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ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

BULLETIN, 1932, No. 17

MONOGRAPH No. 11

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

OFFICE OF EDUCATION

NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
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ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

IN TWO PARTS

BY

FRED ENGELHARDT
WILLIAM H. ZEIGEL, JR.
AND
ROY O. BILLETT

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NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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NOTE

Fred Engelhardt, William H. Zeigel, Jr., and Roy O. Billett, authors of this monograph, are specialists in school administration of the NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. *Doctor Engelhardt throughout the period of the Survey has in addition held the position of professor of educational administration at the University of Minnesota. William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, is director of the Survey; Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, is associate director; and Carl A. Jessen, specialist in secondary education of the Office of Education, is coordinator.*

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., June 1933.

SIR: Within a period of 30 years the high-school enrollment has increased from a little over 10 per cent of the population of high-school age to more than 50 per cent of that population. This enrollment is so unusual for a secondary school that it has attracted the attention of Europe, where only 8 to 10 per cent attend secondary schools. Many European educators have said that we are educating too many people. I believe, however, that the people of the United States are now getting a new conception of education. They are coming to look upon education as a preparation for citizenship and for daily life rather than for the money return which comes from it. They are looking upon the high school as a place for their boys and girls to profit at a period when they are not yet acceptable to industry.

In order that we may know where we stand in secondary education, the membership of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools four years ago took the lead in urging a study. It seemed to them that it was wise for such a study to be made by the Government of the United States rather than by a private foundation, for if such an agency studied secondary education, it might be accused either rightly or wrongly of a bias toward a special interest. When the members of a committee of this association appeared before the Bureau of the Budget in 1928, they received a very courteous hearing. It was impossible, so the Chief of the Budget Bureau thought, to obtain all the money which the commission felt desirable; with the money which was obtained, $225,000, to be expended over a 3-year period, it was found impossible to do all the things that the committee had in mind. It was possible, however, to study those things which pertained strictly to secondary education, that is, its organization; its curriculum, including some of the more fundamental subjects, and particularly those subjects on which a comparison could be made between the present and earlier periods; its extracurriculum, which is almost entirely

new in the past 30 years; the pupil population; and administrative and supervisory problems, personnel, and activities.

The handling of this Survey was intrusted to Dr. Leonard V. Koos, of the University of Chicago. With great skill he has, working on a full-time basis during his free quarters from the University of Chicago and part time during other quarters, brought it to a conclusion.

This manuscript is in two parts. The part dealing with administrative and supervisory personnel was prepared by Fred Engelhardt, a part-time worker, and William H. Zeigel, Jr., a full-time worker on the staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education. Part II on the aims and activities of supervisors was written by Roy O. Billett.

Part I investigates the scheme of administration in a large number of secondary schools. In all, 4,452 inquiry blanks were mailed out in order to get the information. Data were sought in every State of the Union from State superintendents, staff members of State departments of education, city superintendents, high-school principals, and staff members in city systems and individual secondary schools. The replies to these blanks came from 32 per cent to over 91 per cent of those concerned. It will be seen, therefore, that the report on this section is representative of the field.

In the second part, Doctor Billett selected 30 cities for intensive study. The investigation revealed 72 activities classified as supervisory. Two hundred and eighty-four supervisors were consulted, their experience averaging 20.8 years. The training which they had received seemed to be entirely adequate, 4 per cent of them holding doctors' degrees, and 45 per cent holding masters' degrees. The report indicates the emphasis placed upon various supervisory activities and describes outstanding programs for supervision.

I recommend that this manuscript be published as a monograph of the National Survey of Secondary Education.

Respectfully submitted.

WM. JOHN COOPER,
Commissioner.

THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

PART I : ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION AND PERSONNEL

By FRED ENGELHARDT AND WILLIAM H. ZEIGEL, JR.

CHAPTER I : THE PROBLEM, THE PROCEDURES, THE SCHOOLS, AND THE ORDER OF PRESENTATION

1. THE PROBLEM STATED

The setting of the problem.—The plan of organization devised for the administration and supervision of the work in public secondary schools will in the nature of things require adjustment to the type of educational system in which the schools are operated. An organization of schools with three or more secondary schools will not present the same plan for carrying on administrative and supervisory services as one will find in operation in a system in which all the work in grades 7 to 12, inclusive, is carried on in one building and is administered under the direction of one principal. As the reader may already know, there are fewer than 150 school systems in which three or more secondary schools are maintained under the direction of full-time principals. In fact, there are fewer than 60 school systems in which there are more than 5 secondary schools. The great majority of secondary schools are operated in systems in which but one full-time administrative and supervisory officer is employed. The most common public educational organization found in the United States is one in which the superintendent of schools shares with one high-school principal practically all the important duties connected with the management of the secondary school.

A study of the school systems of the United States places such cities as New York, Chicago, and a few of the other largest municipalities in a class by themselves. The pattern

of organization for supervision applied to the schools in these cities may be very different from the patterns formulated elsewhere. Yet a detailed analysis of the highly specialized plans of organization applied in the large cities would no doubt reveal schemes for doing things that could with profit be adapted to other situations.

While initiating this investigation the staff of the Survey was fully aware of the difficulties that confronted any attempt to make a nation-wide study of administrative and supervisory organizations. It was realized that the manner in which secondary schools were developed in the various States had an important bearing on the supervisory machinery. In some sections of the country the State departments of education have always wielded greater power and authority than in others. The nature of the school organization, the type of school buildings, the power of the boards of education, and local educational traditions were known to be some of the determinants that must be reviewed in relationship to a specific organization before one could be thoroughly acquainted with it and before one should appraise it.

To have studied a large number of school systems in the detail necessary to have related the pattern of each organization to the many forces that contributed to their creation and continuance would indeed have revealed most significant information. The time and resources available for such a desirable investigation were not at hand. It is hoped that the materials presented in this report on administrative and supervisory organizations in secondary schools will serve to stimulate many intensive investigations along these lines in local school systems.

Some students of education would have preferred also to have had the supervisory organizations studied in relationship to the methods and techniques of supervision used and to an analysis of the outcomes of the services rendered. Desirable as such a plan may have been, it was deemed necessary under the circumstances to make two separate studies in this field, one treating primarily organization and the other devoted to an analysis of the supervisory methods and techniques.[1]

[1] See part II of this monograph.

Specific purposes of this study.—For the purpose of securing adequate information on which to base this study the resources of the Office of Education were canvassed, inquiry forms were sent to officials in State departments of education and to various staff members of public-school systems, and visits were made to school systems and to a number of secondary schools.

From these sources information was gathered that has made it possible to treat in some detail the following phases of school organization as they relate to administration and supervision in secondary schools:

(1) The part played by the State departments of education in the administration and supervision of public secondary schools.

(2) The degree to which boards of education are concerned with the secondary schools as compared with the elementary schools or with the schools taken as a whole.

