three groups of principals from their markings on the items which were classified into three categories as previously described. These groups of principals were to be studied to discover if there were any differences from group to group on the basis of their evaluation of in-service training techniques and on the frequency with which they used them.

After tabulating the data it was discovered that the expected divisions did not occur. The minimum standard used for classifying a principal in a group was eight checks out of a possible fifteen for any one category. No principal could be placed in the laissez faire group on the basis of his checksheet choices. Only ten principals could be placed in the autocratic group on the same basis.

It was decided to make an analysis of the group of principals placed in the democratic-cooperative classification since the principals were so overwhelmingly in this group. There were 204 principals who had a score of eight or more for this classification. The group was then compared with the remaining thirty-one principals who had checked less than eight items in favor of the democratic-cooperative relationships. This meant that these thirty-one

principals had eight or more items checked which were classified as either autocratic or laissez-faire.

For convenience of further discussion they will be called the democratic-cooperative group and the autocratic-laissez faire group.

For each group a mean rating was computed for their evaluation, and their frequency of use, of each of the techniques in Part II of the checksheet.

There were only three items which were noticeable for their difference in frequency of use by the groups. Each was used more frequently by the autocratic-laissez faire group.

Preparing written reports or comments to be given to the teacher following a classroom visit by the principal was used occasionally by the autocratic-laissez faire group and rarely by the democratic-cooperative group.

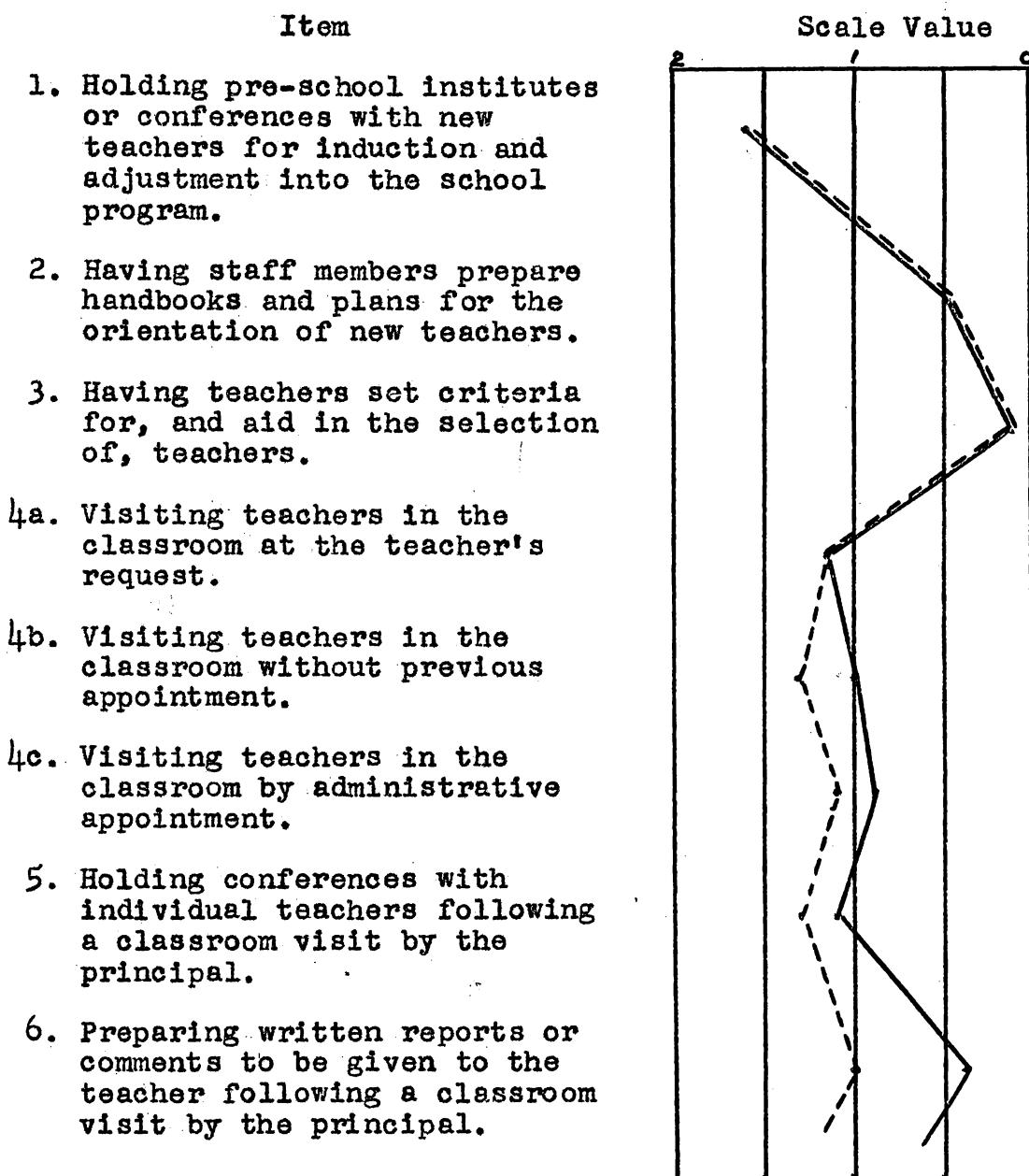
The autocratic-laissez faire group frequently arranged transportation for and encouraged attendance at professional meetings and conventions. The democratic-cooperative group did occasionally.

The autocratic-laissez faire group frequently used the technique of holding conferences with and advising individual teachers in classroom discipline and mechanics. This technique was used occasionally by the democratic-cooperative group. This difference between the two groups

coincides with the modern belief that an autocratic setting is more apt to breed discipline problems among pupils than a democratic setting.

With the exception of the three techniques discussed above, it is concluded that there is little or no difference between the groups in frequency of use of the techniques according to the checksheet tabulation. This may be observed by the tables which follow. Attention is called to the key at the bottom of the first page of the table.

TABLE 16

FREQUENCY OF USE OF TECHNIQUES BY  
TWO GROUPS OF PRINCIPALS

Key:

- democratic-cooperative  
--- autocratic-laissez faire

Scale:

- 2 = frequently  
1 = occasionally  
0 = rarely or none

TABLE 16 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
7. Planning faculty meetings to be held periodically during the school year.	
8. Acting as chairman of faculty meetings.	
9. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use by the staff in planning faculty meetings.	
10. Studying, with teachers, methods for improvement of the overall educational program.	
11. Appointing, or having the faculty appoint, teacher committees to study school problems.	
12. Having pupils and parents work with teachers in committee to study school problems.	
13. Re-arranging school schedule so that school time may be had for teacher meetings.	
14. Planning with teachers who are to observe, or to do, a demonstration lesson.	
15. Holding follow-up conferences with the observing teachers of the demonstration lesson.	
16b. Planning with teachers for visits to teachers in other school systems.	
16c. Planning with teacher for visits in the homes of the community.	

TABLE 16 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
17. Holding follow-up conferences after above visits.	2
18. Arranging for teachers to visit other schools as a representative of a faculty committee.	6
19. Giving special recognition, such as, news items, salary increases, or bonuses, for publication of articles of research and study of problems within the school.	6
20. Working with teachers in doing experimental projects.	6
21. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out programs of cooperative research in summer school.	6
22. Arranging for conferences between psychologist or guidance specialist and individual teachers to discuss problem cases.	6
23. Encouraging teacher growth by devising ways of giving recognition to those with outstanding achievement.	6
24. Preparing bulletins, of supervisory nature, for teacher use.	6
25. Editing policy handbooks to aid teacher adjustment to the school.	6
26. Having teachers cooperatively work out a written philosophy of education.	6

TABLE 16 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
27. Working with teachers in preparation of a guidance bulletin for use of pupils, teachers, and parents.	2 1 0
28. Helping teachers establish and use a professional staff library.	2 1 0
29. Helping teachers utilize the school library in connection with class work.	2 1 0
30. Recommending and securing audio-visual aids for classroom use.	2 1 0
31. Helping teachers select and use instructional materials and equipment.	2 1 0
32. Providing clerical help to teachers to aid in preparation of instructional materials.	2 1 0
33. Helping teachers work with and in community agencies, such as, County Agent, City Departments, Civic and Service Clubs, and 4-H.	2 1 0
34. Helping teachers make surveys of the community served by the school.	2 1 0
35. Following up and surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development.	2 1 0
36. Helping teachers develop lesson plans or units of work.	2 1 0
37. Helping teachers survey and study problems faced by adolescents.	2 1 0

TABLE 16 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
38. Helping teachers make case studies of children.	
39. Holding conferences with and advising individual teachers in classroom discipline and mechanics.	
40. Working with teachers to help them improve as sponsors of activities.	
41. Arranging transportation for and encouraging attendance at professional meetings and conventions.	
42. Assigning teachers to attend discussions of certain topics at conventions.	
43. Holding faculty meetings to hear follow-up reports from teachers attending professional meetings.	
44. Planning with teachers for conferences with parents.	
45. Making studies of interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff.	
46. Developing and maintaining cumulative records of the professional growth of teachers.	
47. Encouraging teachers to serve on professional committees outside their own school system.	
48. Maintaining regularly scheduled office hours for teachers who, of their own initiative, seek help.	

