

VOL. IX, NO. 2

MARCH, 1931

Research Bulletin
OF THE
National Education Association

The Principal At Work
On His Problems

PUBLISHED BY THE RESEARCH DIVISION OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

1201 SIXTEENTH STREET NORTHWEST, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Research Bulletin of the National Education Association

Published five times each year in January, March, May, September, and November by the Research Division of the National Education Association of the United States.

President, WILLIS A. SUTTON

Secretary, J. W. CRABTREE

The payment of the \$5 membership fee of the National Education Association entitles one to receive the Research Bulletin, the Journal, the Annual Volume of Addresses and Proceedings, and certain other publications of the National Education Association for one year. One dollar of each \$5 membership fee is for a year's subscription to the Research Bulletin. The Research Bulletin may be subscribed for separately at a subscription price of \$1 per year. Copies may be purchased for 25 cents, and in quantities at a reduced rate. Those entitled to receive the Research Bulletin regularly are asked to report at once any change of address, giving old as well as new address.

Entered as second-class matter February 10, 1923, at the Post Office at Washington, D. C., under Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized February 10, 1923.

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THE BEST high schools are apt to be those having at the head principals with sound and thorough academic and professional training, who have visions of the possibilities of secondary education under the leadership of a professionally-trained principalship. Schools that have never risen above the level of mediocrity, or that have sunk from a position of importance to the level of mediocrity or worse, are nearly always found to have principals lacking professional training.—Dan H. Eikenberry, *Status of the High School Prinipal*. p. 7.

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FOREWORD

IN MARCH, 1928, the Division of Research published 17,000 copies of the *Research Bulletin* entitled: "The Principal Studies His Job." Superintendents everywhere bought copies for their staff conferences. One state department of education presented a copy to every high school principal in the state.

More significant even than the above demands have been the requests from individuals and groups of principals. Conferences in Rochester, Newark, Fresno, and other cities drew upon "The Principal Studies His Job" for suggestions and problems for study. There has been much evidence that the bulletin proved of practical help in the professional stimulation of principals.

In 1909, at the National Education Association convention, a superintendent of schools told about a young teacher who returned from a new teaching position to tell about her experiences. She did not mention her new principal and was reminded of that omission. "Oh, the principal!" said she, "Why, do you know, I hadn't thought of him because in my experience I've come to think of the principal as the man who hands out the chalk."

Few principals today merely "hand out the chalk." Local, state, and national organizations present increasing evidence that the principalship is now a strategic educational position. Teachers everywhere demand and are receiving a high type of skilled professional leadership. Superintendents need the help and advice of principals in establishing progressive programs of public instruction.

This *Research Bulletin* is an enlarged and completely revised edition of "The Principal Studies His Job." I predict that this bulletin will be of practical help to the school head who faces and studies his problems.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*

National Education Association.

INTRODUCTION

Whether a particular principalship exerts a positive influence in a school system depends much upon the incumbent. A short-sighted person may fritter away his professional power upon relatively petty school problems. Other principals, while conscious of necessary routine, use the bulk of their energy in developing the more challenging educational opportunities. As one observes the principalship from a nationwide viewpoint the conclusion is clear: the day has come for trained and alert principals to work in accordance with an enlarged vision of the principalship.

The development of the new principalship— The new prestige which has come to school heads has been a gradual development. Hundreds of principals have been called upon to demonstrate to their superiors that they could carry increased responsibilities. The annual reports and speeches of many superintendents since 1860 show they have pleaded with school boards to release principals from routine duties. Thus through the years school boards, superintendents, and principals have shaped the principalship toward its present professional position.

The school principalship may be said to have developed through four stages: (1) The schoolmaster teaching alone, (2) The principal teacher in charge of one or more instructors, (3) The teaching principal with a small amount of free time for administration, and (4) The supervising principal freed from teaching and assigned primarily to administrative and supervisory work. The development of all of these types may be traced in the school reports of such large cities as Boston, New York, Chicago, Baltimore, and San Francisco.

Studies by Eikenberry (high school), Foster (junior high school), and the *Seventh Year-book* (elementary school) show that all stages of the principalship exist today. In rural areas the single teacher often serves in much the same way as the early New England schoolmaster. Teaching principals in relatively large cities are called upon to be both teachers and supervisors. Complete freedom from teaching duties is still to be achieved by many school executives.

The salary tabulations of the Research Division of the National Education Association

show that the new conception of the principal exists in many communities. Men and women of fine personal qualities and adequate preparation are becoming interested. Salary schedules are proving more attractive from year to year. Superintendents and school patrons look upon the principalship as a position of strategic importance in education.

Why has the principalship assumed new leadership?—In 1837 the first city superintendency was created. By 1870 there were 29 superintendents in the largest cities. Up until this time the board of school trustees supervised schoolmasters directly. Now we have the introduction of an executive officer whose primary functions are to coordinate and to improve the teaching in the district.

An examination of the *Proceedings of the National Education Association* between 1857 and 1900 reveals superintendents discussing their duties. It is interesting to note that curriculum content, the adjustment of individual pupils, and helping the teacher are common topics. Superintendents of that period are to be found face to face with the daily problems of guiding and improving instruction.

Since 1880 cities have grown rapidly. Superintendents suddenly faced enlarged problems of school organization, administration, personnel, financial support, and community leadership. Under the stress of these new demands superintendents assumed a more general type of control and delegated specific responsibilities to others. Assistant superintendents, special supervisors, directors of instruction, and research workers came into school systems. At the same time the responsibilities of principals increased in number and importance.

Aside from the rather natural shifting of duties within school systems, there has been a second, more deliberate factor at work. Parents are no longer satisfied with schools in which the children are "minded" for a few hours each day while they study reading, writing, and arithmetic. Schools have been given the more difficult task of developing the attitudes and skills in children which will enable them to achieve the maximum of individual and social success. American parents have considerable faith in education as a guarantee of social welfare.¹

¹ See Chapter II, "Faith in Education," in *The American Road to Culture* by George S. Counts. Published in New York by John Day Company, 1930. 194 p.

A third factor which has brought prestige to the principalship is the rapid development of scientific procedures. Much educational guesswork has given way to more exact measurements and systematic collections of data. This statement does not mean that all phases of the principal's work can be stated or measured objectively. However, principals who use and understand research and professional technics are commanding recognition as skilled professional workers.

The purpose of this bulletin—Although the principalship in American schools has advanced far, there are at least two problems demanding immediate attention: (1) How can the technics of the thoroughly progressive school administrator be used to improve the work of all principals? (2) What next steps are ahead of the principalship if it is to be an increasing force for good in the education of children?

This bulletin has been planned to assist principals with both of the above questions. The following chapters summarize a wealth of current viewpoints, practices, and research. The footnotes and references suggest leads into many phases of the school administrator's work. The materials are here to help school executives study their own problems.

How the bulletin may be used—The individual principal should draw from the statements herein a clearer conception of his work. From his study he should desire to examine his personal practices, plan to experiment with the school facilities at his disposal, and seek to inform other principals of the results of his experiments.

Members of principals' clubs and discussion circles will want to study this bulletin as a

group activity. Such pooling of experiences will result in the improvement of local school standards and will suggest the need for co-operative surveys of the principal's problems.

Superintendents will find in the following pages many suggestions for integrating their work with that of each school head. Principals need the highest type of professional leadership and encouragement of superintendents. Both superintendents and principals can use the materials herein to enlighten teachers on the scope and the value of the principal's work.

Finally, students in courses in educational administration should obtain from this bulletin suggestions on how to prepare for the problems which they will ultimately meet. Other students, not decided as to the division of education in which they wish to work, should gain an excellent perspective as to opportunities which the principalship offers.

Acknowledgments—Preliminary drafts of the bulletin were read and criticized by the following persons: Irwin O. Addicott, Principal, Jackson School, Fresno, California; Einar Jacobsen, Instructor in Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; George C. Kyte, Professor of Elementary Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan; John Rufi, Professor of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri; John Thomas, Principal, Clippert School, Detroit, Michigan; and Frank M. Underwood, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Saint Louis, Missouri.

The Division of Research is deeply grateful for the help received. However, the Division, and not the advisers, assumes responsibility for specific statements in this printed edition.

THE TRUE principal is ever a learner. He may choose to work along special lines. But whatever his taste may be, he must not stand still. If he imagines that a technical knowledge of the branch he teaches will suffice for all emergencies, a respectable funeral would be a blessing for his school. Mental growth prevents stagnation.—J. M. Greenwood, *Proceedings*, 1889. National Education Association.

PART I

THE PRINCIPAL AS A PERSON

Self-analysis is becoming a common first step in education. Pupils are urged to examine their personal interests before making vocational choices. Student-teachers rate themselves in an effort to discover and to correct teaching faults. Other educators, before launching a new activity, often follow the sound advice: "Know thyself."

Foremost among the questions which a principal may ask himself are: (1) What kind of a person am I? (2) How do I measure up in professional ethics? (3) What is my philosophy of education? (4) What is my philosophy of life? (5) Do I have the necessary professional preparation for the principalship? (6) How can I take stock of my qualifications?

What Kind of a Person Am I?

In 1927 the Committee on Standards and Training of the Department of Elementary School Principals studied the personal traits of outstanding principals. While admitting the difficulties of measuring such intangibles as personal characteristics the Committee reported three traits as follows:

1. A profound belief in the importance of the elementary school principalship and the social contribution of the elementary school.
2. A habit of study through which deficiencies of preparation are eliminated and contact maintained with current, progressive developments in education.
3. A plan of research whereby new technics may be tried out, experiments conducted, and reports prepared for publication.

Foster writes that the six qualifications necessary in the high school principal are: (1) a vital interest in children, (2) a student's attitude toward his work, (3) a strong belief in teaching as a life work, (4) the ability to stimulate and to utilize the public's interest in schools, (5) the ability to get things done, and (6) the skill to inspire and to lead his subordinates.¹

Roberts and Draper set up eleven qualities which are essential in the high school adminis-

trator. The traits are: (1) sound scholarship, (2) a sound philosophy of secondary education, (3) a strong moral sense, (4) social and altruistic point of view, (5) executive ability, (6) social adaptability, (7) the ability to inspire confidence, (8) the ability to carry responsibility, (9) the capacity for independent thought, (10) a sound educational policy, and (11) the habit of hard work.²

It is obvious that there are many duplications among the above lists. In a measure the qualities listed are those which should be possessed by all executives in business and the professions. Yet the facts remain: (1) that these traits are usually found in outstanding principals, and (2) that these characteristics may be acquired in some degree by all principals.

How Do I Measure Up in Professional Ethics?

The discussion of personal qualities above tends to present those traits as isolated factors. In reality, personal traits exhibit themselves in action while we are working and playing with people. The whole group of "acceptable trait actions" which have grown up in teaching are commonly known as professional ethics.

A recent *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association presents facts on the status and the uses of codes of ethics. It is not necessary to review the complete study at this time, but certain sections are worthy of close personal attention by all principals. For example, we find the following reports of ways in which principals violate commonly accepted standards of ethics.³

Principal passed out hand bills to pupils regarding coming election.

Principal attempted to put superintendent out of his position because he wanted the job himself.

Principal gave teacher permission to punish child and refused to back teacher in face of angry parent.

Principal in criticizing his teachers always noted the bad points and never mentioned the good points. The result was that teachers considered him a bear.

¹ Foster, Herbert H. *High School Administration*. 1928. p. 57-60.

² Roberts, Alexander C. and Draper, Edgar M. *The High School Principal*. 1927. p. 5-8.

³ National Education Association, Division of Research. "Ethics in the Teaching Profession." *Research Bulletin* 9: 1-92, January, 1931.

Principal always went direct to members of school board with matters of school organization without talking such matters over with her superintendent.

The above violations are the statements of students, teachers, principals, and superintendents as reported in graduate courses in education. As in the case of personal traits we are dealing here with intangibles. Yet, the fact remains that teachers, pupils, and parents are constantly evaluating the principal's justice, tolerance, sympathy, and open-mindedness. Every principal should be willing to face this question: How does my act or decision appear to the other fellow?

What Is My Philosophy of Education?

Many teachers have chosen their profession because of the intangible satisfactions which it gives. Few educators expect to attain wealth or power through school positions. Usually, the challenges leading them on are an interest and a faith in children. It is this same spirit which gives meaning to the work of school principals.

Yet, how many principals have thought out or accepted a statement of the fundamental purposes of education? In 1918 a national committee of the United States Office of Educa-

tion stated the seven basic principles of secondary education.¹ This excellent statement received widespread acceptance as the objectives of American education. In 1929 the Curriculum Commission of the Department of Superintendence asked a representative group of high school principals whether the *Seven Cardinal Principles* had been the basis of progressive changes in their schools. The results of this inquiry are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 shows that approximately 45 percent of the principals in the inquiry reported that the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* had not been the basis of changes in their schools. When asked why no revisions of studies had taken place, 255 principals said that the publication had not come to their attention. This reply came most frequently from principals of small high schools. At any event, the evidence cited here and in the *Sixth Yearbook*² indicates that the high school principal's viewpoint of the curriculum tends to be conservative. Can we expect schools to be responsive to the changing needs of children when the principal's philosophy of education clings to tradition?

¹ United States Office of Education. *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. Bulletin No. 35, 1918.

² National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. "The Development of the High School Curriculum. *Sixth Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.; the Association, 1928. Table 42, p. 173.

TABLE 1.—THE REPLIES OF 1228 HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS TO THE INFLUENCE OF A NATIONAL STATEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL OBJECTIVES ON THEIR SCHOOLS

High school enrolment	United States			New England		Middle States & Maryland		North Central		Southern		Northwest	
	Yes	No	Percent yes is of total yes and no	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
100 or less.....	241	280	46.3	11	13	39	46	138	141	39	51	14	29
101-250.....	167	103	61.9	8	6	23	22	86	41	39	19	11	15
251-500.....	73	46	61.3	10	2	15	10	25	17	16	9	7	8
501-1000.....	74	27	73.3	6	6	12	6	30	8	15	5	11	2
Over 1000.....	65	23	73.9	6	0	12	9	24	7	14	1	9	6
Enrolment not given.....	69	60	53.5	5	3	14	11	32	31	13	11	5	4
Total.....	689	539	56.1	46	30	115	104	335	245	136	96	57	64

Read table thus: Two hundred and forty-one, or 46.3 percent, out of a total of 521 principals of high schools in the United States with an enrolment of one hundred pupils or less report that they have undertaken some reorganization or revision of their high school programs of study within the last five years in line with the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education"; 280, or 53.7 percent, report that they have not made any change; 35 of the high school principals returning the questionnaires left this question blank. In New England, 11 principals of high schools with an enrolment of 100 pupils or less reported that such curriculum revision had been undertaken, and 13 reported in the negative. Similarly read data for other groups.

Data taken from the *Sixth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, p. 173.

In 1929 a committee of superintendents in New York drew up a statement of the cardinal objectives as follows:

CARDINAL OBJECTIVES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

It is the function of the public elementary school to help every child:

1. To understand and practice desirable social relationships
2. To discover and develop his own desirable individual aptitudes
3. To cultivate the habit of critical thinking
4. To appreciate and desire worthwhile activities
5. To gain command of the common integrating knowledge and skills
6. To develop a sound body and normal mental attitudes.¹

If you were a principal, would you accept the above statement as the cardinal objectives of elementary education? Could you convince parents and taxpayers that these were the basic aims of your school? What effect would the above objectives have upon the curriculum, the classroom methods, the administration, and the supervision in your building?

In 1927 the Commission on the Curriculum analyzed the statements of 59 administrators and 20 college specialists as to the special purposes of the junior high school. The six purposes most frequently mentioned are shown in Table 2.

Do secondary principals accept Table 2 as giving the basic purposes of the junior high school? What viewpoints must administrators approve in order to accept statements 1 and 2 in Table 2? Do several of these purposes hold equally well as objectives of the elementary and senior high schools?

The Inglis Lectures in 1929 and 1930 at Harvard University have discussed secondary education.² Are high school principals familiar with the viewpoints expressed in these lectures? What are the points of agreement³ as to the objectives of secondary education?

Teachers often accept uncritically new teaching devices. Principals form children into groups based solely on intelligence. Immature schemes of school organization are put into operation. Although we inquire as to the *sources* of such new suggestions we often fail to examine the *purposes* or *implications* involved. The viewpoint lying back of a particular school procedure may be objectionable in American society where the procedure itself appears harmless. Does the principal who puts a school technic into practice thereby imply that he accepts the educational viewpoint upon which the technic is based? Are you willing to defend the teaching in your school as growing out of a sound philosophy of education?

¹ These points are developed fully and illustrated by units of work in the bulletin, *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education*, the second report of the Committee on Elementary Education of the New York Council of Superintendents. Published in 1929 by the New York State Department of Education, Albany. 188 p.

² See *Secondary Education and Industrialism* by George S. Counts (1929) and *The Great Investment; Secondary Education in a Democracy* by Thomas H. Briggs. Both volumes are published by the Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.

³ See Chapters I and II of the "Development of the High School Curriculum," *Sixth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1928.

TABLE 2.—SIX SPECIAL PURPOSES OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ACCORDING TO STATEMENTS PUBLISHED SINCE 1920¹

Statement	Percent of Each Group Making Statement Since 1920	
	Administrators	College Specialists
1. Meeting individual differences of pupils—enabling pupils to follow lines of their interest and ability.....	91.5	95.0
2. Prevocational training and exploration resulting in wise choice of later school courses and life work.....	83.1	85.0
3. Counseling or guidance—bringing pupils in contact with influences that should give direction and purposes to their lives.....	55.9	45.0
4. Meeting the needs of the early adolescent group.....	50.8	30.0
5. Bridging the gap between elementary and secondary schools—proper coordination between lower and higher schools.....	45.8	35.0
6. Development of qualities of good citizenship—preparation of pupils to play a larger part in the life of the community.....	40.7	35.0

¹ Based on pages 20 and 21 of the *Junior High School Curriculum*, Fifth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1927.

What Is My Philosophy of Life?

Inseparably bound up with a principal's personality, ethics, and philosophy of education may be found his philosophy of life. Students of human behavior say that conduct is a reflection of the many viewpoints which compose the individual's philosophy of life.

Pupils and teachers reflect in no small measure the tone which the principal gives to his school. A principal with poise, balance, and good sense tends to encourage these traits in those who work with him. Hyde has stated five basic principles of a sound and sane philosophy of life and work.¹ These five points can be restated as follows:

- (1) *Happiness.* Learn to play, to rest, and to enjoy the good things of life.
- (2) *Fortitude.* Fresh inspiration and courage is required by each new day.
- (3) *Serenity.* Needless worry and fear destroy physical and mental reserve.
- (4) *Proportion.* Put first things first and devote to each its share of energy.
- (5) *Devotion.* Forgetfulness of self, fosters a high type of cooperation.

John Dewey points out the dividends which come to one who is philosophical.² He says in part:

The professional practitioner in any field, from a factory to a church and schoolhouse, is in danger of getting tied down, of getting habit-bound, compensating for this rigidity by impulsive excursions, undertaken according to temperament and circumstance, when routine becomes intolerable. I do not say that philosophers see life steadily and see it whole; complete achievement in this respect is humanly impossible. But *anyone* is philosophical in the degree in which he makes a consistent effort in this direction. The result is emancipation.

Do I Have the Necessary Professional Preparation for the Principalship?

One characteristic of recognized professional groups is a systematic general and special preparation. Doctors and lawyers in all sections of the United States must submit to intensive study and extensive examinations. Such standards encourage faith on the part of the public and foster a reasonable pride among the members of the professional group. These same

values apply to the specialized and advanced preparation of school principals.

Koos found in 1924 that approximately 69 percent of the high school principals in his study had four years or more of college training. Eikenberry reports 4.4 years as the median time spent in college by the high school principals which he studied in 1926. The elementary school administrators reported in the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals show a median of 4.13 years of training beyond high school. Comparisons are shown in Table 3.

There is evidence that superintendents in cities are seeking principals with the maximum of training.³ Each year fewer persons are employed or elevated to the principalship who do not possess the A. B. degree. In the report of the Committee on Standards and Training the M. A. degree was set up as the standard which elementary school principals themselves considered essential. Certainly the systematic preparation required for the master's degree is a level of preparation which many principals will eventually attain.

Gist asked 71 elementary school administrators to rate the topics which they considered the most useful in the training of principals. The first ten topics with the highest ratings are given in Table 4. It is clear that at the

TABLE 3.—PERCENT OF PRINCIPALS HOLDING VARIOUS COLLEGE DEGREES

Degrees Held	Elementary School Principals ¹	Junior High School Principals ²	High School Principals ²
Doctor's.....	1.0	3.0	1.4
Master's.....	15.0	12.0	18.0
Bachelor's.....	30.0	27.0	67.2
None, no answer, and unclassified.	54.0	58.0	13.4
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Taken from Table 21, *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928.

² Estimated by eliminating duplication in Table 18 of *Status of the Junior High School Principal*, by Foster, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1930, No. 18.

³ Taken from Table 13, *Status of the High School Principal*, Eikenberry, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 24.

¹ Hyde, William D. *The Teachers Philosophy In and Out of School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910. p. 54-83.

² Dewey, John. *The Sources of a Science of Education*. Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series, 1929. p. 57-58.

³ Foster, Frank Kale. *Status of the Junior High School Principal*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 18. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. 75 p.

present time supervision and the major administrative problems are the fields in which principals need the most specialized help.

After canvassing the courses offered by 144 universities, the Committee on Standards and Training for the elementary school principalship proposed the following training topics: philosophy of education, supervision of instruction, problems in supervision, measuring the results of teaching, technic of instruction, general administration, school management, building maintenance and equipment, educational statistics and research, curriculum, public school finance, educational psychology, school hygiene, civic education, principal and the community, vocational education, and pupil guidance.

How much teaching experience should one have before entering the principalship? In 1930 there were 15 states with definite supervisor's or principal's licenses.¹ Most of these certificates required some teaching experience, usually three years, before the certificate could be issued. Several states require principals to hold a high type of teaching license which is based upon classroom experience. It has been suggested that no one should enter the principalship without serving an apprenticeship under a competent supervisor.

What kind of teaching experience should a principal have? Is it possible to have so much classroom experience as to be handicapped by tradition and unprogressive methods? Is there an adequate substitute for teaching in the

preparation of supervisors? Many of these questions must be answered by the individual, although organized opinion among principals may some day set up entrance requirements of advanced training and adequate experience for those who aspire to the principalship.

How Can I Take Stock of My Qualifications?

In his youth Benjamin Franklin undertook the "bold and arduous project of arriving at moral perfection." He listed 13 personal virtues in a small notebook, ruled spaces for each day, and marked himself on his faults until he had "the satisfaction of seeing them diminish." Franklin's unique plan has merit for the individual principal who would study his own qualities.

Jacobsen² recently reported a rating scheme which he developed with the aid of the teachers on his high school faculty. The rating card can be used by the teachers in conveying to the principal the impression which he makes on his fellow workers. This unique rating plan is given herewith as Chart I.

Waddell has set up a list of 32 questions to evaluate the "progressiveness" of elementary school principals.³ Among some of the more important criteria are the following:

1. Does the principal have sufficient training and knowledge to conduct a modern type of school?
2. Are the methods of control in use such as to place control on the highest level of which the pupils are capable?

¹ Unpublished study of state certification rules by the Division of Research, National Education Association.

² Jacobsen, E. W. "The Faculty Helps the Principal." *American School Board Journal* 81:47; October, 1930.

³ Waddell, Charles W. "Some Criteria of Progressiveness for Elementary School Principals." *Elementary School Journal* 28: 606-609; April, 1928.

TABLE 4.—MOST USEFUL TOPICS IN THE TRAINING AND STUDY OF PRINCIPALS ACCORDING TO 71 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS¹

Topic	Rating		
	A	B	C
1. Problems of supervision.....	68	2	0
2. The improvement of the teacher in service.....	64	5	0
3. The content of the elementary school curriculum.....	60	7	0
4. Problems of promotion and classification.....	60	8	1
5. Measuring the results of instruction.....	60	10	0
6. Methods of instruction.....	59	9	0
7. Principles of education.....	54	13	2
8. Building administration.....	53	13	4
9. The principal as a professional leader.....	50	19	0
10. Educational psychology.....	50	16	1

¹ Taken from Table 1, p. 299, of *Elementary School Supervision* by Arthur S. Gist, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1926.

CHART I.—RATING SCALE FOR PRINCIPALS

Note to Teachers: Following is a list of qualities that, taken together, tend to make any principal the sort of principal that he is. Of course, no one is ideal in all of these qualities, but some approach this ideal to a much greater extent than do others. In order to obtain information which may lead to the improvement of our school, you are asked to rate your principal on the indicated qualities by making a check (✓) on the line at the point which most nearly describes him with reference to the quality you are considering. For example, under *Interest in School*, if you think your principal is not as enthusiastic about his school as he should be, but is usually more than mildly interested, place the check on the scale thus:

Interest in School

			✓						
--	--	--	---	--	--	--	--	--	--

Interested in the classroom progress and all the school activities.

Seems mildly interested.

Takes very little interest.

This rating is to be entirely impersonal. Do not sign your name or make any other mark on the paper which could serve to identify the rater.

Be sure to put your check *on the line* where you think it should be to express your judgment on the principal.

Professional Preparation and Growth

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Thoroughly trained for his position. Continues enthusiastically his professional training.

Fairly well trained, but does little toward further preparation.

Has no professional training and does not attempt to get any.

Organization

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

So organizes his work that school runs smoothly on all occasions.

School runs smoothly most of the time.

Much confusion.

Balance between Administration and Supervision

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Gives much time to helpful supervision.

Often involved in details. Little time for supervision.

Allows details of administration to consume full time and energy.

Supervision

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Attitude inspires confidence. Many positive criticisms. Negative criticisms followed by helpful suggestions.

Many criticisms with few helpful suggestions.