(3) The relationship of the superintendent and his staff to the administration and supervision of the secondary schools.

(4) The assignment of administrative and supervisory responsibilities within the high schools and the relationship of principals to their staffs and to the central office.

(5) Various plans of organization found in school systems designed for the organization and supervision of instruction.

(6) The functions and professional status of those persons in school systems who are delegated administrative and supervisory duties.

2. PROCEDURES, SCHOOLS, AND ORDER OF PRESENTATION

Procedures followed in inquiry.—Inquiry forms were sent out and, after obtaining the information desired or available, places that seemed to report unique and innovating practices and developments within the field of this study were selected for visitation. The communities that were visited are referred to frequently throughout this report, although not always by name.

On the whole six inquiry forms were employed to gather the data for this project. As already implied, forms were sent to officials in State departments of education having to do with secondary schools, to superintendents, to high-school principals, and to supervisory officers in a sampling of school systems in cities having more than 5,000 and fewer than 500,000 inhabitants. Information was received from secondary schools attached to school systems ranging in enrollment from fewer than 500 pupils to schools having more than 2,500 pupils. Due to the large number of forms being mailed by the Survey staff the superintendent and associated principals in the same systems were not always reached by the process of sampling used in this particular canvass. Inquiry forms of special design were also sent to the administrative and supervisory officers of schools systems that operate secondary schools only.

In all, 4,452 inquiry blanks were mailed through the Office of Education for this particular study. Varying percentages were returned (Table 1), but for no group approached was the response less than 32 per cent of the forms mailed.

TABLE 1.—*Numbers of inquiry forms mailed and returned*

Name of form	To whom sent*	Number mailed	Number returned	Per cent returned
1	2	3	4	5
District organization and State supervision of secondary education.	Chief State school officials	48	44	91.7
Information regarding State supervision.	Individual members State departments of education.	362	224	61.9
Checking list on organization and administration.	Superintendents of schools	640	357	55.7
Do	Principals of secondary schools in city systems.	937	517	55.2
Do	Principals of independent secondary schools.	569	291	51.1
Do	Members of administrative and supervisory staffs both in central offices and in secondary schools.	1,896	610	32.2

Treatment of data.—One of the most difficult tasks in a study of this kind is to devise a plan for the treatment of data that will set forth the pertinent relationships and that will clearly portray the conditions. As already pointed out,

schools could not easily be classified according to type of organization or by categories defined to include systems operating secondary schools of like kind or number. The plan resorted to results in a classification of systems into population groups and has certain unavoidable limitations with which the reader is cognizant. The range of population (according to the census of 1930) within each group is as follows:

Group I, cities over 100,000 population.
Group II, cities of 30,000 to 100,000 population.
Group III, cities of 10,000 to 30,000 population.
Group IV, cities of 5,000 to 10,000 population.

Whenever size of school or school system is a significant factor the data of the report are classified according to population groups. Wherever the region or section of the country is of importance the data are analyzed by regions. For convenience, the country has been divided into four regions, each one comprising the States included in the following tabulation:

Region 1—East (E.)	*Region 2—Middle West (M.W.)*	*Region 3—South (S.)*	*Region 4—West (W.)*
Connecticut	Illinois	Alabama	Arizona
Delaware	Indiana	Arkansas	California
Maine	Iowa	Florida	Colorado
Maryland	Kansas	Georgia	Idaho
Massachusetts	Michigan	Kentucky	Montana
New Jersey	Minnesota	Louisiana	Nevada
New Hampshire	Missouri	Mississippi	Oregon
New York	Nebraska	New Mexico	Utah
Pennsylvania	North Dakota	North Carolina	Washington
Rhode Island	Ohio	Oklahoma	Wyoming
Vermont	South Dakota	South Carolina	
	West Virginia	Tennessee	
	Wisconsin	Texas	
		Virginia	

The size of the schools represented.—In a study of the type represented here it is not enough to report size of community only. It will be generally admitted that enrollment of schools is a potent influence in the organization for administration and supervision of schools, and it is therefore desirable to have at hand some description by size of enrollment of the secondary schools the officers of which supplied infor-

mation for this investigation. This information is presented in Tables 2 and 3. In Table 2 are shown the numerical distributions for population groups, regions, all city high schools represented, and all independent secondary schools represented. Perhaps the most significant inference from the distribution in this table is the fact that the city high schools tend to be much larger in enrollment than the independent secondary schools, almost all the latter group being in the size group enrolling fewer than 500 pupils. Table 3 is introduced in order to extend somewhat the description by size afforded in Table 3 by reporting ranges of enrollments and median, first, and third quartile enrollments. The ranges are seen to spread widely in all groups of schools, showing that these groupings, as measured by enrollment, overlap on each other. However, as may be anticipated from the distributions in Table 2, the medians and quartiles disclose a notable tendency to decrease with decrease in the size of the cities represented.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution, by size, of enrollments of secondary schools from which inquiry forms were received*

Group of schools	Enrollment						
	Fewer than 500	500–999	1,000–1,499	1,500–1,999	2,000–2,499	More than 2,500	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Group:							
I	9	41	38	15	11	6	120
II	16	33	28	9	3	2	91
III	42	81	16	3	0	0	142
IV	67	35	3	0	0	0	105
Region:							
East	47	72	28	11	4	4	166
Middle West	47	69	26	9	7	1	159
South	30	25	17	6	1	1	80
West	10	24	14	1	2	2	53
All city secondary schools	134	190	85	27	14	8	458
Independent secondary schools	263	14	3	0	0	0	280

TABLE 3.—*Ranges, medians, and first and third quartiles of enrollments of secondary schools represented in the investigation*

Measure	City secondary schools									Independent secondary schools						
	Group				Region				All combined	Community	Township	Rural	County	Union	State secondary	All combined
	I	II	III	IV	E.	M.W.	S.	W.								
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Range	18–4,413	140–3,057	152–1,844	92–1,400	18–4,413	175–2,805	92–2,612	94–3,057	18–4,413	20–520	26–1,120	19–514	23–1,107	17–768	81–245	17–1,120
Median	1,187	900	667	436	678	703	754	860	721	94	131	78	169	111	229	120
First quartile	770	567	478	325	454	465	381	591	462	52	82	56	85	67	-------	70
Third quartile	1,600	1,275	850	605	1,125	1,021	1,113	1,187	1,026	195	256	121	250	198	-------	219
Number of schools reporting	120	91	142	105	166	159	80	53	458	42	31	35	87	80	5	280

Differences by region are not remarkable. All six groups of independent schools yield smaller medians and quartiles than any of the groups of city secondary schools, even than the high schools of Group IV, a fact of great significance for the interpretations of subsequent chapters.

