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ABSTRACT

According to recent research findings, school principals are the motivating agents in schools where effective learning takes place. Recognizing the importance of school principals, Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) conference participants viewed a role delineation for principals and a restructuring of school organization as necessary to increase the time principals can spend as instructional leaders. After analyzing research (centered on the 14 states that are members of the SREB) concerning the characteristics of principals, initial certification requirements, number and level of educational administration degrees awarded, and statewide inservice activities for school administrators, the conferees provided guidelines for states and local districts. Recommendations include assessment of the quality and productivity of graduate programs in educational administration, development of a rational process for selection of principals, inclusion of field-based experiences as part of administrators' education, and locally developed inservice programs for administrators. (MLF)

The Preparation and Selection of School Principals

Lynn M. Cornett

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Southern Regional Education Board

Foreword

SREB's Task Force on Higher Education and the Schools in its report, *The Need for Quality,* emphasized the importance of school leadership: "The success or failure of a public school depends more on the principal than any other single person."

To further clarify the issues and provide direction on staffing the schools with the most effective leaders, SREB staff met with an advisory committee and brought together interested persons at a conference in Atlanta on May 11-12, 1982. Participants included school principals, faculty in educational administration programs, state departments of education personnel, and school board members from the SREB states.

This report summarizes many of the key issues surrounding the selection and training of school principals, and provides guidelines for states and local districts that have not yet addressed role clarification, training, and selection of principals. It presents a challenge to higher education to examine university programs in educational administration and supports opportunities for collaboration by higher education and the schools to improve the principalship.

Winfred L. Godwin
President

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Successful schools — schools where effective learning takes place — are generally characterized by strong principals, according to recent research. The school principal appears to be in a unique position in determining success of the school. No matter what facet of the school is being discussed, the principal and his or her influence on the implementation of a program, or in setting the tone of the school, is consistently heard from parents, teachers, school counselors, and other administrators. Because of this, the SREB Task Force on Higher Education and the Schools addressed the importance of the school principal and issues concerning the selection and training of that individual.

Roles and Organizational Structure

Roles

Schools exist for various purposes, the primary one being student learning. In that regard the school principal is supposed to be the instructional leader of the school, responsible to the parents and students in the community. Despite a growing research base, it is not entirely clear what a principal does to be the instructional leader of a school. The continuum ranges from the traditional function of actually getting into the classroom to teach or analyze instruction to managing the school so that instructional improvement can take place.

There is substantial evidence that the actuality of how principals spend their time does not match the priorities of how they feel they should spend their time. A national study of secondary school principals indicates that 83 percent view working with teachers on instructional concerns as their primary responsibility. An even higher proportion of elementary school principals declares instructional improvement to be the primary responsibility. However, surveys reveal that a very small percentage of a typical principal's week is actually spent in instructional leadership. Instructional leadership is defined as supervision, teacher evaluation, class visitation, staff development, and material selection (Howell, 1981). Another study reveals that less than a third of elementary teachers see principals as making instructional leadership a top priority (Seifert & Beck, 1981).

The duties of a principal may include program administration, pupil personnel coordination, morale building, professional growth stimulation, curriculum coordination, teacher evaluation, and bus monitoring. The principal's day is characterized by face-to-face verbal exchanges, usually on a one-to-one basis. The principal is the stabilizer in the school. According to Morris, the principal functions as instructional leader by controlling the climate in the school (Morris, Crowson, Hurwitz and Porter-Gehrie, 1982). Mattson maintains that the principal is the one who provides clarity for the organization (Center for Educational Policy and Management. 1982). Kent Peterson* describes the day-to-day work of the principal:

> It is characterized by brevity of tasks of incredible variety and fragmentation. . . .Principals have an enormous number of brief interactions. The average tasks that they do take less than two minutes. In some studies, up to 80 percent of a principal's activities last less than two minutes. . . there is little time for planning. . . .You have different age levels, different emotional contents to the tasks, and different cognitive requirements. Some tasks take simple memory, others take creative problem-solving skills. When you combine that with the fragmented tasks or interrupted tasks, you get a complex role.

In a recent survey of needs of 20,000 elementary principals, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) found that the principals were most interested in things having to do with pressing needs, such as vandalism, community relations, conflict resolution, and mainstreaming. Is it too unrealistic to assume that the principal can be the instructional leader in traditional terms, and maintain a school that is orderly, that lives up to the expectations of the community, and that is financially sound? Certainly states and local school districts must look at the role definition for the principal so that the most effective job can be done. Have local and state and federal regulations so burdened the role of the principal that little flexibility is inherent in the job?

*Presentation at SREB Conference on the Selection and Training of Principals, Atlanta, Georgia, 1982.

What are the constraints and implications of the environment in which a principal operates? Is there an organizational structure that provides maximum opportunity for the principal to function as the instructional leader in a school? According to E. C. Graham,* an Atlanta business leader, the role of the principal cannot be defined in isolation—it must be considered within the larger context. Educational organizations need to establish strategies and complementary organizational structures that support the philosophy of the system. The designation of individual responsibilities of each person within the organization may be needed. How can the principal best function as the instructional leader of the school unit? What is the role description that best fulfills that mission? Should roles be defined differently for the secondary and elementary school principal? If the idea of the principal as the school's "master teacher" is unrealistic in terms of actual duties and responsibilities or organizational structure, then role definition will have to be changed.

Organizational Structure

The organizational structure of the typical American school system is highly centralized, with school principals acting as "middle managers." Yet Peterson's work (1981) indicates that direct control over the work of principals is relatively weak. While the principal is directly under the superintendent's supervision, school visits are usually infrequent. Controls over the "inputs"—textbooks, tests that have to be given, children, class size, and usually money—may limit the behavior of principals, but do not direct that behavior. Principals feel that superiors are holding them responsible for their work, but are not always sure which results are most important.

The typical organizational diagrams of school systems' hierarchy may be misleading. A three-year study suggests that methods of classroom instruction are unaffected by administrative factors at the school or district levels, and that the three levels—district, school, and classroom—are only loosely connected with one another. Classroom instruction operates at the individual discretion of the classroom teacher. However, as respected colleagues or symbolic leaders, administrators may have positive impacts on classroom instruction. The formal efforts may have less impact than the informal ones (Deal & Celotti, 1980). Weick (1982) has labeled schools as being "loosely coupled," explaining that schools are different from other organizations and need to be managed differently.