TABLE 16 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
49. Planning, and working with teachers in post-school, pre-school, or summer workshops.	2
50. Arranging for and using university and college consultants and inspirational speakers in faculty workshops.	1
51. Holding individual conferences to encourage and advise teachers in selection of extension or summer course work.	0
52. Recommending and arranging for leaves of absence, with or without pay, for further training.	2
53. Arranging for faculty members to participate in teacher-exchange programs.	1
54. Helping and advising teachers in the construction of teacher-made tests of subject matter.	0
55. Helping teachers evaluate their instructional equipment and materials.	1
56. Helping teachers to study testing procedures of guidance programs and to administer special tests.	0
57. Following up with teachers results of testing programs.	1
58. Encouraging and helping teachers evaluate their own traits and activities. (Self-inventory)	0

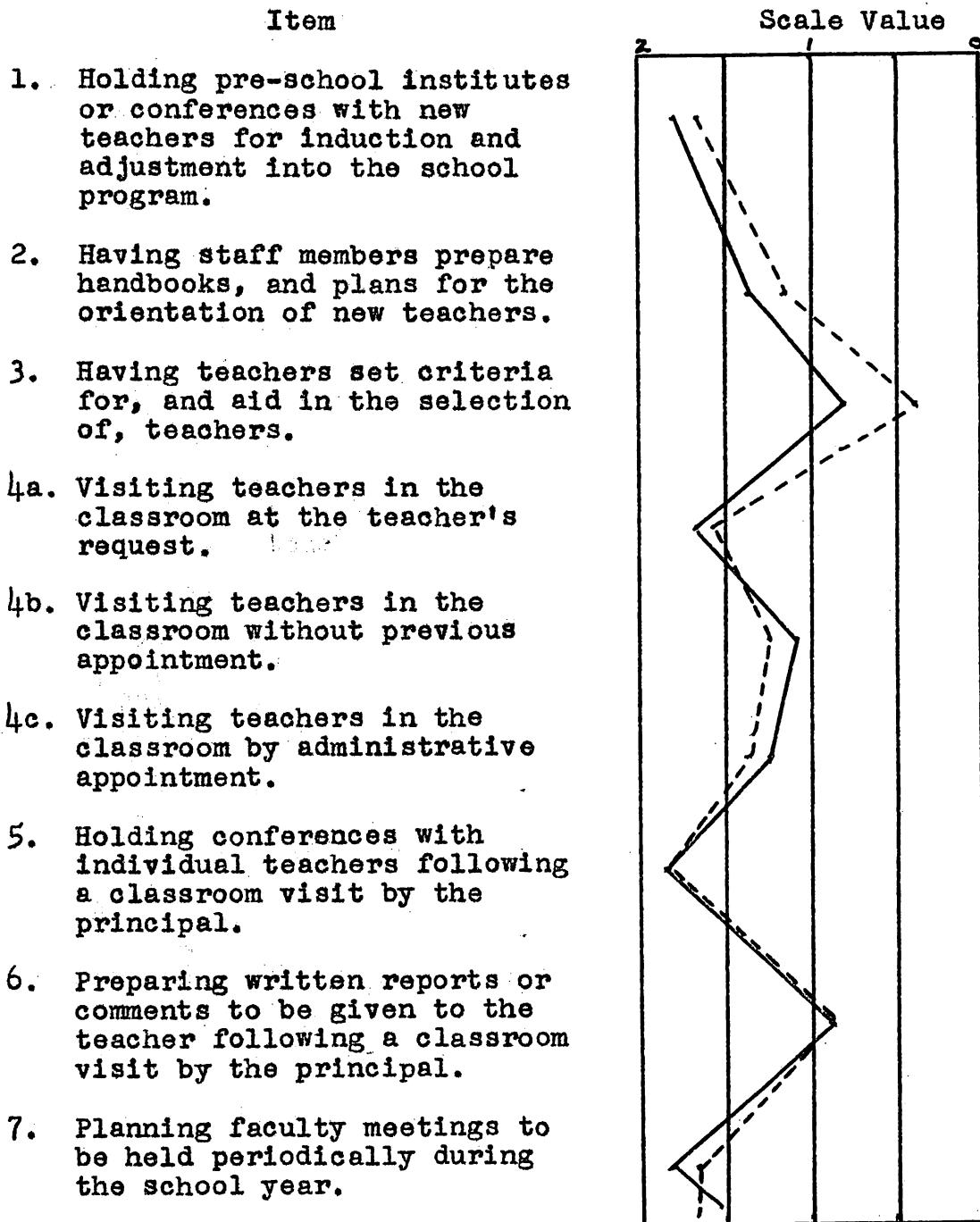
The democratic-cooperative group evaluated the techniques consistently higher than the autocratic-laissez faire group which gave a slightly higher evaluation to only four techniques. The four techniques were: (1) acting as chairman of faculty meetings; (2) visiting teachers in the classroom without previous appointment; (3) visiting teachers in the classroom by administrative appointment, and (4) planning with teachers for visits to teachers in other schools.

Items which included cooperative work between principal and faculty, students, and parents, showed greater differences between the principal groups in frequency of use than for other techniques. Some of the techniques which the democratic-cooperative group gave a markedly higher evaluation were: (1) having teachers set criteria for, and aid in the selection of, teachers; (2) having pupils and parents work with teachers in committees to study school problems; (3) helping teachers work with, and in, community agencies; (4) planning with teachers for conferences with parents; and (5) giving special recognition to teachers.

The following table presents a graphic picture showing the consistency with which the democratic-cooperative group evaluated the techniques slightly higher than the autocratic-laissez faire group.

TABLE 17

## EVALUATION OF TECHNIQUES BY TWO GROUPS OF PRINCIPALS



Key:

       democratic-cooperative

--- autocratic-laissez faire

Scale:

2 = good

1 = fair

0 = poor

TABLE 17 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
8. Acting as chairman of faculty meetings.	2
9. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use by the staff in planning faculty meetings.	1
10. Studying, with teachers, methods for improvement of the overall educational program.	0
11. Appointing, or having the faculty appoint, teacher committees to study school problems.	2
12. Having pupils and parents work with teachers in committees to study school problems.	1
13. Re-arranging school schedule so that school time may be had for teacher meetings.	0
14. Planning with teachers who are to observe, or to do, a demonstration lesson.	2
15. Holding follow-up conferences with the observing teachers of the demonstration lesson.	1
16b. Planning with teachers for visits to teachers in other school systems.	2
16c. Planning with teacher for visits in the homes of the community.	1
17. Holding follow-up conferences after above visits.	0

TABLE 17 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
18. Arranging for teachers to visit other schools as a representative of a faculty committee.	2
19. Giving special recognition, such as, news items, salary increases, or bonuses, for publication of articles of research and study of problems within the school.	1
20. Working with teachers in doing experimental projects.	0
21. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out programs of cooperative research in summer school.	2
22. Arranging for conferences between psychologist or guidance specialist and individual teachers to discuss problem cases.	1
23. Encouraging teacher growth by devising ways of giving recognition to those with outstanding achievement.	2
24. Preparing bulletins, of supervisory nature, for teacher use.	1
25. Editing policy handbooks to aid teacher adjustment to the school.	2
26. Having teachers cooperatively work out a written philosophy of education.	1
27. Working with teachers in preparation of a guidance bulletin for use of pupils, teachers, and parents.	0

TABLE 17 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
28. Helping teachers establish and use a professional staff library.	
29. Helping teachers utilize the school library in connection with class work.	
30. Recommending and securing audio-visual aids for classroom use.	
31. Helping teachers select and use instructional materials and equipment.	
32. Providing clerical help to teachers to aid in preparation of instructional materials.	
33. Helping teachers work with and in community agencies, such as, County Agent, City Departments, Civic and Service Clubs, and 4-H.	
34. Helping teachers make surveys of the community served by the school.	
35. Following up and surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development.	
36. Helping teachers develop lesson plans or units of work.	
37. Helping teachers survey and study problems faced by adolescents.	
38. Helping teachers make case studies of children.	

TABLE 17 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
39. Holding conferences with and advising individual teachers in classroom discipline and mechanics.	2
40. Working with teachers to help them improve as sponsors of activities.	1
41. Arranging transportation for and encouraging attendance at professional meetings and conventions.	0
42. Assigning teachers to attend discussions of certain topics at conventions.	2
43. Holding faculty meetings to hear follow-up reports from teachers attending professional meetings.	1
44. Planning with teachers for conferences with parents.	0
45. Making studies of interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff.	2
46. Developing and maintaining cumulative records of the professional growth of teachers.	1
47. Encouraging teachers to serve on professional committees outside their own school system.	0
48. Maintaining regularly scheduled office hours for teachers who, of their own initiative, seek help.	2

TABLE 17 (Continued)

Item	Scale Value
49. Planning, and working with teachers in post-school, pre-school, or summer workshops.	2
50. Arranging for and using university and college consultants and inspirational speakers in faculty workshops.	1
51. Holding individual conferences to encourage and advise teachers in selection of extension or summer course work.	1
52. Recommending and arranging for leaves of absence, with or without pay, for further training.	1
53. Arranging for faculty members to participate in teacher-exchange programs.	1
54. Helping and advising teachers in the construction of teacher-made tests of subject matter.	1
55. Helping teachers evaluate their instructional equipment and materials.	1
56. Helping teachers to study testing procedures of guidance programs and to administer special tests.	1
57. Following up with teachers results of testing programs.	1
58. Encouraging and helping teachers evaluate their own traits and activities. (Self-inventory)	1

## CHAPTER IV

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem proposed for this study was to make an investigation of the techniques and responsibilities assumed by principals in the secondary schools of Kansas for improvement of instruction through the improvement of teachers in service. The study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What are some professional qualifications that principals have for the role of supervision?
2. What is the nature of the average position in which the principals are employed?
3. What are the responsibilities assumed and techniques employed by the principals for improving instruction?
4. In what way would the principals like to improve themselves in supervising and working with teachers?
5. What are some attitudes held by the principals toward staff relationships and the school program?