The presentation of the evidence.—The analysis of the findings in this study has been incorporated in 11 chapters. The second chapter is devoted primarily to the work of the State departments of education. Chapters 3 to 11, inclusive, deal with the public secondary schools and are organized in the following sequence and treat the following phases of the problem:

(1) The professional status of the personnel. (Chapter III.)
(2) The relationships of boards of education and secondary schools. (Chapter IV.)
(3) The responsibilities in connection with the performance of the educational and business affairs. (Chapter V.)
(4) The responsibility for the administration of specific activities. (Chapter VI.)
(5) The clerical services available in secondary schools. (Chapter VII.)
(6) Coordinating the work in local school systems. (Chapter VIII.)
(7) Time available for the administration and supervision of secondary-school activities. (Chapter IX.)
(8) Organization for the administration and supervision of secondary schools. (Chapter X.)

CHAPTER II : THE STATE AND THE LOCAL SECONDARY SCHOOL

1. STATE PATTERNS OF CONTROL

Diversity of State agencies.—As the reader knows, the powers, privileges, and rights of school boards and their professional representatives are not only subject to the limitations prescribed in law, but the secondary schools for which they are responsible are likewise subject to regulations and prescriptions set forth by one or more outside agencies. In many States there are official bodies, other than the State departments of education, such as State boards of education, State universities, and regional associations that legally have been assigned or that have officially assumed authority in reference to the organization, the administration, and the supervision of local public secondary education.

In some States the agencies enumerated above may cooperate in carrying out the ends they seek in performing their supervisory, inspectorial, and advisory services. In other sections of the country, however, each agency may go about its duties independently and as a result one finds duplicated and overlapping effort.

This investigation considers the official groups that have direct responsibility for the educational outcomes in secondary schools. Of these it is proposed to deal largely with the State educational offices and their activities in connection with the administration and supervision of the public high schools.

State officials' and the law.—In all States the legislatures have placed on the State superintendent of public instruction, the State commissioner of education, or the high-school inspector many duties that affect directly the work in public secondary education. The duties and responsibilities are not the same in all States. The State legislatures have not always provided the funds necessary to a proper performance of the duties assigned. Traditions associated with the historical development of public education have brought about

unique characteristics that will be found to prevail in the educational systems in the States. As a general rule, a much closer relationship is to be found between the State departments of education and the high schools than between the same departments and the elementary schools. Because of the Smith-Hughes law, the various State offices in education supervise the activities associated with the fields of agriculture, industrial arts, and home economics in public schools more directly than in any of the other subject-matter fields.

Agencies other than State departments of education.—It is not intended to review in this chapter the influence of the various private agencies outside of the public schools that from time to time control or endeavor to influence the work of the high schools. Occasionally national organizations of certain types or their State branches demand that the legislatures enact laws to prescribe what shall be taught and to demand that a certain school routine be conducted in accord with the wishes of the agency supporting the measure. These groups are sometimes exceedingly influential in determining the government of the schools. However, the concern here is with agencies having some official relationship to the schools.

State officials, other than those in the State educational offices, are delegated responsibilities by their respective legislatures that bring them into direct contact with the local secondary schools. For example, State departments of health may be responsible for certain phases of the health work or services provided in schools, the State fire marshal may inspect buildings with a view to checking their safety and the plans for fire drill, and the department of labor may issue all working permits to minors desiring to leave school. Though the duties of these officials may not be of the first order of consequence, their activities, nevertheless, have a bearing on the manner in which the schools are conducted.

The universities and the public schools.—The inspector of high schools has not always been responsible to the State superintendent of public instruction.[1] It must be recalled that in a number of States the State board of education or the

[1] Alton, George B. The Beginning of Secondary Education in Minnesota. In The Changing Educational World, The University of Minnesota Press, 1931, p. 222.

board of regents were not assigned the authority over the State superintendent of public instruction. It was not until recent years that in several of the States all State educational officials were brought together in one department.

At this writing (1931) 18 States report some administrative relationship between the State universities and the public high schools. As a rule in these States the duties performed by the universities duplicate and overlap to some extent the work of the State departments of education

The following summary represents the manner of participation of the State universities and the regional associations in the administration of public high schools in these 18 States.

Type 1: Representatives of State-supported colleges and universities inspect the public secondary schools. The institution pays the expenses but the State department of education directs the itinerary of the workers and prescribes the standards to be enforced.

Type 2: The university registrar or a member of the university staff visits the schools accredited by the North Central Association. (This practice prevails in four States.)

Type 3: A professor of vocational education and a professor of home economics in the university are assigned the responsibility for inspecting the work in the high schools maintaining Smith-Hughes departments. (This type exists in three States.)

Type 4: Occasionally professors in the State university inspect secondary schools. The schools to be inspected and the standards to be considered are determined by the State department of education. The report is likewise made to the State department.

Type 5: The State department appoints a high-school visitor from the university as State high-school supervisor. He secures information from high schools of the State for use of the university and from the North Central Association in accrediting such schools. His function is advisory.

Type 6: Responsibility for high-school inspection is shared by the State department of education and the State university. By mutual agreement all representatives of the university assigned duties in connection with the high schools and all high-school supervisors from the State office are authorized to visit high schools for both administrative and supervisory purposes and their recommendations are accepted by both authorities.

Type 7: A number of schools belong to the Southern Association of Schools. Members of a State committee from that organization inspect only schools for that association. These schools are also inspected by men from the State department.

Type 8: The inspection division of the university inspects schools not visited that year by the department of public instruction. This is a cooperative plan.

Type 9: In one State the university annually inspects the high schools of the State and then prepares a list of the accredited schools.

A few cases have been reported in which it was indicated that the State university exerts a marked influence through other activities carried on in connection with the secondary schools. The situations referred to are those in which the State institutions carry on instructional work in the schools through the support, development, and control of state-wide musical contests, field days, declamatory contests, and the like. The following quotation taken from an inquiry form is a case in point in which it is alleged that duplicate service and overlapping of work results from such activities.

There is some evidence that the activities of the agricultural extension division of the State university duplicates, competes with, and injures the work of the Bureau of Agricultural Education of the State Department of Education. This is particularly true in the 4-H club work, in the "Future Farmers of America" movement, as well as in the local adult agricultural class activities.

Time devoted to secondary schools by university officials.—Certain university officials report that they devote more than half their time to the official duties of accrediting and inspecting the secondary schools. Three State universities employ staff members who devote full time to the work of the public secondary schools. In these instances the activities of the State officials and those of the universities are coordinated to avoid unnecessary duplication.

Regional associations.—The work of regional associations in so far as it relates to the inspection and approval of the work in secondary schools had its beginning in 1885.[2] Regional associations do not as a rule have representatives of their organization visit the secondary schools that appear on their accredited lists.