*E. C. Graham, personal communication, 1981.

The principal's role is affected by litigation and legislation. The extent to which a principal may fulfill leadership roles has been limited by external forces, although some would argue that the creative principal works within the restrictions of what would be called "creative insubordination" (Morris et al., 1982). From a strictly legal perspective, only half of the states statutorily define the status of the principal, and half of these do not specify the duties and responsibilities of the position. The number of states defining the legal status of the principal—outlining the powers and the duties—rose from eight to 24 in the period from 1971 to 1976 (King, 1980). Florida has sought to clarify their role by granting decision-making authority to school principals. Supreme Court decisions related to the constitutional rights of the students have inhibited the leeway principals have in maintaining discipline. The extent to which principals may determine which teachers will be employed in their schools is limited by state certification and tenure rules, by school district policies, and by collective bargaining agreements. However, moves in other directions may be afoot. A new policy in the Arlington, Virginia school district allows principals some discretion in district-wide layoffs by permitting them to "protect" certain personnel ("Virginia District's Teacher-Layoff," 1982). Limitations may be placed on the principals in terms of district and state policy, but the principal is usually the one with the final decision-making power on whom to hire for a teaching position.

Legislative actions in some states have affected school management. For example, the Florida legislature has given more authority to the school principal by establishing school-site management. School-site or school-based management is an organizational change which returns decision making to the building or school level by redefining the role of the principal. The school becomes the unit of managerial function, with corresponding responsibilities. There may be many effects from this organizational change, but budgetary control has the greatest implications. With fiscal control, the principal becomes the change agent in the school, since authority usually extends over staffing and discretionary funds. Districts may intrepret school-site management as applying to a variety of activities, such as lump sum budgeting, hiring and firing of personnel at the local level, establishing parent advisory committees, and planning curriculum (ERIC, 1980).

Difficulties of implementing school-site management include interpretation of the new role and the technical difficulties in administration of the budgeting process. If shared decision making occurs within the building, the staff as well as the school principal must have necessary skill training. Schools have long had the reputa-

tion of not being innovative, and changes that have occurred have usually been in the form of mutual adaptation in which both innovation and personnel are modified to fit the situation. At the worst, the innovation is bent to fit prevailing practices (Boyd & Crowson, 1981). Studies involving school-site management show varying degrees of initiative. Site-level managers must be responsive to some uniformity at the top, while applying flexibility in their particular situations. In one study of the implementation of school-site management in Florida, the administration of budgets and the conduct of staff meetings changed considerably for the majority of the principals. Most of the principals perceived that their work with the community had changed, mainly because of a directive to establish lay committees. Activities that relate to supervision of curriculum and the instructional aspects of the job were not perceived as changing too much, other than in curriculum planning. The principals who had worked in both centralized and school-based situations appeared to feel that they were in more direct control of those matters over which they were held accountable.* In a California study aimed at decentralization of some administrative functions, it was found that compliance of principals with the directives varied. Effecting changes relied more on consensus than on authoritative regulations. Those principals who perceived that principals would be rewarded for community work appeared more receptive to change (Moore, 1975).

Increasing specialization and proliferation of content areas taught in the high schools may also affect a principal's power base. While a generation ago principals may have had sufficient breadth to evaluate curriculum quality, there is less likelihood today that the school leader will feel competent to monitor faculty teaching in all subjects, which now may range from computer programming to an advanced course in English composition and literature. The addition of more and more district specialists, such as curriculum supervisors, may tend to dilute the principal's authority. However, teachers accept the legitimate power of the office. The influence of principals may depend on knowledge and skills which enable them to help the teachers reach their goals. Despite the factors that limit the principal's control over what happens in the individual school building, there are those who maintain that "erosion of the principal's legitimate power is more imagined than real" (Guditus & Zirkel, 1980, p. 3).

*D. G. Lake, *Futures for Principals.* Unpublished paper, 1981.

The role of parents in the establishment of the working environment of the school may vary from situation to situation. Parents are formally part of the school organization in places where school-site advisory councils have been established; in other schools, they may be a very integral part of the school, but in an informal relationship. Public reaction to what is done by a school principal, or what the supposed reaction from a community will be, often influences decisions of the school principal. However, the actual influence of parental involvement in substantive school matters has been questioned, with the idea that reactions to parental demands have more form than substance (Weick, 1982). Principals are expected to be open to the community and act as the buffer between the local community and the school organization, and not to use parental assistance to serve their own needs (Boyd & Crowson, 1981).

Effective Principals

Schools in which student learning exceeds the predicted levels of learning for the student population are defined as effective schools, and the principals within these schools have emerged as an important factor in determining the effectiveness.

In a survey of the research, four themes dominate: (1) the principal displays assertive, achievement-oriented leadership, (2) an orderly and peaceful school climate exists, (3) there are high expectations for staff and pupils, and (4) there are instructional goals, and means to evaluate those goals (Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981).

The successful principal is described as running the school, not just allowing things to happen. This does not mean that the principal uses one particular leadership style, but that no matter what style is used, the principal sets the direction for the school, and holds the staff accountable for the direction. When the climate of the school is characterized as orderly and peaceful and allows the instructional aspects of the school to take precedence, the achievement in that school is high. Shoemaker & Fraser (1981) report that the most consistent finding of the school effectiveness studies is that there is a relationship between expectation level and student achievement. This expectation level must be present in terms of what the principal expects from the teachers and the students. Findings indicate that in schools where achievement is greater than predicted, there are instructional goals and a regular system of testing and evaluation to assess the attainment of those objectives.

The evidence suggests that principals do make a difference, and that leadership behavior does enhance the achievement levels of students.

There are some questions about the extent to which the studies may be generalized, because they usually reflect school effectiveness in urban elementary schools. The possibility of interactive effects which have not been accounted for has been recently questioned in the research on effective principals (Rowan, Dwyer, & Bossert, 1982). Suggestions for improvement of the research include aggregating achievement scores from year-to-year and including some non-academic indicators of success. They also suggest that the relationship between school effectiveness and leadership could be clarified by observing the leadership activities of a principal over time and in different school settings.