Procedure. Data for the study were obtained through a questionnaire in the form of a check sheet. Two

hundred thirty-five usable check sheets were obtained from 460 principals invited to participate. Data were obtained from the State Department of Public Instruction for the non-participating principals. From this data it was found that the sample on which the data of the study are based is representative of the total invited group.

Limitations. The study based its findings on responses by principals in Kansas high schools of second and third class cities, rural high schools, and county or community high schools. Principals were selected to participate if they had two qualifications: (1) a minimum high-school faculty of four full-time teachers in addition to the principal; and (2) the principal must not be carrying a teaching load of more than three class periods per day.

Major findings. The following summary of the major findings of the study is based on responses received from the cooperating principals.

1. In addition to holding the required master's degree the majority of cooperating principals had attended regular school or summer school within the last four years.
2. The average number years administrative experience for the principal is 11.8 years and the average tenure in his present position is 3.4 years.

3. The average school has ninety-seven pupils, eight teachers, and two of the teachers are new. Only seven percent of the schools did not have a new teacher.
4. Fifty-five percent of the schools have at least one beginning teacher on the faculty.
5. The average principal teaches two classes during the school day and spends ten percent of his time on supervision of instruction. He believes that he should spend a third of his time in this way.
6. Principals reported using a large variety of techniques. No criteria for selection of techniques used by the principals were apparent.
7. The amount of time spent by principals in supervision decreased as the number of classes taught increased, with the exception that those principals who taught no classes indicated markedly the least amount of time spent in supervision of instruction.
8. Principals reported seven techniques for improvement of instruction as used frequently. Two of these drew attention.
  - a. Principals frequently acted as chairman of faculty meetings but indicated they

- thought it only a fair technique.
- b. Principals frequently had conferences with teachers on classroom discipline and mechanics.
9. Principals only occasionally had teachers list their problems as a basis for planning faculty meetings.
10. The surprise visit was used just as often as the arranged visit in classroom visitation by the principals.
11. Only occasionally did principals work with teachers to formulate a philosophy of education and they indicated this to be only a fair practice.
12. Principals indicated that only occasionally did they help teachers establish and use a professional library. They considered this technique only fair.
13. The mean evaluation for techniques for improvement of instruction was, in most cases, higher than the mean frequency of use.
14. On fifteen items concerning principal-faculty relationships 204 principals chose eight or more relationships classified as democratic-cooperative; 31 chose eight or more autocratic-laissez faire relationships.

15. In comparing principals who chose a majority of items classified as democratic-cooperative relationships with the faculty with those principals who chose a majority of items classified as autocratic-laissez faire relationships, little or no difference was found between the groups in frequency of use of techniques included in the check sheet.
16. The principals who chose a majority of democratic cooperative relationships evaluated the techniques consistently higher than did principals who chose autocratic-laissez faire relationships.
17. Areas in which principals would like to improve themselves in working with teachers rank in the following order by frequency of mention:
  - a. How to initiate and administer teacher in-service education programs.
  - b. Improving staff relationships and morale.
  - c. Helping teachers understand children.
  - d. Ability to develop better professional attitudes and ethics among the faculty.
  - e. To develop an understanding for himself and his faculty of the latest effective techniques and methods of presenting subject matter.

- f. To be more effective in guidance and counseling of teachers and pupils.
- g. Learn ways to work more democratically.
- h. Inducting and helping new teachers.

### Conclusions

The following were made with respect to the findings of the study:

1. According to other studies those areas in which teachers recognized the need of help with problems were the same areas in which principals of this study wanted most to improve themselves in order to help teachers. It may be concluded that the principals do a good job of recognizing the problems with which teachers desire help and wish to become competent to help in those areas.
2. The tenure of principals is too short to adequately initiate and carry forward a planned and continuous program of in-service education.
3. In view of the findings that twenty-five percent of teachers are new to the faculty each year and that principals reported as major problems those concerning staff relationships and morale and those concerning

professional attitudes, it may be concluded that the rapid turnover of teachers can be considered due, in part, to the inadequacy of supervisory practices. Studies have shown that teacher participation in policy making and that cooperative planning and democratic supervision tended to decrease job dissatisfactions of teachers.

4. The principal does not give adequate time to performing functions in the improvement of instruction. The principalsip is not yet established as a supervisory position in terms of practice.
5. In comparable size schools principals who taught no classes reported spending less time in supervisory functions than those who taught classes. It is concluded that many principals spend their time performing routine duties which they can do well rather than performing functions for improvement of instruction for which they feel inadequately prepared.
6. In other studies teachers reported desiring help in understanding the aims and objectives of present day education. Principals of this

study only occasionally worked with teachers to formulate a philosophy of education for the school. It is concluded that cooperative effort of principal and faculty is not used frequently enough for the purpose of establishing the educational theory of schools.

- ✓7. Principals need to inventory and re-evaluate their present techniques which they use for improvement of instruction and bring them into harmony with democratic methods.
- 8. It is concluded that principals desire to work in a democratic-cooperative manner but are not aware of opportunities or ways in which to do so.
- 9. It is concluded that the pressure which is felt from job responsibility and confusion concerning the role of status leader are serious obstacles to principals who want to be democratic in their relationships with the faculty.
- 10. Studies show that teachers desire adequate professional libraries in their schools.  
From the finding in this study that only occasionally did principals work with teachers

to establish a staff library it is concluded that a deterrent to in-service education programs is a lack of professional staff libraries.

11. In light of the finding that principals employed the surprise visit as frequently as the pre-arranged visit, it is concluded that the inspectional type of supervision is often used rather than cooperative effort for solution of instructional problems.
12. It is concluded that principals dominate faculty functions by acting as chairmen of meetings more than they should. It is further concluded that teacher meetings are involved more in taking up problems of administrative concern than those problems of teacher concern.
13. From problems most frequently mentioned by principals it is concluded that a large portion of such problems are those which call for understanding of human relationships.
- ✓14. One of the more serious problems to overcome for improving instruction is the principals' lack of knowledge of how to go about initiating and administering teacher in-service education programs.

✓15. It is concluded that principals do not have a planned program for in-service education and operate on a laissez faire basis. This conclusion is based on the following findings:

- a. There were no criteria or pattern discovered for the selection of techniques used by the principals.
- b. Principals frequently stated that they handled problems by calling meetings when needed or by seeing each teacher during the day.
- c. Principals frequently stated that they did not perform many in-service activities because of lack of time.
- d. Lack of knowledge of how to initiate an in-service program was indicated.
- e. Opinions were expressed that the in-service techniques checked were suitable for large schools but not practical in small schools.

#### Recommendations

- A. The principals of this study indicated several areas in which they wished to improve in working with teachers. These expressions for needed and desired help for improvement could well be a starting point for foundations or organizations who wish to sponsor programs to improve instruction through the improvement of administration.

- B. It is recommended that the study of human relations be incorporated in the curriculum for training administrators. Although this may be looked upon as a responsibility of the social psychologist, expertness in human relations is considered the very essence of leadership and should be a part of the principal's training.
- C. For purposes of improving instruction it is recommended that: (1) principals be urged to give more attention in our schools to initiating cooperative formulation of a philosophy which will help the school function more adequately as a democratic institution in a democratic society; (2) teachers, administrators, and all concerned participate in the establishment of aims and objectives in the light of the formulated philosophy; (3) a program for improvement of instruction be cooperatively planned and worked out to better accomplish the aims and objectives that were established; and (4) the results be evaluated by all concerned and used for further improvement.

Problems Suggested for Further Study

1. Amount and effect of participation of teachers in policy making and group planning.
2. Case studies of principals on the job in an endeavor to improve office practices to

release principals from routine duties for performance of those of more primary concern such as improving instruction.

3. The role of the principal as a status leader functioning in a democratic institution.
4. A study to discover in what ways the demands of status leadership and expectancies of community and staff preclude or limit the use of cooperative group planning in our schools.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alexander, William M., "Can We Supervise Through Group Planning?" Educational Leadership, 4(January, 1947)230-34.

American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, The Improvement of Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1946, 283 pp.

Andree, Robert G., "Supervisory Personnel," Part II Supervision in Secondary Schools, National Education Association, Department of Secondary School Principal's Bulletin, Washington, D.C., 34(December, 1950)23.

Antell, Henry, "Teachers Appraise Supervision," Journal of Educational Research, 38(April, 1945)606-11.

Armstrong, W. Earl and Cushman, C.L., "Evaluating the In-Service Program," The National Elementary Principal, (Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association), 21(July, 1942)485-96.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Group Processes in Supervision, Washington, D.C., 1948.

Bail, Paul M., "Do Teachers Receive the Kind of Supervision They Desire?" Journal of Educational Research, 40(May, 1947)713-16.

Barr, A.S., Burton, W.H., and Brueckner, Leo J., Supervision, Appleton Century Crofts, Inc., New York, 1947.

Barr, A.S. and Rudisell, Mabel, "The Inexperienced Teachers Who Fail and Why," Nations Schools, 5(February, 1930)30-4.

Benne, Kenneth D. and Muntyan, Bozidar, Human Relations in Curriculum Change, Dryden Press, New York, 1953.

Benne, K., Bradford, L., and Lippitt, R., "The Promise of Group Dynamics for Education," National Education Association Journal, 37(September, 1948)350-51.