2. STATE OFFICERS REPRESENTED IN THIS STUDY

State officers responding.—Usable inquiry forms were received from 219, or approximately 70 per cent, of the officials of State departments of education whose duties

[2] "The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was organized during that year. This is the oldest of the 5 regional associations." Department of Superintendence, The Seventh Yearbook, The Articulation of the Units of American Education, 1929. p. 243.

bring them in contact with the secondary schools. Of this number 98 are specialists in agriculture, home economics, and industrial education. There were but 4 specialists in commercial and academic subjects. The officials canvassed fall into the 8 categories listed in Table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Number of State officials of various positions responding to the inquiry*

Title or position	Number of persons
Total responding	219
Specialists in—	
Industrial education	37
Home economics education	29
Agricultural education	32
Music, art, mathematics, commercial subjects, and science	8
Physical education and health	17
Assistant commissioners and assistant superintendents	20
Supervisors and inspectors	59
Librarians	17

Number of officials concerned primarily with secondary education.—A canvass of the staffs employed in the 48 State departments of education [3] discovers about 280 persons with titles indicating that their duties are largely in connection with secondary education. This number represents 30 per cent of the total professional employees of State departments of education. A number of others, such as the deputy superintendent, commissioner of education, and assistant commissioner of education, were revealed by further investigation to be giving a large share of their time to the work of secondary education. In fact, few members of the staff of any State department of education are not involved in some way with the problems relating to the secondary schools. The distribution of States according to the number of staff members devoting a part of or all their time to secondary schools is shown in Table 5.

[3] Educational Directory, U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1930.

TABLE 5.—*Numbers of staff members in State departments of education devoting all or a major part of their time to secondary schools*

Number of officials [1]	Number of States	States
15 or more	5	New York, Massachusetts, Missouri, Texas, and Pennsylvania.
11	2	Illinois and New Jersey.
10	1	North Carolina.
9	2	Alabama and Georgia.
8	3	Louisiana, Maryland, and Ohio.
7	3	Connecticut, Minnesota, and Mississippi.
6	7	Virginia, Utah, Delaware, California, Florida, Indiana, and Iowa.
5	7	Tennessee, South Carolina, Michigan, Arkansas, Kansas, Kentucky, and Washington.
4	7	Wyoming, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, Arizona, Maine, New Hampshire, and Oklahoma.
3	4	South Dakota, Montana, Nevada, and Oregon.
2	3	Nebraska, North Dakota, and West Virginia.
1	1	New Mexico.
0	3	Colorado, Idaho, and Vermont.

[1] Total number staff members, 294.

Titles of State educational officials.—A summary of the titles of the officials of State departments of education who are assigned duties in connection with secondary schools is shown in Table 6. The tabulation includes only those officers concerning whose titles information was complete. The list of officers may be divided into two major groups—those whose duties are performed largely through visitations and the inspection of the local schools and those whose duties are carried on at the home office. Another classification may be made by differentiating between those whose duties are largely associated with the work in the secondary schools and those whose responsibilities are concerned with the entire system. There were 77 titles of State educational officials that appeared but once among those reported and these are not listed in Table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Titles of staff members of State departments of education who in 1930 devoted all or a major part of their time to secondary education.*

Titles	Number of officials
Director of secondary education	2
Supervisor of secondary education	5
Director of physical and health education	9
Supervisor of physical and health education	12
Director of vocational education	8
Supervisor of agricultural education	19
Supervisor of home economics	27

TABLE 6.—*Titles of staff members of State departments of education, etc.*—Continued.

Titles	Number of officials
Supervisor of industrial education	8
State director agricultural education	2
Supervisor of vocational agriculture	10
Supervisor of trades and industries	15
Supervisor of high schools	12
Chief, bureau of agricultural education	2
Chief, bureau of trade and industrial education	3
Chief, bureau of home-making education	3
Director, division of trade and vocational education	3
Director of vocational education and State supervisor of agriculture	2
State supervisor of high schools	9
Assistant supervisor of agricultural education	11
Assistant State supervisor of home economics	7
Assistant supervisor of high schools	5
Assistant supervisor of industrial education	5
Director of agriculture	3
High-school supervisor	12
Supervisor of vocational home economics	4
Agent for secondary education	2
Assistant supervisor of physical education	4
High-school inspector	14
Director of vocational division	3
Assistant supervisor of vocational agriculture	4
Assistant commissioner, supervisor of secondary education	2
Supervisor of teacher training	4
Assistant supervisor of vocational home economics	2
Total	233

The education of State educational officials.—Only 7 per cent of the State officials who reported were not college graduates. In fact, 88 per cent of these officials have more than 4 years of education beyond high school, and of these, 79 per cent reported having had at least 5 years of work beyond high-school graduation. The master's degree was reported by 49 per cent, the doctorate of philosophy by 6 per cent, and the doctorate in education by 2 per cent. It was also found from data not presented in tabular form that 20 per cent of the group attended summer school each year during the period 1925–1929. Fourteen per cent of these officials reported that they had attended summer school in 1930.

Professional experience.—The range in experience in educational work of the professional employees of the State depart-

ments of education ranged from 2 to 43 years. The average was 14 years and the median was 13 years. (Table 7.) The experience for the whole group covers every type of educational work from teaching in rural schools to teaching in higher educational institutions. The data on the inquiry form show that 68 per cent of the high-school inspectors have been high-school principals.

TABLE 7.—*Educational experience of 207 State educational officials*

Position	Percentage of officials reporting experience	Median years of experience
Teacher of rural elementary school	40	2
Teacher of village or city elementary school	22	2
Teacher of secondary school	61	5
Principal of village or city elementary school	22	2
Principal of secondary school	44	5
Teacher in higher institution	40	6
Supervisor in city or county school	22	4
Superintendent of schools (including county superintendents)	29	4
Other fields of education	24	6

The range in experience in State departments of education was from 1 to 31 years. The average number of years of service was 7 and the median was 6. Differences in educational experience vary but slightly for the different types of State educational officials. About 20 per cent of the State officials indicated that they had held positions in the State departments of education other than the one in which they are now employed.

In general, it can be said that the State educational officials have been selected from among educational workers who have had a substantial background of education and who have had wide professional experience.

5. FUNCTIONS OF STATE EDUCATIONAL OFFICERS

Time devoted to secondary education.—Only 17 per cent of the State officials reporting in this investigation indicate that they devote all their time to the field of secondary education. (See Table 8.) This group is made up largely of the subject-matter specialists and those responsible for agriculture, home economics, and industrial education. A large number of

officials report that they are called upon to serve in other capacities, such as inspecting elementary schools, inspecting private schools, and teaching in summer school.