Training and Selection

The Pool

How would the typical principal of today be described? According to a 1977 survey by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), 93 percent of secondary principals were white, and 96 percent were male. Another survey which included both elementary and secondary school principals reveals that in 1974, 87 percent of all principals were male and that by 1978, that figure had dropped to 86 percent; in the assistant principal position, the figure was 78 percent for 1974, and had dropped to 72 percent by 1978 ("Title IX," 1981).

In 1977, the typical high school principal was between 45 and 47 years old, had become a principal between the ages of 30 and 34, and worked between 50 and 59 hours a week. The majority held master's degrees and had completed additional graduate work. The undergraduate major of 26 percent of them was in the social sciences, with 20 percent majoring in science, and 17 percent majoring in physical education. Over 70 percent had a master's degree in educational administration (Byrne, Hines, & McLeary, 1979). Mean salaries in the Southeast (SREB states of Texas and Maryland not included) were $30,287 for high school principals; $28,447 for junior high; and $26,035 for elementary (ERS; 1982). (See Table 1 for complete data.)

Because of certification requirements of teaching experience, the pool of teachers from which the principals are drawn in the SREB region is predominately female. The National Education Association (NEA) data for 1978-79 show that 89 percent of the region's elementary school and 55 percent of secondary school teaching personnel are female. In 1975-76, in the SREB region, there were 22,843 principalships and 9,989 assistant principalships (NCES, 1981).

Several studies indicate that principals are less geographically mobile than any other comparably educated professional group. In Kentucky, the average high school principal is a native of the geographic area where his/her school is located, and almost all of the secondary principals in Arkansas took their BA and MA degrees in Arkansas schools (Higley, 1975). NASSP reports that about 90 percent of the principals are native to the region in which they hold a principalship.

Studies of supply and demand of school administrators are scarce, and have to be interpreted with caution due to inconsistencies in data gathering. Large numbers of persons in advanced degree programs are already in the jobs for which they are preparing, or are not interested in administrative positions, but are taking courses for recertification. In a recent study (McCarthy et al., 1981), researchers were cautious about interpeting results due to problems in data gathering. They surveyed six states, including Georgia and Texas, and found a general oversupply of persons certified as principals, especially at the elementary level. One concern expressed was that states might report an oversupply of certified personnel when large proportions of administrators presently holding jobs are not certified. Systems need to be refined before policy decisions can be made effectively.

TABLE 1

Mean Salaries of School Principals, 1981-82

	Mean of Lowest Salary	Mean of Mean Salary	Mean of Highest Salary
Principals— Southeast*			
Elementary	$23,418	$26,035	$28,490
Junior/Middle	26,636	28,447	30,227
Senior High	28,742	30,287	31,978
Principals— U.S.			
Elementary	27,947	30,242	31,787
Junior/Middle	31,715	32,881	33,776
Senior High	33,721	34,776	35,669

*Texas and Maryland not included

Source: Educational Research Service. *Salaries Paid Professional Personnel In Public Schools, 1981-82.*

Certification

School principals were certified for the first time in 1911, as a measure to protect the public from incompetents (Higley, 1975). As increasing numbers of states (now 49) required that school principals be certified, the requirements for that certification grew.

All of the SREB states require master's level preparation; Georgia and Alabama also require a competency examination for all those seeking certification. Most states require teaching experience of one to three years. Four states require field experience for certification as a school principal. In Texas this constitutes an internship of 3 to 6 semester hours, and in Tennessee the experience must be supervised. The guidelines for the school administrator certificate in North Carolina indicate that the program should include intern-administrative field experience, and South Carolina requires a three-hour practicum. Some states have specific guildelines for courses, whereas others specify only general areas. Some states have no guidelines, other than that courses be in educational administration. Table 2 summarizes requirements in the SREB states.

TABLE 2

Initial Certification Requirements for School Principals, September 1982
SREB States

	Minimum Degree for Initial Certification	Specific Requirements	Experience
Alabama	master's	(1) teaching certificate (class B) (2) completion of an approved program for administrators—guidelines set by state (3) state certification test in school administration, after September 1982	3 years teaching
Arkansas			
Secondary	master's in school administration or equivalent	(1) K-12 or 7-12 certificate (2) 45 semester hours inclusive of master's in school administration.	3 years as teacher or administrator in a secondary school
Elementary	master's	(1) K-6 or K-12 certificate (2) not less than 18 semester hours in administration work in master's program for elementary principal	3 years as teacher or administrator in elementary school
Florida	master's	(1) regular certificate (2) 9 hours administration with master's 3 hours supervision 6 hours curriculum	3 years teaching
Georgia	master's	(1) renewable teaching certificate (2) approved program (3) pass competency test in educational administration	3 years acceptable school experience
Kentucky	master's plus 15 semester hours	(1) teaching certificate with master's degree (2) 45 semester hours in specific areas curriculum and instruction, administration, supervision, guidance, educational and psychological testing	3 years teaching
Louisiana	master's	(1) teaching certificate (type B) (2) graduate training (12 semester hours) in school administration and supervision	3 years teaching within last 5 years
Maryland	master's plus 15 semester hours or equivalent	(1) eligible for professional certificate (2) 15 additional hours (may include 15 hours in state Department of Education workshops for master's or additional hours) (3) 18 hours supervision 12 hours curriculum 15 hours content appropriate to assignment	3 years teaching
Mississippi	master's	(1) teaching certificate (class A) (2) master's includes: 18 semester hours graduate work in administration and supervision (one course in supervision of instruction) plus educational research—3 hours, curriculum methods—3 hours	2 years teaching

TABLE 2 (continued)