- Benne, K., Bradford, L., and Lippitt, R., "Toward Improved Skill in Group Living - A Discussion," Educational Leadership, 5(February, 1948)286-94.
- Biennial Survey of Education, 1947-1948, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
- Burk, R. Burdette, "A Study of In-Service Education in Selected Public Elementary Schools of Indiana," Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, University of Indiana, 1952.
- Bush, Robert N., "A Human Relations Approach to Instruction," Educational Leadership, 7(December, 1949)153-58.
- Byrnes, A.F., "A Study of Job Satisfactions and Dis-satisfactions of Teachers in Selected Schools of Indiana," 1951, in Abstracts of Theses, 1951-52, New York University, 1951.
- Campbell, Clyde M., Practical Applications of Democratic Administration, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952.
- Canter, Ralph R., Jr., "An Experimental Study of a Human Relations Training Program," Ph.D. Dissertation, Columbus, Ohio, Ohio State University, 1949.
- Chase, F.S., "The Teacher and Policy Making," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1(May, 1952)No. 1.
- Commission on Teacher Education, Teachers for Our Times, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944.
- Commission on Teacher Education, The Improvement of Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., American Council on Education, 1944.
- Cooperation: Principles and Planning, Eleventh Yearbook, Department of Supervisors, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1938.
- Current Problems in Supervision, Third Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1930.

- Dent, Charles H., "Connecticut Teachers Needs For In-Service Education," Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, New York University, 1951.
- Dickey, F.G., "Developing Supervision in Kentucky," Kentucky Bulletin of Bureau of School Service, Volume 20, No. 3, University of Kentucky, March, 1948.
- Douglas, H.R. and Boardman, C.W., "Supervision in Secondary Schools, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934.
- Engelhardt, Fred, Zeigel, W.H., and Billet, R.O., "Administration and Supervision," U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 17, 1932, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph 11.
- \_\_\_\_\_, The Evaluation of Supervision, Fourth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors, National Education Association, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1931.
- Geddis, T.B., "An In-Service Program of Teacher Education," Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, Stanford University, 1952.
- Goslin, W.W., Chairman, Paths to Better Schools, Twenty-third Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1945.
- Hughes, J.M., "A Study of High School Supervision," School Review, 34(1926)112-22, 192-98.
- Jacobson, P.B., Reavis, W.C., and Logsdon, J.D., Duties of School Principals, second edition, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.
- Johnson, E.G., "Class Observation and Professional Growth," Educational Record, 21(1940)140.
- \_\_\_\_\_, Kansas Public School Directory, 1952-1953, State Department of Education, Bulletin, Topeka, Kansas.
- Kvaraceus, W.C., "Mental Health Hazards Facing Teachers," Phi Delta Kappan, 32(April, 1951)349.
- Kyte, George C., How To Supervise, Houghton Mifflin Company, Chicago, Illinois, 1930.

- Lewin, Kurt, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," Human Relations, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1947, pp. 5-41.
- Lewin, Kurt, "Group Decision and Social Change," Readings in Social Psychology, Newcomb, Hartley, and Others, (Eds.), New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947, pp. 330-334.
- Link, H.C., "Definition of Social Effectiveness and Leadership through Measurement," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 4(1944)57-67.
- Lippitt, Ronald, "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Democratic and Authoritarian Group Atmospheres," Studies in Topological and Vector Psychology I, University of Iowa, Studies in Child Welfare, No. 3, 16(1940)43-195.
- Lippitt, R. and Bradford, L., "Building a Democratic Work-Group," Personnel, 22(November, 1945)142-152.
- Lippitt, R. and White, R.K., "An Experimental Study of Leadership and Group Life," Readings in Social Psychology, Newcomb, Hartley, and Others (Eds.), New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947.
- Mathewson, Franklin T., "A Study of the Contributions of Certain Professional Activities to the In-Service Education of Science Teachers in Secondary Schools," (1942), in Abstracts of Theses, October 1941-June 1942, School of Education, New York University, New York, 1942.
- Miel, Alice, Changing the Curriculum, New York, D. Appleton-Century, 1946.
- Misner, Paul J., "In-Service Education Comes of Age," The Journal of Teacher Education, No. 1, 1(March, 1950)32-6.
- National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-Fifth Yearbook, Part II, Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration, 1946.
- National Training Laboratory for Group Development, Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session, Bulletin No. 3, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1948.

National Association of Elementary School Principals,  
In-Service Growth of School Personnel, Twenty-first Yearbook, Vol. 21, No. 6, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1942.

National Education Association, Research Division, "The Principal as Supervisor," Research Bulletin, 7(1929)279-348.

National Association of Secondary School Principals, National Education Association, Department of Secondary School Principals, Bulletin 174, 34(December, 1950).

Needham, John, "The Type of In-Service Program Which Should Be Provided for Oregon Teachers," Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Oregon, 1950.

Pillard, M. J., "Emerging Concepts of Human Relations for School Administrators," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, New York, Columbia University, 1951.

Prall, Charles E. and Cushman, C. Leslie, Teacher Education in Service, prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1944.

Rice, Theodore, "How Can We Administer In-Service Educational Program Through Workshops," Bulletin of the National Association for Secondary School Principals, 33(May, 1949)3-8.

Rorer, John Alexander, Principles of Democratic Supervision, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1942.

Savage, W.W., "My Teachers Are Not Interested," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1(November, 1952) No. 4.

Schmidt, R.L.W., "Supervisory Responsibilities of the Superintendent of Schools in the Elementary Grades of Small, Twelve-Grade Nebraska School Systems," Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1951.

, Scientific Method in Supervisory Programs,  
Seventh Yearbook, Department of Supervisors  
and Directors of Instruction, National Edu-  
cation Association, Washington, D.C., 1934.

, The Superintendent Surveys Supervision,  
Department of Superintendence, Eighth Yearbook,  
National Education Association, Washington, D.C.,  
1930.

, Supervision and the Creative Teacher, Fifth  
Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and  
Directors of Instruction, National Education  
Association, Washington, D.C., 1932.

Symonds, P.M., "How Teachers Solve Personal Problems,"  
Journal of Educational Research, 38(1945)641-52.

Symonds, P.M., "Needs of Teachers as Shown in Auto-  
biographies," Journal of Educational Research,  
36(1943)662-77.

Tate, M.W., "The Induction of Secondary School Teachers,"  
School Review, 51(1943)150-57.

Teachers for Our Times, American Council on Education,  
Washington, D.C., 1944.

Troyer, Maurice E. and Pace, C.R., Evaluation in Teacher  
Education, Washington, D.C., American Council on  
Education, 1944.

Wallace, Morris S., "The Induction of New Teachers in  
School and Community," The North Central Associa-  
tion Quarterly, No. 2, 25(1950)238-251.

Weber, C.A., "Basic Assumptions for Evaluation of  
Techniques Employed in Secondary Schools for  
Educating Teachers in Service," North Central  
Association Quarterly, 17(1942)19-27.

Weber, C.A., "Techniques of In-Service Education Applied  
in North Central Secondary Schools," North  
Central Association Quarterly, 17(1942)195-198.

Weber, C.A., "Reactions of Teachers to In-Service Edu-  
cation in Their Schools," School Review, 51(1943)  
234-40.

Weber, C.A., "Obstacles to Be Overcome in a Program of Educating Teachers in Service," Educational Administration and Supervision, 28(November, 1942)609-14.

Whitney, Frederick L., "Trends in Methods of Teacher Improvement," American School Board Journal, 93(December, 1936)18-19.

Wiles, K., Supervision for Better Schools, Prentice Hall, Incorporated, New York, 1950.

**APPENDIX A**

**Approach Card, Checksheet and  
Accompanying Letter**

**February 2, 1953  
1908 Vermont  
Lawrence, Kansas**

**Dear Sir:**

You have been selected as a secondary school principal who might be willing to take 30 to 40 minutes of your time filling in a check sheet about your work with your teachers. This information would help a great deal in a study which I am doing. Please check the proper space on the attached card, sign it, and return it as soon as possible. Thank you.

**Sincerely,**

**Doyle Koontz**

1908 Vermont  
Lawrence, Kansas

Dear

Thank you for returning the card indicating your willingness to participate in my study of techniques high school principals use in working with teachers.

This study is to fulfill a requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Education at the University of Kansas. My work is under the direction of my advisory committee with Dr. J. W. Twente as chairman.

You may be assured that all information will be treated impersonally, no reference to school or individual will be made. Your promptness in filling out the check sheet and returning it will be appreciated.

A summary of the results of this study will be furnished if you indicate your wish for one at the end of the check sheet.

Thank you in advance for all help you may give to make this study a success.

Sincerely yours,

Doyle Koontz

## A Check Sheet for Secondary School Principals (to be returned to Doyle Koontz, 1908 Vermont, Lawrence, Kansas)

### PART I

Directions: Complete the items by filling in the proper spaces with your answers.

1. Check school organization employed in. (8-4) 198, (6-6) 27, (6-3-3) 9.  
6-4-4 1
2. Number pupils enrolled in high school 2ndr. 973.
3. Number teachers under your supervision 2ndr. 8.  
Number new to system 2.2, number inexperienced 2ndr. 6.7.
4. How many classes per day do you teach? 2ndr. 2.
5. Check each degree held: Bachelor's 4, Master's 23, Doctor's 1.
6. What is your undergraduate major? \_\_\_\_\_  
Graduate major? \_\_\_\_\_ Graduate minor? \_\_\_\_\_
7. How many years experience have you had: as a teacher? \_\_\_\_\_  
as an administrator? 2ndr. 11.8, in your present position? 2ndr. 3.4.
8. For how many months are you employed during the year? \_\_\_\_\_
9. Within the past four years, in how many workshops or courses have you enrolled pertaining to: Supervision of instruction? 145, Measurement and Evaluation? 73, Psychology of Learning? 57, Curriculum? 143. None of above 65.
10. What per cent of your time do you spend performing duties in supervision of instruction and working with teachers in in-service training? 2ndr. 10.27%. What percent of your time do you think you should spend if it were possible to arrange? 2ndr. 35.9%.
11. In what way would you like to improve yourself most in supervising and working with teachers? (Please state briefly to include perplexing problems.)