TABLE 8.—*Distribution of State educational officers according to the percentage of time devoted to secondary education*

Field of activity	Number of persons	Per cent of time devoted to secondary education					Median per cent
		Less than 20	20–39	40–59	60–79	80 or more	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Specialists in—							
Industrial education	33	12.1	9.0	9.0	12.1	48.4	81.2
Home economics education	28	.....	3.5	25.0	32.1	39.2	61.3
Agricultural education	31	3.2	3.2	6.4	16.1	70.9	81.2
Assistant commissioners and assistant superintendents	16	43	6.2	12.5	25.0	12.5	40.0
Supervisors and inspectors	55	.....	3.6	10.5	30.9	54.5	81.7
Directors of health and physical education	17	.....	64.7	29.4	.....	5.8	35.4
Specialists in music, art, mathematics, and science	7	.....	.....	42.8	14.2	42.8	70.0
Librarians	5	.....	40.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	50.0

Duties of State educational officials.—The duties of State educational officials differ widely. If frequency of mention is used as a criterion of importance, the most significant duties of State specialists of agricultural education, home economics education, and industrial education are those that pertain chiefly to promotional and supervisory work. Next in order of importance are the activities relating to curriculum construction, approval of courses of study, and directing the work in teacher-training institutions. A summary of the duties mentioned twice or oftener by specialists of agriculture, home economics, and industrial education is as follows:

1. Administrative.
   - To keep records, make reports, compile statistics, carry on correspondence, and perform other office duties. (30 times.)
   - To direct the work of such supervisors and other assistants as may be employed in the department. (12.)
   - To prepare an annual report setting forth the progress and condition of vocational education. (11.)
   - To have charge of the general administration of all State and Federal funds. (11.)
   - To prepare budgets. (7.)
   - To recommend candidates for teaching positions. (4.)
   - To compile administrational bulletins, booklets, etc. (3.)

To interpret laws and rules. (3.)
To administer State laws. (2.)
To supervise the admission of certain schools. (2.)
To supervise the employment of students in certain schools. (2.)

2. Organizational and promotional.

To prepare and approve courses of study and plans for the use of vocational schools and classes. (56.)
To organize classes. (40.)
To prepare literature, bulletins, news letters concerning education for the aid of teachers. (28.)
To supervise all home economics classes and home economics departments in all types of schools. (28.)
To promote the establishment of vocational schools, evening, part-time, and day-trade classes. (26.)
To promote the establishment of classes and home economics departments in all types of schools. (20.)
To make investigations and surveys concerning agricultural trade and industrial, and home economics education. (19.)
To prepare literature and make studies, surveys, and investigations concerning industrial education. (16.)
To cooperate with organizations of all types for the promotion of home economics education. (12.)
To prepare all reports dealing with agricultural education that may be required by the State and Federal boards for vocational education. (8.)
To prepare plans and confer and cooperate with labor organizations and all other agencies for the promotion of industrial education. (8.)
To recommend plant equipment. (7.)
To supply information concerning the plan and the purpose of the work to all superintendents and boards of education in the State. (6.)
To supervise the organization and location of schools. (5.)
To promote foremanship conferences and foremanship training. (5.)
To assume responsibility for standards. (4.)
To determine standards of vocational work. (3.)
To perform general publicity work. (3.)
To select and approve texts. (2.)
To select candidates for instructor training. (2.)
To foster club work. (2.)

3. Inspectional (and supervisory).

To supervise the work of all teachers of vocational agriculture in the State and to render to them such aid as will tend to increase the efficiency of their teaching and other activities. (20.)
To approve or disapprove schools applying for the benefits of Federal and State funds. (18.)

To cooperate with or supervise the teacher-training institutions in the preparation of teachers of agriculture. (12.)
To hold from time to time State-wide and group conferences with teachers of vocational agriculture. (11.)
To visit, inspect, and supervise systematic instruction in agriculture for which Federal or State aid is allowed. (11.)
To visit and inspect the supervised work of pupils. (8.)
To arrange for the professional improvement of teachers in service. (5.)
To conduct or direct contests, fairs, etc. (4.)
To hold conferences. (3.)
To secure and check all necessary reports and data for making reimbursements to approved schools or classes in vocational agriculture. (2.)

4. Instructional.

To hold conferences of all kinds. (30.)
To supervise resident or itinerant teacher training. (21.)
To improve teachers in service. (17.)
To improve all teachers who are to be paid in part from State and Federal funds. (14.)
To cooperate with teacher-training institutions. (8.)
To have general supervision of teacher-training institutions and their programs. (7.)
To recommend equipment for effective instruction. (5.)
To address vocational meetings, conventions, graduations. (5.)
To supervise records affecting instruction. (3.)
To supervise industrial arts in all schools. (2.)
To train evening school teachers. (2.)
To assist in selection of teachers. (2.)
To aid in recruiting and placing teachers. (2.)
To teach special methods at university. (2.)
To train instructors of teacher-training classes. (2.)

As is to be expected, the assistant State superintendents and deputy State commissioners of education record a number of services in addition to those associated with the work assigned in the field of secondary education. The nature of these additional activities as reported by these officers has been tabulated as shown below. The total number of additional activities is 98.

To perform routine office duties such as correspondence, making reports, preparing budgets, mailing supplies, securing and examining and interpreting reports, purchasing for department, and signing requisitions for salaries. (16 times.)
To perform duties of State superintendent in his absence or at his request. (11.)

To have general supervision of office. (8.)
To supervise administration and organization of high schools. (6.)
To render legal opinions. (6.)
To certify teachers. (5.)
To distribute State-aid funds. (4.)
To encourage or conduct conferences, conventions, and meetings of all kinds. (4.)
To make addresses. (4.)
To have charge of school legislation and drawing new bills. (3.)
To do field work in such as trouble cases and making plans for remodeling rural schools. (3.)
To have State administration and general supervision of vocational and instructional education. (2.)
To supervise supervisors from the office. (2.)
To distribute State-aid funds. (2.)
To supervise teacher training in service. (2.)

High-school inspectors, supervisors, or visitors likewise carry on a wide variety of activities in discharging the duties of their office. From the enumeration presented below it will be observed that their duties involve practically every possible educational function.

To visit, inspect, and supervise high schools with regard to library facilities, laboratory equipment, curriculum, departmentalization of work, daily schedule, units offered, teacher qualifications, certification of teachers, distribution of principal's time, standards, size of classes, efficiency of record system, extracurriculum activities, equipment, distribution of teachers' marks, administration, quality of instruction, transportation, buildings, and budget. (69 times.)
To prepare and publish handbooks, syllabi, State and regional tests, courses of study, college entrance examinations, departmental bulletins, bulletins on standards, bulletins on English, bulletins of school programs, lists of equipment, and instructional materials. (35.)
To perform routine office duties such as carrying on correspondence, making reports, securing and examining and interpreting reports from high schools, keeping records, filling out questionnaires, and having charge of office employees in the department. (35.)
To confer with high-school teachers, principals, superintendents, and boards of education. (32.)
To make addresses of all kinds. (18.)
To encourage growth and change in high-school organization such as classifying high schools, encouraging consolidation and larger units and junior high school organization, and reorganizing districts. (15.)
To conduct research activities such as all types of surveys and special committee work on special problems. (13.)

To perform all duties of accrediting of high schools and approving for accrediting of high schools. (11.)

To encourage or aid in conducting conventions and meetings of all kinds. (11.)

To inspect and supervise private high schools, parochial high schools, academies, private elementary schools, grades in high schools, and graded elementary schools. (11.)