North Carolina	master's	(1) competencies are outlined with program guidelines including internship—administrative field experience, organization and administration, curriculum and instruction, leadership styles, research *Note:* Administrative field experience required	
South Carolina	master's with specified courses or doctoral program in school administration or 60 semester hours post baccalaureate in approved school administration program	(1) professional teaching certificate (2) 33 semester hours included in or in addition to master's: school administration 3 school personnel 3 supervision 3 practicum in administration 3 school law 3 school finance 3 growth and development 3 school communication 3 curriculum development 3 materials and techniques 3 evaluation of instruction 3 *Note:* Practicum in administration required	3 years teaching
Tennessee	master's	(1) teaching certificate (2) at least 30 quarter hours include: organizational and administration supervision curriculum development school finance and business management school law school and community relations research and statistics education foundations (3) supervised appropriate field experience or 3 years acceptable experience *Note:* Supervised field experience or acceptable experience required	3 years acceptable experience
Texas	master's	(1) teaching certificate (2) common core of courses in administration (15-18 semester hours) (3) 9-12 hours in graduate courses in academic areas (4) 3-6 hours in approved internship *Note:* Supervised field experience or acceptable experience required	
Virginia	master's	(1) post graduate professional certificate (2) demonstrated approved leadership qualities (3) 15 semester hours to include 1 graduate course in each: administration, supervision, curriculum, school-law, school community (4) training in drug education	3 years as teacher, administrator, or supervisor at appropriate level
West Virginia	master's	(1) teaching certificate (2) graduate program to include 21 semester hours in following: school administration, supervision, personnel services, curriculum, educational development, philosophy of educational research	3 years teaching in appropriate level

*Sources: Woellner, E. H. *Requirements for Certification* (45th ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1980. State Departments of Education.

Questions have been raised on whether certification requirements improve the quality of principals and if they restrict the transfer of others outside the educational system into the field. Others cite the fact that graduate university programs, with their generally very low admission requirements, may have more effect on quality, or lack thereof, than the certification requirements.. Many states use the program approval method, that is, all those who get through an approved program are certified.

Should states be the major regulator of who will be certified? Some believe that local districts should have more control over certification. Arguing for this point is Gordon McAndrew,* Superintendent of Schools in Richland County District One, Columbia, South Carolina.

**Presentation at SREB Conference on Higher Education and the Schools, Atlanta, Georgia, 1982.*

> I would like to suggest that perhaps what we need to do is to look at the certifying of administrators as something over which local school districts need to have more control and responsibility. I would like to have the Department of Education and the University of South Carolina enter into a partnership with local school districts who are interested in submitting their own plan for the training of administrators, with licensure being given for an approved plan.

Others would argue that state control is necessary for maintaining the necessary quality. It is interesting to note that, in some states, certification officers indicate that flexibility for new programs and approaches exists, but only in a few instances is it used.

The question remains whether certification is a quality control or whether it is simply another hurdle that must be jumped before one is eligible to be a school principal. It can be noted that in some states the certification requirements certainly control what courses the prospective principals take and, therefore, have an impact on the training programs themselves. Are the present state certification requirements protecting the public from incompetents? The more important question is: Are the schools being led by the most highly qualified persons available, and does present state certification aid or hinder that process?

Selection

Schools are complex organizations that demand tremendous energies of leadership by the school principal. Thus, the selection of individuals who have the potential for leadership is of great importance. Yet presently, the pool of candidates is essentially the result of a self-selection process, determined primarily by who enrolls in the graduate colleges of education and meets the certification standards in each state. Procedures are not really selective, because of the low requirements for entrance into the graduate programs and certification standards which are generally limited to only a required number of courses.

How are persons selected to assume positions as principals in the schools? The procedures which are centered at the local level vary tremendously, but some generalizations do emerge from studies concerning selection procedures. On the one hand, the selection for the school principal might be described as unsystematic and based on a myth (Newberry, 1977). Often the superintendent and the school board have decided on the candidate of their choice before the final interview is held. Sixty percent of the principals are selected by the superintendent, with less than one-fourth of the positions having the school board as the final decision-maker (Bryant et al., 1978). Searches for principals are usually centered at the local or surrounding district level and sometimes are extended throughout the state, but not usually beyond (Baltzell & Dentler, 1982).

Some districts have very formal systems in place, such as using a committee for hiring. The committee is usually composed of teachers, administrators, and parents. Very highly structured interviews are used to narrow the field. The field of candidates is then sent to the superintendent for the final choice. What are superintendents looking for? A national study found that human relations rank high, along with previous administrative experience. Personal interviews are important—with questions concerning school administration, self-confidence, interest, and verbal abilities. It is commonly known that superintendents are looking for persons who will be supportive of their policies and be "part of the team" (ERIC, 1982).

Baltzell and Dentler (1982) report that all aspects of the selection of principals are heavily influenced by the local custom and school bureaucracy and the superintendent's need for administrative control. Selection criteria usually focus on some notion of "fit" rather than specified criteria. The fit often is based on perceptions of physical presence and "embodiment of community values and methods of operation" (p. 12).

The Assessment Center Project of the National Association of Secondary School Principals is an effort to improve the process of selecting principals. The project has identified behavioral dimensions of effective principals, is validating those behaviors, and conducts workshops to assess potential principals for these behaviors. In a typical center, individuals who are certified to become school principals are evaluated by highly trained assessors. Employing methods that industry has used successfully, participants engage in a number of activities designed to simulate behaviors found on the job. Each participant is evaluated on 12 behavioral dimensions: problem analysis, judgment, organizational ability, decisiveness, leadership, sensitivity, range of interests, personal motivation, educational values, stress tolerance, and oral and written communication skills. Feedback on performance to each individual participant is a part of the program. Assessment centers are being piloted in a number of school districts throughout the country (Hersey, 1977).

The NASSP Assessment Centers located in the SREB region are used for identification and selection of candidates for the principalship in local

districts. Another approach is the use of the assessment center in connection with a graduate program in educational administration, such as the one at the University of Nebraska. This center is set up to work jointly with the Lincoln Public Schools as a collaborative effort. The assessment is made after students are admitted to a graduate program in educational administration, as part of a feedback loop for program planning at the master's and doctoral levels. Programs are designed around the assessments of students' strengths and weaknesses. The program is also helping students make decisions on the type of administrative positions for which they might be best suited.