Many non-constructive criticisms.

Stimulating Intellectual Attitude

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Inspires teachers to investigate and study educational problems and methods. Creates desire for research.

Arouses slight interest in study of new problems and methods.

Discourages desire to investigate and experiment.

Approachability

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Teachers and pupils feel free to talk over problems.

Teachers and pupils hesitate to ask for interviews.

Teachers and pupils avoid interviews when possible.

New Ideas

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Presentation to faculty: Carefully thought out before presentation. Order of presentation: One new idea or method or experiment thoroughly established before advancing another.

Partly thought out before presentation. A second plan advanced before the first is established.

Vague and indefinite.

Several new plans launched at same time.

Knowledge of Different Departmental or Subject Problems

Familiar with problems of each department or subject.

Familiar with most of the departments or subjects.

Familiar with only a few.

Attitude of Teachers toward Principal

Teachers have full confidence in him. Regard him as a helpful leader and co-worker.

Teachers accept his leadership but lack enthusiasm. Some feeling of restraint.

Teachers fear him. He is dogmatic and tyrannical.

Sympathetic Attitude toward Teachers and Students

Always courteous and considerate.

Tries to be considerate but finds it difficult at times.

Always sarcastic or "hard-boiled."

Fairness in Assigning Work and Extracurricular Activities

Absolutely fair and impartial to all.

Tendency to give more work to willing and capable.

Constantly assigns work to willing and capable, instead of bringing out timid, inefficient, or indolent.

Relations with Parents

Always courteous, considerate, and sympathetic.

Usually considerate and sympathetic.

Antagonistic; sarcastic.

Sense of Proportion and Humor

Always keeps proper balance; not over-critical or oversensitive.

Fairly well balanced.

Overserious; no sense of relative values.

Self-reliance and Confidence

Always sure of himself; meets difficulties with poise.

Fairly self-confident; occasionally disconcerted.

Hesitant, timid, uncertain.

Personal Appearance

Always well groomed; clothes neat and clean.

Usually somewhat untidy; gives little attention to appearance.

Slovenly; clothes untidy and ill-kept.

Personal Peculiarities

Wholly free from annoying mannerisms.

Moderately free from objectionable peculiarities.

Constantly exhibits irritating mannerisms.

3. Does the principal's office show evidence of the use of up-to-date business methods in organization and in administration?

4. Is provision made by the principal for keeping himself and his staff in touch with the best of the new literature on elementary education in books and magazines?

5. Are the teachers encouraged to express individuality and initiative in their work?

6. Is definite provision made for individual differences of pupils, especially for the retarded and handicapped, and for the accelerated and gifted?

7. Are the principal and his staff contributing, or ready to contribute, the benefits of their experience to other schools?

8. Is the principal keeping his staff and the patrons of the school enthusiastically in sympathy with the new procedures he initiates?

Touton has developed a self-rating score card for secondary school principals.¹ A thousand points are distributed among six main topics and 23 sub-topics as shown in Chart II. In the complete scale most of the sub-topics have minor sub-heads with their respective point values.

CHART II		
Touton Self-Rating Card for Secondary School Principals (Abbreviated)		
Item	Point Value	
I. Personal equipment	280	
A. Ideals	102	
B. Preparation	69	
C. Improvement in service	64	
D. Health	45	
II. Business management	140	
A. Records	41	
B. Participation	29	
C. Economy	37	
D. Care of building	33	
III. Supervision of teaching staff	207	
A. Is cooperation of teachers secured?	64	
B. Do you give constructive criticism?	75	
C. Do you stimulate your teachers to develop?	68	
IV. Social adaptation of curriculum	146	
A. Is your curriculum adapted to the present needs of the community?	44	
B. Does the curriculum function through social types of training?	24	
C. Is provision made for individual differences?	33	
D. Is provision made for specific and conscious moral training?	25	
E. Is the school library utilized to stimulate the interest and development of pupils?	20	
V. Student relations	134	
A. Extra class activities	47	
B. Physical training	36	
C. Student responsibility	25	
D. Student attitudes	26	
VI. Community relations	93	
A. Participation	37	
B. Publicity	29	
C. Conference	27	
Total	1000	

The 1931 Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals will contain several selected chapters on how to evaluate the principal's work.² These checklists and rating scales will be drawn up by principals' clubs in such cities as Detroit, Saint Louis, and Kansas City.

Selected References

1. EIKENBERRY, DAN H. *Status of the High School Principal*. United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1925, No. 24. 71 p.

Summarizes the training, salaries, experience, and duties of a representative group of high school principals.

2. DEWEY, JOHN. *The Sources of a Science of Education*. Kappa Delta Pi Lecture. New York: Horace Liveright Company, 1929. 77 p.

Discusses the sources and significance of values, means, and aims in education.

3. FOSTER, FRANK K. *Status of the Junior High School Principal*. United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1930, No. 18. 75 p.

A survey of the training and activities of principals of junior high schools.

4. FOSTER, HERBERT H. *High School Administration*. New York: Century Company, 1928. p. 47-69.

Discusses the type of person required by the high school principalship.

5. GIST, ARTHUR S. *Elementary School Supervision*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926. p. 268-306.

Discusses the qualifications and training of elementary school principals.

6. HYDE, WILLIAM D. *The Teachers' Philosophy In and Out of School*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1910. 88 p.

A concise discussion of a fine type of teaching personality. Many suggestions on self-analysis and improvement.

7. JACOBSEN, EINAR. "The Faculty Helps the Principal." *American School Board Journal* 81:47; October, 1930.

A high school principal faces the evaluation of his own staff of teachers.

8. KOOS, LEONARD V. *The High School Principal*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924. 121 p.

Data on the training, work, and qualifications of the high school principal with suggestions on improving the same.

9. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. *The Seventh Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1928. p. 310-18.

Presents evidence as to the traits of outstanding principals.

¹ Touton, Frank C., and Struthers, Alice B. *Junior High School Procedure*. New York: Ginn and Company, 1926. p. 535-538.

² See "The Principal and Supervision," *Tenth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, available in April, 1931. Also, "The Evaluation of Supervision," *Fourth Yearbook*, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, 1931. p. 11-22 and 97-107.

10. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. *Ninth Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1925. p. 149-59.

Article by Dr. Briggs on "What Becomes of High School Principals," brings out the importance of personality in successful school administration.

11. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE. *Second, Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Yearbooks*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1924, 1925, 1926, 1927, and 1928.

Fundamental statements of the objectives of elementary, junior and senior high schools in a program of American Education.

12. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DIVISION OF RESEARCH. "Ethics of the Teaching Profession." *Research Bulletin* 9: 1-92; January, 1931.

A study of current practices in the teaching of professional ethics. Summarizes codes of ethics and opinion as to common violations.

13. TOUTON, FRANK C., AND STRUTHERS, ALICE B. *Junior High School Procedure*. New York: Ginn and Company, 1926. p. 13-15 and 535-39. Summarizes the qualifications of junior high school principals.

THE IDEAL schoolmaster endeavors to acquaint himself with the nature of the complex being whose destiny is so largely committed to his keeping, labors long to form for himself a true ideal of education in its broadest acceptation, and having carefully considered the educational value of the different knowledges, he is not satisfied until he has worked out for himself a method which, while conforming to the laws of mind and the logical relations of science, will give free play to the individuality of the pupil, and the personal idiosyncrasies of the teacher. He is a philosopher, but philosophizes in order that he may be the better workman. The goal of his endeavor is action, the fruit of all his toil is higher results in the formation of character. His philosophy reappears not so much in books as in lives. He seeks to form, not a school of philosophy, but a school of philosophers.—General Thomas J. Morgan, *Proceedings*, 1885, National Education Association.

SEEKING responsibility should not involve an attitude of defiance toward either the superintendent or the school board. The attitude should, on the contrary, always be one of cooperation. If the principal contemplates important changes in policy or procedure, the superintendent should always be first consulted, as this is essential to the proper coordination of the several parts of the system. As has already been asserted, such an attitude of cooperation is not at all the same thing as divesting the principal of initiative.—L. V. Koos, *The High School Principal*, p. 116.

PART II

THE PRINCIPAL AS HEAD OF A SINGLE SCHOOL UNIT

Part I of this bulletin suggested some of the possibilities of self-analysis by school administrators. It is the purpose of Part II to shift attention to the duties which a principal has in connection with his own school.

In the numerous studies which have been made of the principal's work it has been necessary to set up more or less artificial classifications such as administration, supervision, clerical work, teaching, and miscellaneous. Space cannot be taken at this place to review in detail the research into these general phases of the principal's work.¹

It should be pointed out that one of the most profitable ways in which a principal can spend his hours of professional study is in an analysis of his own duties. Two general technics commonly used are (1) by listing the activities of each day from memory, and (2) by keeping a day-by-day record or diary over a period of several weeks. In the diary procedure the principal notes in writing each 10 minute interval, a brief description of what he is doing. These records are analyzed and classified under such heads as administration, supervision, and so forth. Comparisons between such lists and common practice can be made without much difficulty.

Administration

The term administration is applied to the principal's organization and management duties. Ordinarily these duties are thought of as "getting things started and keeping them going." An analysis of a specific administrative act shows that there are at least four distinct stages: (1) planning, (2) organizing or executing, (3) managing, and (4) checking.

How much time should be given to administration?—A study by Rochester principals in 1927 shows about 38 percent of the day given

to administrative duties. Flowers reports 41 percent for Baltimore elementary school administrators. Reports to the Committee on Standards and Training show 30 percent as common practice and 25 percent as the ideal allotment.²

Eikenberry in 1926 reports high school principals as giving about two hours of a six-hour day to routine administration, one hour to general supervision, one hour to teacher conferences, one hour to pupil conferences, and one hour to miscellaneous duties.³ Koos shows that the principal in the small high school often has a difficult time getting 25 percent of the school day free for administration.⁴ Foster reports junior high school principals as dividing a six-hour day approximately as follows: one hour to supervision, one and a half hours to administration, half an hour each to pupil and teacher conferences, one and a half hours to teaching, and one hour to miscellaneous.⁵

General practice is not necessarily ideal practice. On the other hand, an "ideal distribution" based on opinion may not be practical in terms of the many demands in the particular school. Local principals' clubs might well attack such problems as these: How much time do we give to administration? Need principals of platoon schools give more time to management than principals in typical schools? How much time should teaching principals give to their management duties? Can assistant principals relieve the supervising principal of most of the administrative work? How can minor administration be assigned to the teacher without intrusion into the teaching period?

Discipline—Principals often report "discipline" as one of the large, time-consuming duties.⁶ Morrison found discipline to be first among the duties of principals in Ohio as to time con-

¹ See *The Status of the High School Principals* by Eikenberry, *The High School Principal* by Koos, the *Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, and the *Status of the Junior High School Principal* by Foster. Complete references given at the end of Part II.

² See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 208.

³ Eikenberry, D. H. *The Status of the High School Principal*, p. 52.

⁴ Koos, L. V. *The High School Principal*, p. 72.

⁵ Foster, Frank K. *Status of the Junior High School Principal*, p. 54-55.

⁶ Some principals have discarded the word "discipline" because it implies deliberate misconduct on the part of pupils. They prefer "maladjusted cases" because this term implies that teachers, principal, or school organization may be at fault, rather than the child.

sumed.¹ Hampton's study showed that discipline was taking a large share of the principal's administrative time. This bulletin cannot settle the question as to the relative amount of time to be given to these problems. Each principal must examine his own activities in terms of progressive theory and practice before deciding whether the time given to discipline should be reduced. Certainly, the consensus of expert opinion is that "discipline" should not be the principal's major administrative duty.

One of the first steps in reducing the number of maladjusted cases is to reduce the opportunities for misbehavior. Schools with many unnecessary rules and rigid requirements as to lines, use of building, and so forth will have many minor infractions due to the multiplicity of the restrictions. Another means of prevention is a well organized program of extra-curriculum activities² in the nature of school plays, games, school papers, and pupil government.³ Through activities of this sort school morale may be developed and disciplinary problems greatly reduced.

The time given to "discipline" may be reduced by enlisting the full cooperation of the teachers in many problems of school control. Examples of group action are the teacher committees on extra-curriculum activities, playground activities, character development,⁴ and school morale. These committees can assume responsibility for many minor cases of misbehavior and can aid in developing a policy designed to prevent the occurrence of similar difficulties.

School organization—The organization of the school into a smoothly operating unit is one of the basic and most time-consuming duties imposed upon the principal. Elementary school principals will find considerable literature setting forth the merits of the platoon, the departmental, the companion class, and other forms of organization.⁵ These articles usually

represent the opinion of college professors, superintendents, principals, teachers, and pupils as to the advantages of the particular form of school organization. Few convincing studies have been made to show the advantages of any form of organization in terms of child instruction. There is a danger in articles, when not substantiated by objective data, that advantages may be claimed for a plan which are due to factors other than the form of organization itself. For example, the personal enthusiasm and executive ability of the principal may make a given form of school organization function effectively. When this same scheme is adopted in another school, where the personal enthusiasm is lacking, the plan may fail.

Junior and senior high school organization is almost universally cast in departmentalized form. This level of instruction is specialized along subjectmatter lines. Even the small high school attempts to specialize the teachers along subjectmatter lines. There is a trend in certification toward licenses restricted to the major and minor courses taken by student teachers. The influence of the college often encourages specialization in secondary schools. The danger facing high school principals in a departmentalized school is that the teachers may "teach subjects instead of children." Perhaps all of these influences account for the recent emphasis upon "creative teaching" in secondary schools.⁶

Every principal must learn to recognize the basic and inherent values of experiments in education, so as not to be the victim of fads.⁷ Probably no form of school organization will solve all school problems, but one form of organization may be best in terms of the instruction of children, the training of teachers, and other factors of influence in each local situation. Plans of school organization are tools to be used and adapted by the principal in meeting the educational needs of his community.

¹ Morrison, J. Cayce. "The School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages." *Ohio State University Studies*, Contribution in School Administration, No. 2, May 15, 1926, p. 45.

² See such references as: *Extra-curricular Activities* by Harry C. McKown. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927. 617 p.

³ See *The Principal and Administration* (Ninth Yearbook), Department of Elementary School Principals, 1930. p. 437-604.

⁴ In 1932 the Department of Superintendence and the Department of Classroom Teachers will present yearbooks on character education.

⁵ See references like the following: Spain, C. L. "The Platoon School—Its Advantages." Wilson, H. B. "The Platoon School—Its Disadvantages," in the *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1926, p. 797-800, 800-809; Rolfe, Stanley H. "A Concept of All-Year Schools." *Bulletin*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, July, 1927, p. 437-38; Patterson, M. J. "The Work-Study-Play Plan." *Bulletin*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, April, 1923 p. 83-87; Hoscic, James F. *The Cooperative Group Plan*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

⁶ For example, Miller, Harry L. *Creative Learning and Teaching*. New York: Scribner's, 1927. 262 p. Also, Chapter V in *The Development of the High School Curriculum*, Sixth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, 1928.

⁷ See Dewey's *The Sources of a Science of Education*. p. 32-48.

Program making and the daily schedule—The complexity of program making in the school depends largely upon the form of school organization. Elementary and high schools with a single teacher per grade can usually leave the program in the hands of the teachers. Exchanges or trades in the teaching of certain subjects can be arranged through a committee of teachers or by the principal. It is the duty of the school head to check each class program in terms of (1) research on fatigue, learning conditions, and hygiene, (2) the requirements of the local course of study, and (3) the legal provisions of the state law and state board of education.¹

Ritow says that the most difficult program problems in a departmentalized school are: (1) the curriculum and subject time allotment, (2) the length of the period, (3) subject allotment to pupils, (4) pupil and teacher movement, (5) special subjects, (6) extra-curriculum activities, (7) truancy, and (8) pupil control. Valuable suggestions for meeting such problems are found in recent publications.²

Principals of junior and senior high schools can ill afford to overlook the *Fifth Yearbook* and the *Sixth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence. In these two volumes will be found an exceptionally inclusive collection of current practices in program making and the course of study.³

It has not been possible in this short treatment to deal with all of the problems in schedule making. Other questions facing principals are: How many classes should be required of each teacher? Should new teachers be given more or fewer classes than experienced teachers? How can pupils be helped to make best use of the program? How can study periods and extra-curriculum activities be worked into the schedule to best advantage? Does our pro-

gram make the most effective use of the school plant?

Adjustments to the individual pupil needs—Although the advantage of meeting individual needs is generally recognized, there is little agreement as to how it should be done. Efforts to adjust schools to individuals may be classified as changes in organization, administration, materials of instruction, curriculums, and teaching procedures. Although these terms are useful for classification it will be found that the procedures in specific cases are often indistinguishable.

An example of change from traditional school organization is the Batavia plan with its many variations. Under this plan the regular teacher is assisted by an extra teacher who coaches and encourages the laggards. The platoon school organization may also be used in providing for rapid, average, and slow working classes.

Changes in school administration may be illustrated by the plan of ability grouping. Under this plan the idea of class organization is retained, but the pupils are segregated into groups on the basis of the individual's intelligence, achievement tests, and personal qualities.⁴ The second step involves the adjustment of curriculum content and reading methods to meet the needs of each group. Recently there has been widespread provision in cities for the mentally slow and the exceptionally bright.⁵

Adaptation to individual differences with emphasis upon changes in materials of instruction can be illustrated by the systems of individual instruction.⁶ Usually under these plans each child is provided with assignment books and materials which permit him to progress at his own rate.⁷ Group activity in the tool subjects is reduced to a minimum, although it may be provided for in certain activities.⁸

¹ See *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum* by J. K. Flanders. Contributions to Education, No. 195. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y., 1925, 242 p.

² Ritow, Herman, in the *Ninth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1930, p. 319-39. Also, Touton, F. C. and Struthers, A. B. *Junior High School Procedure*, 1926, p. 120-46.

³ See "The Junior High School Curriculum," *Fifth Yearbook*, 1927, and "The Development of the High School Curriculum," *Sixth Yearbook*, 1928, Department of Superintendence. Also see references by Koos, Touton, and Foster at the end of Part II.

⁴ Curtis, Stuart A. "Ability Grouping in Detroit Schools," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II*, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 44-47. Sutherland, A. H. "Ability Grouping in Los Angeles," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II*, p. 47-48.

⁵ Mort, Paul R. *The Individual Pupil*, American Book Co., 1928, p. 304-16.

⁶ Washburne, Carleton W., and Stearns, M. M. *Better Schools*. Chapter on "Making Schools Fit the Children," p. 259-99.

⁷ Washburne, Carleton W. "A Program of Individualization," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II*, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 257-72. McDade, James E. "The Mastery Unit Plan of Individual Instruction," *Bulletin* 8: 78:80; January, 1929. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

⁸ Smith, Margaret. "Individual Work in the Sixty-first Street School," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II*, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 102-105. Ward, Mary A., and others. "Individual System as Developed in the San Francisco State Teachers College," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II*, p. 60-82.

Provision for individual differences through curriculum differentiation has proven useful. While this effort is usually combined with other changes, such as ability grouping, it may be use in the traditionally organized school. Frequently differentiation through the curriculum takes the form of enrichment for the more able students. A more complete variation of this procedure is that of providing differentiated assignments in accordance with the ability of each pupil.¹

Another scheme which endeavors to meet the problem of individual differences is the Dalton plan. In this case the emphasis is upon changes in classroom procedure. The content of the curriculum may not be seriously changed, although it must be organized into units. A laboratory room is established for each subject and the pupil is supposed to spend enough time in each laboratory to complete at least one unit of work. Pupils are free to work through all of the units in one subject or to complete a unit from each subject. However, each month or so the assigned units in all of the subjects must be completed. The plan gives training in budgeting of time, freedom in working according to individual interests, and social mingling in the laboratories.²

Plans of education designed to capitalize upon individual differences are relatively easy to make. A more difficult problem is to prove objectively that the plan has all of the advantages which are claimed by its sponsors. Principals will find few research studies which prove for all time that a given scheme is 100 percent effective because local school-system and personal factors often disturb the experimental try-out. Schemes for pupil adjustment are simply tools to be used or discarded in terms of the needs of children.

Extra-curriculum activities—For years there have existed two educative forces, the formal classroom work and the informal activities of

the playground and street. Some educators have attempted to bring the informal activities into closer cooperation with the school and have called them "extra-curriculum" activities. In the elementary school the tendency has been to make the out-of-class activities means for enriching the regular curriculum.³

The alert principal will see in such activities as school plays, health clubs, and athletics many genuine educational opportunities. One should not permit the number of activities to become so large as to force the teachers and pupils to meet the basic courses in a hasty or superficial way. In avoiding this difficulty the principal should choose a few activities adaptable to the pupils' interests and the facilities of his school.

Borgeson studied the "school life activities" in the schools of members of the national Department of Elementary School Principals.⁴ He found that many of the most common activities had to do with the pupil management of the home-room, the library, the assemblies, and school traffic. Current events and citizenship clubs were also very popular.

Hayes gave intensive study to the participation of students in the voluntary school group activities of a single high school.⁵ Among his conclusions are the following: (1) that voluntary group activities are most attractive to pupils of superior intelligence, (2) that the American child participates more than foreign children, and (3) that pupils from "white collar" families participate more than children from homes of trade-labor classes.

Can the principal afford to let his voluntary group activities become highly selective? Are these activities an integral part of the school's program if relatively few pupils participate? Increasing pupil participation in the "extra-curriculum" activities is sometimes made by organizing the science, health, dramatic, nature, or other clubs in conjunction with the classes in the particular subject.⁶ In other cases an hour is allotted to club activities during

¹ See "Vitalizing the High School Curriculum," *Research Bulletin* 7: 182-92; September, 1929. National Education Association. Also, Reavis, W. C. "Differentiated Requirements in the University of Chicago High School." *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II*, p. 49-52. Miller, H. L., and Leonard, S. J. "Differentiated Assignments in the Wisconsin High School." *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II*, p. 52-57.

² Parkhurst, Helen. "The Dalton Laboratory Plan." *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II*, p. 82-93. Also, Parkhurst, Helen, *Education on the Dalton Plan*. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1922. 278 p.

³ See the *Sixth Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1928, p. 230-42. Also, *Extra Curricular Activities* by Harry C. McKown, Macmillan, 1927, and *A Handbook of Extra Curricular Activities in the High School* by Harold D. Meyer, A. S. Barnes and Co., New York, 1926.

⁴ Borgeson, F. C. "Extent of So-called Extra-curriculum Activities in the Elementary School." *Bulletin* 10: 83-87; January, 1931. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

⁵ Hayes, Wayland J. *Some Factors Influencing Participation in Voluntary School Group Activities*. Contributions to Education, No. 419, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.

⁶ See the *Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Part II*, National Society for the Study of Education, 1926.

which time the children go to the teacher's room where the club of their choice has been organized. Sometimes the clubs are organized around the home-rooms so that every child has an opportunity to develop his unique interests.

Those who think of the traditional school with its emphasis on the formal R's will frequently see little value in "extra-curriculum" activities. But such activities *exist in some form* in every school and exercise either constructive or destructive influences. If an attitude of indifference is maintained by the administrator, then one of the most spontaneous of teaching situations is not utilized. The progressive school principal will want to study the needs of his own school, investigate the accomplishments in other schools, and then decide upon the extra-class activities which will most effectively fit into the regular school program.

Community contacts—Superintendents generally look to the principal to exert a high type of community leadership.¹ For purposes of this bulletin it will be necessary to make two more or less artificial distinctions: (1) activities of importance chiefly to the single school unit, and (2) contacts of significance to the whole local school system. Since Part III of this bulletin will discuss the second of these types, we shall confine the treatment at this point to the first activities.

One significant movement in the field of child welfare aims to coordinate the educational activities of the home and school. This work is ordinarily organized in the parent-teacher association.² In this form it offers a community contact of such potential power for good that the principal seldom can afford to be ignorant of its methods and objectives. Nor, once thoroughly informed of its purposes, can he fail actively to cooperate in its efforts to further the welfare of the child.

Visits to a number of elementary schools showed that school people were usually aware of the advantages of cooperative home-school action. Several principals have a fixed period at each meeting of the parent-teacher association to discuss current educational problems. A

New Jersey principal attempts to guide the thought of his organization and to give it constructive educational purposes from his place on the executive committee. During the meetings he points out the school's viewpoint, the sources of incoordination between home and school, and the useful principles of cooperation for parent-teacher groups. The program has proven so profitable to both parents and school that an extension of the activities has been planned for several years.³

The advantages of the parent-teacher association are not confined to the spiritual interest and enthusiasm aroused at meetings. Often these enthusiasms mature into tangible aid to the school's instructional program. The health of pupils is often considered a major school problem, yet its ultimate success depends upon the cooperation with the home.⁴ One parent-teacher association assisted in solving the hot lunch problem. Other problems in which the association may give material assistance are: beautifying the playground, making teachers feel at home, the leisure time activities of pupils, juvenile delinquency, and arousing the interest of fathers in the school. The evidence is overwhelming that when properly led the parent-teacher association can do much to increase the school's efficiency. The alert principal will assign a high place to the duties connected with the organization in his school. Few agencies offer so excellent an opportunity to exercise wise educational leadership in a community.

Recently the Research Committee of the national Department of Elementary School Principals made a survey of the common devices for school-home contacts.⁵ Among the "most valuable" means listed by principals were: the interviews with parents, the parent-teacher group, the school nurse, the pupil reports, and the telephone. Other suggestions regarding school-home contacts will be found under "Public Relations" in Part III of this bulletin.

Building control—The routine activities of school administration are among those which become seriously time-consuming. Such matters

¹ See article by Susan M. Dorsey in the *Ninth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals.

² Helpful material concerning the organization and activities of parent-teacher associations may be secured by writing to the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

³ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 324-25.

⁴ Loomis, Alice F. "Pulling Together." *Child Welfare Magazine*, May, 1928, p. 428-30. Also, Bayly, Ann. "The Parent's Educational Bureau." *Child Welfare Magazine*, September, 1927, p. 34-36.