To encourage and aid in growth and changes in curriculum and courses of study. (11.)

To make recommendations or prepare high-school standards and perform all duties involved in the distribution of State aid. (10.)

To stimulate professional growth of teachers by cooperating with teacher-training institutions, aiding in developing professional faculty meetings, aiding in developing cooperative educational programs, checking professional reading of teachers, and recommending literature. (9.)

To attend educational meetings. (6.)

To confer with executives of higher institutions. (3.)

To approve normal training high schools. (3.)

To help prepare programs for State educational conventions. (3.)

To recommend and plan for new legislation. (2.)

To aid in selection and appointment of teachers, supervisors and principals. (2.)

The activities of the other specialists and directors whose responsibilities relate specifically to instructional work, health services, and libraries are recorded in the tabulations presented below. It should be noted that the activities other than those that relate to office routine, teacher certification establishment of standards, preparation of courses of study and bulletins, teacher training, interpreting the law, and general supervision have been included in the lists.

Directors of health.

To confer with instructors, principals, superintendents of schools, and boards of education.

To make addresses to various groups and conventions.

To do general publicity work and write magazine articles.

To make studies, surveys, and investigations.

To cooperate with other organizations for the promotion of physical and health education.

To assist in organizing programs in schools.

To promote statutory requirements.

To assist in planning for buildings.

To supervise teacher-training institutions.

To encourage conferences and meetings of all kinds, such as area meetings, sectional meetings, and institutes.

To maintain service, reference, and consultation bureau.

To prepare and interpret professional programs and courses.
To devise ways of coordinating physical and health education.
To promote teaching of "good behavior."
To widen principal's and county superintendent's concepts of physical education as social training.
To organize programs for institutions and conferences.
To supervise school nursing programs.
To review books and other material.
To do county inspection.
To meet with State advisory committees.
To maintain lending library.
To plan exhibitions.
To act as secretary and chairman of State-wide scholastic athletic conferences and committees.

Supervisors of music.

To work out policies and plans for administration and teaching.
To advise in the training of music teachers before they enter service.
To aid in having music function in a social way.
To extend music teaching into schools which do not have it.
To have general supervision over music education in the State.
To advise with institutions on the training of teachers of music in both public and private schools.
To confer with superintendents as to music education policies.
To help make surveys.
To assist in stimulating an interest in music education as an integral part of the curriculum.
To conduct State examination in music.
To approve and sponsor State programs and contests.
To act as an amalgamating force of cooperation and participation among schools.

Supervisors of commercial work.

To assist in any way the assistant commissioner of education in charge of secondary schools.
To visit schools.
To confer with administrators and supervisors.
To carry on research studies in various phases of high-school work.
To instruct county institutes.

Supervisors of mathematics.

To inspect in special cases work in mathematics in junior high schools and elementary schools.
To supervise the making of all regents examinations in mathematics for the high schools of the State.
To address meetings of teachers of mathematics.
To represent the department in matters pertaining to secondary-school mathematics.
To make general inspection of smaller village or rural high schools.

To supervise the making of special examinations and the rating of papers submitted from the same.

Supervisors of art education and machine drawing.

To speak at teacher conferences on special field.

To advise with normal schools and training colleges.

To advise with art schools as to offering and courses for high schools.

To advise teachers as to training and extension work.

To supervise social-service art work.

To carry on correspondence relating to special field.

To rate examination papers.

To recommend concerning equipment of schools and teachers to be employed.

Supervisors of modern foreign languages.

To have general supervision of 32 different examinations every year for pupils and teachers. (Aided by department committees of high-school and college teachers.)

To conduct group inspection of teachers in different centers for observation, criticism, object lessons.

To maintain office as a teachers' service bureau and to some extent a teachers' placement bureau.

Supervisors of Latin.

To visit and inspect high schools.

To confer and visit classes.

To prepare college entrance examination questions and mark papers from these examinations.

Supervisors of Spanish.

To examine material for credit.

To prepare questions for college entrance examination board.

To visit high schools, elementary schools, and academies.

To approve books.

To prepare articles for publication.

Directors of libraries.

To supervise traveling reference library.

To supervise rooms and equipment.

To prepare curriculum and courses of study.

To arrange for library training for school librarians.

To administer State library aid.

To advise through correspondence.

To advise with library associations.

To buy books.

To advise concerning certification and registration.

To advise concerning placement.

To review lists to be purchased.

To review lists of schools seeking university recognition.

To recommend excuses for failures to comply with standards.

To cooperate with teacher-training institutions.

To visit libraries for conferences.
To assist in organization.
To attend State and local library, club, and educational meetings.
To give addresses.
To check blue prints of new buildings for library plans.
To write articles for publication.
To prepare programs for clubs and radio.
To compile and analyze library statistics.
To prepare or revise book lists.
To make surveys of conditions and needs.
To check reports and special lists.
To check book lists for granting State aid.

4. VISITS TO SCHOOLS

Plans followed by State departments in visiting secondary schools.—The numbers of public secondary schools in each of the 48 States ranged at the time of inquiry from 25 to nearly a thousand. Eleven States report that plans provide for the visitation of all the high schools at least once a year. Nine States report that in addition a number varying from 5 to 25 percent of the secondary schools are visited twice a year.

In response to the inquiry as to whether members of the State departments deliberately avoid visiting the high schools in the large cities, five States reported that schools in cities having a population of 100,000 or more were not considered a concern of the State office. One State reported that the schools in the cities having populations of 30,000 or more were not inspected. A large percentage of the responses indicated that the staff of the State department of education was so inadequate, the number of schools so large, and the funds so limited that the State officials were obliged to leave many of the larger school systems to their own devices.

The median number of local public secondary schools visited each year by representatives of State departments of education was computed to be about 192, or about 75 percent of the total number of schools.

In view of the funds and personnel available to carry out the responsibilities of State departments of education in connection with the secondary schools, it is of interest to know how the State officials select the schools to be visited

and inspected. In fields of work such as agriculture, home economics, and industrial arts, each specialist employed as a rule devotes his entire time to his special field. In States that have but one high-school inspector a plan of visitation must be devised that is most economical of time, energy, and money. Where several staff members are available for high-school inspection the following plans are among those reported most frequently.

(1) Itinerary of staff members is arranged each month in conference of inspectors.
(2) State is divided geographically and sections assigned to various staff members.
(3) State is divided into county groups and parts assigned inspectors.
(4) State is divided into teachers-college districts and divisions assigned to inspectors.
(5) State is divided into areas with approximately equal numbers of high schools and divisions assigned to inspectors.
(6) Schools listed as doubtful that have not been accredited, or that have been conditionally accredited are visited first. If time is available, others are visited.
(7) Director of inspectional division plans the itinerary of staff members as to schools to be visited and work to be done.
(8) Schools are classified as to type and inspectors are assigned responsibility for the different types, such as consolidated schools, small high schools, 4-year high schools, and the like.
(9) Each staff member has a special field of work and carries on only in that field unless given special instructions to investigate other fields or activities.
(10) Inspectors are assigned a territory and are responsible for all the schools and public-school activities in the area in which they operate.