Pre-service Training Programs

Colleges of education have responsibility for pre-service training of school administrators. This preparation has been under fire from outside persons, and from principals themselves, who often say it does not provide the kind of training that has an impact on how a person functions in the role of the school principal.

Because of the increased demands on the principal and the complexity of the job, pressure has been exerted for the principal to acquire new skills, and become more proficient in the ones which have been considered necessary. The question is whether administrator training programs have adapted to these new needs.

According to high school principals in 1965, "supervision and instruction," and "human relations" were considered essential in programs, along with "secondary school organization," "administrative theory and practice," and "curriculum and program development." By 1977, the essential courses, according to the principals, were "school law," "curriculum and program development," "school management," "supervision of instruction," and "human relations" (Byrne et al., 1979).

In 1972, a national survey revealed that most programs preparing principals consisted of 7 to 12 hours in educational administration, 1 to 6 hours in the philosophy of education, 1 to 6 hours in educational psychology, 1 to 6 hours in curriculum and instruction, and 1 to 6 hours in sociology (Higley, 1975). Courses in finance, school law, and human relations seem to have been added to many programs, thereby moving them away from the purely theoretical to a more practical-based program. Recent studies report similar structure and content for most graduate level programs. The content includes administrative theory, leadership, school law, and decision making (Pitner, 1982). Most prospective principals complete their programs on a part-time basis while teaching, often years before the opportunity for an administrative position opens.

However, the overriding complaint about programs is that they are still too theoretical, and do not give the principals the necessary training to deal with the job, such as offering courses in state school financing rather than building level finance and budgeting. The same is said for other graduate programs, such as business and law. Complaints about programs include assertions that many faculty members have never been practicing administrators or would not be able to obtain certification as an administrator. The other side of the coin is the response that a research orientation gives faculty a broader perspective than the principals' limited perception of their needs. Principals usually ask for courses dealing with today's immediate problems. Howell (1981) suggests that prospective principals might be given "nuts and bolts" courses in their graduate programs, followed by the more theoretical ones on the job.

One response to the criticism that graduate programs in educational administration are too theoretical has been the move to include field-based experience as part of the total program. This provides concrete exposure to the world of reality. Field experience in educational administration programs varies from a few hours of working with on-the-job administrators to full-time internships. The purpose of the internships ranges from mere fulfillment of certification requirements to the socialization process, and often functions as a screening device. The field experience usually comes near the end of the graduate program.

In a 1970 survey of approximately 300 universities with educational administration programs, a majority had some type of optional internship experience, but a majority of the graduate students did not participate in the programs. Internships may be a cooperative venture of a university and a school district, or may come under a school district only. Around one-third of the reporting districts in an Educational Research Service (ERS) (1974) survey had internship programs, with larger systems more likely than small ones to have them. In determining enrollment in those programs, employees of the district had preference over university students, and the interns were given preference for job openings in three-fourths of the districts.

Problems are inherent in implementing field-based experiences that are satisfying to all involved. They are expensive, and require more time, energy, and staff than regular classroom programs. Cooperative arrangements between host administrators and university supervisors can sometimes lead to conflict. The success of the program rests with the school district and its commitment to the program. Roles must be clearly defined when attempting to set up a program,

and it is advisable to blend some type of classroom experience with the field experience (Pellicer, Allen, Tonnsen, & Surratt, 1981). Internships do not necessarily produce principals who function as change agents, but do result in principals who are more confident in exercising leadership (Sweeney, 1980).

The program of the Richland County District One Schools in Columbia, South Carolina, involves an internship set up by the school district in conjunction with the University of South Carolina.

In this program, individuals who have potential for the principal's role are identified and then put through an intense program of internship that lasts a year or possibly two years. The prospective principals are chosen from teachers with at least 3 years of teaching experience, and are paid at their regular salary level during the internship. The administrative interns are also enrolled as graduate students at the University of South Carolina in programs leading toward degrees in educational administration. According to the Superintendent, Gordon McAndrew, "Richland One is creating a cadre of educational leaders" (Richland County School District One, 1981, p. 8). District and university officials are also developing a field-based model for training school administrators, which is based on cooperation with a school that is heavily involved in the development of its greatest assets—the human resources it has available.

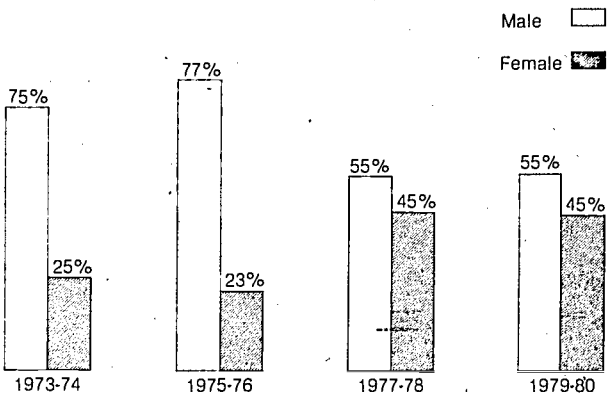
In addition to the complaint that coursework is often too theoretical, the quality and productivity of the programs have been questioned. Are too many administrators being prepared for the jobs available, thus creating large numbers of prospective administrators who are forced to wait for long periods of time for a position to arise? Are taxpayers supporting unnecessary programs?

Looking at degree data* for the SREB region, one finds that the numbers of students graduating with educational administration degrees at the master's level have fallen, after a peak in 1975-76. Numbers of women receiving degrees increased dramatically in the period from 1974 to 1977 (see Figure 1 and Table 3).

*Degree Data, 1973-1982. Southern Regional Education Board, Atlanta, Georgia.

FIGURE 1

Percent of Educational Administration Degrees Awarded at the Master's Level, By Sex SREB States



SOURCE: SREB Degree Data, 1973-1982.

TABLE 3

Number of Educational Administration Degrees Awarded at the Master's and Doctoral Levels SREB States

	Master's Level				Doctoral Level			
	Total	Public	Private	Percent Male	Total	Public	Private	Percent Male
1970-71	2,500	2,085	415	*	267	247	20	*
1971-72	2,635	2,301	334	*	302	267	35	*
1973-74	3,584	3,201	383	75	335	324	11	86
1974-75	3,966	3,552	414	73	503	300	203	79
1975-76	4,825	4,377	448	77.1	*	*	*	*
1977-78	4,809	3,741	1,068	55.1	540	353	187	76
1978-79	4,756	3,484	1,272	53.7	*	*	*	*
1979-80	3,663	3,106	557	55.1	595	310	285	66

*Data not available
Source: SREB Degree Data, 1973-1982.