*N=235*

## PART II

**Directions:** Following is a list of techniques and responsibilities often assumed by principals in an effort to improve the instructional ability of teachers.

In the column to the left of the statements you are to circle the proper letter indicating whether you consider the technique a good, fair, or poor one in working with teachers.

In the column to the right of the statements please check the space which best represents the frequency with which you have used the technique within the last two or three years.

Please treat the columns independently, i.e., you do not have to use a technique frequently to consider it good, also after having used it, you may consider a technique not a good one.

Evaluation of technique	Statement	Frequency of use				
		Good	Fair	Poor	Frequently	Occasionally
1.9 G F P	1. Holding pre-school institutes or conferences with new teachers for induction and adjustment into the school program.	X				1.6
1.3 G (F) P	2. Having staff members prepare handbooks, and plans for the orientation of new teachers.		X		.5	
.8 G (F) P	3. Having teachers set criteria for, and aid in the selection of, teachers.		X		.1	
	4. Visiting teachers in the classroom:					
1.7 (G) F P	a. at the teacher's request.		X			1.2
1.1 G (F) P	b. without previous appointment.		X			1.1
1.3 G (F) P	c. by administrative appointment.		X			1.0
1.9 (G) F P	5. Holding conferences with individual teachers following a classroom visit by the principal.		X			1.1
.9 G (F) P	6. Preparing written reports or comments to be given to the teacher following a classroom visit by the principal.		X			.4
1.8 (G) F P	7. Planning faculty meetings to be held periodically during the school year.		X			1.7
1.2 G (F) P	8. Acting as chairman of faculty meetings.		X			1.5
1.8 (G) F P	9. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use by the staff in planning faculty meetings.		X			1.1
1.9 (G) F P	10. Studying, with teachers, methods for improvement of the overall educational program.		X			1.2
1.7 (G) F P	11. Appointing, or having the faculty appoint, teacher committees to study school problems.		X			.9
1.4 G (F) P	12. Having pupils and parents work with teachers in committees to study school problems.		X			.5

Evaluation of technique	Statement	Frequency of use		
		Frequently	Occasionally	None
Good				
Fair				
Poor				
1.1 <del>Q</del> (E) P	13. Re-arranging school schedule so that school time may be had for teacher meetings.	X		.6
1.4 <del>Q</del> (F) P	14. Planning with teachers who are to observe, or to do, a demonstration lesson.			.5+
1.6 (G) F P	15. Holding follow-up conferences with the observing teachers of the demonstration lesson.			.5-
(G) F P	16. Planning with teachers for visits: a. to teachers in the same school system. b. to teachers in other school systems. c. in the homes of the community.			
1.7 (Q) F P	b. to teachers in other school systems.	X		.6
1.7 (G) F P	c. in the homes of the community.	X		.8
1.8 (Q) F P	17. Holding follow-up conferences after above visits.	X		.7
1.6 (G) F P	18. Arranging for teachers to visit other schools as a representative of a faculty committee.	X		.4
1.2 G F (P)	19. Giving special recognition, such as, news items, salary increases, or bonuses, for publication of articles of research and study of problems within the school.	X		.6
1.7 (G) F P	20. Working with teachers in doing experimental projects.	X		.7
1.3 G (P) P	21. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out programs of cooperative research in summer school.	X		.2
1.6 (G) F P	22. Arranging for conferences between psychologist or guidance specialist and individual teachers to discuss problem cases.	X		.4
1.6 (G) F P	23. Encouraging teacher growth by devising ways of giving recognition to those with outstanding achievement.			.9
1.5 (G) F P	24. Preparing bulletins, of supervisory nature, for teacher use.	X		1.0
1.7 (G) F P	25. Editing policy handbooks to aid teacher adjustment to the school.	X		.9
1.2 G (P) P	26. Having teachers cooperatively work out a written philosophy of education.	X		.7
1.6 (G) F P	27. Working with teachers in preparation of a guidance bulletin for use of pupils, teachers, and parents.	X		.5+
1.2 G (P) P	28. Helping teachers establish and use a professional staff library.	X		.8
1.9 (G) F P	29. Helping teachers utilize the school library in connection with classwork.	X		1.3
1.9 (G) F P	30. Recommending and securing audio-visual aids for classroom use.	X		1.7

Evaluation of technique	Statement	Frequency of use		
		Frequently	Occasionally	None
		G	F	P
1.8 G F P	31. Helping teachers select and use instructional materials and equipment.	X		.5
1.6 G F P	32. Providing clerical help to teachers to aid in preparation of instructional materials.	X		.8
1.5 G F P	33. Helping teachers work with and in community agencies, such as, County Agent, City Departments, Civic and Service Clubs, and 4-H.	X		.0
1.5 G F P	34. Helping teachers make surveys of the community served by the school.	X		.5+
1.7 G F P	35. Following up and surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development.	X		.8
1.3 G F P	36. Helping teachers develop lesson plans or units of work.	X		.8
1.7 G F P	37. Helping teachers survey and study problems faced by adolescents.	X		1.0
1.6 G F P	38. Helping teachers make case studies of children.	X		.7
1.8 G F P	39. Holding conferences with and advising individual teachers in classroom discipline and mechanics.	X		.5
1.8 G F P	40. Working with teachers to help them improve as sponsors of activities.	X		.4
1.8 G F P	41. Arranging transportation for and encouraging attendance at professional meetings and conventions.	X		.5
1.2 G F P	42. Assigning teachers to attend discussions of certain topics at conventions.	X		.8
1.4 G F P	43. Holding faculty meetings to hear follow-up reports from teachers attending professional meetings.	X		.0
1.6 G F P	44. Planning with teachers for conferences with parents.	X		.9
1.5 G F P	45. Making studies of interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff.	X		.8
1.4 G F P	46. Developing and maintaining cumulative records of the professional growth of teachers.	X		.5+
1.7 G F P	47. Encouraging teachers to serve on professional committees outside their own school system.	X		.2
1.7 G F P	48. Maintaining regularly scheduled office hours for teachers who, of their own initiative, seek help.	X		.2
1.5 G F P	49. Planning, and working with teachers in post-school, pre-school, or summer workshops.	X		.7

Evaluation of technique	Statement	Frequency of use		
		Frequently	Occasionally	None
good	1.6 G F P 50. Arranging for and using university and college consultants and inspirational speakers in faculty workshops.	X		.6
fair	1.4 G E P 51. Holding individual conferences to encourage and advise teachers in selection of extension or summer course work.	X		.8
poor	1.5 G F P 52. Recommending and arranging for leaves of absence, with or without pay, for further training.	X		.2
	1.5 G F P 53. Arranging for faculty members to participate in teacher-exchange programs.	X		.1
	1.4 G D P 54. Helping and advising teachers in the construction of teacher-made tests of subject matter.	X		.8
	1.6 G F P 55. Helping teachers evaluate their instructional equipment and materials.	X		.1
	1.6 G F P 56. Helping teachers to study testing procedures of guidance programs and to administer special tests.	X		1.0
	1.7 G F P 57. Following up with teachers results of testing programs.	X		1.2
	1.5 G F P 58. Encouraging and helping teachers evaluate their own traits and activities. (Self-inventory)	X		.7

\*\* Please list other techniques you have used.

A numerical mean was computed for each technique, Part II, based on the number and kind of checkmarks it received.

good	2 points	frequently	2 points
fair	1 point	occasionally	1 point
poor	no points	none	no points

Techniques classified as follows:  
under .5 lowest rating  
.5 to 1.5 middle rating  
over 1.5 highest rating

### PART III

**Directions:** The following items are to be completed by selecting one of the three sub-items and indicating your choice with a check mark in the appropriate parentheses. The item choices are not assumed to be right or wrong in any sense; just check the one with which you most nearly agree. The items are intended to apply to general practice, rather than to exceptional instances.

1. It is important that the principal, as official leader, in group planning encourage a program organized so that  
**27.6** **62** ( ) a. responsibility of each teacher is to the principal.  
**48.8** **121** ( ) b. responsibility of each teacher is to the faculty group.  
**18.7** **42** ( ) c. responsibility of each teacher is to himself.
2. Do you think that a principal should encourage teachers to  
**31.3** **72** ( ) a. teach in the way they wish as long as their pupils can measure up to accepted standards?  
**41.3** **95** ( ) b. experiment with new methods even at the risk of some lack of order and the making of mistakes?  
**27.4** **63** ( ) c. accept and adhere to the best methods of teaching as developed by supervisors and authorities?
3. The best approach a new principal can use in his initial relationship with his faculty is to  
**71.4** **165** ( ) a. show willingness to learn from, cooperate with, and seek the help of the faculty in forming plans for a school year.  
**20.3** **47** ( ) b. win the confidence of the teaching staff by displaying evidence of strong leadership and a plan of action for the school year.  
**8.2** **19** ( ) c. let teachers carry on as usual until he becomes acquainted, then work things out as need arises.
4. In coming to a faculty decision concerning school matters in which the faculty has jurisdiction, the principal as official leader, should  
**65.0** **150** ( ) a. present his ideas to the group as one of the group and abide by the group decision.  
**32.0** **74** ( ) b. retain veto power over the decision should he consider it a bad one.  
**3.0** **7** ( ) c. withhold his opinion, remain neutral, and accept the decision.
5. In regard to the City Teachers Association the principal, as an official leader, should  
**4.4** **10** ( ) a. not hold membership, but be officially informed of actions taken by the C. T. A.  
**66.6** **150** ( ) b. be a full participating member except for privilege of holding office or chairmanship.  
**28.9** **65** ( ) c. be a member with eligibility to hold office or in many cases act as ex-officio chairman.
6. The principal should use his experience and position of leadership to  
**77.3** **177** ( ) a. start with the concerns of the group and deepen the teachers insight toward needed programs, encourage group thinking and action.  
**19.2** **44** ( ) b. establish goals for the faculty to attain, and direct and encourage the group in such a way that the goals will emerge.  
**35** **8** ( ) c. aid the teachers upon request after they feel and see the need for a new program.