⁵ Cober, E. W. (Chairman) "Report of the Research Committee." *Bulletin* 10: 16-21; October, 1930. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

as the passing of classes, the ringing of bells, the instruction of teachers in making reports, the meeting of school visitors, the handling of accidents, the scheduling of the auditorium, and many other activities often absorb most of the principal's time. To handle such demands most efficiently the principal must have clerical assistance, must delegate duties, and must standardize many procedures.

In delegating minor administrative duties the principal may call upon individual teachers, teacher committees, individual pupils, and pupil groups. In many schools pupils may assume a portion of the school's administration in the form of "extracurriculum" activities. All of these sources of aid may be recruited, instructed, and inspected in their work so as to relieve the principal for the more complicated activities.

Standardization of procedures has proven of value in many schools. Usually the exact steps in every procedure have been put in mimeographed form and are available for each teacher. An example of these standard directions are the following for playground accidents:

1. If the child is conscious and not seriously injured, have him assisted to the nurse's room by two boys, preferably the Boy Scout Accident Patrol.
2. If the accident caused a broken bone or the exact nature of the injury is unknown, do not move the child until the nurse or principal has made a diagnosis.
3. In all cases notify the principal or nurse immediately. If these persons cannot be reached, notify the teacher on yard duty.
4. If help is not available from the sources named in (3) above, call the Emergency Hospital, Main 384.
5. After the child has been cared for send a written memorandum to the principal, giving the child's name, hour of the accident, date, probable nature of the injury, and the names of witnesses.

Standard directions such as the above provide the teachers with a plan of action, safeguard the school against charges of negligence, and make unwise procedures on the part of teachers less likely. Other situations which may be discussed in the school manual are the attendance of teachers, the attendance of pupils, the yard duty assignment, the use of the build-

ing, the passing of lines, the fire drill, the ordering of supplies, the handling of solicitors, the use of the heating and ventilating system, the promotion of pupils, the marking of pupils' reports, letters to parents, the reports to the superintendent, the procedure in discipline cases, and other problems of a similar nature.¹

Building maintenance—In large city systems the maintenance of school buildings is a specialized activity under the direction of the business manager. Since this plan usually relieves the principal of many routine responsibilities, it increases his effectiveness. However, there have been instances when too much specialization tied the principal's hands with "red tape" and endless reports. Business managers and superintendents should cooperate with the principal in avoiding petty and time-consuming duties.

Usually the chief responsibility of the school head in building maintenance has to do with the direction of the school janitor. The janitor's work means a great deal to the comfort and safety of the school. Principals have found it advantageous to rate the janitor's work in terms of the cleanliness and systematic care of the building.² Certainly it is good procedure to have basic requirements as to the frequency of washing blackboards, waxing floors, cleaning chalk troughs, and so on. In a large New York school a notebook is used to conserve the time given by the principal to building inspection. This notebook lists the fire extinguishers, blackboards, floors, and other equipment of the building, with space for the janitor to enter the data as each item receives attention. At any time the principal can check the condition of his building in regard to the important items of janitorial work.

Financial accounting—Under the clerical functions of the principal, in later sections of this bulletin, attention will be given to office organization, school records, and reports. At this point it is important to emphasize the value and safety of a financial accounting in schools where money is collected. Usually these funds come from entertainments, locker fees, athletics, and similar sources.

¹ See the following: Hubbard, Frank W. "Obtaining Time for Supervision through a Teachers' Handbook." *Elementary School Journal* 29: 748-53; June, 1929. Lane, Robert H. *A Workbook for Principals and Supervisors*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. p. 3-51.

² Principals will want to supplement the standard set up by the central office by referring to such publications as: Cubberley, Ellwood P. *The Principal and His School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923. p. 217-19. Also, Engelhardt, N. L., Reeves, C. E., and Womrath, G. F. *Standards for Public School Janitorial-Engineering Service*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. p. 5-10.

In some school systems the local board rules require principals to deposit all funds in the business manager's office at the close of each school day. Other cities permit schools to maintain separate accounts under a plan as suggested by Engelhardt and Engelhardt:

All funds of student activities should be under one central control within the school building. The best plan is to have the clerk in the office of the principal perform the duties of the accounting officer. A financial committee consisting of a faculty adviser and student representatives may function for purposes of audit and control.¹

Rich has described the system used in Detroit in the *Ninth Yearbook* of the national Department of Elementary School Principals.² The directions to the principal are as follows:

1. The principal shall designate some one as treasurer of school funds.
2. All moneys collected from school activities shall be turned over to the treasurer in total and all payments made by check.
3. The money shall be deposited in the bank.
4. The account shall be carried in school name and checks signed by the principal or treasurer.
5. When money is received, make an entry in cash received book (cash Dr. page) by writing in date, from what received and amount.
6. When money is paid out make entry in cash disbursements books (cash Cr. page) by writing in date, check number, for what given, and amount.
7. At the end of each month deduct total cash disbursements for month from total cash receipts for month (plus balance at beginning of month) and carry balance forward to next page as balance on hand at beginning of following month.
8. See that your book balance at the end of the month plus outstanding checks equals balance given on your bank statement.

While the above discussion has merely touched upon the many problems of financial accounting, the importance of adequate records cannot be overemphasized. Principals should protect themselves against charges of carelessness or dishonesty. The best means of meeting such criticisms are: systematic school records, bank statements, and careful audits.

Supplies—The ordering of supplies, checking the shipment, distributing supplies to the classes, and taking inventory are tasks requiring the cooperation of teachers, principal, and janitor. When a clerk is provided, it is possible for the principal to turn over much of this

work to others, although certain semi-technical skills in ordering supplies and judging their use cannot be so delegated. The clerk should not be given authority to judge whether teachers are using supplies economically. The school clerk's relation to supplies is that of a bookkeeper. Suspected abuses of supplies should be reported to the principal for judgment.

The ordering of basic supplies may be handled by the school clerk as most schools are limited to the standard equipment furnished to all schools. The checking and inventory of supplies may be done by the clerk and janitor at times when regular duties are not pressing.

Some of the principals visited during the preparation of the *Seventh Yearbook* were giving much time to the distribution of supplies.³ Interviews were often interrupted by requests for pencils and paper, which the principal took time to look after personally. This condition existed even in schools where clerks were employed and where janitors were in a position to devote some time to the supply room. To reduce this demand on his time one principal hung the supply room key in the office with instructions for the teachers to help themselves. Another principal kept a day-to-day supply in his office so he was able to fill requisitions without moving from his desk.

Such practices make the principal a slave to petty routine. He needs to conserve his time by reducing the number of requests for supplies by asking the teachers to order for a week at a time, and by delegating the routine responsibility for ordering, checking, and distributing the supplies to the clerk or janitor.

How may I improve my administration?—The improvement of the administrative phases of the principal's work involves (1) a readjustment of time allotted to this work, and (2) an improvement in the efficiency of handling these activities. In working toward improvement along these lines the principal will find it desirable (1) to make a job analysis of his work, (2) to study the opportunities for delegating minor administrative duties, and (3) to broaden his professional contacts so as to profit from the best practices of other principals.⁴

¹ Engelhardt, N. L. and Engelhardt, Fred. *Public School Business Administration*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 800.

² See "Accounting for Elementary School Funds" by Lester H. Rich in the *Ninth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 374-75.

³ Work of the Committee on Standards and Training, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association in the *Seventh Yearbook*, April, 1928.

⁴ See *The Principal and His School* by Ellwood P. Cubberley, p. 185-334; *Office Practices in Secondary Schools* by W. C. Reavis and R. C. Woellner, and *Systematizing the Work of School Principals* by M. E. Morgan and E. C. Cline.

An analysis of the principal's duties, particularly by the diary method, often shows the principal giving a relatively large proportion of his time to administration. Further study should indicate whether this emphasis upon one phase of the work is necessary or merely due to careless budgeting of time. If a change in the time allotment seems wise, the existing checklists of duties and the budgeting plan¹ offer effective means of adjustment.

The ability to delegate responsibility to others has been cited as one of the essential qualities of an efficient school executive. Fortunately, the tendency is growing to provide principals with clerks who may assume minor administrative functions. Principals who wisely assign responsibilities to clerks are able to give proper attention to the more technical phases of administration and supervision.

Another source of help for the principal is the teachers. Frequently a teacher may be relieved from certain classroom duties to assume minor administrative functions. Teacher committees are a source of potential assistance. No system of administration is complete which does not enlist the cooperation and active help of the pupils. In innumerable ways they may assume obligations, not only to relieve the principal, but to develop their own executive ability.

Finally the principal will constantly strive to improve his mastery of the administrative duties which cannot be delegated. This mastery may come through an analysis of his procedures, wide study, and observation. The school manual or handbook may be used to set forth the teacher's place in administration so as to reduce the questions, doubts, and duplication of effort. The operation of the school may be improved by ideas taken from the departmentalized, platoon, or other plans of organization. Ability grouping offers a basis for solving some of the problems of individual instruction. Many community organizations may be brought into the work of supplying the school with instructional materials. Other phases of the principal's administrative activity lend themselves to unique and improved procedures when the principal studies his job.

Supervision

Supervision of instruction is generally considered by educational theorists and practical workers to be one of the principal's most important functions. Yet even a casual investigation shows that many principals are not capitalizing the opportunities of this phase of their work.

The professional principal, who is studying his job, will want to give much thought to the technics and effectiveness of his supervisory program. This section presents briefly considerations to be kept in mind in studying the principal's supervisory program. In many instances only the minimum of attention has been given to major problems, but the frequent citations to references should make supplementary material readily available.

What is supervision?—Many definitions of supervision tend to prevent a clear understanding of the term. Current statements include "redirected teaching," "use of tests," "cooperation of teacher and supervisor," and similar phrases. Such definitions describe means or ways in which supervision functions. Definitions based on such phrases would be limited only by the number of devices. It is better to define supervision in terms of purpose, as there is only one primary purpose, that of improving the teaching of children. A good practical definition of supervision is: the technic of improving conditions in which more efficient learning occurs.²

A technic is a skilled way of doing things. It is a procedure involving the use of people and things under the guidance of a trained individual. Technic in supervision implies purposeful, economical, skilled, and worthwhile activities. It goes further to include the manipulation of these activities as they are projected, adjusted, or withdrawn according to the demands of the particular situation.

The above statements of the meaning of supervision are essential parts of the general knowledge of the principal. They serve as "pegs" upon which the specific activities of supervision may be hung. A consideration of these activities shows that they must be grouped according to their purposes in the particular

¹ See Kuehny, M. S. "The Effect on the Use and Distribution of the Elementary School Principal's Time by the Adoption of Daily Schedules or Programs." *Bulletin*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Vol. 5, October, 1925, p. 42-51. Also, Chapter IV of the *Ninth Yearbook* (1930), Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

² See *How To Supervise* by George C. Kyte, p. 3-47; the *Eighth Yearbook* (1930), Department of Superintendence, Chapters I and II; and "The Principal as a Supervisor," *Research Bulletin* (November, 1929), National Education Association.

school situation. For example: the classification of pupils may be either a supervisory or an administrative activity depending upon its purpose at the particular time. If the essential purpose of the classification is to organize the school, then the activity is primarily administrative. If pupils are classified into ability groups to improve learning conditions, then the activity is primarily supervisory.

In the same way teachers' meetings, individual conferences, bulletins, and classroom visits may be administrative or supervisory depending upon the purpose emphasized at the time.

The importance of supervision—Supervision of public schools in the United States has gone through three stages of development, the rudimentary, the mechanical, and the professional.¹ Each of these stages has paralleled the development of the schools, as to complexity of organization and extensiveness of the curriculum. The fact that supervision has developed so closely with the schools themselves is indicative of its importance.

Elementary school principals have a particular interest in supervision as it affects the development of their office. Many city superintendents have found it necessary to employ specialists to assist in improving instruction when principals are not prepared to assume the responsibility. These special supervisors become the key workers in directing instruction and the principal loses his big opportunity for professional service. Sensing this situation, alert principals have adopted the slogan "the principal as the skilled supervisor" and are endeavoring through professional study, organization, research, and professional writing to meet the challenge.

The results of supervision—The best single indication of the value of supervision is found in the evidence of accelerated improvement in children. Pittman's study² shows that children in supervised rural schools made far greater gains than those in unsupervised schools.

Courtis compared unsupervised and supervised geography classes³ and showed that greater gains are made in the supervised classes in terms of standard test results. An experiment in Oakland and Macomb Counties in Michigan showed that children in supervised schools did 170.8 percent of a normal year of school work while pupils in unsupervised schools only accomplished 97 percent of a regular year.⁴

Other criteria for judging the effectiveness of supervision are: (1) changes in the attitudes and aims of teachers, (2) changes in the technics of the classroom, (3) teacher opinion as to the value of supervision, (4) opinion of supervisors as to the value of supervisory procedures, and (5) opinion of pupils as to the changes in the learning situation. Detailed discussion of these problems will be found in the yearbooks of the various departments of the National Education Association.⁵

Supervisory activities of principals—The principal who studies his job is constantly comparing his activities with those of other principals. He is particularly keen to familiarize himself with all new technics in supervision—those technics which have as their peculiar purpose the improvement of instruction and learning conditions.

Valentine⁶ asked teachers to indicate on a checklist the most helpful supervisory procedures. The seven procedures so obtained were:

1. Hold office hours for teachers seeking help.
2. Give classroom demonstrations when requested.
3. Hold instructional group meetings with new teachers.
4. Plan with new teachers individually.
5. Advise and assist in collection of collateral materials, visual aid, etc.
6. Help teachers with broad and suggestive recommendations.
7. Hold friendly, personal conferences with teacher following visit.

Kyte⁷ asked teachers to state the nature of the help they would like to receive from their

¹ Wilson, Julia S. *History of Supervision*. Master's Thesis, University of California, 1925. Also, *How To Supervise* by G. C. Kyte, p. 3-30.

² Pittman, Marvin. *The Value of School Supervision*. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1921. p. 119.

³ Courtis, S. A. "Measuring the Effects of Supervision." *School and Society* 10: 61-70; July 19, 1919.

⁴ Hoppes, W. C., et al. "The Value of Supervision in the Rural Schools of Oakland County." *Michigan Education Association Bulletin*, No. 7; June, 1926. 40 p.

⁵ See the *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence, the *Second Yearbook* and the *Third Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, and the *Tenth Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

⁶ Valentine, P. F. "A Job Analysis of Elementary Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 279-82; March, 1926. See p. 195 of the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928.

⁷ Kyte, George C. "The Elementary School Principal as a Builder of Teaching Morale." *First Yearbook*, Michigan Department of Elementary School Principals, 1927. p. 44-52.

principals. The most frequently mentioned responses were:

1. More demonstrations of good teaching.
2. Definite policies in routine matters.
3. Definite constructive criticism.
4. More help in improving instruction.
5. More visitation and study of classroom.
6. Testing the work of the pupils.
7. More contact with children's activities.

Dyer submitted a checklist of activities¹ in supervision to principals and college specialists for an estimation of relative importance. The first 14 functions, according to these groups, fall under five heads: suggestions of methods of teachers, suggestions on management to teachers, pupil study and adjustment, sending teachers to visit, and improving physical conditions of the school.

The committee preparing the 1930 yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction asked 410 teachers to rate the supervisory activities of principals. Table 5 shows the 19 items rated "very helpful" by 30 percent or more of the teachers.

Of the most frequently mentioned supervisory procedures in all of the above studies the following are worthy of detailed consideration:

1. Class visits and observation.
2. Individual conferences with teachers.
3. Testing and measuring.
4. Demonstration teaching.
5. Pupil study and adjustment.
6. Teachers' meeting.

Class visits and observation—Class visitation consists of two types (1) the inspectorial and (2) the supervisory. The first is characterized by the short period of observation for the purpose of "straightforward inspection untempered by any effort on the part of the inspector to contribute to the situation."² The supervisory visit is primarily concerned with the technical phases of instruction and must of necessity be prolonged for careful study. Both types of visits have their place among the techniques of the principal. The criticism so sharply directed toward "inspection" is due to its use by some principals to the exclusion of the more important supervisory visits.

In discussing supervisory visits several questions will be raised:

1. Is supervisory visitation necessary?
2. Do teachers want supervisory visits?
3. Should visits be on a schedule or at random periods?
4. How long should a visit be?
5. What should the principal do during the visit?

(1) Supervisory visitation is necessary if the principal is to improve instruction. He must see the school process in all of its phases from the administrative details through the most technical aspects of the learning activities. He must sense the high points of the teacher's efforts and "provide for his own growth through first-hand contacts. Where else than in the classroom can these things be done?"³

¹ Dyer, W. P. *Activities of the Elementary School Principal for the Improvement of Instruction*. Contributions to Education, No. 274. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. See also, the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928, p. 196-97, 562-66.

² See the editorial comment, *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 27, No. 3; November, 1926, p. 173-74.

³ McMurray, Frank M. "Supervision." *Childhood Education* 4: 313-14; March, 1928.

TABLE 5.—ITEMS OF PRINCIPALS' SUPERVISORY AID RATED "VERY HELPFUL" BY 30 PERCENT OR MORE OF TEACHERS

Item	Percent of Teachers
1. Help in obtaining materials of instruction, equipment, and supplies	65.5
2. Constructive teachers' meetings	56.9
3. Suggestions concerning individual pupil problems	55.9
4. Helpful advice concerning individual needs and difficulties	54.5
5. Experimentation by teachers encouraged	51.5
6. Constructive criticism of teaching observed	50.0
7. Suggestions concerning organization of pupil groups	44.5
8. Interpretation of aims and objectives	41.2
9. Suggestions for developing through pupil participation such social traits as initiative and self-control	41.2
10. Suggestions concerning economic use of time and effort	39.5
11. Suggestions concerning desirable methods	39.5
12. Diagnosis of teaching difficulties	38.5
13. Evaluation of results of instruction	38.5
14. Suggestions for developing worth-while pupil activities	36.9
15. Suggestions concerning use of equipment and supplies	35.9
16. Suggestions as to professional study, advancement in service	32.9
17. Suggestions concerning economic use of materials	32.5
18. Interpretation of course of study, outlines, etc.	31.3
19. Help in evaluating pupil activities	31.2

See pages 183-84 of the *Third Yearbook*, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1930.

(2) Teachers want supervisory visits of the right kind, according to the studies of Kyte and Valentine. Leading teachers¹ recognize the importance of cooperation by teachers and principals in supervision. But it is only the *best* type of supervision which is desired. Best because it is adjusted to needs of the individual teacher, because it capitalizes the teacher's talents, because the teacher's personality is respected, and because other common-sense principles are observed. It is the faulty practice of dogmatic direction, rudeness, unreasonable standards, and stifling rules which discourage or antagonize the teacher and too often give supervision unpleasant connotations.

(3) The problem of scheduling visits to the classroom may cause difficulty if not handled tactfully. Briefly there are three types of visits, (a) surprise, (b) schedule, and (c) invitational.

(a) The surprise or unannounced visit has little justification. It assumes that the teacher is the one to be observed during the visit and that unless she is kept in a state of anxiety as to the time of the next visit her work will fall below standard. The emphasis in this procedure is negative and puts the teacher on the defensive against supervision. It is a wise supervisor who visits primarily to observe the children and their learning activities, with the teacher as one of the supplementary factors. Since attention is not focused primarily upon the teacher, she may concern herself with demonstrating the ability and the progress of the children. Supervision thus becomes a cooperative study of teaching technics, educational aims, and learning conditions rather than a criticism of one individual by another.

(b) The scheduled visit is used by many successful principals. It has the advantage of giving the teacher warning and conveys the idea that the principal does not desire to see her at a disadvantage. Under such an arrangement it is much easier to convince the teacher that the supervisor's main interest is the learning activities of the children.

Should scheduled visits be made by grades, by subjects, or according to the strengths or weaknesses of teachers? The relative merits of these various approaches cannot be discussed

here.² Various plans of scheduling visits have merit and should prove useful to the principal. One school might require an investigation of reading throughout all grades, thereby making subject supervision the best form in that particular instance. An adjustment of content between several classes of the same grade level would make grade visits most effective. The principal should not develop a "pet hobby" or plan of supervision to the exclusion of other types. All procedures should be employed according to the demands of the particular situation.³

(c) The invitational visit has the greatest potential possibilities, because the teacher's attitude is best when she has requested the call. It will not be possible for the principal to place all of his visits on this basis or he will be in danger of "hit-and-miss" visitation, and may fail to help teachers where the need is greatest. Yet a principal should be proud when he can develop the confidence of his teachers to the point where they voluntarily ask for visits. Such voluntary requests indicate more clearly than anything else that the teacher's personality is being respected⁴ and that supervision has become a constructive and cooperative enterprise.

(4) The length of the supervisory visit is largely determined by the specific classroom conditions. A group of representative supervising principals reported visits ranging in length from one minute to over an hour, and the median visit was 21 minutes. If we are to understand supervision as involving study of classroom situations and requiring careful planning, then it is obvious that visits must be reasonably long. Fair conclusions cannot be drawn by merely "dropping in" or by observing for even 15 minutes in an hour period. For all practical purposes the visit should be for the full teaching period or longer.

After all, the problem is not one of time so much as it is the adjustment of the period of observation to the needs of the particular teacher and group of children. The constant use of the short visit of 15 minutes or less is likely to subject the principal to the criticism of "inspectorial" and superficial observation.

¹ Adair, Cornelia. "Cooperative Supervision." *Proceedings, National Education Association*, 1927. p. 442-44.

² See Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*, p. 431-58. Rogers, Don C. "Unit Supervision vs. Subject Supervision." *Bulletin*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Vol. 3; January, 1924. p. 103-105. Underwood, F. M. "The Elementary School Principal as a Supervisor." *Bulletin*, Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. 2; January, 1923. p. 47-53.

³ See "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, November, 1929.

⁴ Kilpatrick, W. H. "Democracy in Supervision." *First Yearbook*, National Conference on Educational Method. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. p. 259-69.

(5) The activities of the principal during the supervisory visit should be most thoughtfully prepared with a particular class in mind.¹ Certain supervisory procedures of utmost value with one teacher may arouse the antagonism of another. The supervisor must recognize the individual differences of teachers just as he insists upon a recognition of the individual differences of children.

These practical questions are raised:

- (a) How should the principal enter the room and what should be said to the teacher or pupils?
- (b) What should be the principal's attitude toward the lesson?
- (c) Should the principal take notes during the observation?
- (d) Should the principal rate the teacher during the observation?

(a) Space is not available to discuss at length the principal's entrance into the room and his attitude during the observation. Briefly, it may be said that the principal should enter the room quietly, assume a position that will not distract the teacher and class from the problem in hand. Teachers should know the principal's technic well enough to understand when he wishes to have the attention of the class or when he merely wishes to observe. Under most circumstances it is not necessary for the teacher and principal to exchange more than a brief friendly greeting. For more detailed consideration of the routine phases of observation, the reader is referred to the selected references.²

(b) It is entirely possible for a principal to sit through a class recitation and never "observe" the learning activities. Furthermore, his indifferent manner and look of boredom may completely destroy the teacher's spontaneity.

It is one thing to say at the end of the period that the lesson was "nice," but it is a more important skill when one can raise intelligent questions. Praise for the teacher and class is important in building up morale, but praise may be given by any unskilled observer. A skilled supervisor should be able to ask questions of the following type: "Why did you help Billy when he was struggling to express

himself?" "What are you doing to help the children who count on their fingers?" "Have you ever tried phonograph music during your penmanship period?" There are any number of questions which a supervisor may raise to show his appreciation and interest in the teacher's aims and technics.

(c) Supervising principals are about equally divided on the matter of notetaking during recitations. Fifty-eight percent reported that they did not take notes.³ Writers on supervision are also divided on the subject.⁴ Notetaking by principals has proven irritating in the past because the class visits have often been superficial and the teachers have not been informed as to the content of the notes. There are indications that where the visits are supervisory in type and the records are exact, written notes have proven of considerable value to both teacher and principal. Recent developments in record forms are discussed in current professional literature.⁵

(d) The rating of teachers is a device commonly associated with supervision. Like many other devices it may be supervisory or merely administrative depending entirely upon its use. In common practice the rating scale is used as an administrative device for giving the superintendent information about the teachers. The ratings made by principals once a year are seldom shown to teachers, nor are the weaknesses recorded in the report made known to teachers. In terms of the accepted definition of supervision ratings of this type cannot be considered supervisory as they have contributed nothing toward improving instruction.

In a previous paragraph the observation report was discussed as a device in supervision. Some of these devices contain rating scales of the teacher as well as points on learning activities. Other reports concentrate attention upon the activities of the pupils. Considering the basic principle of supervision, that the supervisor is primarily concerned with child growth, the question is pertinent whether a rating of the teacher during an observation is a distract-

¹ Anderson, C. J., Barr, A. S., and Bush, M. G. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. D. Appleton & Co., 1925. p. 64-77. Also, Kyte, G. C. *How To Supervise*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930. p. 138-47.

² Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. p. 149-50. Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923. p. 445-46. Underwood, F. M. "General Principles of Supervision and Teaching." *Public School Messenger*, Saint Louis Public Schools, Vol. 24, No. 2; April 15, 1927. p. 8-9. Kyte, G. C. *How To Supervise*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. p. 159-60.

³ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1928. p. 193.

⁴ Cubberley, E. P., *op. cit.*, p. 445-49. Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton & Co., 1926. p. 150-68. Kyte, G. C. *How To Supervise*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. p. 149-50.

⁵ See Anderson, Barr, and Bush. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. D. Appleton & Co., 1925. p. 67-77. Barr and Burton. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton & Co., 1926. p. 152-53. Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923. p. 448. Kyte, G. C. *How To Supervise*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. p. 150-59.

ing procedure or not. Would a number of written evaluations of the pupils' activities be an important basis for estimating the teacher's skill? Could this composite record be translated into terms of teaching skill for the superintendent? Should a duplicate of the report to the superintendent be given to the teacher for her guidance?