Program data (see Table 4) reveal that there has been a decrease in number of programs in the SREB states, from 1976-77 to 1978-79.

TABLE 4

Master's Programs in Educational Administration, for 1976-77 and 1978-79, SREB States

	1976-77†		1978-79*	
	Public	Private	Public	Private
Alabama	10	2	11	2
Arkansas	2	—	2	—
Florida	9	5	8	5
Georgia	3	1	4	1
Kentucky	2	1	3	1
Louisiana	11	3	9	2
Maryland	4	2	3	2
Mississippi	4	1	5	—
North Carolina	11	—	7	—
South Carolina	4	1	4	1
Tennessee	9	1	8	2
Texas	21	3	21	3
Virginia	9	1	9	2
West Virginia	3	—	3	—
Total	102	21	97	21

Sources: †1976-77 SREB regional inventory.
*U.S. Office of Education, *Earned Degrees Conferred, 1978-79.*

In-service Training Programs

The education of the school administrator must be a continuous process. No pre-service training program can prepare the school principal to deal with the complexities of the job in a constantly changing environment. In a survey of school districts in 1974, it was found that approximately two-thirds provide in-service training for school administrators. The administrators are more likely to participate in programs run completely by their own district, rather than those of professional organizations, private consultants, or university-based programs. This may be because of financial and time restraints. Most districts offer training during school hours. Only one-third of the school systems provide any salary or credit for participation in university-based courses. The median number of days per year devoted to training was five. Planning of content for programs is usually heavily influenced by administrators' desires. The main source of funding for small districts is local funds; large districts are more likely to receive funds from the federal government. In comparison to America's corporations, educational institutions spend about one-tenth as much for in-service training (ERS, 1974).

Olivero (1982) summarizes research of effective administrators' in-service programs and finds that, to be successful, programs must be supported by the superintendent and board of education. The options should be defined primarily by the learners, the programs should be continuous, with opportunities for participants to check new behaviors in a safe environment, and rewards must be offered. Olivero voices a concern that even though principals may know best what they need in training, they are often seeking immediate help rather than long-term solutions to problems. Trainers that can be effective are another concern. He contends that too often in-service training is not directed to the bottom line, the student, and that all in-service efforts should be planned with the student in mind.

In addition to the concern about the need for in-service training, questions also arise as to who is providing the services, who is paying the bill, and are duplications taking place? In-service programs for school administrators are being conducted by local districts, professional organizations, private and public colleges, consulting groups, and state education agencies. The types of training include seminars, workshops, conferences, university courses, consulting services, and on-site coaching.

On the national level, various professional organizations and private foundations sponsor programs. The National Academy of School Executives, supported by the American Association of School Administrators, is an in-service program exclusively for practicing administrators. The philosophy is that administrators can benefit from short, intensive sessions dealing with practical problems faced by administrators. Most sessions are from one to four months. Attendance at the residential academy is by invitation only. The Bush Public Schools Executive Fellows Program involves mid-career school administrators, who are selected to participate in 35 days of instruction over a period of 18 months and are expected to complete a project aimed at solving a problem in their school. Teaching methods and content are heavily influenced by graduate schools of business administration and schools of management. Another approach, supported by the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, is the I/D/E/A Principals' Inservice Program. It involves a two-year program in which groups of six to 10 principals from a district agree to become involved, along with a trained facilitator. The facilitator then works with the principals, building a collegial atmosphere. Topics are identified locally, and program materials and processes are utilized to achieve goals which focus on professional development and school improvement. The Danforth Foundation sponsors the Danforth School Administrator Fellowship Program in which local

principals, in selected locations, devote one day per week to professional development. A local coordinator, usually a university faculty member, is chosen to work with the fellows.

On the state level, various types of in-service approaches are being utilized. Several state collaborative efforts outside the SREB region should be noted. One, the Research-based Training for School Administrators Project, is sponsored by the Center for Educational Policy and Management, University of Oregon, and funded by the National Institute of Education (NIE). It uses an in-service training model to disseminate research findings and state-of-the-art literature. Research is disseminated using the peer network and format of Project Leadership, a program developed by the Association of California School Administrators. Project Leadership relies on the finding that administrators carry an oral tradition of training each other. Persons come together in state meetings and then meet with other professionals in their schools to pass on information they learn. Programs have been developed for the states of Oregon, Washington, and California (Pitner, 1982).

The Connecticut School Management Institute was implemented in 1980. This cooperative effort among the State Department of Education, the Connecticut Association of School Administrators, and faculty members at the University of Bridgeport is funded by state and local districts. Participants are involved in a three-state process: diagnosis, training, and coaching. The principals are assisted in diagnosing problem areas in their schools and in their own leadership effectiveness. They receive training in needed areas, then on-the-job coaching concerned with strengthening skills and resolving problems (Kranyik, 1981).

Another state effort at in-service training for school administrators is the Management Academy for School Executives in Oklahoma. It is a cooperative effort by Oklahoma State University, the University of Oklahoma, and the State Department of Education. Its efforts focus on developing general and practical, yet long-term, skills. The Academy sponsors seminars three times yearly involving school administrators and university faculty. According to the director, Dr. Kenneth Stern, the members of the university faculty have gained an additional opportunity to interact with colleagues in the public school sectors.