7. The principal should be the type leader who
- 51.3 118 (C) a. allows leadership to emerge naturally from the group, some are fitted to be leaders, others are not.
- 41.7 96 (F) b. acts as a catalyst which releases the potential leadership and ideas of each teacher as he works with them.
- 7.0 16 (C) c. can build unity around himself by skillfully influencing his staff to accept his ideas.
8. In helping teachers improve materials or in helping them with class procedures the principal should
- 17.2 40 (L) a. give help as soon as he feels the teacher is in need.
- 19.3 185 (L) b. conduct himself in such a way that teacher will call upon him for assistance as a resource person in solving problems.
- 3.4 8 (C) c. provide materials and literature and let the teachers employ them as they wish.
9. Once the plans for a school year have been made and duties assigned, the principal should
64. 146 (L) a. share responsibility by planning with a teacher possible ways of carrying out a given task.
- 32.4 74 (C) b. delegate full responsibility to a teacher but stand ready to regain control of the situation, if and when he sees the teacher making a mistake.
- 3.5 8 (C) c. rest full responsibility with the teacher for success or failure in the execution of assignments.
10. The principal in preplanning a meeting with the faculty to talk over a problem should
- 9.5 22 (C) a. plan ways to influence the group toward accepting a desired solution to the problem.
- 86.6 201 (L) b. be prepared to suggest various processes and ways by which the group can attack the problem.
- 3.9 9 (C) c. call attention to the problem, along with other business, and let the teachers attack or ignore the problems as they are inclined.
11. A good administrative program is one which
- 5.8 13 (C) a. administers school business and other mechanical tasks while letting the faculty take the responsibility for classroom instruction.
- 12.7 163 (L) b. shares authority to attain improved human relations and to develop the faculty as individuals in the group.
- 21.4 48 (C) c. centralizes authority in order to give ample organization to expedite and increase instructional efficiency of the staff as a whole.
12. Which of these working relationships would you consider preferable for a principal to have with the faculty?
- 62.5 122 (L) a. Identify himself a good deal with the teachers in a teacher-to-teacher relationship.
- 27.7 54 (C) b. Avoid familiarity with the faculty, but show willingness to place into execution wishes of the group.
- 9.1 19 (C) c. Dignify his position of leadership by maintaining some distinction of authority over the faculty.

13. Which of the following do you believe teachers should do in regard to major controversial issues?
- 78.8 179 (%) a. Present to the class in an impartial manner all viewpoints.  
1.3 3 (%) b. Avoid teaching topics which are controversial.  
19.8 45 (%) c. Teach with an effort to present the right view of the issue.
14. Once a principal has decided in favor of a certain routine action he should
- 19.8 44 (%) a. put it into effect although faculty opinion is divided concerning it.  
.9 2 (%) b. drop the idea if he sees that faculty opinion is divided concerning it.  
79.2 176 (%) c. seek faculty approval as a basis for putting it into effect.
15. Which do you believe a principal should do?
- 6.2 44 (%) a. Allow the educational philosophy of each teacher to prevail in his classroom.  
85.8 2 (%) b. Work cooperatively with the faculty in writing out a working philosophy of education.  
8.0 176 (%) c. Work to bring the school into conformity with the philosophy of education which he has formulated.

END

I wish to thank you again for taking your valuable time in my behalf by answering this questionnaire. Your prompt return of it will be greatly appreciated. It is hoped a privilege will be had to return you a favor.

Doyle Koontz

Comments:

KEM: Part III

Blue ink numbers denote number  
principals choosing that part.  
Green ink numbers denote percentage  
of principals choosing that part.

Classification of item sub-parts:

= principal dominated, autocratic  
= cooperative, democratic, peer  
relationship  
= non-leaderless, laissez faire

(Optional) \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_  
Signature \_\_\_\_\_ School \_\_\_\_\_

**APPENDIX B**

**A Tally of the opinion of Fifteen Judges  
Concerning the Category of the Items on  
Part III of the Checksheet**

A TALLY OF THE OPINION OF FIFTEEN JUDGES  
CONCERNING THE CATEGORY OF THE ITEMS ON  
PART III OF THE CHECKSHEET

Key to Columns: A - Dominating, Autocratic  
 B - Cooperative, Democratic  
 C - Laissez faire, Non-leaderliness

Item	A	B	C	Item	A	B	C
1. a.	15	0	0	9. a.	1	14	0
b.	0	14	1	b.	13	1	1
c.	1	0	14	c.	1	0	14
2. a.	2	6	7	10. a.	15	0	0
b.	1	12	2	b.	2	13	0
c.	11	3	1	c.	0	1	14
3. a.	0	15	0	11. a.	0	1	14
b.	13	2	0	b.	0	13	2
c.	1	4	10	c.	13	2	0
4. a.	0	15	0	12. a.	0	13	2
b.	15	0	0	b.	1	1	13
c.	0	5	10	c.	14	1	0
5. a.	0	2	13	13. a.	0	12	3
b.	1	8	6	b.	0	0	15
c.	9	6	0	c.	12	2	1
6. a.	2	13	0	14. a.	14	1	0
b.	14	1	0	b.	2	0	13
c.	0	7	8	c.	6	8	1
7. a.	0	6	9	15. a.	0	2	13
b.	1	14	0	b.	0	15	0
c.	15	0	0	c.	15	0	0
8. a.	10	4	1				
b.	2	12	1				
c.	0	3	12				

APPENDIX C

Compilation of Numerical Data  
Obtained From Principals' Markings  
of the Checksheet

Data for Part II of the Checksheet on Frequency of Use  
of the Techniques by the 235 Principals in the Study

Key: F - frequently                            N - none  
O - occasionally                              T - total  
ScV - mean value computed for scale

Item Number	F	O	N	T	ScV	F%	O%	N%
1	168	48	17	233	1.6	72.1	20.6	7.3
2	33	48	150	231	.49	14.3	20.8	64.9
3	2	25	197	224	.13	3.1	11.1	87.9
4a	71	132	19	222	1.2	32.0	59.4	8.5
4b	64	113	49	226	1.1	28.3	50.0	21.8
4c	38	128	46	212	.96	17.9	60.4	21.7
5	30	193	11	234	1.1	12.8	82.5	4.7
6	14	62	157	233	.39	6.0	26.6	67.4
7	164	63	7	234	1.7	70.1	26.9	3.0
8	146	65	23	234	1.5	62.4	27.8	9.8
9	58	130	46	234	1.1	24.8	55.6	19.6
10	81	130	23	234	1.2	34.6	55.6	9.8
11	47	120	68	235	.91	20.0	51.1	28.9
12	17	73	144	234	.46	7.3	31.2	61.5
13	29	82	122	233	.6	12.4	35.2	52.4
14	12	84	132	228	.47	5.3	36.8	57.9
15	18	71	135	224	.48	8.0	31.7	60.3
16b	18	95	115	228	.57	7.9	41.7	50.4
16c	30	112	82	234	.77	13.4	50.0	36.6
17	34	99	94	227	.74	15.0	43.6	41.4
18	12	59	160	231	.36	5.2	25.5	69.3
19	34	68	129	231	.59	14.7	29.4	55.8
20	15	133	83	231	.71	6.5	57.6	35.9
21	12	26	194	232	.22	5.2	11.2	8.4
22	12	64	149	225	.39	5.3	28.4	6.6
23	40	117	74	231	.85	17.3	50.6	32.0
24	58	110	64	232	.97	25.0	47.4	27.6
25	74	72	87	233	.94	31.8	30.9	37.3
26	36	79	117	232	.65	15.5	34.0	50.4
27	24	73	135	232	.52	10.3	31.5	58.2
28	37	110	84	231	.80	16.0	47.6	36.4
29	97	120	16	233	1.3	41.6	51.5	6.9
30	169	60	5	234	1.7	72.2	25.6	2.1
31	115	110	7	232	1.5	49.6	47.4	3.0
32	46	103	82	231	1.8	19.9	44.6	35.5
33	59	125	47	231	1.0	25.5	54.1	20.3
34	16	93	122	231	.54	6.9	40.2	52.8