If the procedure suggested in these paragraphs be followed, the rating of teachers would not be done during the observation visit. If the purpose of class visitation is primarily to observe children, the supervisor should give the major portion of his time to the observation of their activities, and the study of their progress. It should be possible then to rate the teacher upon the basis of these primary reports supplemented by certain secondary evaluations of the teacher's technic. This composite score could be most appropriately compiled in the principal's office.

Individual conferences—The reports of principals show that the individual conference with teachers is a common device in improving instruction. In many instances the conference follows after and is based upon a supervisory visit. Every supervisory visit should be followed by a conference with the teacher if only for the purpose of saying, "It was a good lesson."

The time for conferences cannot be stated dogmatically although a large percent of principals hold them immediately after school. It is certainly unwise to hold supervisory conferences during class time, at recess periods, and other odd moments when the brevity of the visit is apt to cause misunderstanding.¹

The attitude of the principal during the conference will largely determine his success in improving the teacher's work. Some principals consider the conference as a time to "put the teacher in her place" or to make her deeply aware of her shortcomings. Such a critical attitude may be necessary in exceptional instances, but it cannot be justified in most conferences when the purpose is to help the teacher do better work.²

It has been suggested that a guiding prin-

ciple should be "Discuss the future and not the past. In the light of past mistakes, but without an analysis or enumeration of them, plan the next periods with the teacher."³ The emphasis then is placed upon the plans for improvement and not upon the defects themselves. The principal becomes a friendly adviser anxious to aid in future improvement, rather than a severe critic of the past.⁴

Testing and measuring—Principals often cite a testing program as a supervisory procedure. In reality, the giving, scoring, and recording of standard tests may be little more than high-class clerical work. The most difficult and the most important part of a test survey is to know what to do with the results. Supervision in the best sense does not begin until the test scores are used to guide, to adjust, or to revise the status of pupil learning. This viewpoint is discussed elsewhere in this bulletin under "pupil adjustment" and presented in detail in a previously issued *Research Bulletin*.⁵

Demonstration teaching—Demonstration teaching is a term applied to lessons designed to illustrate superior teaching technics. The demonstration may or may not be actually given by the supervisory officer. The purpose of the procedure may be to show a model lesson or to suggest technics in an ordinary lesson.

According to Hampton, the elementary school principal devotes less than one percent of his total time to demonstration teaching. The teachers in Valentine's study indicate demonstration teaching as one of the most helpful supervisory activities.⁶ More than 35 percent of the teachers in Kyte's study⁷ indicate that they want more help from principals along the lines of demonstration teaching.

These studies point toward the conclusion that demonstration teaching should be an important supervisory procedure for principals. Yet principals do not use it very extensively because of two misconceptions:

1. That the principal must give the actual demonstration.
2. That all demonstration lessons must be models of teaching procedure.

¹ Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton & Co., 1926. p. 163-64.

² Anderson, C. J., Barr, A. S., and Bush, M. G. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. D. Appleton & Co., 1925. p. 222-59.

³ McMurray, Frank. "Supervision." *Childhood Education*, Vol. 4, No. 7; March, 1928. p. 260-94.

⁴ Kyte, G. C. *How To Supervise*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. Chapter VII.

⁵ See "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association; November, 1929. p. 339-42.

⁶ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals. p. 183 and 195.

⁷ Kyte, George C. "The Elementary School Principal as a Builder of Teaching Morale." *First Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals. Michigan Education Association, 1927. p. 50, Table 3.

It is not necessary that demonstration lessons be given by the principal. The purpose of the demonstration teaching should be to improve instruction. The principal should call upon any qualified and available member of the school system to give the actual demonstration. The persons available for these demonstration lessons include the superintendent, the assistant superintendent, special supervisors, other principals, and teachers.¹ Some descriptions of actual demonstrations by various supervisory officers will be given in the next paragraphs.

All demonstration lessons need not be "model lessons" nor examples of unusual teaching procedure. In fact, the actual demonstration may be somewhat disjointed due to the necessity of pointing out particular devices. Furthermore, it is excellent training for teachers to look upon the demonstration lessons as legitimate subjects for criticism. The wise supervisor will ask the teachers for suggestions on how to improve the demonstration lesson. With this critical attitude a teacher is more apt to make improvements in her own teaching. The idea that demonstration lessons are perfect may lead to thoughtless imitation. Pittman improved the supervision of rural schools through "suggestive" as contrasted with model lessons.²

A superintendent of a city of 70,000 population visited a number of new teachers in a large elementary school. One class was struggling with the legends of early Roman history when the superintendent entered. He saw that the children were having difficulty understanding certain Latin terms and early Roman customs. As he had been a teacher of Latin in high school, the superintendent was able to take the class, and through blackboard illustrations to clear up most of the difficulty. The informal demonstration lesson indicated to the teacher where he had been poorly prepared and suggested a new approach to the particular lesson.

The assistant superintendent because of wide visitation is often able to put the principal in touch with examples of excellent teaching or even to demonstrate the work of other schools. The principal should feel that his contact with these officials offers an unusual opportunity for much worthwhile assistance.

Special supervisors or helping teachers spend large portions of their time in giving demonstration lessons. Usually principals are inclined to let these persons give the lessons which the supervisor's observations indicate to be necessary. A better procedure would be for the principal to request these special supervisors to give the demonstrations *requested* by the teachers or to teach the lessons which the principal believes to be necessary. Sometimes the school nurses or home teachers are capable of giving assistance. One principal reports that he was able to redirect the physical education and hygiene teaching of his special class through "demonstrations" given by the school nurse.

A principal may assist other principals in demonstration lessons either by lending outstanding teachers or by inviting the teachers of other schools to attend demonstration lessons given in his building. The pooled resources of several schools provide in most instances enough talent for many worthwhile programs. Baltimore had an "after school demonstration course" which required the cooperation of teachers, principals, and special supervisors. Many cities have organized demonstration schools or allow teachers to visit each other under the principal's direction.³

Regular teachers for demonstration lessons are not often used by principals, although every principal knows that all teachers have one subject in which they specialize. Often principals capitalize these special interests by assigning them definite places in the supervisory meetings. In consultation with each teacher a subject or grade is chosen for specialization and study. The teacher then becomes the "model teacher of reading for the First Grade" or the "model teacher of arithmetic for the Sixth Grade," or the model teacher of her special subject. As the model teacher, she is expected to keep in touch with recent professional literature in the field, to demonstrate new technics to all teachers of the school, to instruct new teachers in the methods of the particular school, and to provide demonstration lessons upon request for parents, visitors, and others. Under this scheme the principal gives relatively few demonstrations himself, although he draws upon the services of many

¹ Kyte, George C. *How To Supervise*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930, Chapter X.

² Pittman, M. S. *The Value of School Supervision*. Warwick & York, 1921. p. 36, 62-119.

³ Teachers often cite "visits to other teachers" as a helpful supervisory aid. The viewpoint of this bulletin is that such visits are merely one form of demonstration lessons. The same principles apply: (1) the demonstrators should know in advance of the visit, (2) the observer should look for definite technics or problems, (3) the observer should discuss his observations with the demonstrator or the principal, and (4) the observer should attempt to improve on the lesson.

competent demonstrators and organizes their programs in an effective manner.

The adjustment of pupils—The proper placement of children and their adjustment from time to time are among the most important supervisory activities of the principal. These activities are usually executed on the basis of information obtained in teacher and pupil conferences and from pupil testing.

Kyte's study¹ shows that teachers believe principals to be helpful through "more contact with the children's activities." The knowledge of pupils through a contact with their activities is basic to all pupil adjustment. One principal has described his contacts as follows:

I learn many things about our children on the street when I go to school and when I leave the building, the children who meet me and those who walk away from school with me frequently give keys to their interests and their prejudice.

Schools differ widely as to the pupil-principal relationship. At one extreme is the "big bear" type of principal who arouses fear in the child and thereby encourages unsatisfactory answers to questions. Adjustments after this type of pupil conference could hardly be based upon complete data. At the other extreme we find the principal who talks with pupils so as to obtain complete facts. These principals respect the child's personality, adjust themselves to immature viewpoint, and are concerned with putting the child at complete ease. Interviews under these conditions frequently give information not procurable in any other manner.

The testing movement has provided the principal with a useful tool for studying teaching and children. The tendency toward mass testing has often obscured the value of testing for individual adjustment. Only recently we have come to realize the importance of individual differences to school procedure. In the study of the individual, problems of maladjustment may be solved or adjusted.² It is in this case study method that the principal has the opportunity of applying the more exact measures. One principal has written of this as follows:

I have this very day evaluated the results of specific reactions of individuals to at least two hundred tests. These specific reactions may be nothing

more than marks for individual pupils on spelling tests, or they may be results of objective tests on our courses of study in any subject. The medians of these tests alone mean little. I must weigh and consider the result of each test for each pupil. Much of this can be done hurriedly but some has to be done very carefully. If there is any place whatever for praise or condemnation it must come after reflection, consideration, deliberation, and conference, and then, too, we must not forget that the pupil has a sense of justice. We must remember that face values alone on tests could kill our individual and so we look farther for underlying causes and conditions.³

Closely related to the problem of pupil study and adjustment on the basis of standard tests is the work which may be done with informal tests.⁴ Usually these are based directly upon the course of study of a particular city. By virtue of this fact they are of immediate and practical use to teachers in determining the effectiveness of the teaching. A New Jersey principal reports her particular problem for the year as that of developing informal tests based upon the reading course of study. The steps in her procedure are: (1) discussing with the teacher the course of study in reading for the particular grade, (2) deciding with the teacher upon the basic content and objectives of the grade, (3) making of the test by the principal, (4) criticism of test by teacher, (5) revising the test in conference between teacher and principal, (6) experimental use of test on a representative group of children, (7) comparison of test with any comparable standardized tests, (8) revision of test in terms of experimentation, (9) extensive use of test, and (10) continuous revision and improvement according to experience.

It is not possible to discuss the matter of pupil adjustment further. There are many excellent treatments of the general phases of pupil adjustment, as well as the application of standard and informal tests to the problem. Careful attention is invited to the selected bibliography at the end of Part II of this bulletin.

Teachers' meetings—Teachers' meetings may be classified into two general types, administrative and supervisory. Each of these types may be formal or informal, lecture or participating, small group or whole faculty.⁵

¹ See the *First Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals of Michigan, p. 50-51.

² Reavis, W. C. *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools*, 1926, p. 82.

³ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 311.

⁴ Such books as Charles Russell's *Classroom Tests*, Ginn and Company, 1926, 346 p., and *Specimen Objective Examinations* by Giles Ruch and George A. Rice, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1930, 324 p.

⁵ See Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1923, p. 514-16. And G. C. Kyte's *How To Supervise*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930, Chapter VIII.

Teachers' meetings were listed seventeenth as to consumption of time of supervising principals.¹ They were fourteenth in terms of total time on Hampton's list of duties. As a supervisory activity it was fourth among the seven most frequently used by supervising elementary school principals. The teachers reporting desirable supervisory activities to Valentine ranked teachers' meetings of the instructional type well up toward the top of the list. Teachers' meetings, particularly those of the supervisory type, represent one of the most important duties of principals.

Observation of many teachers' meetings shows that they are often concerned with administrative problems because principals believe that supervisory matters can be handled most effectively through conferences with individual teachers. On the other hand, many principals show much originality in organizing professional meetings.² One Saint Louis principal outlines a formal course of instruction consisting of lectures and demonstration lessons.

The relative merits of the various types of meetings cannot be stated with finality. All types of meetings may be useful. It is one of the principal's professional opportunities to adjust his program to the needs of his faculty. The type of meeting to be avoided particularly is the "bulletin board type" devoted to petty problems of administration. Such meetings include discussions on the ringing of bells, the distribution of supplies, the control of the playground, the use of athletic equipment, and similar routine administrative problems. These are problems to be settled early in the school year and modified according to need by executive order of the principal. The teachers should be asked to make suggestions on these matters, but for the principal to hold meetings throughout the year for prolonged wrangling over minor details is to invite a slump in faculty morale.

The frequency and the hour of holding meetings must be settled largely in terms of the particular school. The frequency of meet-

ings depends upon the program outlined for the year. After planning with the teachers the objectives of the professional meetings, it is easy to plan the number of meetings necessary to accomplish the program.

The hour of meeting is one that should be settled in cooperation with the teachers. Usually the after school meeting finds everyone tired and not in the mood for professional study. Meetings held before school in the morning have the advantages of brevity and an alert audience. Some principals have found the lunch-hour meeting satisfactory, although if meetings are held rather frequently they may seriously interfere with the midday rest period.³

The curriculum—Another major supervisory activity of the principal has to do with the elementary school curriculum. This procedure was not listed prominently in the studies of supervisory activities above because it is involved in all of the principal's functions. Observation is primarily concerned with studying the growth of children in response to a given curriculum. Individual conferences with teachers serve as a means of improving the teacher's presentation of the curriculum.

On the other hand, curriculum study is not only basic to the various supervisory procedures, but it offers one of the best ways for the principal to become a master of supervision.⁴ Through curriculum building the principal comes to know, not only the philosophy of the teaching, but the details of content, the methods, and devices of presentation. Thus equipped, he need no longer fear to discuss specific items in instruction. He finds that teachers welcome supervision from a principal who is able to give scientific reasons why things should be done a certain way.⁵

How may I improve my supervision?—Supervision has two general aspects, the qualitative and the quantitative. A consideration of quality is primarily a study of the relative merits of specific supervisory procedures. A study of quantity is chiefly concerned with the total amount of time given to supervision.

The improvement of the quality of the su-

¹ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 182-203, and "The Principal as a Supervisor," *Research Bulletin*, November, 1929, p. 326-31.

² Thomas, John S. "Encouraging Discussion in Teachers' Meetings." *Elementary School Journal* 30: 444-49; February, 1930.

³ On teachers' meetings see: Cubberley, E. P., *The Principal and His School*, 1923, p. 519-21; and Kyte, G. C., *How To Supervise*, 1930, p. 229-34.

⁴ Alltucker, Margaret M. "The Principal and the Curriculum." *Bulletin*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association; July, 1928. p. 670-73.

⁵ See such books as: *The Supervision of Elementary School Subjects* by W. H. Burton (and others), D. Appleton and Company, 1929, 710 p.; and *Supervision of the Elementary School* by C. R. Stone, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929, 573 p.

pervision may be made through the following: (1) comparison with checklists, (2) delegation of duties, (3) avoidance of routine, (4) cooperation with the supervisors, (5) discovery of faculty problems, and (6) recognition of differences between teachers.

Checklists have not been developed to the point where the principal has a final list against which he may check his own activities. Progress has been made in that direction and the principal should find the available lists¹ suggestive of new duties and the relative importance of different activities.

Through the delegation of simple duties the principal is able to devote time to the more technical activities of administration and supervision. The formation of teacher committees on measurement can relieve the principal of some phases of pupil adjustment. A program committee can provide the demonstration lessons, lectures, and discussions for many of the teachers' meetings. Committees in the various subjects or grade levels can arrange their own group conferences, assemble instructional materials, and issue bulletins on methods and devices.

The avoidance of routine is closely associated with the delegation of duties, although the emphasis in this paragraph is upon professional study and contacts. There exists a danger in supervision of the principal falling into routine procedures. He may observe classes only for 10 minute periods, or take notes which are never shown to the teachers, or give many standard tests without sufficient emphasis upon interpretation, or hold teachers' meetings of the lecture type. The difficulty in many such situations is a lack of knowledge of new procedures. Professional publications offer the principal unlimited possibilities to acquire new knowledge. Convention meetings have proven useful to many principals.²

Cooperation with special supervisors offers the principal an unusual opportunity to improve the quality of his supervision. Usually supervisors have specialized in particular fields and their suggestions on instruction represent expert advice. They can indicate to the principal the exact skills, habits, and attitudes to look for in children. The pooled resources of super-

visors and principals offer an opportunity to both groups for professional profit.

One of the best means of improving the principal's supervision lies in a questionnaire survey of the needs of the teachers of the particular school. The needs as revealed by a study of the situation might indicate that pupil adjustment demanded the principal's full supervisory time to the marked reduction of observation; or, the situation might indicate the need for a balanced program consisting of all kinds of supervisory procedures; or, the study might reveal the individual differences of teachers and the necessity of a supervisory program adjusted to each class situation.

The improvement of the principal's supervision in a quantitative way generally requires an increase of the relative amount of time given to supervision as compared with administration and other duties. The means toward this increase of time are: (1) comparisons with checklists, (2) delegation of responsibility, and (3) adopting a daily schedule of work.

A principal may compare his work with a checklist and make an analysis of his specific activities. A study of these activities not only suggests new activities worthy of attention, but it should indicate to the principal whether he is spending too much time on petty duties. For example, some principals are held to the petty routine of the office by the telephone calls. It would be better to announce office hours for important calls and during the rest of the time to assign pupils to receive the messages.

Someone has said that one of the best indications of an administrator's executive ability is his skill in getting things done by others. Certainly it is true that many minor clerical and administrative duties can be given over to the clerk, teachers, and pupils without hardship to anyone. Through the delegation of routine work to others the principal may obtain additional time to devote to the more important administrative and supervisory obligations.

The adoption of a daily schedule of work has been recommended as a means of systematizing the principal's work. In practice it has been used not only to systematize the activities of the principal, but to increase the amount

¹ See the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928, p. 183-87, 194-201, 561-66.

² Birmingham, Alabama, gave elementary school principals a bonus to attend the Department of Superintendence convention in Dallas, February, 1927.

of time given to supervision.¹ Under this plan the principal allots a given amount of time to administration, supervision, and so forth. By carefully adhering to the program and at intervals increasing the allotment to supervision, the day eventually comes when the increased time becomes a matter of habit.

Recently, principals in various cities are making charts or schedules of the supervisory activities for a period of a year. Across the top of a large sheet are placed such headings as "history" and "spelling," down the left-hand edge are placed the dates, and in the squares opposite such statements as "start testing program" or "group conferences on units of work." Such a schedule not only makes the principal's work purposeful, but it indicates to the teachers the possibilities of planned supervision.

Teaching Duties

It has been stated that the supervisor of instruction can maintain his touch with the child mind *only* through regular classroom teaching.² In recent years the question has been raised whether long classroom experience does not unfit one for service as a principal.³ Certainly, the progressive principal, who has teaching responsibilities, will want to determine the time division which will make his functioning most effective. The supervising principal, without regular teaching duties, must seek compensation for the loss of classroom contacts.

Teaching in the development of the principalship—At one time the staff of the typical American school consisted of one teacher. With the growth of school enrolments and size of staff, one of the teachers came to be known as the "head" or "principal" teacher. In time the position evolved through the stages of teaching principal, building principal, and supervising principal.

This statement does not mean that the teaching principal cannot greatly increase the effectiveness of his work by careful and continuous study. He can profit from some of the suggestions of this bulletin relative to the improvement of supervision. Administrative phases of his work may be improved by the elimination of petty activities similar to those which hinder

the effectiveness of the supervising principal.

At the same time that the teaching principal works to improve his effectiveness he should intelligently support any movement in the direction of raising his office to the status of a supervising principal. The history of the principalship shows this evolution to be a natural historical development. The cost of placing all principalships on the supervising status is not prohibitive. It has been estimated that the complete change of all elementary school principalships in the United States to the supervisory status would cost approximately \$26,200,000. This sum is 1.6 percent of the current expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools in 1926 in the United States.⁴ A part of this cost would be offset by the resulting larger school unit and its effect in reducing the average cost per pupil. Acquaintance with such facts as these are essential for the teaching principal if he is to support intelligently the progressive development of his office.

Teaching and the supervising principalship—

In communities where the elementary school principalship has reached full maturity the principal should limit his teaching activities to substitute and demonstration teaching. Freedom from regular classroom teaching is the distinctive characteristic of the supervising principalship. It is in this free time that the opportunity is given to develop the supervisory technics which the progressive conception of the principalship requires.

All do not agree that the supervising principal should have complete freedom from regular teaching. According to a study of supervising principals, the actual time allotment to regular teaching averaged 4.18 percent of the total day.⁵ This time would approximate 25 minutes in an eight-hour day. When given an opportunity to state an ideal time allotment, this same group of principals indicated a slightly higher average. Perhaps these principals would agree with the following statement:

The principal should teach one or two classes as one of his regular duties. The meeting of class situations daily will keep him in close touch with

¹ Kuehny, M. S. "The Effect on the Use and Distribution of the Elementary School Principal's Time by the Adoption of Daily Schedules or Programs." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, National Education Association, October, 1925, p. 42-51.

² Jones, L. H. "The Province of the Supervisor." *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1897, p. 217-24.

³ Judd, Charles H. "The Possibilities of the Principalship." *Bulletin, Department of Elementary School Principals*, April, 1926, p. 131-37.

⁴ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 484.

⁵ *Ibid*, p. 205.

teaching problems, and will cause him to have a more sympathetic attitude toward the work of his teachers. The daily association with the pupils will enable him to know their interests and problems better than he could possibly know them if he did not teach.¹

The failure of the supervising principals, in the study mentioned above, to suggest a decrease of the allotment to teaching is due in part to the fact that they were thinking of "ideal" conditions. Under ideal conditions the principal would have clerks and assistant principals to relieve him from petty duties. He would have adequate and modern equipment to facilitate his work. Probably under such conditions he could give five percent of his day to regular teaching without endangering his effectiveness in supervision and administration. Where conditions are not "ideal," it is doubtful whether the supervising principal should give any time to regular teaching.

The quotation given above reflects the belief that contact with the child mind and the problems of teachers can only be maintained through *regular* teaching duties. This conclusion is probably true if the principal is lost in a maze of petty details and removed from the instruction of children. In the newer conception of the principalship the importance of regular teaching is minimized. The principal is no longer a clerk and a petty detailist. Nor is he a recluse who emerges from his office sanctum to mumble unintelligible formulas and demand unreasonable conformity to standardized tests.

One of the distinct characteristics of this evolution has been the reduction of the amount of time given to regular teaching duties. The early "principal" teachers were primarily classroom workers with a few clerical and administrative responsibilities. At the present time principals do varying amounts of regular teaching. A principal may do regular classroom teaching, or exercise the administrative function of substitute teaching, or conduct demonstration lessons as a part of his supervisory technic. The amount and type of teaching done

will depend upon such factors as his skill, the size of his school, the plan of school organization, and the local school board policy.²

The teaching principalship—The elementary school principalship in which a full or part-time load of regular teaching is carried may be found in many places. More than 32 percent of the principals in Crouch's study had regular teaching duties.³ In Morrison's study of teaching and supervising elementary school principals the average time given to teaching duties was 52 percent of the total.⁴ Foster reports the median amount of time given to teaching duties by junior high school principals to be 78 minutes daily.⁵

The principal who is required to devote the major portion of his time to regular teaching can never fully discharge the activities expected of the modern supervising principal. Teaching a class of children is a full-time job. The proper exercise of the functions of the supervising principal calls for the full energy of a vigorous, well-trained person. When the same person attempts to exercise both responsibilities, one or both must suffer.

The professional supervising principal is a trained student of the problems of education. He has had teaching experience enough to realize the relative importance of theory and practice. Through continuous study and research he keeps himself abreast of progressive movements in education. His careful allotment of time gives him opportunities for observation, conferences, teachers' meetings, and similar supervisory activities. A fair share of his time is devoted to extra-curriculum activities, pupil conferences, and playground observation. It is by these legitimate responsibilities of the supervising principalship that the progressive principal gains the necessary knowledge and sympathetic attitude toward his pupils and teachers. The time formerly given to regular teaching may now be used to develop supervisory activities essential in the improvement of instruction.

¹ Bolton, Euri B., and Howard, Clara. "Duties of the Elementary School Principal." *Peabody Journal of Education*, November, 1925, p. 144.

² Pollich, R. E. "Superintendents' Standards and Policies in the Selection, Appointment, and Promotion of Elementary School Principals." *Elementary School Journal* 26: 107-11; October, 1925.

³ Crouch, Roy A. "The Status of the Elementary School Principal." *Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, 1926, p. 253.

⁴ Morrison, J. Cayce. *The School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages*. Ohio State University Studies, Contributions to School Administration, No. 2; May, 1926, p. 43-44.

⁵ Foster, Frank K. *Status of the Junior High School Principal*. U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin*, 1930, No. 18, p. 54.

Clerical Functions

The purpose of this section is to present material suggestive to the principal in handling his clerical work. The clerical duties are both insistent and concrete. They cannot be avoided without causing difficulties. As a result, these activities frequently are allowed to claim a far larger share of the principal's time than their importance justifies. Since most of these duties are routine in nature they may be safely delegated to others with less training than the principal. Constant vigilance is necessary if these insistent demands are to be kept in their proper place. In studying his job, the principal will wish to ask himself these questions: Am I devoting time to clerical duties which I should delegate? Is the proportion of my time devoted to routine mechanical duties too large?

What are the clerical duties?—The clerical duties of the principalship are those which can be performed by a competent clerk under the direction of the principal. These functions range from the complicated administrative-clerical work to the simplest office tasks. According to recent studies, the duties most frequently delegated to the clerical assistants are as follows:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Supplies, books, and stockroom | 9. General office and clerical work |
| 2. Reports | 10. Filing |
| 3. Telephone | 11. Banking |
| 4. Typing and stenographic work | 12. Messenger |
| 5. Records | 13. Enrolment |
| 6. Attendance | 14. Milk program |
| 7. Correspondence | 15. Receive callers and parents. |
| 8. Mimeographing | |

The above list of duties represents the clerical activities of a typical elementary school. Where clerks are not provided, these duties must be performed by the principal with such voluntary help as he may enlist. In schools with clerks, the routine aspects of these activities can be delegated, although the principal must always retain an active general insight and control. Under some circumstances it might be necessary for him actually to take over the

routine work until the clerk is fully familiar with school policy. The extent of this delegation of authority to subordinates must be decided in accordance with the clerk's ability and the willingness of the principal to release responsibilities.