In the SREB region, most of the states have some type of statewide effort aimed at the in-service needs of school administrators. For the most part activities are sponsored solely by the State Departments of Education, and their main function is to hold workshops and seminars. The South Carolina Administrators' Leadership Academy is a collaborative effort of the State Department of Education, and the University of South Carolina. A summary of the SREB state programs is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Statewide In-service Activities for School Administrators
SREB States

	Program	Sponsor	Activities
Alabama	Alabama Leadership and Management Improvement Program	State Department of Education	Team-developed workshops are sponsored for local administrators on such topics as instructional programs, fiscal management, legal issues, and teacher selection.
	Alabama Management Institute for School Leaders	Governor's office	Seminars and conferences for administrators provide new knowledge skills relative to school management and increase the awareness of the importance of the position in relation to effective schools. The Institute works to enhance the role of the school administrators and boost morale.
Arkansas	Executive Academy for School Administrators	Arkansas Department of Education Arkansas Association of Educational Administration Arkansas Association of School Administrators Arkansas School Boards Association Arkansas Deans' Association Arkansas Conference of Professional and Educational Administrators Arkansas Association of Elementary Principals Arkansas Association of Principals	Purposes are to acquaint administrators with innovative practices and provide a forum for the exchange of ideas. Regional and state seminars are held on issues such as management skills, instructional leadership, and school finance

TABLE 5 (continued)

Florida	Florida Academy for School Leaders	State Department of Education	Institutes in management training are held and conferences are sponsored on topics such as building-site management.
Georgia	Georgia Academy of School Executives	State Department of Education	District and statewide seminars are sponsored to develop managerial skills
Kentucky	No present funding for state-sponsored leadership training, although it is a perceived need	Kentucky Association of School Administrators	Administrative staff development seminars are sponsored.
Louisiana	Proposal for Louisiana Academy of School Administrators	State Department of Education	Workshops for school principals on supervision of instruction, school discipline, and building management are planned by the Department of Education.
Maryland	Maryland Professional Development Academy	State Department of Education	Staff development at the building level is the main thrust of the programs. Specialists prepare learning materials, conduct programs, and provide follow-up service. Participants design and implement building-level plans.
Mississippi	Staff Development Program	State Department of Education	Presentations are sponsored using experienced personnel to aid in professional development. Experiential activities related to leadership skills, decision making, and problem solving are part of the program
North Carolina	North Carolina Leadership Institute for Principals	Department of Public Instruction	Sponsors four regional training programs and services for principals. Topics are based on annual needs assessments. Presenters include practitioners and theoreticians. Topics include teacher evaluation, school law, and leadership skills. Internship programs at the local and state level are sponsored along with a data bank of current information.
South Carolina	South Carolina Administrators' Leadership Academy	State Department of Education University of South Carolina	Continuous professional development for school administrators is provided. The Academy serves as a clearinghouse for development, dissemination, and coordination of programs and services.
Tennessee	Tennessee Principals' Study Council	State Department of Education	In-service opportunities are provided to develop leadership skills of principals and to communicate to the State Board of Education or State Department of Education suggestions regarding the issues
Texas	Cooperative Superintendency Program	Texas Education Agency University of Texas-Austin	This is a program for doctoral students who work with the Texas Education Agency for approximately two years.
Virginia	Professional Development Service	State Department of Education	Conferences on leadership skills, current issues, and new techniques in education have been sponsored. Each summer all new principals participate in a workshop.
West Virginia	Administrator In-service Program	State Department of Education	Three meetings are held annually: (1) new superintendents' orientation, (2) county superintendents' retreat, and (3) state superintendent's conference for school administrators. Consultants are brought in as speakers.

Sources: *The Fifty States Project, A Survey of State In-service Programs.* Columbia, S.C.: South Carolina Administrators' Leadership Academy, 1981. State Departments of Education

Participation of local districts in in-service programs for administrators varies from none to extensive programs, such as the new Principals' Center in the New Orleans area and the Miami-Dade Management Academy in Dade County, Florida. The main purpose of the Principals' Center is to draw together principals and other school administrators to address problems concerning educational administration. It is partly financed by school systems and members of a local Business Task Force on Education. The Miami-Dade Academy offers courses in general management skills, technical skills, and instructional program management. In addition, professional growth is addressed through cooperative programs with the University of Miami, Florida Atlantic University, and the University of Florida, along with special individualized programs on a one-to-one basis (Dade County, 1982).

There is a need for states and local districts to collaborate so that services are not duplicated. Are new institutions being formed when existing structures could be used to develop programs for the in-service training of school administrators?

Are the in-service programs too fragmented? Are they of the "one-shot" variety in which follow-up is not part of the planned course? The lack of university involvement in leadership in-service training may be due to the faculty reward structure. Universities often do not recognize or reward faculty for work done in the field with local school systems. Also, the perception by the practicing administrators of universities as being too theoretical diminishes the college role in in-service education. Do local administrators know what they need?

Milton Kimpson,* of the Governor's Office in South Carolina reacts this way:

> Who can best plan and provide in-service training for principals? Is it the state, through the Department of Education? How about colleges and universities through continuing education programs? Or could it be that local school districts are in the best or most appropriate position to determine needs, plan, and initiate in-service training for principals?
>
> Perhaps the best agency to adequately plan for effective in-service training for principals is the local school district. Yet, traditionally, the local in-service offerings have been weak. . . .
>
> To provide more effective in-service training, local schools must base offerings more on needs assessment and future trends analysis. They must also seek out cooperative arrangements with the State Department of Education, colleges and universities, and other local school districts to secure training resources not otherwise available to the district. . . .
>
> Universities are perhaps in the best position to collaborate with and offer assistance to school districts in designing and implementing in-service programs.
>
> Certainly colleges and universities can provide direct course offerings for practicing administrators. But university resources, I believe, are best used to provide multi-district training based on actual assessment of needs of school districts. Where needs overlap, courses could be offered.
>
> Aside from the direct offerings of in-service courses, an equally important role that a university can play is that of providing technical assistance to school districts. Often a district has identified a training need for administrators, but does not have the personnel or fiscal resources to provide training. This is an instance where the university can extend its expertise and services to local school districts in helping the district to design its own in-service program.
>
> Universities have been reluctant to provide this level of service in the past because:
>
> 1) Faculty were less than willing to do field consultation;
> 2) The university was looking more for expansion of clientele through paid course offerings.
>
> To accomplish this closer cooperation between universities and local school districts, I believe it is necessary for colleges and universities to re-examine their missions and roles, and make changes necessary to encourage faculty to provide more direct field services. Such changes might include providing the same tenure credits for field service as for research and publishing. Such changes would greatly facilitate the design and implementation of quality in-service programs by local school districts.
>
> Finally, in this examiniation of how in-service training might best be provided, we come to the role of the state—which is an important one. It consists of policy and fiscal support of state and local in-service programs, as well as direct service to school districts through State Departments of Education. Through joint projects and coordination, it is possible to provide in-service programs which are of high quality, readily available, timely, and focus on real problems in the schools.
>
> The certification division within State Departments of Education can also play an important role by assuring that continuing certification requirements are flexible enough to allow administrators to meet their training needs though district offerings or the offerings of various consortia arrangements.