Schools visited each year by individual State department members.—The number of school systems visited yearly by the 179 State educational officials reporting differs widely. (See Table 9.) About a fourth of the group indicate that they visit on the average fewer than 40 schools per year, while 20 officials report that the schools visited may average 200 or more. The distribution of the number of schools visited is approximately the same for each type of staff member. One person reports that he has under his direction 40 schools giving industrial work and that each of these is visited six times a year.

TABLE 9.—*Numbers of school systems visited annually by State educational officers, the average number of days spent in visitation each year, and the average number of hours spent at each secondary school visited*

Officers	Number of schools visited annually		Average number of days		Average number hours spent each school	
	Median	Range	Median	Range	Median	Range
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Specialists in—						
Industrial education	45	4–206	106	11–200	4.3	1–15
Home economics education	91	26–250	120	75–180	4.8	2–12
Agricultural education	62	14–175	113	40–210	5.4	1–40
Assistant commissioner and assistant superintendent		1–150	50	6–175	3.7	1–5
Supervisors and inspectors	135	8–375	117	30–220	3.3	1–8
Directors of health and physical education	100	24–200	107	30–155	3.0	1–5
Supervisors of art, science, mathematics, etc.	103	23–125	113	50–170	5.3	2–5
Librarians	110	11–130	85	50–110	1.8	3–5
All	95	1–375	111	6–220	4.1	1–40

Time spent in visiting secondary schools.—The part of the working year devoted to the visitation of secondary schools varies as widely as the number of schools visited. One has only to visualize the map of the United States to appreciate fully how diverse the problem of school visitation is in the different States. Only a small fraction of the State educational officials devote their entire time in visiting schools. During the time schools are in session about half of the State officials treated in this study spend half or more of their time in visiting schools.

It is surprising to note that more than 40 per cent of the visitations made to public secondary schools consume less than three hours. The number of inspections that involve more than a day must be relatively few if the number of days spent in the field and the number of schools visited are compared with the time spent during each official visit.

Activities participated in during visitation.—The activities carried on by State educational officers during typical visits to secondary schools were catalogued under 14 headings. A review of the time distribution among these activities indicates that classroom visitation and conferences with the superintendent are among activities of first importance on

the list. (See Table 10.) The persons reporting, it should be noted, do not attend to all of the 14 activities while visiting high schools. Conferences with superintendents, classroom visitation, conferences with secondary-school teachers, and conferences with secondary-school principals and supervisors represent the order of importance when the numbers reporting the time devoted to the several activities are compared. The reason why the high-school principal is found fourth on the list is probably due to the fact that in a large number of small high schools the superintendent is the principal and the superintendent is the official intermediary between the State department of education and the local schools.

TABLE 10.—*Distribution of State educational officials according to the percentages of time devoted to various activities in which they are engaged during typical visits to local school systems*

Activity	Number of officials reporting the following percentages of time						Total number reporting
	Less than 10	10–19	20–29	30–39	40–49	50 or more	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Conference with board or individual members	93	12	6			1	112
Conference with townspeople	62	4	2		1		69
Conference with superintendent	55	56	30	6	1	7	154
Inspection of records	91	31	2				124
Inspection of buildings and grounds	78	37	10	1	2		128
Conference with secondary-school principal	61	46	15	7	2	4	135
Conference with secondary-school supervisors	32	16	2	4			54
Conference with secondary-school teachers	25	47	29	16	5	17	139
Classroom visitation in secondary schools	14	22	31	11	16	45	139
Conference with elementary-school principals	26	8	1			1	36
Conference with elementary-school supervisors	16	8	1				25
Conference with elementary-school teachers	26	8					34
Classroom visitation in elementary schools	19	12	5	2			38
Other persons visited or activities conducted	22	14	6	1	1	3	47

If the time devoted to conference with teachers, classroom visitation, and conference with the superintendent is tabulated, one may note that the first two items consume a large

proportion of the time of State educational officers. (See Table 11.) As one would expect, the subject-matter specialists devote a larger proportion of their time to instructional activities than do other officers.

TABLE 11.—*Range in minutes in the time devoted to certain selected activities by State educational officials on visiting public secondary schools.*

Officers	Conferences with secondary teachers	Classroom visitation	Conference with superintendents	Number of officers reporting
1	2	3	4	5
Specialists in—				
Industrial education	5–60	5–70	1–30	22
Home economics education	5–60	15–80	2–25	29
Agricultural education	10–80	5–70	1–50	28
Assistant commissioner and assistant superintendents	1–10	2–75	10–55	5
Supervisors and inspectors	1–45	3–75	3–75	34
Directors of health education and physical education	1–20	1–35	2–50	13
Specialists in music, art, science, and mathematics	10–20	20–70	1–25	8
Librarians	0–0	0–0	5–25	4
All	0–80	0–80	1–75	143

A large variety of activities performed by other officials is interesting enough to warrant listing here. These other activities of specialists in the different fields of education are as follows:

Vocational and industrial education.
- Conferring with officials of trade and industrial organizations and visiting plants in vocational works.
- Visiting industrial concerns.
- Conferring with employers and managers of plants.
- Visiting industrial plants and heads of departments.
- Talking to commercial clubs.

Home economics education.
- Visiting homes.
- Conferring with lunch-room manager.
- Conducting club activities.
- Addressing high-school and other groups of girls.
- Visiting industrial plants where girls are employed.
- Conferring with teachers of science and art classes.
- Conferring with parent-teacher associations or other groups interested in educational programs.

Agricultural education.
Visiting farmers in the community, farm organizations, farm bureaus, and extension agents.
Conferring with officers of civic clubs.
Addressing and cooperating with "future farmers of America."
Visiting projects and fairs.
Supervising project work of adults and boys and evening classes.
Conferring with parents and employers of pupils.

Supervision by State officers.—The answer, "Yes", was received from 141 of the 174 State educational officers to the question as to whether or not they attempt to supervise instruction during their visits to high schools. Only 95 of the 104 subject-matter specialists indicated that they did *not* attempt to supervise instruction at the time they made their visits to schools.

The relative effectiveness of activities.—Although the reliability of the reactions of individuals on the relative merits of the services they themselves render may be questioned, it was thought advisable to ask the State educational officials who serve the public high schools to evaluate the relative merits of the things that they do in connection with the secondary schools. Preparation of curriculums and courses of study for the secondary schools and visitation and inspection of the schools at the request of the schools appear to be the most valuable services according to the judgment of the State officials reporting. (See Table 12.) No one group of activities appeared to be judged by the group as a whole as of little value.