Time given to clerical work—Morrison's study in Ohio shows that the average time given to clerical work was 12 percent of the total day. A representative group of supervising principals report 18.94 percent of their time given to clerical work; teaching principals report an average of 9.43 percent of the school time. Foster reports that the median amount of time given to routine office work is 76 minutes daily for principals of junior high schools. Eikenberry reports high school principals giving 10 percent of their time to routine office duties.¹

Principals will wish to check themselves from time to time to see how their allotment to clerical work compares with practice. Certainly, in view of the greater importance of class observations and similar problems, the objective should always be to reduce the clerical duties to a minimum.

Office organization—The modern elementary or high school demands a well-planned office. There is a need for built-in cabinets, properly located windows, and adequate floor space. The time to think about such items is while the architect is drawing the plans.² Principals should expect to be consulted on the office arrangements and should ask that certain basic standards be observed.³

After the building is constructed, then the principal should study the office arrangement, space, and light so as to use them most efficiently.⁴ Are visitors to the office forced to sit facing bright windows? Could the noisy typewriter be moved away from clerks who must have quiet for concentration? Could the chairs for parents and children who are waiting for appointments be placed in the hall? Does the principal have a place for uninterrupted interviews?

¹ Complete information on the studies cited will be found in the selected references.

² Smith, Hoyt D., and Hubbard, Frank W. "Elementary School Office Facilities." *The American School and University Yearbook*. New York: 443 Fourth Avenue, 1930. p. 315-20.

³ See such fundamental statements as *Standards for the Administration Building of a School System* by G. D. Strayer, N. L. Engelhardt, and W. S. Elsbree. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

⁴ See *Office Practices in Secondary Schools* by W. C. Reavis and R. C. Woellner, Laidlaw Brothers, 1930. 240 p.

How can clerks be used most effectively? Taylor and Donner, writing in the *Ninth Yearbook*, urge principals to make an analysis of the functions of the office and to allot certain duties to each clerk.¹ Donner's assignment of duties for his school is shown in Table 6.

Many principals need to plan and to announce office hours. This step is particularly necessary in schools where little or no clerical help is provided. Some principals will say: "But I must answer the telephone when it rings, or I must see the parent when he comes." While one must be reasonable and courteous in these matters, there is no harm in trying to prevent distractions. Would patrons ignore the announced office hours? Is it necessary for the principal to be near the telephone at all hours of the day?

School records and reports—Two major questions in regard to school records and reports are: (1) What records are necessary? (2) Who should be responsible for making out the records and reports?

Thompson asked 63 high school principals as to statistics which they kept on file in their offices. A portion of the replies is given herewith as Table 7. He also asked principals to suggest other desirable statistical records which they were not keeping in their offices.

Table 7 indicates that the most common problems of records fall in the fields of pupil

TABLE 7.—STATISTICS KEPT MOST FREQUENTLY IN THE OFFICES OF 63 HIGH SCHOOLS¹

Item	Number Keeping Record
1. Attendance records.....	60
2. Enrolment by grades.....	59
3. Proper accounting of funds not appropriated by board of education.....	53
4. Record of teaching load.....	52
5. Elimination during the school year.....	50
6. Record of teachers' experience and training.....	50

¹ Thompson, Leighton S., "Statistics Which Should Be Kept on File in the Office of the High School Principal," *School Review* 35:15-26; January, 1927.

accounting, financial bookkeeping, and teacher personnel. Space makes it necessary to refer at this point to only a few of the sources.² Principals should be thoroughly familiar with proposals regarding records to be found in the bulletins of the national departments for elementary and secondary school principals. (Discussed in Part IV of this bulletin.)

Who should make out the records and reports? Here is a problem deserving much more attention than is frequently given to it. Not infrequently teachers are called upon to keep records which should be cared for by the school clerks. Demands are made for information during periods set aside for teaching. While the value of these data may be great, the principal is strategically placed and primarily re-

¹ See "Organizing the Work of the School Staff" by George D. Taylor and "How To Make the Office Efficient" by Arvin N. Donner, p. 217-29 and 244-49 respectively of the *Ninth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1930.

² See "School Records and Reports," the November, 1927, issue, of the *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association; *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration* by Ward Reeder, 1930; and *Administration of Pupil Personnel* by A. O. Heck. See selected references at end of this part of the bulletin.

TABLE 6.—ASSIGNED DUTIES OF EACH SCHOOL SECRETARY

Record Clerk	Secretary	Book Custodian	Mimeograph Clerk
Reports—State Financial records Cafeteria Resells Specials Reports—Daily attendance *Monthly attendance Kardex file *Record grades *Summary grade sheets Direct messengers	Dictation Transcribing Typing Filing Storehouse orders compiled Making appointments Meeting callers of principal Answering phone Outgoing mail School announcements Calling substitute teachers Report at teachers' meetings *Principal's daily situation report *Principal's monthly situation report *Principal's yearly situation report *Time sheets *Requisitions *Inventories	Information desk Meeting callers (Pupils) Answering phone (Teachers, pupils) Issuing supplies Issuing test materials Issuing passes Charge of State adopted books Temporary enrolment of pupils Lost and found articles	Mimeographing Office plants Teachers' materials reading plays seat work tests Bulletins Reports Storehouse orders issued Distributing mail Issuing passes Temporary enrolment of pupils *Permanent records *Good Spirit Banner

* Periodical duties.

sponsible to keep down the number of class interruptions. Records and reports are necessary in efficient educational practice, and their administration requires the friendly cooperation of teachers, pupils, clerks, and principal.

How may the time allotment to clerical work be reduced?—Two means have been suggested to assist in reducing the principal's clerical activities to a minimum: Elimination of unnecessary duties and delegation of responsibilities to pupils, teachers, and clerks.

The elimination of unnecessary clerical duties is a problem to be worked out by principals in cooperation with the superintendent. There exist in some school systems useless reports which are required of the principal. These reports are useless in the sense that they include data for the superintendent's office which are seldom adequately interpreted for the benefit of the schools. Such reports should be justified or eliminated in order that the time saved may be devoted to more worth-while activities. A time-consuming convenience is the telephone which may ring almost constantly with calls from the superintendent's office, business manager, supervisors, parents, and others. A co-operative policy, whereby telephone calls are largely restricted to a particular part of the school day, will do much to improve the situation.

A large reduction in the clerical demands on the principal can be made through the delegation of duties to others. Pupils can be used in the office to answer the telephone, run errands, ring bells, copy letters, distribute supplies, and meet visitors. Part of such duties as reports, correspondence, filing, banking, milk program, and meeting parents may be delegated to teachers. These two sources of help are useful, but it must be remembered that both groups are primarily in the school for other purposes and any assistance given by them must follow after reasonable progress toward the aims of education.

The most satisfactory helper is the skilled office worker with a basic knowledge of the objectives and methods of the elementary school. The principal should always be ready to justify the clerical help provided. He should be able to show how the clerk has produced tangible results through the assumption of certain responsibilities. The supervisory and ad-

ministrative activities of the principal need to show marked increases in number and quality. The superintendent should feel the influence of his leadership in his community. When a principal functions on such a level there will be little question of his need of adequate clerical help.

It is up to all principals to prove their need for and their ability to profit by clerical assistance. Even when the possibilities of securing help are remote, there is no reason for a principal to allow his clerical duties to spoil his effectiveness. Good organization inspires confidence; it is the first step in convincing the superintendent that the principal has reached that mastery of his job where the services of a clerk are necessary.

Professional Study

Through continuous study of his job and the whole field of education the principal receives stimulation toward a higher level of functioning. The term professional study includes the formal classes in education and the informal, non-class reading. Frequently the formal class study terminates with the acquisition of an academic degree or the completion of a problem in research. The informal study may be in preparation for a supervisory visit, a program of curriculum revision, a teachers' meeting, a parent-teacher meeting, or to meet the many other demands of a progressive school.

Time devoted to professional study—The opportunities for further preparation are so many that the professionally minded administrator must plan carefully the most effective use of his time. Many persons find it advantageous to set aside a definite period each day for the reading of current educational periodicals. The taking of regular school time for this study is not recommended as the usual procedure, for it means sacrificing the opportunities of direct observation of pupils and teachers. According to 600 supervising elementary school principals, the median time given to study or school work outside of school was 7.43 hours per week.¹

Principals who find it difficult voluntarily to set aside study hours will find considerable help from the formal night, extension, and correspondence classes. These are increasing in availability and attractiveness to those with

¹ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 348.

full-time jobs. Even a casual survey of the professional college courses shows that there are hundreds of particular interest to principals. Many of these are organized into programs for administrators who wish to supplement their early training.

What should the principal study?—Professional literature has increased to such an extent that the principal should choose wisely the material to receive regular and intensive attention. The professional magazines¹ most frequently read by elementary school principals are the following:

1. Journal of the National Education Association
2. Elementary School Journal
3. Journal of Educational Method
4. Normal Instructor and Primary Plans
5. Journal of Education
6. Bulletin, Department of Elementary School Principals.

The Kelly and Whitney survey² of professional magazines read by 500 principals and teachers shows a preference for the following: the *Journal of Educational Method*, *Elementary School Journal*, and the *American Educational Digest*.³

The magazines most frequently read by high school principals⁴ in the state of Maine in 1927 were: *Journal of the National Education Association*, *School Review*, and *American School Board Journal*. In 1927 three hundred and eighty-one senior high school principals in 375 cities of the United States ranked several professional magazines in order of helpfulness as shown in Table 8.

Melby received 375 reports from elementary and secondary school principals as to the professional magazines which they read regularly. Table 9 shows the magazines reported most frequently.

The non-professional magazines mentioned by supervising principals totaled 1920 titles.⁵ The six most frequently mentioned periodicals were:

1. The Literary Digest
2. National Geographic
3. American Magazine
4. Saturday Evening Post
5. Atlantic Monthly
6. Harper's.

TABLE 8.—HELPLEFULNESS OF CERTAIN PROFESSIONAL MAGAZINES ACCORDING TO 375 SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS¹

Magazine	Rank
School Review.....	1
Educational Administration and Supervision.....	2
American School Board Journal.....	3
Teachers College Record.....	4.5
Journal of Educational Research.....	4.5
Journal of Education.....	6

¹ LaPoe, James L. "The Senior High School Principal's Professional Magazines." *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, September 14, 1927. p. 259.

In addition to current periodicals there is an interesting array of excellent texts dealing with the principalship. Many of these books have been used in the preparation of this bulletin, annotated and listed at the end of Parts I, II, III, and IV. Reviews and annotations of recent publications are found in the publications of the Department of Elementary School Principals and the Department of Secondary School Principals. Other lists are printed in *School Life*, *The Journal of the National Education Association*, *Progressive Education*, and in the various professional magazines listed above.

The importance of professional study—Until recently any teacher might be appointed to the elementary school principalship regard-

TABLE 9.—PERCENT OF PRINCIPALS READING CERTAIN MAGAZINES¹

Magazines	Percent Naming Each Magazine	
	Elementary School Principals	High School Principals
Journal of National Education Association.....	54	57
Elementary School Journal.....	47	45
School and Society.....	42	45
State Journals.....	35	29
Normal School Instructor.....	11	25
American School Board Journal.....	11	21
American Educational Digest.....	16	21
School Review.....	16	21
Journal of Education Method.....	16	21
Teachers College Record.....	13	17

¹ Adapted from pages 36 and 37 of *A Critical Study of the Existing Organization and Administration of Supervision* by E. O. Melby. Public School Publishing Company, 1929.

¹ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1928. p. 343-44.

² Kelly, E. L., and Whitney, F. L. "Educational Magazines Read by 500 Elementary School Principals and Classroom Teachers." *Elementary School Journal* 29: 176-80; November, 1928.

³ Name of this publication changed to *School Executives Magazine*.

⁴ Clem, O. M., and McLaughlin, S. J. "A Study of the Professionalization of the High School Principal in Maine." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 13: 1-12; January, 1927.

⁵ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 343-44.

less of professional preparation for the work. This condition is changing in communities where the complexity of demands requires a person with special preliminary training and in-service preparation. The present tendency is for superintendents to require a minimum of the bachelor's degree for candidates. A majority of the state credentials affecting the elementary school principalship agree upon four years of college as the basic preparation. According to one nation-wide study, approximately 46 percent of principals have the bachelor's degree or more. Of the selected group of principals studied in the *Seventh Yearbook*, 85 percent had the bachelor's degree or higher. The level of professional preparation is rising. In a short time the master's degree will be generally accepted as the standard training. In keeping up with his progressive fellow workers, the administrator will need the aid of advanced training.¹

Another stimulus to continuous study is the increased professional training of teachers. The length of the normal school program is being increased in some states to three and four years. Teachers are attending summer schools in greater numbers.² The principal who desires to exercise professional leadership among his teachers must base that right upon sound and progressive professional knowledge.

The demands of many communities are such that the principal must be an educational expert. The policy of making the principal responsible for the educational program of his school community has met with acceptance among superintendents. Parents through their organizations are asking to be informed on the new developments in education. In these contacts there exist unlimited opportunities for persons with the training and ability necessary to become an educational leader.

Selected References³

The Principalship

1. EIKENBERRY, DAN H. *Status of the High School Principal*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 24. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. 71 p.

Nation-wide facts as to the training, experience, and duties of high school principals.

Replies to inquiry blanks received from over 1,000 principals.

2. FOSTER, FRANK K. *Status of the Junior High School Principal*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 18. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. 75 p.

Summarizes data on 440 junior high school principals.

3. KOOS, LEONARD V. *The High School Principal*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. 121 p.

Discusses existing practices, present tendencies, and desirable modifications regarding the high school administrator.

4. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. "The Elementary School Principalship." *Bulletin (Seventh Yearbook)* 7: 132-638; April, 1928. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Comprehensive report of the Committee on Standards and Training. Basic references for all groups studying the elementary school principalship.

Administration

5. COOK, WILLIAM A. *High School Administration*. Baltimore: Warwick and York, Inc., 1926. 378 p.

A practical handbook on how to manage the typical high school which enrolls less than 200 students.

6. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *The Principal and His School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923. 571 p.

Discusses all phases of the work of the head of a single school unit. Particularly helpful to the elementary school administrator.

7. FOSTER, H. H. *High School Administration*. New York: Century Co., 1928. 665 p.

Treats in detail such topics as the curriculum, student life, management of building, supervision, and pupil personnel. Sample record forms and references given in the appendix.

8. GIST, ARTHUR S. *The Administration of the Elementary School*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1928. 308 p.

Presents the various internal management problems, such as organization, programs, daily schedule, pupil control, and teacher personnel.

9. LANE, ROBERT H. *A Workbook for Principals and Supervisors*. Macmillan Co., 1930. 261 p.

Contains checklists and problems for use in elementary school administration and supervision.

10. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. "The Principal and Progressive Movements in Education." *Research Bulletin* 7: 45-104; March, 1929. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Suggests ways in which the principal can meet such problems as character education,

¹ References for points made in this paragraph are to be found in the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1928, p. 367-401. Also, "Special Certification as a Means of Professionalizing Educational Leadership" by Frank W. Hart, *Teachers College Record* 27: 121-28; October, 1925.

² See *Journal of the National Education Association*, November, 1930, p. 272.

³ The references cited in the selected references are primarily those used in preparation of this bulletin. For more inclusive bibliographies, refer to such publications as "Secondary School Administration Abstracts," *Bulletin*, October, 1930. Department of Secondary School Principals, or to the bibliographies to be found in the books cited in this bulletin.

school health, mental hygiene, preschool education, pupil adjustment, and parent education.

11. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. "The Principal and Administration." *Bulletin (Ninth Yearbook)* 9: 132-731; April, 1930. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

One of the most comprehensive statements available of the administrative problems and procedures in the elementary schools. Written by principals and other field workers.

12. TOUTON, FRANK C., and STRUTHERS, ALICE B. *Junior High School Procedure*. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1926. 595 p.

A summary of the best procedures for junior high school organization, supervision, pupil personnel, and similar problems. Many concrete examples and illustrations.

Supervision

13. ANDERSON, C. J., BARR, A. S., and BUSH, MAY-BELL. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1925. 382 p.

Useful suggestions on case studies of teachers, pre-teaching interviews, and follow-up conferences.

14. BARR, A. S., and BURTON, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1926. 625 p.

A review of typical activities in the improvement of teaching and learning.

15. BURTON, W. H. *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1922. 510 p.

One of the first comprehensive summaries of supervisory practice. Considerable emphasis upon the learning process as well as the technics used in improving learning.

16. BURTON, W. H., and others. *The Supervision of Elementary Subjects*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1929. 710 p.

Chapters by L. J. Brueckner, F. G. Bonser, Laura Zirbes, and others. Summarizes research and supervisory practices in relation to the various school subjects.

17. COLLINS, ELLSWORTH. *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927. 368 p.

A program of supervision based upon the theory of education which emphasizes "pupil growth through purposeful activity."

18. GIST, ARTHUR S. *Elementary School Supervision*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926. 308 p.

Suggests procedures for improving instruction in reading, English, arithmetic, history, and other school subjects. Chapters on teacher rating and how the principal can improve himself professionally.

19. HUGHES, J. M., and MELBY, E. O. *Supervision of Instruction in High School*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1930. 191 p.

Summarizes the supervisory practices of high school principals.

20. KYTE, GEORGE C. *How to Supervise*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. 468 p.

Particularly helpful and practical in discussing such technics of supervision as teachers meetings, class visits, demonstration teaching, and individual conferences.

21. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. "The Principal and Supervision." *Bulletin (Tenth Yearbook)* April, 1931. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

A statement by principals in the field as to how they supervise their schools.

22. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE. "The Superintendent Surveys Supervision." *Eighth Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1930. 471 p.

Presents the superintendent's viewpoint in a way which is both practical and inspiring to principals.

23. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION. *Current Problems of Supervisors*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. 252 p.

Teachers and supervisors contributed statements as to the common supervisory problems and how these difficulties could be met.

24. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Research Bulletin* 7: 279-348; November, 1929. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

A brief and simple statement of the principal's common supervisory problems and how he should use the various technics, i. e., meetings, conferences and visits.

25. STONE, CLARENCE R. *Supervision of the Elementary School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. 573 p.

Suggests many practical devices in helping teachers to improve the instruction of reading, health, social studies, handwriting, and the other common school subjects.

26. UHL, WILLIS L., and others. *The Supervision of Secondary Subjects*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1929. 673 p.

A statement of the principles, practices and measuring devices in the secondary school subjects. Chapters by various specialists include many references to research studies.

27. WAPLES, DOUGLAS, and TYLER, RALPH W. *Research Methods and Teachers' Problems*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. 653 p.

Practical suggestions to administrators as to how to apply research procedures in studying the curriculum, teaching methods, and school management.

Records, Reports and Office Organization¹

28. ENGELHARDT, FRED, and VON BORGERSRODE, FRED. *Accounting Procedure for School Systems*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 130 p.

¹ A comprehensive bibliography on school records and reports will be found in the *Research Bulletin* which is reference No. 33 in this list.

Suggests record forms and technic in accounting for funds, property, and supplies.

29. GANDERS, HARRY S. *A System of School Records and Reports for Smaller Cities*. Greeley, Colo.: State Teachers College, 1926. 191 p.

Describes and illustrates a complete system of record keeping.

30. HECK, ARCH O. *The Administration of Pupil Personnel*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929. 479 p.

Discusses types and uses of pupil records.

31. McALLISTER, A. J., and OTIS, A. S. *Child Accounting Practice*. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1927. 196 p.

Record forms which bring out individual differences.

32. MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *Child Accounting*. Detroit: Courtis Standard Tests, 1924. 205 p.

Discusses principles and types of fundamental records in education.

33. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DIVISION OF RESEARCH. "School Records and Reports." *Research Bulletin* 5: 225-346, November, 1927.

Discusses record forms and cites 368 selected references.

34. PEEL, ARTHUR J. *Simplified School Accounting*. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1925. 118 p.

An accountant suggests how to make financial records uniform and adequate.

35. STRAYER, GEORGE D., and ENGELHARDT, N. L. *A Score Card and Standards for the Records and Reports of City School Systems*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. 86 p.

Helpful in developing a uniform and adequate record for a school system.

Tests, Measurements, and Classification¹

36. CORNING, HOBART M. *After Testing—What?* Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Company, 1926. 213 p.

Tells how a superintendent used scientific devices in improving teaching.

37. FREEMAN, FRANK N. *Mental Tests*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926. 503 p.

The history and use of various types of tests.

38. KELLEY, TRUMAN L. *Interpretation of Educational Measurements*. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1927. 363 p.

Emphasizes a sane interpretation of standard test data.

39. MCCALL, W. A., and BIXLER, HAROLD H. *How To Classify Pupils*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 83 p.

How to use standard tests in grouping pupils.

40. MORT, PAUL R. *The Individual Pupil*. New York: American Book Co., 1928. 383 p.

Suggestions for classifying and adjusting pupils in elementary and secondary schools.

41. ODELL, C. W. *Educational Measurement in*

High School. New York: Century Co., 1930. 641 p.

Lists best tests and discusses their use.

42. RUCH, G. M., and STODDARD, G. D. *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*. Yonkers: World Book Co., 1927. 381 p.

Summarizes tests available in the various high school fields.

43. RUCH, G. M., and RICE, G. A. *Specimen Objective Examinations*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1930. 324 p.

A selected set of new-type tests in such subjects as English, social studies, and mathematics.

44. WILSON, G. M., and HOKE, K. J. *How to Measure*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. 597 p.

Practical suggestions on the use of tests in connection with teaching.

School Plant and Building Standards

45. ENGELHARDT, N. L., and ENGELHARDT, FRED. *Planning School Building Programs*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. 574 p.

Chapters XI and XII on building utilization and building standards, p. 262-94.

46. REEVES, CHARLES E., and GANDERS, HARRY S. *School Building Management*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 395 p.

A comprehensive treatment of the care and the cleaning of the building and grounds.

47. SPAIN, CHARLES L., MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B., and FROSTIC, F. W. *The Public Elementary School Plant*. New York: Rand McNally and Co., 1930. 602 p.

Principles and technic underlying school designing.

Principles, Objectives, and Curriculums²

48. AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION (DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION "The Curriculum," *Review of Educational Research* 1: 1-64, January, 1931.

Brief discussions and citations of scientific investigations on the elementary and secondary school curriculum.

49. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. "Creating a Curriculum for Adolescent Youth." *Research Bulletin* 6: 1-79; January, 1928. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Summarizes best practices and research in the junior high schools. Particular attention given to the course of study. List of helpful books.

50. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. "Vitalizing the High School Curriculum." *Research Bulletin* 7: 174-275; September, 1929. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Presents in systematic and practical form data on the high school curriculum. Many references for curriculum and supervisory studies.

¹ See previous issues of the *Research Bulletin* for extensive bibliographies.

² The three publications of the National Education Association cited under this head refer to hundreds of books and articles.

PART III

THE PRINCIPAL AS A WORKER IN A SCHOOL SYSTEM

In studying his activities the principal will find many duties which cannot be classified readily as administration, supervision, teaching, or clerical work. Most investigators include these under the general term miscellaneous. A grouping of this sort is satisfactory for ordinary research, but it should not be interpreted as indicating functions of little importance. To some persons the miscellaneous group seems to be a Pandora box of petty troubles. Yet when one senses the principal's whole task these responsibilities assume a supplementary and vital place in the whole scheme.

Up to this point the presentation of this bulletin has dealt with the principalship largely in terms of single school unit. Part III discusses the problems arising when the principal works with individuals and groups outside of his own building. He comes in contact with the superintendent, the supervisors, principals of various schools, miscellaneous staff workers, and the general public. In all such relationships the principal is speaking or working as the head of one unit in a school system. His acts are not only influential in a single school, but they are significant to the entire local educational program.

Relationship with the Superintendent

According to many superintendents the principal is considered the responsible head of his school with complete administrative and supervisory authority. Where this system of organization exists, the principal and superintendent have a complementary relationship. The superintendent and the board of education outline general policies for the principal to execute and administer. Cubberley¹ has given us a statement on the importance of mutual understanding which is well worth emphasizing at this point:

A principal should be able to sense the superintendent's policy and to carry it out without bothering him continually for details. He should also note the results of the policy in action, and should be willing to call the attention of the superintendent to what seem to him to be needed changes or to danger ahead. Both superintendent and principal must be alike able and willing to shoulder respon-

sibility, to be frank and helpful to one another, and at times each must stand firmly in defense of the other.

In such specific activities as teacher selection, making local school rules, directing the janitor, and selecting instructional supplies, superintendents are delegating increasing responsibility to principals. It is in these delegated responsibilities that the opportunity exists for principals to demonstrate the professional skill and knowledge which will increase the superintendent's confidence in the principalship. Are superintendents justified in delegating major responsibilities to principals who seem to prefer petty routine? Can superintendents magnify an executive position which the incumbents look upon as a stepping stone to other work?

Koos asked high school principals to report the positions of those who initiated various activities in school systems. The answer to this question has been summarized in Table 10.

Table 10 shows that high school principals exercise full responsibility for many important functions. It is also clear from Table 10 that principals and superintendents often cooperate in executing certain types of work. However, there is evidence that some very critical duties are often withheld from the principal without real reasons. This latter condition raises these questions: Are superintendents unwilling to delegate responsibility? Are principals sufficiently trained and experienced to assume certain authority? In either case both principals and superintendents would agree with Koos when he says:

There may be good grounds for withholding initiative in one or another of the functions in the full list from the younger principal and perhaps even for the more experienced, but this admission cannot affect the conviction that the high school principalship must be vested with significant and not merely minor responsibilities.²

The new emphasis upon the principal as a supervisor raises the questions: Should principals help in the selection of teachers? Reeder writes on this point as follows:

¹ Cubberley, Ellwood P. *The Principal and His School*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923, p. 19.