Item Number	F	O	N	T	ScV	F%	O%	N%
35	32	129	71	232	.83	13.8	55.6	30.6
36	36	115	79	230	.81	15.6	50.0	34.3
37	58	119	53	230	1.0	25.2	51.7	23.0
38	26	115	88	229	.73	11.4	50.2	38.4
39	125	102	6	233	1.5	53.6	43.8	2.6
40	99	121	12	232	1.4	42.7	52.2	5.2
41	134	80	19	233	1.5	57.5	34.3	8.2
42	55	87	91	233	.84	23.6	37.3	39.1
43	59	112	62	233	.99	25.3	48.1	26.6
44	33	136	63	232	.87	14.2	58.6	27.2
45	43	98	85	226	.81	19.0	43.4	37.6
46	31	58	139	228	.53	13.6	25.4	61.0
47	85	109	37	231	1.2	36.8	47.2	16.0
48	96	79	52	227	1.2	42.3	34.8	22.9
49	33	85	108	226	.67	14.6	37.6	4.8
50	20	103	105	228	.63	8.8	45.2	46.0
51	27	129	72	228	.8	11.8	56.6	31.6
52	10	30	182	222	.22	4.5	13.5	82.0
53	9	14	200	223	.14	4.0	6.3	89.7
54	31	112	89	232	.75	13.4	48.3	38.4
55	52	142	34	228	1.1	22.8	62.3	14.9
56	44	151	34	229	1.0	19.2	65.9	14.8
57	62	140	27	229	1.2	27.1	61.1	11.8
58	23	122	83	228	.74	10.1	53.5	36.4

**Data for Part II of the Checksheet on Evaluation of  
the Techniques by the 235 Principals in the Study**

**Key:** G - good

P - poor

F - fair

T - total

ScV - mean value computed for scale

Item Number	G	F	P	T	ScV	G%	F%	P%
1	210	16	4	230	1.9	91.3	7.0	1.7
2	98	102	24	224	1.3	43.7	45.6	10.7
3	35	99	89	223	.75	15.7	44.4	39.9
4a	157	55	10	222	1.7	70.7	24.8	4.5
4b	83	76	64	223	1.1	37.2	34.1	28.7
4c	106	76	33	215	1.3	49.3	35.3	15.3
5	199	26	3	228	1.9	87.3	11.4	1.3
6	62	93	74	229	.9	27.1	40.6	32.3
7	193	29	7	229	1.8	84.3	12.7	3.1
8	88	111	31	230	1.2	38.3	48.2	13.5
9	186	41	3	230	1.8	80.9	17.8	1.3
10	206	24	0	230	1.9	89.0	10.4	0
11	161	63	5	229	1.7	70.3	27.5	2.2
12	125	75	27	227	1.4	55.1	33.0	11.9
13	91	79	59	229	1.1	39.7	34.5	25.8
14	114	89	17	220	1.4	51.8	40.5	7.7
15	140	68	14	222	1.6	63.1	30.6	6.3
16b	170	43	6	219	1.7	77.6	19.6	2.7
16c	168	57	4	229	1.7	73.4	24.9	1.7
17	180	39	5	224	1.8	80.4	17.4	2.2
18	135	79	9	223	1.6	60.5	35.4	4.0
19	137	71	18	226	.15	60.6	31.4	8.0
20	156	67	6	229	1.7	68.1	29.2	2.6
21	97	100	24	221	1.3	43.9	45.2	10.9
22	145	63	10	218	1.6	66.5	28.9	4.6
23	148	76	5	229	1.6	64.6	33.2	2.2
24	138	77	13	228	1.5	60.5	33.8	5.7
25	170	48	7	225	1.7	75.6	21.3	3.1
26	159	62	6	227	1.2	70.0	27.3	2.6
27	142	72	9	223	1.6	63.7	32.3	4.0
28	157	69	3	229	1.2	68.6	30.1	1.3
29	201	27	2	230	1.9	87.4	11.7	.9
30	209	19	2	230	1.9	90.9	12.6	.9
31	180	47	2	229	1.8	78.6	20.5	.9
32	154	66	8	228	1.6	67.5	28.9	3.5
33	135	76	17	228	1.5	59.2	33.3	7.5
34	125	91	11	227	1.5	55.1	40.1	4.8

<u>Item Number</u>	G	F	P	T	ScV	G%	F%	P%
35	171	54	4	229	1.7	74.7	23.6	1.7
36	102	101	24	227	1.3	44.9	44.5	10.6
37	154	71	3	228	1.7	67.5	31.1	1.3
38	144	72	11	227	1.6	63.4	31.7	4.8
39	184	43	2	229	1.8	80.3	18.8	.9
40	183	44	1	228	1.8	80.3	19.3	.4
41	182	44	3	229	1.8	79.5	19.2	1.3
42	86	92	50	228	1.2	37.7	40.4	21.9
43	115	94	20	229	1.4	50.2	41.0	8.7
44	137	81	11	229	1.6	59.8	35.4	4.8
45	129	80	15	224	1.5	57.6	35.7	6.7
46	116	87	19	222	1.4	52.2	39.2	8.6
47	173	50	5	228	1.7	75.9	21.9	2.2
48	165	49	12	226	1.7	73.0	21.7	5.3
49	130	81	12	223	1.5	58.3	36.3	5.4
50	141	70	14	225	1.6	62.7	31.1	6.2
51	106	101	17	224	1.4	47.3	45.1	7.6
52	126	77	15	218	1.5	57.8	35.3	6.9
53	124	73	19	216	1.5	57.4	33.8	8.8
54	114	89	25	228	1.4	50.0	39.0	11.0
55	148	68	10	226	1.6	65.5	30.1	4.4
56	152	72	4	228	1.6	66.7	31.6	1.7
57	166	60	1	227	1.7	73.1	26.4	.4
58	135	76	13	224	1.5	60.3	33.9	5.8

Data for Part II of the Checksheet on Frequency of  
 Use of the Techniques by 31 Principals Grouped as  
 Autocratic-Laissez Faire

Key: F - frequently                    N - none  
 O - occasionally                      T - total  
 ScV - mean value computed for scale

Item Number	F	O	N	T	ScV
1	23	3	4	30	1.63
2	5	5	20	30	.5
3	1	4	25	30	.2
4a	9	15	4	28	1.2
4b	13	11	5	29	1.3
4c	9	11	8	28	1.04
5	13	16	2	31	1.4
6	3	9	19	31	.48
7	20	9	2	31	1.6
8	21	8	2	31	1.6
9	10	18	3	31	1.2
10	11	15	5	31	1.2
11	9	10	12	31	.90
12	4	5	22	31	.42
13	6	6	18	30	.6
14	1	7	20	28	.32
15	1	4	23	28	.21
16b	1	8	19	28	.36
16c	10	11	9	30	1.03
17	6	10	14	31	.71
18	1	8	22	31	.32
19	4	4	22	30	.4
20	6	9	15	30	.7
21	1	2	28	31	.13
22	4	8	17	29	.55
23	6	11	14	31	.74
24	9	15	7	31	1.1
25	14	7	10	31	1.1
26	7	8	16	31	.71
27	4	8	19	31	.52
28	2	14	15	31	.58
29	15	13	3	31	1.4
30	24	7	0	31	1.8
31	18	11	1	30	1.6
32	8	10	13	31	.84
33	10	12	8	30	1.1

Item Number	F	O	N	T	ScV
34	4	10	16	30	.6
35	6	11	13	30	.77
36	5	16	9	30	.87
37	11	11	8	30	1.1
38	6	10	14	30	.73
39	20	9	1	30	1.6
40	17	12	1	30	1.5
41	19	9	2	30	1.6
42	7	7	16	30	.7
43	12	9	9	30	1.1
44	3	17	10	29	.77
45	6	10	13	30	.76
46	5	14	21	30	.47
47	9	16	5	30	1.1
48	10	6	12	28	.93
49	4	13	11	28	.75
50	3	8	18	29	.48
51	3	17	9	29	.79
52	3	2	21	28	.43
53	5	3	24	31	.18
54	1	15	10	30	.87
55	6	16	5	30	1.1
56	9	21	5	30	.97
57	4	20	2	30	1.2
58	8	18	9	30	.8

Data for Part II of the Checksheet on Evaluation of the  
 Techniques by 31 Principals Grouped as Autocratic-  
 Laissez-Faire

Key: G - good P - poor  
 F - fair T - total  
 ScV - mean value computed for scale

Item Number	G	F	P	T	ScV
1	26	3	2	31	1.8
2	12	11	7	30	1.2
3	2	10	19	31	.45
4a	17	10	1	28	1.6
4b	15	8	6	29	1.3
4c	17	4	7	28	1.4
5	24	6	0	30	1.8
6	8	11	11	30	.9
7	22	6	2	30	1.7
8	17	11	3	31	1.4
9	23	8	0	31	1.7
10	25	6	0	31	1.8
11	16	13	2	31	1.4
12	10	10	11	31	.97
13	6	13	12	31	.81
14	9	12	5	26	1.2
15	13	10	5	28	1.3
16b	15	11	5	28	1.5
16c	18	12	2	31	1.5
17	22	7	1	30	1.7
18	14	13	1	29	1.4
19	13	13	2	31	1.2
20	18	9	5	30	1.3
21	9	12	3	27	1.1
22	16	6	4	26	1.5
23	20	8	2	30	1.6
24	17	10	3	30	1.5
25	22	5	2	29	1.7
26	16	10	2	28	1.5
27	15	12	2	29	1.4
28	15	13	3	31	1.4
29	27	3	1	31	1.8
30	26	5	1	31	1.8
31	23	6	1	30	1.7
32	16	11	2	29	1.5
33	13	9	8	30	1.2