Development of the Human Resource

School districts need to put more of their resources into training their most valuable asset, their personnel. On the whole, districts do little to identify potential leaders, and to assist those persons in the development of their talent for the district. Instead, the process is one of self-selection for certification, then selection from those by rather haphazard means. Opportunity for growth is in piecemeal, crises-of-the-hour fashion. Long-term planning is lacking, both in terms of the professional growth of the individual needs of the administrator and the needs of the school system.

*Presentation at SREB Conference on Higher Education and the Schools, Atlanta, Georgia, 1982.

Implications for the Future

Effective schools are characterized by high expectation levels, an orderly climate, well-defined goals, and a means for evaluating those goals. In effective schools, the principal exerts an influence on the educational outcomes. A role definition for school principals that expects them to establish and implement the climate and goals of the school is probably more realistic than one that sees principals in the traditional role of the instructional leader who tries to influence the classroom process directly.

Role definition should be addressed by local agencies, within role definitions that may be made at the state level. The complexity of the job must be recognized, and if the principal is expected to function as an instructional leader in the traditional sense, then means must be found to allow the principal to carry out that role. Although instructional leadership is perceived as important by principals, they are spending little time with those types of duties. The organizational structure of the school system is integral to the role definition. Returning authority to the school principal through school-based management would provide greater opportunity for decision making which would affect the outcomes of the school. The principal is likely to feel more responsibility for outcomes of the school under this type of organizational structure than within a highly centralized system.

Once role definitions are made by states and local districts, then selection and preparation of persons should reflect those roles and the organizational structure of the systems.

Selection of principals takes place at two junctures: (1) self-selection, by those teachers who decide to pursue graduate educational administration programs to become licensed, and (2) the actual employment decision when superintendents choose new principals, usually from the pool of those district teachers who have earned their administration certificates.

Are requirements into the graduate programs in educational administration selective? Probably not, given the number of programs that exist and the number of graduates of the programs. If assessment center techniques that relate behavioral characteristics to the effectiveness of the school principal prove fruitful, processes could be set in place in the educational administration programs to counsel those who might not be suited for the principal's job into other types of administrative work. Some students pursue graduate educational administration programs only as a means of updating certification or pay scales as teachers. This should be addressed by state education agencies through requirements that graduate work be relevant to the teaching assignment if it is to count for licensure or pay adjustments. State departments of education should gather and publish data concerning school administration supply and demand. By making this information available, teachers contemplating enrollment in graduate educational administration programs would be aware of the limited number of openings for school principals. Higher education agencies should examine programs for standards, need for the programs, and productivity.

The second point in the selection process is the employment decision at the local level. Districts can no longer afford the happenchance or political type of selection procedures. School districts must exercise greater care to identify strong potential administrators and be willing to invest in those persons over a long term. Selection, whether by assessment center technique, committee, or internship should include objective means for looking at potential candidates, relative to defined roles of the principal.

The delineation of roles and organizational structure has implications for the content of preservice programs. Recent research details the constant decision making and face-to-face interactions of the school principal. This, combined with the accusation that pre-service programs are too theoretical, indicates that more reality needs to be included in the programs.

Colleges need to develop programs solidly grounded in theory, but which also include some practicality. Internships, offered in full cooperation with school districts, are one solution. An additional approach might be a program that includes some of the knowledge-based work which is best taught in the university setting and more practical courses which would be taught by practicing administrators. Both of these approaches would depend on the willingness of the colleges to change present faculty reward structures to include field work, along with flexibility in programs to recognize experiences provided by other than the college faculty. Educational administration programs are likely to become more relevant to challenges faced by school principals if faculty members have been directly involved in the schools. Programs need to be developed to address the strengths and weaknesses of the individual candidates, so they are not just a series of courses.

What can states and local systems do to address the in-service needs of principals? The local decision to develop human resources that are

available in the school system may be one of the most important decisions that a district can make. The direction of in-service training at this time is to bypass graduate schools in favor of state or locally sponsored academies or institutes. In some cases these academies are collaborative efforts with colleges, but the duplication of state-funded services is a concern.

Many of the courses offered are of the "one shot" or "band-aid" type, and may not address long-term needs of the school district or its personnel. Individual programs for the development of personnel can be structured by local districts, with services bought from various outside agencies, such as colleges of education. The development of individual programs should be a collaborative effort utilizing the expertise of the college faculty, as well as practicing administrators.

States and local districts in the SREB region range all along a continuum in addressing role clarification, selection, and training of school principals. These guidelines are offered for states and local districts that have not addressed the entire continuum.

1. The role of the school principal should be delineated and the school's organization structured so that the principal can realistically function as the instructional leader of the school.
2. State agencies should assess the quality and productivity of graduate programs in educational administration, relative to the number of job openings for administrators. Are there too many programs? Are field experiences included, and are reward systems in place for faculty involved in those programs? Are programs selective, and should colleges explore the use of selection requirements based on assessments that include more than just academic standing?
3. Local districts should develop rational processes for the selection of personnel by some objective means. Internships might be a way to help decision makers and prospective principals decide if, in fact, a person is well suited for the position of principal in that district.
4. In-service programs for administrators should be locally developed, within state guidelines, as a collaborative effort utilizing the resources of the colleges and outside agencies. Individual programs focusing on strengths and weaknesses of individuals should be planned with input from practitioners as well as college faculty to insure that both long- and short-term goals are addressed.

Dual state funding of in-service effort by both universities and academies can be controlled by allocating in-service funds to local systems, which would then purchase those in-service resources most appropriate for the implementation of their plans.

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