² Koos, L. V. *The High School Principal*, p. 95.

The principals likewise would nominate the teachers of their buildings. All nominations should of course come through the office of the superintendent of schools, and those that are there approved should be passed on to the board of education which sits as the court of final authority. That such subordinates are not always competent to select their employees is readily admitted, but that is beside the point; such subordinates should be chosen who are qualified to perform this service.¹

Several problems for study by local principals' clubs are: Does the delegation of duties to principals depend most upon city size, or the training of principals, or the policies of the board? How can principals exercise adequate powers without disrupting the articulations which superintendents must foster? What place should the principals' conference hold in coordinating the mutual administrative functions? Could a handbook be developed which would aid new principals to fit in quickly with the central office? Can school heads help the superintendent on committees in an advisory capacity?

Cooperation with Supervisors

The principal's relationship with the various supervisory officers is often chaotic. This chaos is usually due (1) to the variety of supervisors, and (2) to uncertainty of the administrative authority exercised by various officers.

Table 11 gives some clue to the duties shared by principals with general and special supervisors.

The present tendency is toward two types of supervisors, (1) the general supervisor with administrative authority, and (2) the special supervisor without administrative authority. The general supervisor is usually known as an assistant superintendent and his interest is in the general improvement of the schools through the principals. The special supervisor is a specialist in penmanship, or music or art, or special classes, etc., who aims to improve instruction by advising the principal on the supervision of specialized work.²

The schools will gain much from a harmonious working out of the relationships of principals and supervisors. Supervisors are usually, or should be, persons skilled in particular phases of instruction. Their contribution to the improvement of instruction should be a major one. On the other hand, the administrative supremacy of the principal in his own school needs to be clearly recognized, if chaos is to be avoided. Many well administered school systems regularly hold joint conferences between principals and supervisors. Ideas are exchanged, misunderstandings cleared up, and authority delimited. In these conferences the principal comes to realize better the value of

¹ Reeder, Ward G. *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. p. 51-52.

² Spain, C. L. "The Detroit Plan of Supervision." *First Yearbook*. National Conference on Educational Method, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. p. 85.

TABLE 10.—PERCENTAGES OF 421 HIGH SCHOOLS IN WHICH INITIATIVE IN CERTAIN ACTIVITIES IS LOCATED IN THE PRINCIPAL, THE SUPERINTENDENT, AND VARIOUS OTHER OFFICIALS

Activity	Principal	Superintendent	Board	Principal and Superintendent	Other
1. Selecting new high-school teachers.....	16.6	40.4	5.5	27.1	10.5
2. Recommending salary promotion.....	15.0	46.1	7.6	21.9	9.5
3. Planning the course of study.....	54.4	12.4	0.2	23.5	9.5
4. Organizing the class schedule.....	87.9	3.6		4.0	4.5
5. Admitting students.....	67.7	17.3	0.7	8.3	5.9
6. Advising concerning courses and curricula.....	77.4	2.4		9.5	10.7
7. Visiting classwork for supervisory purposes.....	51.1	11.2	4.5	27.8	5.5
8. Confering with teachers about class work.....	66.0	7.1	2.4	20.4	4.0
9. Calling and holding teachers' meetings.....	79.3	7.4	0.2	11.2	1.9
10. Ordinary disciplinary control.....	86.7	1.4		2.4	9.5
11. Disciplinary control involving suspension or expulsion.....	38.0	11.4	5.5	18.3	26.8
12. Controlling athletic relations.....	69.1	7.6	0.2	6.2	16.9
13. Controlling debating, dramatics, etc.....	70.3	5.2		6.2	18.3
14. Selecting textbooks.....	27.8	15.2	1.2	22.3	33.5
15. Selecting equipment.....	26.4	23.8	3.6	26.4	20.0
16. Approving supply lists.....	27.1	42.3	4.3	16.2	10.2
17. Preparing the financial budget.....	7.1	56.8	12.6	7.8	15.4
18. Directing janitors.....	54.2	19.5	3.1	14.0	9.3
19. Keeping records and reports.....	81.0	2.6		3.1	13.3

Taken from Table XV in *The High School Principal* by L. V. Koos.

the supervisor's expert advice, while the over-zealous supervisor is wisely restrained.

Whatever may be the ideal relationship between principals and supervisors, we may be certain that it is the duty of both groups to *cooperate* in the improvement of the instruction.¹ Principals should ask themselves such questions as these: What are the administrative functions of these special workers when they enter a school? Should special supervisors visit all teachers, the failing teachers, or the exceptional instructors? Should supervisor and principal confer regarding the work before or after visiting the classrooms? Are teachers to request help from special supervisors or are "surprise visits" most helpful? Do supervisors have the opportunity to explain their programs to principals at group conferences? Can principals and supervisors study together their mutual supervisory problems?

Providing Articulation Between Units of the School System

When school systems consist of a few schools, there is little chance for misunderstanding. Under such simple conditions pupils are promoted or transferred, teachers reassigned, and equipment distributed without much difficulty. As a school system increases to include many elementary units, secondary schools, technical courses, special classes, and

a large teaching personnel, there is a need for widespread cooperation.

To make these problems concrete we may refer to the *Seventh Yearbook* and the *Ninth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence.² Here is a list of typical articulation problems:

1. Inarticulation centering in school organization:
 - a. Lack of continuity with reference to grouping
 - b. Size of sections relative to brightness and dullness
 - c. Lack of facilities for physically, mentally, and pedagogically handicapped children
2. Inarticulation centering in school administration and supervision:
 - a. Lack of familiarity with problems of units above and below
 - b. Inadequate records of pupils
 - c. Vagueness in standards of promotion
3. Inarticulation centering in school instruction:
 - a. Compartmental teaching of subject
 - b. Lack of well defined objectives
 - c. Sudden increases in the formality of instructional methods
 - d. Uneven distribution of the introduction of new subjects into the curriculum
4. Articulation problems in the elementary school field:
 - a. Kindergarten-grade six in 6-3-3 organization
 - b. Kindergarten-grade eight in 8-4 organization.

A few articulation problems facing elementary school principals are: Should kindergarten

¹ See *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision* (1930), Department of Superintendence, and *Current Problems of Supervisors* (1930), Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction.

² National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Seventh Yearbook*. "The Articulation of the Units of American Education." 1929. p. 11-286. Also, *Ninth Yearbook*. "Five Unifying Factors in American Education," 1931. 544 p.

TABLE 11.—REPORTS OF 57 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS TO DUTIES SHARED WITH GENERAL AND SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

Duty	Number of Principals Sharing Duties			
	With General Supervisor	With Special Supervisors	With Both	Total
1. Control of methods.....	8	7	7	22
2. Setting up pupil achievement standards.....	6	5	6	17
3. Measuring pupil progress.....	5	11	5	21
4. Demonstration teaching.....	5	8	6	19
5. Plan teacher conferences.....	8	11	10	29
6. Suggest reading to teacher.....	13	9	5	27
7. Conduct teachers meetings.....	8	10	11	29
8. Measure efficiency of teachers.....	10	8	11	29
9. Rate teachers.....	7	9	12	28
10. Control class size.....	7	0	0	7

Read table as follows: Eight principals, out of 57 replies, indicate that they share the control of classroom methods with general supervisors. Twenty-two of the 57 principals are not solely responsible for the methods.
 Data adapted from Table 8 of study by C. W. Crandell. See the *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1929, p. 174.

children remain more than a year at this level? What part of the regular course of study should the kindergarten attempt to teach? What standards should be used in admitting children into the first grade? What records should children take with them from grade to grade? In platoon schools, at what point is departmentalization most helpful for children? How can the problems of home study, health, and attendance be worked out with the homes? What special preparation should elementary school pupils receive before promotion to the junior high school?¹

Among the problems in articulation listed in the *Seventh Yearbook* for the secondary school level are: What are the functions of the junior high school? What are the functions of the senior high school? What should be the core of the secondary school curriculum for all pupils? How can general types of education and those introduced for vocational purposes be articulated to best advantage? What size of classes is most efficient? On what bases should students be admitted to college or university?²

It will be obvious to principals that the above problems cannot be solved by any school administrator working alone. Nor is it in the interest of the whole school system for one principal to impose his own peculiar standards upon the other executives, as such a procedure would make for contention and would sacrifice the orderly progress of children. Obviously, the one conclusion is that articulation between the units of the school system demands friendly and active cooperation between the heads of each school. Suggestions on how principals' organizations may work on articulation problems will be found in Part IV of this bulletin.

Utilizing the Various Staff Workers

The salary survey of the Research Division of the National Education Association shows the presence in city school systems of many specialists.³ County schools often have similar workers. Among these specialists are the attendance officers, psychologists, medical workers, and visiting teachers. Attention has been given to the curriculum specialists above under the paragraphs on special supervisors.

Attendance officers—These workers must work for the whole system or among several schools. When the principal asks help from these assistants the policies of the whole system are immediately involved. For example: Should the principal investigate absences before he calls in the attendance officer? Is the principal responsible for making and keeping a complete pupil census of the children in his district? What information should the school give to the attendance officer? What provision should the principal make in his school for the officer's headquarters?

Psychologist—A few principals are fortunate to have examiners assigned to the building. Other school systems assign the time of the special worker to several buildings. The psychologist often faces such problems as these: Does the principal want each child to have individual intelligence tests? If the psychologist wishes to establish a special adjustment class, what effect may it have upon a similar class in the nearby school? How can the psychologist best help the teacher?

Medical workers—Doctors and nurses work in different ways in school systems. In some places the policy is one of examination and prevention. In other cities, examinations are followed by treatment and minor operations.

It is not easy for the principal to establish practices along medical lines without influencing other schools. For example, a survey of the food habits of pupils in one school might be made without difficulty. In a nearby school a similar inquiry might provoke a storm of parental objections.

Sometimes principals accept the standard of ten percent underweight as sufficient warning that a child is not in good condition. Another school may prefer to note whether a child is gaining or losing weight from month to month. What should the health workers do under such conditions? Should they attempt to force a single, city-wide standard upon all schools?

The above paragraphs raise a few of the problems which arise when school systems are fortunate to have certain types of special workers. Immediately, the question arises, are these persons merely on call to each school or should they make regular inspections of all schools?

¹ See pages 109-12 for other elementary school problems, *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, 1929. Answers to many of these problems are to be found in the *Ninth Yearbook*, 1931, p. 17-146.

² See pages 285-86 of the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, 1929. Also, the *Ninth Yearbook*, 1931, p. 87-146.

³ See *Salary Scales in City School Systems in 1928-29*, May, 1929. A new report will be available in May, 1931.

How may the principal use these workers most effectively? Are there certain basic standards or practices which the specialist must apply to all schools because of the board's policies?

Public Relations

An important problem facing school people is that of fostering a vital and informed public opinion. Most of the existing books on the superintendent's duties treat "public relations" as an integral part of the superintendency. Certainly the school personnel must expect the superintendent to set up certain general policies, to initiate types of publicity, and to approve the plans of his subordinates. Yet the fact remains that the bulk of the intimate, personal, patron-school relationship must be done by the principal and teachers in each school unit.

Participation in community affairs—It is generally accepted that the principal should not bring local political questions into his school. However, this principle of professional ethics excludes a relatively small proportion of the opportunities for vital public contacts. There are still many clubs, agricultural fairs, civic exhibits, and festivals which may legitimately expect school support.

One study of elementary school principals shows that almost 50 percent of these school administrators are not members of any social-civic clubs. Only two percent report memberships in such luncheon clubs as the Lions' and the Kiwanis.¹

Can educators afford to miss these opportunities to create an informed public opinion? Here is an illustration: In 1925 a western city of 75,000 population passed a bond issue by a three to one vote. Before the election many citizens said that the bond issue could not be passed because of the depression in agricultural and business circles. Yet the bonds were actually "sold" to the public by a Citizens Committee consisting of representatives of the local luncheon clubs. Data for the publicity campaign was supplied by the superintendent to the principals who were members of the various clubs. The principals in turn passed on

the facts to their club members. The crux of the whole procedure was that the leaders of the community accepted the information with enthusiasm and confidence because the principals were known *personally* as citizens of high ideals.

The above example has a "spasmodic element" which is not desirable. Rather, the program of public relations should be constant and constructive every day of the year.² Otherwise, misinformed business leaders buffet the school system about from time to time. Such criticisms can be avoided if business men are led to see that education pays big dividends. This viewpoint has been summarized in *The Schools and Business*³ as follows:

We must conclude that education is a productive industry. If the effectiveness of our schools were to lapse, even for a short time, business would lose an important market, merchants would be hampered by trying to sell to ignorant customers, industry would lose in productive efficiency, the standard of living would fall, the supply of trained workers and leaders would be cut off at its source, and the subtle and complex economic structure would be disorganized. Setting aside all the important cultural, civic, and social values of education, the schools can easily justify themselves in their contribution to business. The school is our most productive and basic industry. Good schools pay their own way. The schools and business are partners.

School publicity—Moehlman has estimated that the typical citizen uses his 24 hours a day as follows: 42 percent of his time is given to sleeping, dressing, and eating; 33 percent is devoted to earning a living; 12 percent is taken up in recreation; 5 percent is spent in transportation to and from work; 4 percent is available for keeping him informed; 3 percent is given to religious activities, and 1 percent is available for political participations.⁴

School news must compete with hundreds of other types of information for four percent of the average person's time! How much time will the schools actually receive if this matter is left to chance?

Reynolds reports the suggestions of editors for the improvement of news copy furnished by school people.⁵ Among these suggestions are the following:

¹See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, April, 1928, p. 252.

²Miller, Clyde R., and Charles, Fred. *Publicity and the Public School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. p. 162-64.

³National Education Association, Division of Research. *The Schools and Business*. 1931. 24 p.

⁴Moehlman, Arthur B. *Public Relations*. Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1927. p. 7-14.

⁵Reynolds, Rollo G. *Newspaper Publicity for Schools*. New York: A. G. Seiler, 1922. p. 32-35.

1. Write news, not propaganda—news is something happening, an event of some sort, not an argument to prove or disprove some theory or proposition. Give information rather than advice or instruction.

2. Be accurate, truthful, meticulously exact as to facts, names, and details.

3. Write news for the public and not for the purpose of personal exploitations.

4. Names have great news value. A story about an individual is always better than a group of facts.

5. Eliminate inconsequential details, trivial happenings, commonplaces in general. Don't overemphasize nonessentials.

6. Run in a humorous phrase when it doesn't hurt anybody and when it does not spoil the text.

7. Make the story appeal to the average reader—more human stuff.

8. News should be written from the standpoint of the public, not from the standpoint of the school.

9. In general, avoid submitting the achievements of precocious children unless the newspaper invites such contributions. Remember that every parent imagines his child to be a marvel.

10. Give the news about exceptional pupils, the latest experiments in education, and the like.

Farley asked 5,067 school patrons to rank the topics of school news in order of interest. The topics of major interest according to these persons are: (1) pupil progress and achievement, (2) methods of instruction, (3) health of pupils, and (4) course of study.¹

When Grinnell asked Minnesota editors to list the school news of most importance they reported athletics, school honors, school board proceedings, school notes, and parent-teacher association activities.²

Neale³ lists the most valuable means of school publicity according to the opinions of 106 judges. In the order of estimated value the ten most useful devices are as follows:

1. Newspaper articles
2. Newspaper advertisements
3. Campaign bulletins
4. News bulletin of the "house organ" type
5. Slides and motion pictures
6. Posters
7. Mimeographed circulars
8. Folders
9. Monographs
10. Courses of study.

Are the pupils good publicity agents for a school? No doubt the parents obtain many impressions of the school system from their children. Whether these impressions are superficial or not does not greatly matter, for they often lead to parental action. Do the student publications give the community an insight into the educational program? How can the principal enlist the aid of his pupils and staff in giving the school patrons a fair picture of conditions?

School publicity is not a problem for a principal to undertake without consideration of the policies of the superintendent and the practices of fellow principals. Some questions for the local principals' club to consider are: What are the board's and superintendent's policies for local school publicity? How can we acquaint patrons with the accomplishments of their schools? How can we show business groups the return which widespread education brings? Is there value in having children present their school activities for publication?

Radio—The Damrosch concerts have revealed some of the possibilities of teaching music appreciation.⁴ Even earlier, Dickson reported the success of broadcasting regular school lessons. Strangely enough in this Oakland, California, experiment the lessons in arithmetic and penmanship proved to be most popular and helpful.⁵

Harrison and Weir have recently reported the radio as a stimulant to creative verse in a country school.⁶ The children attempted to express in verse their impressions of the art lessons by Henry Turner Bailey and the concerts of Walter Damrosch.

At each meeting of the National Education Association the speeches of prominent educators are broadcasted. The Department of Superintendence has used the radio in telling the public of the importance of educational research.

The Ohio School of the Air, under the sponsorship of the Ohio State Department of Education, broadcasts health talks, history dramalogs, stories, rhythemics, art appreciation

¹ Fa ley, Belmont. *What To Tell the People about the Public Schools*. Contributions to Education No. 355, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. p. 16.

² Grinnell, John. Unpublished Master's Thesis in the University of Minnesota Library, 1925. Reported in Farley's dissertation, p. 56-57.

³ Neale, M. Gordon. *School Reports as a Means of Securing Additional Support for Education in American Cities*, Columbia, Mo.: Lucas Bros., 1921. p. 59.

⁴ Damrosch, Walter. "Radio and Music Education." *Journal* 17:256. National Education Association, October, 1930.

⁵ Dickson, Virgil E. "Radio in Oakland Schools." *Journal* 13:279-82. National Education Association, November, 1924.

⁶ Harrison, Margaret, and Weir, Dorothea. "Radio as a Stimulation to Creative Verse in a Country School." *Progressive Education* 8:131-34; February, 1931.

lessons. Recently, this group has extended its services to Washington, D. C., so as to broadcast talks by cabinet officers and officials of the United States Office of Education and the National Education Association.

What use is being made in local communities of the radio? Could schools broadcast concerts by school orchestras, talks by principals, lessons by teachers, oratorical contests, and music festivals? Would parents rather hear their own children or the Zippo Mint Jazz Orchestra? Will education retain a fair share of radio broadcasting time if principals and other school people fail to develop an aggressive program?¹

American Education Week—This special week is a huge cooperative attempt on the part of superintendents, principals, teachers, and pupils to acquaint the public with the ideals, needs, and accomplishments of the schools. Principals have the chance to illustrate to pupils the educational opportunities which are so often taken for granted. Here within the school itself we are creating attitudes which will rebound favorably or unfavorably on the schools of tomorrow. Are school administrators using American Education Week to foster right pupil appreciations?

The program for American Education Week is built around the seven major objectives of education: (1) health and safety, (2) worthy home membership, (3) tools, technics, and spirit of learning, (4) vocational and economic effectiveness, (5) faithful citizenship, (6) wise use of leisure, and (7) ethical character. Will not a clear presentation of these objectives give the typical citizen new faith in the school's endeavors?

After receiving reports from school administrators *The Journal* of the National Education Association reports the following American Education Week procedures:

1. Proclamation by mayors and governors
2. Attractive booklets describing the schools
3. Mimeographed letters to parents
4. Posters designed by pupils
5. Letters by children to their parents
6. City-wide school exhibits
7. Daily editorials and news items in newspapers
8. Slides in motion picture theaters
9. Special radio programs

10. Talks before civic organizations
11. Window displays
12. Parents' night at the school.

Can any school system fail to observe American Education Week? Is there not a challenge here for local principals' clubs to put on a city-wide program? Can state principals' associations prepare booklets on successful publicity procedures? With what non-school agencies can the individual principal ally himself in teaching this huge lesson in child and adult education?

Miscellaneous contacts—Space limitations make it impossible to discuss further the principalship in relation to the whole school system. There are opportunities in connection with the Red Cross, the juvenile courts, the philanthropic agencies, the recreational activities, and adult education.

Principals should give particular attention to the articulation of school and community. What provisions should be made for adult education? What non-school agencies are engaged in educational work? What happens to the child who drops out of school? These problems and others are discussed in Chapters VIII, IX, and X of the *Ninth Yearbook* (1931) of the Department of Superintendence.²

Selected References³

Relationships Between Principals, Superintendents, and Supervisors

1. ALMACK, JOHN C., and BURSCH, JAMES F. *The Administration of Consolidated and Village Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925. 466 p.

Discusses the personnel and administrative problems facing the principal in small school systems.

2. AYER, FRED C., and BARR, "A. S. *The Organization of Supervision*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1928. 397 p.

A systematic treatment of principles and practices in organizing the supervisory personnel of a school system.

3. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *The Principal and His School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923. p. 3-77.

Presents the cooperative relationships which must exist in a school system.

4. KOOS, LEONARD V. *The High School Principal*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924. 121 p.

Discusses the importance of the superintendent delegating significant duties to the high school principal.

¹ Principals interested in some of the national problems of broadcasting should read "Radio Notes for Class Study" in the *Journal of the National Education Association*, February, 1931, p. 69.

² National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *Ninth Yearbook*. Part II: The Articulation of the Schools and the Community. 1931. p. 183-250.

³ See the references cited in connection with Parts I and II of this Bulletin.

5. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. "The Elementary School Principals." *Bulletin (Seventh Yearbook)* 7: 132-638; April, 1928. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Suggests the division of duties which might be agreed upon by superintendents, supervisors, and principals.

6. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION. *Second and Third Yearbooks*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. (1929) 307 p. and (1930) 252 p.

These two yearbooks discuss the supervisory functions of principals, supervisors, and superintendents. The Second Yearbook (1929) describes various helpful conferences and study groups.

7. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE. "The Superintendent Surveys Supervision." *Eighth Yearbook*, 1930. 472 p.

Chapters III and IV will do much to clear up the relationships in administration and supervision.

General Administration and Articulation Within the School System

8. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Public School Administration*. (Revised edition) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929. 710 p.

One of the first statements as to the fundamental principles and procedures of organization in a school system.

9. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. New York: Century Company, 1925. 460 p.

Treats such problems as the selection of teachers, turnover, tenure, professional ethics, and legal status of teachers.

10. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE. "The Articulation of the Units of American Education." *Seventh Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1929. 616 p.

Problems and solutions which arise in the administration of a system of schools. Many research opportunities for principals and students of education.

11. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE. "Five Unifying Factors in American Education." *Ninth Yearbook*. 1931. 544 p.

Chapters on pupil promotions, community relations, and finance should be of particular interest to principals.

12. REEDER, WARD G. *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. 579 p.

Summarizes much valuable material bearing on the problems which superintendents must share with the school board and the principals.

Public Relations and Publicity

13. FARLEY, BELMONT M. *What To Tell the People About the Public Schools*. Contributions to Edu-

cation, No. 355. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 136 p.

Discusses what people want to know, are now being told, and should be told about the public schools.

14. GLUECK, ELEANOR T. *The Community Use of Schools*. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins Co., 1927. 222 p.

A survey of community centers in schools as to administration, finances, and programs.

15. INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATION BY RADIO. "Education on the Air." *First Yearbook*. 1930. 399 p.

A collection of articles on educational broadcasting. Describes conditions, experiments, and problems throughout the world.

16. MILLER, CLYDE R., and CHARLES, FRED. *Publicity and the Public School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. 179 p.

Brief and pertinent discussion of the "avenues of public understanding" of the schools.

17. MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *Public School Relations*. Chicago: Rand, McNally and Company, 1927. 262 p.

A practical handbook on types of publications and contents which make for good public relations.

Facts on Public Education

18. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DIVISION OF RESEARCH. "Can the Nation Afford To Educate Its Children?" *Research Bulletin* 6: 257-94; November, 1928. 48 p.

Presents evidence on national wealth in relation to the costs of education.

19. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DIVISION OF RESEARCH. "Can the States Afford To Educate Their Children?" *Research Bulletin* 7: 1-44; January, 1929. 44 p.

The wealth and income of each state compared with school costs.

20. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DIVISION OF RESEARCH. "Investing in Public Education." *Research Bulletin* 8: 165-220; September, 1930. 56 p.

Evidence that good schools pay their own way.

21. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DIVISION OF RESEARCH. *The Schools and Business*. Special pamphlet issued in January, 1931. 24 p.

Points out how good schools make for wealth, profitable business, and social stability. Facts and figures for news articles.

22. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DIVISION OF PUBLICATIONS. *Journal*. Published monthly, except July and August. About 64 p.

Each issue has material on vitalized faculty meetings, public relations, school costs, and similar topics.

23. UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION. *School Life and Bulletins*. Send orders to Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Statistics and facts on education in the United States.

PART IV

THE PRINCIPAL AS AN ACTIVE PARTICIPANT IN A PROFESSIONAL GROUP

Much of the growth in recent years of professional consciousness and solidarity has been due to educational organizations. These groups offer the individual educator countless opportunities for unselfish contributions to the social welfare. Superintendent Frank Cody has stated this viewpoint, as follows:

The organizations most instrumental in the development of this growing consciousness and unselfish ideal of social service may be considered as the national, state, and local bodies with their great teacher membership. Roosevelt, that great American leader and teacher, rightfully said that every person owes some of his time to the upbuilding of his profession. We go a step farther and declare that every teacher owes it to himself and to his community to give not only a little of his time but a little of his money as well in the effort to advance the profession of teaching.¹

What Associations Do Principals Join?

Foster received replies from 440 junior high school principals as to their memberships in professional organizations. Table 12 shows that about three-fourths of those answering the questionnaire were members of the state and national education associations.

TABLE 12.—MEMBERSHIPS HELD BY 440 JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Organization	Frequency of mention
National Education Association.....	344
State educational association.....	327
Parent-teacher association.....	257
Local educational association.....	203
Schoolmasters' club.....	203
Junior high school principals' organization.....	191
County educational association.....	130
Department of secondary school principals.....	77

Foster, Frank Kale. *Status of the Junior High School Principal Bulletin*, 1930, No. 18, p. 69. (Table 50.) U. S. Office of Education, 1930.