Item Number	G	F	P	T	ScV
34	17	7	6	30	1.4
35	22	6	2	30	1.7
36	12	15	3	30	1.3
37	20	9	0	29	1.7
38	14	13	2	29	1.4
39	24	5	1	30	1.8
40	23	7	0	30	1.8
41	24	5	1	30	1.8
42	11	10	8	29	1.1
43	15	9	6	30	1.3
44	12	13	5	30	1.2
45	11	17	1	29	1.3
46	12	13	4	29	1.3
47	19	9	2	30	1.6
48	18	5	4	27	1.5
49	13	13	2	28	1.4
50	17	8	4	29	1.4
51	11	16	2	29	1.3
52	13	9	3	25	1.4
53	8	14	3	25	1.2
54	12	12	7	31	1.2
55	18	8	4	30	1.5
56	19	10	1	30	1.6
57	20	9	1	30	1.6
58	15	10	4	29	1.4

**Data for Part II of the Checksheet on Frequency of Use  
of the Techniques by 204 Principals Grouped as  
Democratic-Cooperative**

**Key:** F--frequently                                    N--none  
O--occasionally                                        T--total  
ScV--mean value computed for scale

Item Number	F	O	N	T	ScV
1	145	45	13	203	1.6
2	28	43	130	201	.49
3	1	21	172	194	.12
4a	62	117	15	194	1.2
4b	51	102	44	197	1.0
4c	29	117	38	184	.95
5	27	177	9	203	1.1
6	11	53	138	202	.37
7	144	54	5	203	1.7
8	125	57	5	203	1.7
9	48	115	43	203	1.0
10	70	119	18	203	1.3
11	38	110	56	204	.91
12	13	68	122	203	.46
13	23	76	104	203	.60
14	11	77	112	200	.50
15	17	67	112	196	.52
16b	17	87	96	200	.60
16c	20	101	73	194	.73
17	28	89	80	196	.74
18	11	51	138	200	.36
19	30	64	107	201	.62
20	9	124	68	201	.71
21	11	24	166	201	.23
22	8	56	132	194	.37
23	34	106	60	200	.87
24	49	95	57	201	.96
25	60	65	77	202	.92
26	29	71	101	201	.64
27	20	65	116	201	.52
28	35	96	69	200	.83
29	82	107	13	202	1.3
30	145	53	5	203	1.7
31	97	99	6	202	1.4
32	38	92	79	200	.84
33	49	113	39	201	1.0

Item Number	F	O	N	T	ScV
34	12	83	106	201	.53
35	26	118	58	202	.84
36	31	99	70	200	.80
37	47	108	45	200	1.0
38	20	105	74	199	.73
39	105	93	5	203	1.0
40	82	109	11	202	1.4
41	115	71	17	203	.99
42	48	80	75	203	.87
43	47	103	53	203	.97
44	30	119	53	202	.89
45	37	88	72	197	.84
46	6	54	118	198	.33
47	76	93	32	201	1.2
48	86	73	40	197	1.2
49	29	72	97	198	.66
50	17	95	87	199	.65
51	24	112	63	199	.80
52	5	28	161	194	.20
53	8	11	176	195	.14
54	25	97	79	201	.73
55	43	126	29	198	1.1
56	40	130	29	199	1.1
57	54	120	25	199	1.1
58	20	104	74	198	.73

Data for Part II of the Checksheet on Evaluation of  
the Techniques by 204 Principals Grouped as  
Democratic-Cooperative

Key: G - good

P - poor

F - fair

T - total

ScV - mean value computed for scale

Item Number	G	F	P	T	ScV
1	184	13	2	199	1.9
2	86	91	17	194	1.4
3	33	89	70	192	.81
4a	140	45	9	194	1.7
4b	68	68	58	194	1.05
4c	89	72	26	187	1.3
5	175	20	3	198	1.9
6	54	82	63	199	.95
7	171	23	5	199	1.8
8	71	100	28	199	1.2
9	163	33	3	199	1.8
10	181	18	0	199	1.9
11	145	50	3	198	1.7
12	115	65	16	196	1.5
13	85	66	47	198	1.2
14	105	77	12	194	1.5
15	127	58	9	194	1.6
16b	155	32	4	191	1.3
16c	150	45	3	198	1.7
17	158	32	4	194	1.8
18	121	66	7	194	1.6
19	124	58	13	195	1.6
20	138	58	3	199	1.7
21	88	88	18	194	1.4
22	129	57	6	192	1.6
23	128	68	3	199	1.6
24	121	67	10	198	1.6
25	148	43	5	196	1.7
26	143	52	4	199	1.7
27	127	60	7	194	1.6
28	142	56	0	198	1.7
29	174	24	1	199	1.9
30	183	14	2	199	1.9
31	157	41	1	199	1.8
32	138	55	6	199	1.7
33	122	67	9	198	1.6

Item Number	G	F	P	T	SeV
34	108	84	5	197	1.5
35	149	48	2	199	1.7
36	90	86	21	197	1.4
37	134	62	24	199	1.7
38	130	59	9	198	1.6
39	160	38	1	199	1.8
40	160	37	1	198	1.8
41	158	39	2	199	1.8
42	75	82	42	199	1.2
43	100	85	14	199	1.4
44	125	68	6	199	1.6
45	118	63	14	195	1.5
46	104	74	15	193	1.5
47	154	41	3	198	1.8
48	147	44	8	199	1.7
49	117	68	10	195	1.5
50	124	62	10	196	1.6
51	95	85	15	195	1.4
52	113	68	12	193	1.5
53	116	59	16	191	1.5
54	102	77	18	197	1.4
55	130	60	6	196	1.6
56	133	62	3	198	1.7
57	146	51	0	197	1.7
58	120	66	9	195	1.6

## ABSTRACT

TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION  
ASSUMED BY KANSAS SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

This study investigated the techniques and responsibilities assumed by principals in the secondary schools of Kansas for improvement of instruction through the improvement of teachers in service. The study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What are some professional qualifications that principals have for the role of supervisor?
2. What is the nature of the average position in which the principals are employed?
3. What are the responsibilities assumed and techniques employed by the principals for improving instruction?
4. In what way would the principals like to improve themselves in supervising and working with teachers?
5. What are some attitudes held by the principals toward staff relationships and the school program?

Procedure. Data for the study were obtained through a questionnaire in the form of a check sheet. The check sheet comprised three parts. Part I was to obtain personal and professional information about the principals and the schools in which they work. Part II contained a list of 58 in-service education techniques which principals were to evaluate and give frequency of use. Part III contained 15 multiple choice items concerning principal-faculty relationships. The principals were to make one choice. Two hundred thirty-five usable check sheets were obtained from 460 principals invited to participate. Data were obtained from the State Department of Public Instruction for the non-participating principals. From this data it was found that the sample on which the data of the study are based is representative of the total invited group.

Limitations. The study based its findings on responses by principals in Kansas high schools of second and third class cities, rural high schools, and county or

community high schools. Principals were selected to participate if they had two qualifications: (1) a minimum high-school faculty of four full-time teachers in addition to the principal, and (2) the principal must not be carrying a teaching load of more than three class periods per day.

Major findings. The following summary of the major findings of the study is based on responses received from the cooperating principals.

1. In addition to holding the required master's degree, the majority of co-operating principals had attended regular school or summer school within the last four years.
2. The average number years administrative experience for the principal is 11.8 years and the average tenure in his present position is 3.4 years.
3. The average school has ninety-seven pupils, eight teachers, and two of the teachers are new. Only seven percent of the schools did not have a new teacher.
4. Fifty-five percent of the schools have at least one beginning teacher on the faculty.
5. The average principal teaches two classes during the school day and spends ten percent of his time on supervision of instruction. He believes that he should spend a third of his time in this way.
6. Principals reported using a large variety of techniques. No criteria for selection of techniques used by the principals were apparent.
7. The amount of time spent by principals in supervision decreased as the number of classes taught increased, with the exception that those principals who taught no classes indicated markedly the least amount of time spent in supervision of instruction.
8. Principals reported they frequently acted as chairmen of faculty meetings but indicated they thought it only a fair technique.

9. Principals reported they frequently had conferences with teachers on classroom discipline and mechanics.
10. Principals only occasionally had teachers list their problems as a basis for planning faculty meetings.
11. The surprise visit was used just as often as the arranged visit in classroom visitation by the principals.
12. Only occasionally did principals work with teachers to formulate a philosophy of education and they indicated this to be only a fair practice.
13. Principals indicated that only occasionally did they help teachers establish and use a professional library. They considered this technique only fair.
14. The mean evaluation for techniques for improvement of instruction was, in most cases, higher than the mean frequency of use.
15. On fifteen items concerning principal-faculty relationships 204 principals chose eight or more relationships classified as democratic-cooperative; 31 chose eight or more autocratic-laissez faire relationships.
16. In comparing principals who chose a majority of items classified as democratic-cooperative relationships with the faculty with those principals who chose a majority of items classified as autocratic-laissez faire relationships, little or no difference was found between the groups in frequency of use of techniques included in the check sheet.
17. The principals who chose a majority of democratic-cooperative relationships evaluated the techniques consistently higher than did principals who chose autocratic-laissez faire relationships.
18. Areas in which principals would like to improve themselves in working with teachers

rank in the following order by frequency of mention:

- a. How to initiate and administer teacher in-service education programs.
- b. Improving staff relationships and morale.
- c. Helping teachers understand children.
- d. Ability to develop better professional attitudes and ethics among the faculty.
- e. To develop an understanding for himself and his faculty of the latest effective techniques and methods of presenting subject matter.
- f. To be more effective in guidance and counseling of teachers and pupils.
- g. Learn ways to work more democratically.
- h. Inducting and helping new teachers.