In 1925 Crouch sent an inquiry form to members of the national Department of Elementary School Principals. Of the 600 prin-

cipals answering the blank, 95 percent were members of their state teachers' association, 30 percent were members of a state principals' department, and 12 percent were enrolled in a city principals' club.²

In the *Seventh Yearbook*, the 600 supervising principals replying to the inquiry reported 77.2 percent in the National Education Association and 22.1 percent in the national Department of Elementary School Principals. Other groups mentioned frequently included the state teachers' associations, the parent-teacher organizations, and the National Society for the Study of Education.³

Elementary school principals, according to the *Seventh Yearbook*, averaged slightly over four professional organizations each. Douglass found that superintendents in cities over 100,000 in population usually belonged to five professional groups, while superintendents in cities under 5000 in population averaged three memberships.⁴

Ayer asked school executives to indicate whether they performed certain duties in connection with their own professional improvement. Twenty-eight items were reported. Table 13 shows a few of the duties usually found associated with the programs of professional organizations.

General Educational Associations

The surveys of the principalship summarized above indicate that there are three general types of educational organization, as follows: national, state, and local.⁵ These associations may be divided again into two groups: (1) those whose memberships are primarily restricted to educators, and (2) those who include all interested citizens.

National—The National Education Association is an outstanding example of a profession organized on a nation-wide basis. This group began in August, 1857, as The National

¹ See the reprint from *The Detroit Educational Bulletin* in *School and Society* 18: 384; September 29, 1923.

² Crouch, Roy A. "The Status of the Elementary School Principal." *Fifth Yearbook*, 1926, p. 248-49.

³ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *Seventh Yearbook*, 1928, p. 346-47.

⁴ Douglass, B. C. "The Status of the Superintendent." *First Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1923, Table 38, p. 99.

⁵ The *Educational Directory* of the U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 1, contains a list of 35 international educational associations and foundations. The World Federation of Education Associations is particularly well-known to readers of the *Journal* of the National Education Association.

Teachers Association. It enrolled 43 members, held an annual meeting, and published a volume of *Proceedings* of 24 pages. By 1900 the membership had increased to 2,400 persons and the *Proceedings* contained 809 pages. Between 1918 and 1931 the total membership increased from 10,000 to 216,000 persons. In 1929-30 the publications of the Association totaled 157,659,056 pages. A report of the research, study, field, publication, and other services of the organization is published each year.¹

The *Educational Directory* of the United States Office of Education lists 24 pages of national and sectional educational associations.² The list includes a number of civic and non-school groups.³

State—According to Pye the first two state teachers' associations were organized in Connecticut and Rhode Island about 1842. By 1850 there were 5 state groups, 14 by 1860, 21 by 1870, 26 by 1880, 34 by 1890, 40 by 1900, and at present there are 48 groups.⁴

Granrud reports that by 1907 the state educational associations had enlisted only 15 percent of the teachers of the country.⁵ In 1916, 34 percent of the teachers were enrolled. Sixty-one percent were state members by 1923, and according to recent estimates 72 percent of the

nation's teachers are to be found in the state groups.⁶

In determining the major aims of state teachers' organizations, Granrud submitted a checklist to 46 representative superintendents and 46 officers of state associations. The seven leading objectives in order of importance were: (1) the unification of the state teaching body, (2) the development of a state program of education, (3) the preparation of teachers for active support of the state educational program, (4) the education of the public as to the purposes of schools, (5) the formulation and support of constructive educational legislation, (6) the increase of professional knowledge among teachers, and (7) the furtherance of educational research.

Local—Few published reports exist as to the number and activities of local teachers' associations.⁷ Yet observation shows that few teachers are not found in some kind of a local group. Usually these associations range from the informal meetings called by superintendents to the active teacher groups which operate more or less under their own direction.

The purposes of local teachers' groups are the same as those stated above for the national

¹ For example, the "Associational Records and Information" in the 1930 volume of *Proceedings*, p. 957-1142.

² United States Office of Education, *Educational Directory*, Bulletin (1930) No. 1, p. 116-39.

³ For a discussion of the work of semi-educational groups in relation to public education see *State School Administration* by Ellwood P. Cubberley, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927, p. 711-60.

⁴ Pye, Charles F., in *State Teachers' Associations*, 1926, p. 36. Also, "State Educational Associations" by Charles S. Foos in U. S. Commissioner of Education Report, 1909, p. 251-74.

⁵ Granrud, John, *The Organization and Objectives of State Teachers Associations*, 1926, p. 1.

⁶ See the *Journal of the National Education Association*, 18: 88; March, 1929.

⁷ In March 1931 the U. S. Office of Education will publish a bulletin on voluntary teachers organizations in cities over 100,000 in population. Ask for Bulletin 1930, No. 18, by M. David Hoffman.

TABLE 13.—ADMINISTRATIVE DUTIES PERTAINING TO PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL EXECUTIVES

Duty	Percent of Executives Performing			
	Superintendents	General Principals	High School Principals	Elementary Principals
Attend state education meeting.....	92	82	86	63
Read optional professional literature.....	91	94	100	93
Hold membership in state professional organization.....	90	88	87	76
Attend county educational meeting.....	77	87	81	63
Hold membership in national professional organization.....	68	43	65	56
Attend local school conference.....	66	73	74	68
Hold membership in local professional organization.....	60	54	70	68
Hold membership in county professional organization.....	54	62	59	34
Serve as officer in educational organization.....	44	27	38	17
Attend superintendents' section of N. E. A.....	34	9	13	2
Write magazine article on school work.....	26	20	22	24
Serve on staff of educational journal.....	0	0	1	2

Adapted from Table 26 in "Duties of School Administrators—V" by Fred C. Ayer in *School Board Journal*, June, 1929, p. 60.

and state associations.¹ However, the local groups usually are found applying the general objectives in such practical projects as loan funds, homes for retired teachers, professional libraries, lecture programs, musicals, and recreation. Data on the types and procedures of local teacher groups will be available in the 1931 *Yearbook* of the Department of Classroom Teachers, National Education Association.²

Principals' Organizations

This section presents certain general facts on principals' organizations. No space is given to the teachers' associations in the various subject fields³ or to groups interested in special types of education.⁴ Principals will want to refer to the *Educational Directory* of the U. S. Office of Education for data on organizations which space limitations eliminate from this presentation.

National—The Department of Elementary School Principals was formally organized at Atlantic City in February, 1921. At the Des Moines meeting in June, 1921, the new organization became a department of the National Education Association. The basic purposes are: (1) to stimulate individual principals to self-improvement, (2) to foster the development of state and local principals' associations, and (3) to weld all elementary principals into a self-respecting, trained group of school executives. The department's activities are: bulletins, yearbooks, committees, enrollment, and conventions.⁵ According to the *Journal* of the National Education Association for January, 1931, the membership includes 4818 persons.

The Department of Secondary School Principals was organized originally in 1916 as the National Association of Secondary School Principals.⁶ At the midwinter meeting at Boston in February, 1928, the Association voted to become the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association.

tion.⁷ According to the January, 1931, number of the *Journal* the Department enrolls 4048 high school principals.⁸

State—In 1925 there were about six state elementary school principals' associations or departments. By 1927 the number had tripled. The *Ninth Yearbook* of the national department in 1930 listed 25 organizations, and preliminary tabulations for 1931 indicate 30 state groups.⁹

According to the *Educational Directory* (1930) of the U. S. Office of Education, there are associations of secondary school principals in the following states: California, Massachusetts, New York, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. State schoolmasters' clubs exist in Illinois, Michigan, Nebraska, and Vermont. No doubt several departments for secondary school principals exist in connection with the state teachers' associations but these were not reported separately.¹⁰

Local—The 1930 *Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals contains a list of over 180 local principals' associations.¹¹ A number of these groups include both elementary and secondary school executives.

The *Educational Directory* lists principals' groups in Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, New York, and Philadelphia.

Principals' organizations offer opportunities for individual and organized research. Here the principal may compare and discuss the results of his study with his colleagues. In an organization there are unlimited possibilities for comparative studies of a type needed for rapid and effective solution of practical school problems.

What Is a Reasonable Allowance for Memberships in Professional Associations?

The question has often been raised: How many professional groups should a principal join? The most obvious answers are: (1) as many as he can afford to financially, (2) as

¹ See the discussion in *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff* by E. E. Lewis, Century Co., New York, p. 363-98.

² The 1931 *Yearbook* on the "Welfare Activities of Teachers' Associations" will be available May, 1931. Send checks (\$1.00) to the Department of Classroom Teachers, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

³ For example: The National Council of Teachers of English which sponsors *The English Journal*, 211 West 68th St., Chicago, Illinois.

⁴ For example: The Progressive Education Association which publishes *Progressive Education*, 10 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

⁵ For further details write to the Department, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

⁶ See historical notes in *First Yearbook*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1917, p. 2.

⁷ See Bulletin No. 20, Department of Secondary School Principals, p. 44.

⁸ For further details as to the Department, write to Secretary H. W. Church, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois.

⁹ See *Tenth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals available April, 1931.

¹⁰ See pages 140-46 of the *Educational Directory*, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin (1930), No. 1.

¹¹ See pages 659-68 of the 1930 *Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals.

many as are necessary to provide knowledge and skill for his job, and (3) as many as he should in order to advance the profession which provides his income. No doubt most principals weigh these three viewpoints, consider the "social pressure" of their colleagues, and decide accordingly. Would it be reasonable to consider the professional memberships as essential as "recreation" in the personal budget and to make allotments accordingly?

Cost of living study of teachers—Harry made a study of the cost of living in about 100 cities in New York.¹ He took the budget of the single woman teacher living away from home and assigned the following weights: food, 25 percent; rent, 20 percent; clothing, 20 percent; miscellaneous articles and services, 15 percent; savings and further education, 20 percent.

Harry assigned weight to the miscellaneous items, as follows: laundry, 30 percent; amusements, 12.6 percent; carfare, 15.0 percent; medical service, 19.9 percent; toilet articles, 5.0 percent; newspapers, 7.5 percent, and incidentals, 10.0 percent. On this basis, a teacher receiving \$1200 per year would be expected to use \$22.68 for amusements.

TABLE 14.—ESTIMATED COST OF AMUSEMENTS AT SEVERAL SALARY LEVELS

Salary	Annual Allotment to Miscellaneous (15 percent of total budget)	Annual Allotment to Amusements (10 percent of miscellaneous costs)
\$1,200	\$180	\$18
2,400	360	36
3,600	540	54
4,800	720	72
6,000	900	90

Read table thus: If 15 percent of the salary were assigned to miscellaneous costs, at the \$1,200 level this would amount to \$180 per year. If 10 percent of the \$180 were spent on amusements, the cost of this single item would be \$18 per year.

In other words, under a reasonable budget plan it would be safe for a teacher receiving \$2,400 a year to spend \$36 or thereabouts on amusements. Similarly, an annual amusement bill of \$54 would not be unreasonable out of a salary of \$3,600 per year. Is it unreasonable to expect a principal to spend for professional dues a sum equal to that allotted to amusements? See Table 14.

Professional expenses of college instructors—Peixotto studied the expenses of 96 professional families connected with the University of California.² She reports that the bulk of the professors pay from \$10.00 to \$20.00 a year for dues in professional groups. The average expenditure for dues was \$14.00 per year. Median total income (regular salary plus supplementary income) for the group was \$4800 per year.

A faculty committee at Yale University tabulated data on the expenditures of 272 instructors and professors. Table 15 shows the median salaries and average cost of professional dues for each rank of instructor. Instructors paid dues to an average of two professional groups while full professors averaged five memberships.

TABLE 15.—AVERAGE SALARIES AND AVERAGE PROFESSIONAL DUES OF COLLEGE PROFESSORS

Number Reporting	Rank	Median Salary	Average Cost of Professional Dues
94	Instructors	\$2,200	\$14.66
78	Assistant professors	3,000	23.54
32	Associate professors	4,500	26.25
68	Full professors	7,000	50.49

Taken from pages 24, 52, and 53 of *Incomes and Living Costs of a University Faculty* by Committee on Academic Standard of Living, Yale University, 1928.

Professional dues and the principalship—How much of his income should the principal allot to the support and services of professional groups? Let us make some comparisons with the proposed budget allowances for amusements. First, we shall assign 15 percent of the total budget to miscellaneous items. Of the 15 percent, we shall allot 10 percent to the theater and similar amusements. (Harry assigned 12.6 percent to amusements, see above.) On this basis, the annual expenditures for the theater for different salary levels would approximate the figures shown in Table 14.

Let us refer to Table 15. College instructors with a median salary of \$2,200 pay an average of about \$15.00 annual for professional dues. Examine Table 15 in connection with Table 16 which gives the median salaries of principals in city school systems in 1928-1929.

¹ Harry, David P. *Cost of Living of Teachers in the State of New York*. Contributions to Education, No. 320. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 184 p. See bibliography for other references.

² Peixotto, Jessica B. *Getting and Spending*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927. p. 75-79, 215.

TABLE 16.—MEDIAN SALARIES PAID PRINCIPALS IN 1928-1929 IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

City Size	Supervising Elementary Principals	Junior High School Principals	Senior High School Principals
Over 100,000....	\$3,443	\$4,330	\$4,922
30,000 to 100,000...	2,616	3,405	4,193
10,000 to 30,000...	2,338	2,831	3,574
5,000 to 10,000...	2,235	2,158	2,950
2,500 to 5,000....	2,360	1,859	2,478

Data from Charts IV, V, and VI of "Salary Scales in City School Systems, 1928-29," *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, May, 1929.

The above discussion and Tables 14, 15, and 16 have presented facts on the problem of income in relation to professional dues. Is it reasonable from these data to say that principals should allot a minimum of \$20.00 a year to professional memberships? Members of the Chicago Principals Club pay local dues of \$40.00 per year. A large proportion of the Chicago group are also members of the National Education Association and the national departments for school principals.

How should the \$20.00 be allotted among the various local, state, and national groups? At this point much depends upon personal interests, need for technical information, and the type of position held. For these reasons the proposed allotment in Table 17 does not include the official titles of any educational organization. Does Table 17 fit your case? Is the distribution of the \$20.00 reasonable in terms of the needs of principals? Can you suggest a better distribution?

What would the proposed memberships in Table 17 bring to the principal? Briefly: the satisfaction that he is supporting the profession from which he derives his income; the publications whereby he is kept informed; the opportunity to meet and to study with persons interested in similar problems; and the avenues for oral and written expression of his own creative educational experiences. Can principals stand by and let others win for them better working conditions, more adequate support for educational costs, retirement systems, and all of the other means of improving teaching?

Problems for Group Research

It is a safe prediction that principals' clubs of the future will prosper to the extent that

they offer an effective means for the comparative study of the problems confronted by their members. Principals' organizations which do not carry a program of solid professional study as one of their major purposes cannot expect to enjoy full support from the principal who is actively endeavoring to improve his work.

Vague nature of present standards—Principals' organizations should welcome the opportunity of making the qualifications for the principalship comparable with those in medicine, law, and other professions. At the present time the requirements of appointees to the principalship are not definite. Some of the larger cities have developed definite systems for the selection of principals, but this procedure is not widespread. In cities where selective systems are not in use the requirements are still vague. A summary of common local requirements as reported by superintendents is as follows:

1. Type of previous experience—teaching and administrative
2. Number of years of experience—approximately five years
3. Sex—either
4. Amount of training—bachelor's degree
5. Miscellaneous—personality, leadership, executive ability, and tact.

State requirements for principals have not been extensively developed. In 1930 fifteen states had special administrative or supervisory certificates affecting the preparation of elementary school principals. A partial summary of requirements follows:

1. Type of previous experience—teaching and administrative
2. Number of years of experience—approximately three years
3. Years of training—approximately four years
4. Number of professional units—from fifteen to thirty units.

TABLE 17.—SUGGESTED DISTRIBUTION OF THE MINIMUM ANNUAL PROFESSIONAL DUES

Type of Organization	Number of Groups	Allotment
I. National		
A. General educational associations.....	2	\$4.00
B. Principals' department...	1	3.00
C. Special subject group...	1	3.00
II. State		
A. Teachers' association....	1	3.00
B. Principals' department...	1	2.00
III. Local		
A. Teachers' association....	1	3.00
B. Principals' club.....	1	2.00
Total.....	8	\$20.00

One of the most useful means of professionalizing the principalship lies in raising the standard of preparation among members of the group. The approach to this problem must be made by improving those now in service and preventing the entrance into the profession of persons with inadequate training.

The local principals' club has an opportunity to cooperate with the superintendent of schools in determining adequate standards for the particular community. The program involves first, a committee to study the training of the local principals, to investigate the requirements of other cities, and to assemble data from other sources. Second, the local organization should administer a program for increasing the professional study and preparation of its members. This plan may include lectures from educational experts, reports of studies by individual principals, committee reports, professional reading circles, or enrolment in formal courses in education.

In addition to stimulating local groups to professional study, the state association can exert influence in raising the level of state certification requirements. An instructive example of this has been the work of a committee of the New Jersey State Principals' Association. This body has gathered data on existing standards to guide it in developing the necessary state legislation.

The need for a professional wage—The school principalship must pay a professional wage if persons with first-rate ability and extended technical training are to be secured. In 1928-29 the median salaries of supervising elementary school principals ranged from \$3,443 in the largest cities to \$2,360 in cities between 2,500 and 5,000 in population. The median salaries of senior high school principals extended between \$4,922 and \$2,478 per year.

A conservative estimate of the range of professional salaries in the United States is from \$2,000 to \$8,000 per year. Obviously, there are many principals who do not receive a professional wage.

There are two alternatives in this salary situation. One is to keep the requirements for the principalship low and to pay principals for functioning as clerks and petty administrators. The second alternative is to lift gradually the

specifications for the principalship to a higher professional level and to provide compensation which must necessarily accompany the increased standards. Wise policy supports the latter alternative.

Usually in a salary investigation the principals' association appoints a committee to gather data and make recommendations. The steps in the committee's work are as follows:

1. Gathering information:
 - a. The purchasing power of the dollar over a period of years and at the present time.
 - b. The increase in local principals' salaries as compared with wages of other gainfully occupied persons.
 - c. The salaries of principals in comparable American cities.
 - d. The professional and economic status of principals in the local system as determined by preparation, experience, dependents, cost of living, etc.
 - e. The ability of the community to pay as compared with similar communities.
2. Determining the proposed salary schedule:
 - a. Theoretical and practical bases for salary schedules.
 - b. Application of local data of training, dependents, cost of living, etc. on the schedule.
 - c. Decision upon the proposed schedule.
3. Maintaining support and confidence:
 - a. With the principals:
 1. Progress reports to principals' organization.
 2. Conferences with individual principals.
 - b. With the superintendent and board:
 1. Presentation of plan of study.
 2. Progress reports.
 3. Report on publicity program.
 - c. With the public:
 1. Newspaper write-ups.
 2. Special articles in P. T. A. magazines, etc.
 3. Reports to P. T. A. groups, service clubs, etc.
4. The proposed schedule:
 - a. Form of the report.
 - b. Approval of the principals.
 - c. Presentation to board of education and superintendent.

In carrying out the proposed work, the committee will find suggestions in the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association.¹ Another source of data is the *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association.² Other studies should prove suggestive as to questionnaires, technics of pro-

¹ See the following *Research Bulletins*: "Salaries in City School Systems," Vol. V, March, 1927; and "The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries," Vol. V, May, 1927.

² See the *Seventh Yearbook*, op. cit., Chapter XXIV.

cedure, publicity, proposed schedules, and form of presentation.¹

The principals' handbook—The research and study necessary in developing a principals' manual offer interesting work to local associations. The final product proves of great value in acquainting a new principal with the local system. Older principals may use it as a reference for the more standardized procedures and for the regulations which they enforce.

The typical substitute for the principals' handbook is the printed rules of local boards of education. Usually these contain briefly stated local regulations governing the pupils, teachers, principals, and other school employees. In a recent study of ninety-five cities it was shown that there was little inspiration in these rules, for they were largely concerned with administrative and clerical activities of the principalship. Supervisory functions of the principal were concerned in but 10 percent of the prescriptions.

Other difficulties or weaknesses of the ordinary local rule books are: (1) the omission of state laws and regulations, (2) the acceptance of obsolete educational theory and practice, (3) the suggestion of detailed procedures which handicap the principal, and (4) the inclusion of vague statements.

Largely because of the weaknesses of local rule books, there is a definite tendency to revise the rules, and to supplement them with bulletins, handbooks, and more-detailed statements.

In Saint Louis, several issues of the *Public School Messenger* have included the general and specific technics of supervision. These pamphlets are made up in four parts: (1) general principles of supervision and teaching, (2) specific principles of application in the various subjects and grades, (3) case studies of good teaching in kindergarten and elementary grades, and (4) case studies of good teaching in intermediate and high school grades.

A workbook for principals and supervisors has been prepared in Los Angeles by an assistant superintendent and a group of principals.² The six chapters of the manual present data on these questions:

1. What do I know about the principalship?
2. Am I proper material?
3. How shall I get and keep the machinery of my school in good working order?
4. How shall I make my school a community asset?
5. How shall I measure my efficiency as a principal?
6. How shall I improve the learning activities in my school?

The contents of the handbook for principals would depend somewhat upon the local situation. In some cases it might be advisable to combine the rulebook and handbook, while in other cases separate editions would be best. A suggested list of contents for these manuals is as follows:

- A. Rulebook:
 1. Rules of local principals' association.
 2. Local board of education rules.
 3. Digest of state laws affecting the elementary schools.
- B. Handbook:
 1. The principal and business department relationship:
 - a. How to order, check, etc., supplies.
 - b. Standard supply list and basis for requisitions.
 - c. How to secure repairs and alterations.
 - d. Cooperation in directing the janitorial service.
 2. The principal and the superintendent:
 - a. How to arrange individual conferences.
 - b. The staff conferences—time, place, and purpose.
 - c. The superintendent's committees.
 - d. Delimitation of the principal's authority.
 3. The principal and the supervisors:
 - a. Kinds of supervisors.
 - b. Delimitation of the supervisor's authority.
 - c. Delimitation of the principal's authority.
 - d. Suggested cooperative procedures.
 4. The principal and the research division:
 - a. Delimitation of the administrative authority of the research division.
 - b. Work of the division.
 - c. Types of service the principal may expect.
 - d. Suggested cooperative procedures.
 5. The principal and the community:
 - a. The opportunities for local school and community cooperation.
 - b. The advantage of a local interest.
 - c. Principles governing the principal's participation in local affairs.
 6. The principal and his duties:
 - a. General consideration and time allotment.
 - b. Supervision:

¹ McCaughy, James R. (Director). *Teachers' Salaries in New York City*. New York; Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 256 p.

² Enlarged and now published by the Macmillan Company as *A Workbook for Principals and Supervisors* by Robert Hill Lane, 1930. 263 p.

1. Teachers' meetings.
2. Class observation.
3. Pupil adjustment.
4. Measuring results.
5. Individual conferences.
6. Demonstration lessons.
7. Etc.
- c. Administration:
 1. School organization.
 2. Programs.
 3. Janitor service.
 4. Classification and grouping.
 5. Visitors.
 6. Etc.
- d. Teaching (regular):
 1. Should the principal teach?
 2. If so, what should the principal teach?
 3. If so, how long should the principal teach?
 4. Etc.
- e. Clerical duties:
 1. Supplies and equipment.
 2. Repairs and alterations.
 3. Reports.
 4. Records.
 5. Attendance.
 6. Telephone.
 7. Correspondence.
 8. Etc.
- f. Miscellaneous:
 1. Extra-curriculum activities.
 2. Community contacts.
 3. Professional study.
7. The principal and self-improvement:
 - a. Self-rating scales.
 - b. Professional reading:
 1. Books.
 2. Periodicals.
 - c. Professional associations:
 1. Local.
 2. State.
 3. National.
 - d. Professional courses and study.
 - e. Writing of professional articles.

The above list of topics is only suggestive and does not include many important problems which might arise in local conditions. Some of the topics could be developed by the local committee into the form of standard procedures. Others are in such a state of change that it would be better to deal with them in the periodical bulletins and yearbooks of the local association.

Other problems for study—Research into problems of the principalship is one of the most stimulating "in-service-training" procedures which principals can employ. No doubt most of the persons who have read this bulletin to this point have sensed the hundreds of problems in administration, methods, curriculum, and su-

pervision awaiting the principal's study. A few of the questions which might be summarized at this point are: What are the genuine duties of the principalship? How may these duties be executed most effectively? How should the school head distribute his time? How can the principal work most satisfactorily with special supervisors, nurses, doctors, and other visitors to his building? By what standards should the superintendent judge the principal's work? What extra-curriculum activities should a school have? How can the school work most effectively with the parent-teacher association? What reports should the principal send to the parents? How can schools develop and utilize libraries? How can schools develop character in children?

Publications of Principals' Organizations

Every day principals are testing, evaluating, adopting, or rejecting various school procedures. Much of this individual experimentation is lost to the profession because no one takes the trouble to put a description in writing. Even more wasteful are the group studies which are so often given as oral reports and then forgotten. How to avoid this waste in the "world's most practical laboratory" is a major problem facing local, state, and national principals' groups.

Types of publications—The publications issued by organizations of elementary school principals usually take the form of a bulletin or yearbook. Usually the bulletin is a small pamphlet of current material issued several times during the school year. The yearbooks contain current material, committee reports, and a general summary of the year's activities. The contents of the yearbook tend to group around several large topics, while the bulletins contain miscellaneous articles of current interest.

The Chicago Principals' Club publishes the *Reporter* several times during the school year. The pages are 6 x 9 inches in size and usually total 32 for each issue. The January, 1931, number contains articles on the size of high schools, state taxation laws, health education, safety work, and the activities of the club.

The New York Principals' Association publishes *The Principal* in 6 x 9 size. The January, 1931, issue contains 48 pages printed in modern type style. The contents include articles on

mental hygiene, the White House Conference, and reports of the health committee. Other numbers have been devoted to several topics and the activities of the local association.

The Elementary Principals' Association of Washington, D. C., issued their first *Official Bulletin* in January, 1931. Articles in the first issue were prepared by teachers and principals in the schools for white children. The bulletin includes units of work, summaries of articles in educational magazines, and book reviews.

The Department of Elementary School Principals of the Ohio State Teachers' Association publishes a bulletin in December and April each year. The first bulletin in December, 1927, contained articles on teacher participation in administration, the principal and the parent-teacher association, the distribution of the principal's time, democratic supervision, and other similar material. Another issue, in March, 1928, contained material on the principal and supervision, the problems of the principalship, standards for the principalship, and other articles of professional interest to principals. The 1929 and 1930 volumes have followed the general arrangement of 1928.

Yearbooks are issued by the state elementary school principals' organizations in California and Michigan. Among yearbooks of city clubs are those of Chicago, Dayton, and Philadelphia. The Chicago yearbooks deserve further comment. The *First Yearbook* in 1926 presented evidence on pupil failures. The yearbooks in 1927, 1928, and 1929 have contained articles on reading instruction, radio in education, use of visual aids, pupil failures, educational measurement, and supervision. The *Fifth Yearbook* in June, 1930, is on health education. This latest volume contains 252 pages 6¾ x 10 inches in size.

Value of publications—The yearbooks of principals' associations offer to individuals and groups opportunities to make a contribution to the literature of elementary education. Every year excellent committee reports and individual studies are compiled, discussed, and filed without exerting the influence which they deserve. The loss could be prevented by putting the reports into mimeographed or printed form for

general distribution. When an association assembles its committee reports and other professional articles into permanent form it contributes to the practical reference material of the elementary school field.¹

Probably the greatest single value of the publications to the individual principal lies in the outlet offered for professional articles. Many elementary school principals are experimenting with technics of instruction, supervision, and administration, which should be described for the benefit of others. Furthermore, the description of experiments in concise and understandable statements is excellent training and tends to clarify thinking. It is a means of self-improvement which principals should not ignore.

Organizing for publication—Principals' associations usually adapt their editorial and printing services to conform with local conditions. The secretary of the Ohio State Principals' Association, as editor of the bulletin, assembles the material to be published. In the Michigan State Principals' Association the editorial work is in the hands of a committee of ten. The administrative details of the work are executed by the chairman or editor-in-chief. The printing in this case is handled by a regular commercial establishment.

Other committee reports, bulletins, and yearbooks have been handled by other forms of directive organizations. It is usually desirable to centralize executive responsibility in one person. This person, as editor, works in conformity with the general policies of the executive committee or of an advisory editorial committee.

The mechanics of publication are important enough to require careful consideration of the editor and his advisory committee. Publications of many different sizes are not convenient or easily filed. At present the tendency is toward bulletins of 6 x 9 inches in page size. This size conforms with the standards recommended by the Educational Press Association of America in their *Sixth Yearbook*, April, 1930. Editors of professional publications will find suggestions in this yearbook concerning the editorial, advertising, and mechanical phases of their work.²

¹ See the *Bulletin* of the Department of Elementary School Principals, published in October, January, April, and July each year. Also, the *Bulletin* of the Department of Secondary School Principals, published in January, March, April, May, and October. See selected references at end of this section.

² Communicate with Joy E. Morgan, Chairman of the Committee on Standards, Educational Press Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Selected References

The National Education Association

1. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *Proceedings, 1857-1930* inclusive. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

A unique collection of speeches, reports, and resolutions which reflect the development of American education.

2. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, GENERAL OFFICE. *Annual Report of the Executive Secretary*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1930. 33 p.

Summarizes the work of the association and draws attention to several major educational problems.

State Education Associations

3. FOOS, CHARLES S. "State Educational Associations." *Report*, U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1909. p. 251-74.

An early and fairly extensive summary of the activities and characteristics of state teachers' associations.

4. GRANRUD, JOHN. *The Organization and Objectives of State Teachers Associations*. Contributions to Education, No. 234. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. 71 p.

A comprehensive analysis of the objectives, organization, and activities of state teachers associations.

5. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECRETARIES OF STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATIONS. (Everett M. Hosman, Editor) *State Teacher Associations*, 1926. 206 p.

The aims and practices of state teachers associations as written by their executive secretaries.

Local Teachers Organizations

6. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS. *News Bulletin*. Published in October, January and May. Washington, D. C.: the Association. 4 p.

A news sheet of activities in local, state, and national groups of classroom teachers.

7. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS. *1931 Yearbook*. (To be published in spring of 1931.) Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Data will be presented as to personal practices in school systems and the welfare activities of teacher groups.

Principals Associations

8. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. *Bulletin and Yearbook*. (Three bulletins and one yearbook, totaling about 700 pages for the year.) Washington, D. C.: the Association.

These publications, issued in October, January, April, and July, treat the various problems of elementary school principals.

9. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. *Bulletin*. Pub-

lished five times a year, January, March, April, May, and October. Berwyn, Ill.: the Department.

The issues of the bulletin summarize the reports of committees, give annotated references on pertinent topics, and report business of the Department. The March issue contains the speeches and reports of the February meeting.

Research Procedures and Technics¹

10. ALMACK, JOHN C. *Research and Thesis Writing*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. 310 p.

Many suggestions on how to make investigations and how to prepare manuscripts.

11. BUCKINGHAM, B. R. *Research for Teachers*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1926. 386 p.

Practical procedures for the classroom teacher who would use with intelligence the recent scientific procedures.

12. CRAWFORD, CLAUDE C. *The Technic of Research in Education*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1928. 320 p.

Discusses the use of such research technics as the interview, questionnaire, case-study, survey, statistics, and historical.

13. GOOD, CARTER V. *How To Do Research in Education*. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1928. 298 p.

Presents treatments on such topics as sources of information, scientific investigations, technic of research, and reporting research. Many references listed.

14. MCCALL, WILLIAM A. *How To Experiment in Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923. 281 p.

The fundamental statement of how to plan, to direct, and to control educational experimentation. Many practical suggestions for principals.

15. NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, DIVISION OF RESEARCH. "The Questionnaire." *Research Bulletin* 8: 1-52; January, 1930.

Suggests sane procedures in using the questionnaire in research work.

16. REEDER, WARD G. *How To Write a Thesis*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1930. 216 p.

A revised and enlarged edition of a well-known handbook on thesis writing.

Miscellaneous

17. EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA. *Sixth Yearbook*, April, 1930. 32 p. Address: Committee on Standards, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

Lists educational periodicals, gives standards for editing, and indexes editors of periodicals.

18. UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION. *Educational Directory*. Bulletin (1930) No. 1. 156 p.

Lists names of city and county superintendents, college presidents, and educational associations.

¹ See the selected references at the end of parts I, II, and III of this bulletin.

SELECTED ARTICLES IN PROFESSIONAL MAGAZINES

Note: A majority of the selected references listed in connection with Parts I, II, III, and IV are textbooks. References to current professional magazines have usually been limited to footnotes. The purpose of the following section is to list a number of helpful articles found in professional magazines only. Two criteria of selection have been kept in mind: (1) does the article supplement the references previously cited, and (2) does the article suggest problems for further study by principals? This list should be supplemented by consulting *The Educational Index*, *The Reader's Guide*, and *The International Index to Periodical Literature*.

The Principalship

1. BRINKERHOFF, GEORGE I. "The Principal as a Professional Man." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 7: 46-47; October, 1927.

Discusses principal's work and need for training and experience.

2. CLARK, R. C. "As Is the Principal." *American School Board Journal* 75: 49-50; September, 1927.

A discussion of the essential qualities of the principal.

3. COMPTON, C. V. "Functions of the Principal." *Journal of Education* 105: 37-38; January 10, 1927.

Classifies the principal's functions as clerical, managerial, and supervisory. Makes suggestions on the conduct and topics of faculty meetings.

4. COURTIS, S. A. "Possibilities and Potentialities in Measuring the Work of a Principal." *American School Board Journal* 73: 37-38, 135-36; December, 1926.

An article dealing with basic problems in measuring the principal's work.

5. ENGLISH, MILDRED. "A Comparative Study of the Time Distribution of Rural and Urban Principals." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 7: 4-19; October, 1927.

Reports data on the time distributions of rural and urban principals.

6. GIST, ARTHUR S. "The Art of Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 192-96; January, 1926.

Outlines certain personal qualifications desirable in a principal in connection with super-

visory work. Suggests possession of definite plans, an art of supervision and a democratic attitude by principals to eliminate the objections to supervision.

7. HINES, HARLAN C. "The Teacher as an Administrator. Part I—In the Capacity of Principal." *American School Board Journal* 73: 47-48; November, 1926.

Considers the principal the superintendent's representative and describes some of his administrative, supervisory, and social duties.

8. JUDD, CHARLES H. "The Possibilities of the Principalship." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 5: 131-37; April, 1926.

Considers the position of principal in contrast with that of the teachers.

9. KLOPP, W. J. "A Study of the Professional Activities of Elementary School Principals." *Elementary School Journal* 28: 140-46; October, 1927.

Describes a plan of organization to reduce principal's time given to routine activities.

10. KUEHNY, MENLO S. "The Effect on the Use and Distribution of the Elementary School Principal's Time by the Adoption of Daily Schedules or Programs." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 5: 42-51; October, 1925.

States that the adoption of a working program improves the work of the principal.

11. LONGSHORE, W. T. "Principalship Not a Stepping Stone." *American Educational Digest* 46: 200-202; January, 1927.

Stresses the importance of the elementary school principalship and advocates placing it on a par with the high school principalship.

12. MCCLURE, WORTH. "The Elementary School Principalship." *Journal of the National Education Association* 16: 283-85; December, 1927.

Discussion of the status of the elementary school principalship, its opportunities, development, duties, and requisite training.

13. MORRISON, J. CAYCE. "Some Unsolved Problems of the School Principalship." *Educational Review* 74: 89-93; September, 1927.

Raises questions on the preparation, compensation, functions, and equipment of the school principal.

14. RABERNORT, WILLIAM. "The Changing Status of the Principal." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 4: 131-34; April, 1925.

The development of the principalship during the past 25 years.

15. STETSON, PAUL C. "The Progressive School Principal." *American School Board Journal* 75: 112; September, 1927.

States that leadership comes from continuous growth along certain lines.

16. STONE, CLARENCE R. "Development and Present Status of the Elementary School Principalship." *American School Board Journal* 75: 41-42; November, 1927.

Discusses four stages of the school principalship: the head-teacher, part-time teaching, managerial and professional leadership.

17. WINSHIP, A. E. "Elementary School Principals." *Journal of Education* 102: 181-82; September 3, 1925.

Stresses the importance of the elementary school principal's work and notes his improved status.

Principals' Study Groups

18. CHASE, LAWRENCE S. "The Importance of State Elementary Principals' Associations." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 5: 27-31; October, 1925.

Reports data on the status of elementary principals' organizations.

19. CHASE, LAWRENCE S. "Why Principals Should Organize." *Journal of Education* 102: 44; July, 9, 1925.

Recommends the formation of a state elementary principals' association.

20. DIRIMPLE, BELLE. "Study Groups of the Seattle Principals' Association." *Journal of Educational Method* 4: 397-98; May, 1925.

A brief description of activities carried on by branches of the Seattle Principals' Association.

21. LONGSHORE, W. T. "Establishing the Local Organization of Principals." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 2: 93-95; April, 1923.

Outlines the initial procedures in establishing a local principals' club.

22. MCCLURE, WORTH. "Helping the Principal to Grow Professionally." *Elementary School Journal* 26: 339-44; January, 1926.

Points out the lack of an inclusive program for the improvement of principals in service and presents a program worked out by a Seattle superintendent.

23. PESTA, ROSE A. "Work of the Principals' Club in Maintaining the Professional Status of the Principal." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 2: 101-109; April, 1923.

Describes the development and activities of the Chicago Principals' Club.

24. PINKSTON, EVA G. "Some Professional Programs of the Dallas Principals and Supervisors Association." *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals* 6: 91-93; January, 1927.

Outlines topics discussed by groups of the Dallas Principals and Supervisors Association.

Aims and Theories of Education

25. BODE, B. H. "Where Does One Go for Fundamental Assumptions in Education?" *Educational Administration and Supervision* 14: 361-70; September, 1928.

Assumptions should be replaced by scientific facts or converted into theories which are subject to change.

26. BRUCE, WILLIAM F. "Whither Secondary Education." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 431-40; September, 1929.

Discusses the Seven Cardinal Principles and other statements as to the aims of secondary education.

27. FREEMAN, FRANK N. "Psychology as the Source of Fundamental Assumptions in Education." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 14: 371-77; September, 1928.

Indicates how psychological factors underlie the whole educational procedure.

28. GOOD, CARTER V. "An Analysis of Studies in Educational Theory." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 519-48; October, 1929.

A selected bibliography of 417 references on educational theory.

29. JUDD, CHARLES H. "The Unique Character of American Secondary Education." *School Review* 36: 95-117; February, 1928.

Discusses some of the characteristics and problems of high school education. Comparisons made with secondary schools in Europe.

30. PETERS, C. C. "Educational Sociology as a Source of Fundamental Assumptions in Education." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 14: 385-92; September, 1928.

A study, description, and classification of social groups suggest problems for education.

31. REISNER, E. H. "The History of Education as a Source of Fundamental Assumptions in Education." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 14: 378-84; September, 1928.

The historical approach gives concreteness and perspective to presentday viewpoints.

32. SNEDDEN, DAVID. "Democratic Vocational Education." *School Review* 36: 522-27; September, 1928.

A viewpoint on cultural and vocational education.

33. THOMSON, LYLE G. "Objectives of Secondary Education According to the Opinions of Pupils." *School Review* 37: 198-203; March, 1929.

Attempts to find out whether high school pupils realize the objectives of secondary education.

34. WATSON, GOODWIN. "Education and the Best of All Possible Worlds." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 16: 411-21; September, 1930.

Raises pertinent questions regarding education and the social order.

Relationships Between School Workers

35. AYER, FRED C. "Types of Supervisory Organization." *American Educational Digest* 45: 341-45; April, 1926.

Discusses departmentalized supervision of six special subjects. Presents data on the duties and administrative relationships of supervisors.

36. BEATLEY, BANCROFT. "The Battle of the Specialists in Secondary Education." *School Review* 36: 496-503; September, 1928.

Discusses the administrative relationships between the high school principal and the subject specialist.

37. GOSLING, THOMAS W. "The Adjustment of the Duties of the Supervisor to Those of the Principal." *Elementary School Journal* 26: 18-21; September, 1925.

Suggests how the clearer definition of the functions of each group may bring better relations between supervisors and principals.

38. HUBBARD, FRANK W. "Do School Systems Need a Principals' Handbook?" *Elementary School Journal* 29: 590-93; April, 1929.

Suggests a handbook in clearing up relationships and duties of principals.

39. LONG, HARVEY L. "What Do School Nurses Do?" *Elementary School Journal* 29: 296-302; December, 1928.

An analysis of the reports and diaries of school nurses.

40. MCCLURE, WORTH. "Cooperative Effort in Supervision." *Elementary School Journal* 27: 256-64; December, 1926.

Describes the work of schools in furthering cooperation between principals and supervisors.

41. TIEGS, E. W. "A Study in Special Supervision." *American School Board Journal* 75: 39-40, and 44; August, 1927, and September, 1927.

Presents data from special supervisors in different fields concerning their activities.

Supervision

42. BARR, A. S. and RUDISILL, MABEL. "Inexperienced Teachers Who Fail—and Why." *Nation's Schools* 5: 30-34; February, 1930.

Analyzes causes of failure in young teachers.

43. BETTS, GEORGE H. "Teachers Remedies for Classroom Difficulties." *Elementary School Journal* 29: 54-62; September, 1928.

Teacher opinion as to how certain classroom problems could be solved.

44. BRIM, O. G. "Changing and Conflicting Conceptions on Supervision." *Educational Method* 10: 131-40; December, 1930.

Calls for the formulation of a philosophy of supervision in conformity with modern principles of education.

45. BRUECKNER, LEO J. "A Diagnostic Chart for Determining the Supervisory Needs of Teachers in Arithmetic." *Elementary School Journal* 30: 96-103; October, 1929.

Suggests a detailed chart for analyzing the supervisory needs of teachers of arithmetic.

46. BURSCH, C. W. "Taking Stock of High School Teaching." *Nation's Schools* 3: 44-48; April, 1929.

Suggests checklist and record of classroom observations.

47. COURTIS, S. A. "Problems in the Appraisal of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 269-78; April, 1929.

Discusses some of the perplexities in measuring the effect of supervision.

48. GAMBRILL, BESSIE L. "A Critical Review of Researches in Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 279-89; April, 1929.

Summarizes a number of supervisory and experimental studies.

49. HART, MELVIN C. "Supervision from the Standpoint of the Supervised." *School Review* 37: 537-40; September, 1930.

Teacher opinion regarding classroom visits and conferences.

50. HUBBARD, FRANK W. "Obtaining Time for Supervision through the Teachers' Handbook." *Elementary School Journal* 29: 748-53; June, 1929.

Suggests that routine administration should be described in bulletin form so as to avoid needless interruptions of the principal's schedule.

51. JUDD, CHARLES H. "Scientific Methods of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 12: 345; May, 1926.

Suggests that supervision should stress suitable methods of follow-up rather than a definite routine in teaching, owing to individual differences among teachers.

52. MELBY, E. O. "The Organization of High School Supervision in Certain Cities." *School Review* 37: 736-46; December, 1929.

Summarizes practices in high school supervision in cities between 10,000 and 20,000 in population.

53. STONE, CLARENCE R. "Objectives of Supervision by the Principal." *American School Board Journal* 75: 47-48; December, 1927.

Names specific objectives of supervision by the principal. Allots 40 percent of the principal's time to supervision.

54. WRINKLE, W. L. "The Improvement of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 16: 641-48; December, 1930.

Describes a rating scale to be used by teachers in evaluating supervisors.

Administration

55. FOSTER, H. H. "Schedule Making in the Small High School." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 14: 170-78; March, 1928.

Illustrates practices in a school which enrolls about 200 pupils.

56. GOOD, CARTER V., and ROBERTS, EDWARD D. "Curriculum Titles and Curriculum Constants in Senior High School." *School Review* 36: 679-84; November, 1928.

Summarizes 466 curriculum titles found in 65 school systems. Points out great amount of specialization in high schools.

57. HOSIC, JAMES F. "The Organization of the Elementary School." *Educational Method* 8: 11-14,

81-84, 147-50, 199-202, 259-64, 319-21, and 395-98. Begins in September-October, 1928, number.

Seven instalments describing the "cooperative group plan" of elementary school organization.

58. KIRBY, BYRON C. "Evidences of Inefficiency in Building Control." *Elementary School Journal* 30: 336-45; January, 1930.

Discusses certain standards relating to the organization and management of an elementary school.

59. MATHEWS, C. O. "Progress in Junior High School Education." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 16: 561-74; November, 1930.

Discussion and references on such problems as articulation, guidance, and the curriculum.

60. McNALLY, E. J. (and others). "Report on the All-Year School." *Elementary School Journal* 30: 509-18; March, 1930.

Summarizes practices and opinions on the all-year school type of organization.

61. NELSON, M. G. "Subject Combinations in the Programs of Teachers in Small Secondary Schools in New York State." *School Review* 37: 426-32; June, 1929.

Reports data on 1,128 teachers in 210 small high schools.

62. PATTY, W. W. "Camouflage vs. Character with Special Reference to Administering a High School." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 16: 519-27; October, 1930.

Calls for an inventory of the aims and practices of high schools.

63. REAVIS, W. C. and WOELLNER, ROBERT. "The Time and Personnel Available for Administrative Duties in Secondary Schools." *School Review* 36: 576-92; October, 1928.

First of a series of summaries of checklists received from 522 secondary school principals regarding administrative practices. Published as a book, see footnotes in Part II of this bulletin.

64. STANTON, EDGAR A. "Saving Time in Office Routine." *Elementary School Journal* 28: 263-72; December, 1927.

Outlines methods whereby time devoted to office routine in schools may be reduced.

65. UNZIKER, S. P. "A Study of Teaching Loads in Junior High Schools in Wisconsin." *School Review* 37: 136-41; February, 1929.

A study of practice in 23 junior high schools.

Study and Adjustment of Pupils

66. COOK, INEZ, and GOODRICH, T. V. "How High School Pupils Spend Their Time." *School Review* 36: 771-78; December, 1928.

A study of how 700 boys and girls divide the total day. Includes suggestions of teachers as to how the day should be divided in the interest of health and studies.

67. CORNELL, ETHEL L. "Why Are More Boys than Girls Retarded in School?" I and II. *Elementary School Journal* 29: 96-105, and 213-26; October and November, 1928.

An analysis of the records of 749 pupils over a period of three years.

68. DVORAK, AUGUST. "A Comparison of the Achievement of Superior Children in Segregated and Unsegregated First-Grade Classes." *Elementary School Journal* 29: 380-86; January, 1929.

An experiment which indicates that superior pupils make more progress in segregated classes, if the curriculum and the instructional materials are adapted to their needs.

69. GOULD, SILAS E., and DAVIS, ROBERT A. "Some Reasons Why High School Pupils Choose Certain Subjects." *School Review* 37: 602-14; October, 1929.

A survey of the interests of 1,500 high school students.

70. OSTERBERG, HILDUR C. "A Study of the Load of Senior High School Pupils in Los Angeles." *School Review* 36: 359-69; May, 1928.

Summarizes data on about 2,000 students. Brings out relationship between load of studies, scholarship, and intelligence.

71. PIERCE, PAUL R. "Maladjustments of Adolescents." *School Review* 37: 679-86; November, 1929.

Points out some of the educational implications of a study of delinquent children.

72. TOWELL, J. F. "The Social and Educational

Status of the Pupils in a Residential Suburban Community." *School Review* 37: 49-58; January, 1929.

A study of the characteristics and background of 54 percent of the persons in a high school district between the ages of seven and twenty-one years.

73. TURNEY, AUSTIN H. "The Status of Ability Grouping." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 17: 21-42; January, 1931.

Reviews a number of studies of ability grouping.

Teacher Rating

74. ALMY, H. C. and SORENSON, HERBERT. "A Teacher-Rating Scale of Determined Reliability and Validity." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 16: 179-86; March, 1930.

Discusses reliability and validity in teacher rating.

75. BAIRD, JAMES, and BATES, GUY. "The Basis of Teacher Rating." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 175-83; March, 1929.

Raises questions as to the validity of teacher rating.

76. HEBB, BERTHA Y. *Samples of Teacher Self-Rating Cards*. U. S. Bureau of Education City School Leaflet No. 18, February, 1925.

Presents self-rating schemes for teachers and a bibliography on teacher self-rating.

77. KENT, RAYMOND A. "What Should Teacher-Rating Schemes Seek to Measure?" *Journal of Educational Research* 2: 802-807; December, 1925.

States that little consideration had been given in rating schemes to the composite resultant of teaching and the effort of the teacher.

78. KING, LEROY A. "The Present Status of Teacher-Rating." *American School Board Journal* 70: 154-57; February, 1925.

A survey of the status of teacher rating in the United States.

Research Bulletins Now Available

- Teachers' Salaries and Salary Trends in 1923.* Vol. I, No. 3, May, 1923. 116 p. Price per single copy, \$1.00.
- The Problem of Teacher Tenure.* Vol. II, No. 5, November, 1924. 40 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Public School Salaries in 1924-1925.* Vol. III, Nos. 1 and 2, January and March, 1927. 72 p. Price per copy, 50 cents.
- The Ability of the States to Support Education.* Vol. IV, Nos. 1 and 2, January and March, 1926. 96 p. Price per copy, 50 cents.
- Efficient Teaching and Retirement Legislation.* Vol. IV, No. 3, May, 1926. 72 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Major Issues in School Finance—Part I.* Vol. IV, No. 5, November, 1926. 32 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Major Issues in School Finance—Part II.* Vol. V, No. 1, January, 1927, 64 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Salaries in City School Systems, 1926-27.* Vol. V, No. 2, March, 1927. 64 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries.* Vol. V, No. 3, May, 1927. 64 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- The Advance of the American School System.* Vol. V, No. 4, September, 1927. 32 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- School Records and Reports.* Vol. V, No. 5, November, 1927. 132 p. Price per copy, 50 cents.
- Creating a Curriculum for Adolescent Youth.* Vol. VI, No. 1, January, 1928. 80 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- The Advance of the Teacher Retirement Movement.* Vol. VI, No. 3, May, 1928. 56 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel.* Vol. VI, No. 4, September, 1928. 52 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Can the Nation Afford to Educate Its Children?* Vol. VI, No. 5, November, 1928. 48 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Can the States Afford to Educate Their Children?* Vol. VII, No. 1, January, 1929. 44 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- The Principal and Progressive Movements in Education.* Vol. VII, No. 2, March, 1929. 60 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Salary Scales in City School Systems, 1928-29.* Vol. VII, No. 3, May, 1929. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- Vitalizing the High-School Curriculum.* Vol. VII, No. 4, September, 1929. 104 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- The Principal as a Supervisor.* Vol. VII, No. 5, November, 1929. 84 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- The Questionnaire.* Vol. VIII, No. 1, January, 1930. 52 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
- A Self-survey Plan for State School Systems—Part I: Checklists.* Vol. VIII, No. 2, March, 1930. 36 p. Price per copy, 25 cents.
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SCHOOL PEOPLE ARE limited in competence not so much in the details of their jobs as in a large comprehension of their significance. In other words, like the lay public they need more than anything else an understanding of what education is for, of the ends that it is supported to achieve.—*Thomas H. Briggs, The Great Investment, p. 29-30.*