The subject-matter specialists indicate that the preparation of courses of study and the making of surveys are of less value in carrying on their work than is indicated by the general supervisors, the high-school visitors, and the inspectors. The special-subject supervisors are inclined to believe that visits to the schools initiated by the State department officials or by the schools provide the best opportunities for the performance of their duties. In considering these facts it is worth bearing in mind that the general inspectors and visitors probably have a more marked influence on the schools

than do the subject-matter specialists. The members of the latter group confine their efforts largely to the work of their particular fields of interest.

TABLE 12.—*Distribution of estimates of State educational officers on the relative effectiveness of the professional activities and services performed by them in connection with the secondary schools*

Activities and services performed	Least valuable	Moderately valuable	Most valuable	Number reporting
1	2	3	4	5
Conducting surveys and investigations of secondary schools and their problems	20	73	71	164
Correspondence with schools	35	121	20	176
Classroom visitation	19	45	110	174
Preparation of curriculum materials and courses of study for secondary schools	13	47	116	176
Publishing bulletins dealing with administration, supervision, and teaching	23	87	67	177
Visitation and inspection of schools (on request of local secondary school)	10	38	113	161
Visitation and inspection of schools (initiated by State department)	9	60	99	168

General inspectional duties assigned to specialists.—More than 84 per cent of the specialists in agriculture, home economics, industrial education, health, the academic subjects, and libraries indicate that they are not authorized to make any general surveys or inspection of local secondary schools. In 16 States there appeared to be no specific policy in this regard. It is evident that whenever the specialists are used for general inspectional services it is because of the small staff and emergency demands or in order to avoid unnecessary duplication of travel or expense.

Responsibility for visits.—About a third of the 159 State educational officers reporting indicate that all visits made by them to local secondary schools are initiated by the State. (See Table 13.) Three officials stated that more than 90 per cent of the visits made by them are at the request of the local schools. Only about 10 per cent of the officials indicate that less than 50 per cent of their calls were initiated by the schools.

TABLE 13.—*Distribution of State officers according to the percentage of visits made to public secondary schools which were initiated by the State departments of education*

Per cent of visits	Number of officers
Less than 10	3
10	4
20	6
30	1
40	4
50	16
60	5
70	14
80	9
90	39
100	58
Total reporting	159

5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The kind of influence exerted by the State departments of education on the public secondary schools of a State depends upon the degree to which standards are developed and maintained by these central offices. In soliciting information in reference to this matter from the State officials, much disagreement was noted in the responses coming from the same State. In half of the States the reactions of the persons reporting for a State were not in agreement as to the policies governing the relationships between the State and the local schools. Among the representatives of the same offices and in the same field of service, responses indicate a lack of identity in the degree to which they expect local secondary schools to abide by the State regulations.

In spite of this confusion in reference to policies there seems to be a consensus of judgment that the State officials do insist that local schools maintain the standards established. There is agreement also that one of the primary functions of the central office is to see that State standards are rather uniformly maintained.

The practices and policies of the State departments of education according to the judgments recorded by those who have responsibilities over secondary education have brought

about marked improvements in the high schools. Because the number of specialists is limited and because those who are engaged devote their time in most part to the fields of music, art, physical education, agriculture, industrial arts, and home economics, the improvement of instruction in the secondary schools in general can hardly be effected through the use of any of the direct methods available to the general high-school inspector or visitor. It is to be expected that the latter officer will place professional emphasis on indirect supervision through the preparation of the courses of study and bulletins and through an insistence that the local organization and administrative practices be maintained on high levels of efficiency.

One of the most interesting findings of this investigation is the limited number of subject-matter specialists employed in the State departments of education. Because of the Smith-Hughes law and because of the more recent special State physical education laws, specialists in these fields are maintained. Art, music, and library specialists are also found in numbers. This condition is due in part to a difference in viewpoint and in part because of the cost. It would be difficult to secure from the legislatures the funds necessary to maintain and to provide the salaries and traveling expenses for a full staff of competent subject-matter specialists. The consequence is that the various State departments of education do assume responsibility for a more direct supervision of the teaching of agriculture, home economics, and the industrial arts in the secondary schools. Likewise, special attention to music, art, and the libraries is given in the States in which specialists in these fields are engaged. The responsibilities assumed by the several States for the direct supervision of the other subjects of the high-school curriculum are limited. This difference in State policy is reflected in the local school organization by the degree to which the teachers of special subjects look to the State for guidance and help. It is also reflected in the organization for supervision in the larger school systems in that the supervision of the special offerings of the curriculum are usually a responsibility assigned to members of the central office staff.

From the reports received from State officials regarding the work performed and the time spent in the schools of a State, it is obvious that their duties are largely administrative and that their attention is confined in most part to the smaller high schools. This is to be expected, since less than 10 per cent of the secondary schools in any one State enroll more than 100 students. The element of time and the travel cost are important determinants of the activities of the State officials.

An analysis of the professional education of the personnel in State educational service reveals that in some cases their qualifications are not equal to those employees of the more progressive local school systems. Wherever this condition obtains one can expect the State to be of relatively little service. Yet, in those States in which the progressive and more competent teachers and principals are called upon to assist in the preparation of State courses of study and other bulletins, one will find the results of such activities reflected in the work of even the most progressive system.

It was somewhat surprising to note that few State officials indicated that the leadership they exerted in directing the professional education of the secondary-school employees was among the important services they rendered the local schools. As time goes on the professional employees of local school systems are becoming better trained for the positions they hold, requiring less attention of State officers in this regard. Conditions in this respect are different from what they were even a quarter century ago. It may be that State officers see the desirability of a new point of view as to the most effective methods of serving local secondary schools.

Funds made available to most State departments of education are limited and at best few States are in a position to hope ever to supervise in a direct manner the work in all the secondary schools of the State. It would seem that the greatest service can be rendered by indirect methods and through the leadership that may be exercised. The leadership in education that is needed is the one that will progressively stimulate professional advancement and improvement of the personnel employed in the schools. With better

qualified teachers, principals, and other educational workers, there must be associated a freedom of initiative in order that intelligently planned variations may be applied to the standardized practices set up for the schools. Uniformity of practices and standardized efforts should be expected only when these practices have been demonstrated beyond doubt to be the most desirable and economical. Again, State leadership may bring about the desired results when it may serve to improve the school environment in which educational services are rendered. In other words, the schools must not only be manned by a competent educational personnel, but the schools of a State must also permit the professionally qualified worker reasonable freedom to innovate.

CHAPTER III : THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY STAFF IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. THE CONCERN OF THE CHAPTER

In the foregoing chapter the relationship of staff members of State departments of education to the management of local secondary schools was analyzed. It was noted that the State officials assumed less direct responsibility for the work in the larger secondary schools than in the smaller schools. This policy has been followed because of the limited funds made available to the State departments, the very large number of small schools, and the assumption that the larger school systems are in a better position to meet their supervisory needs through the locally employed staff members.

Although the National Survey of the Education of Teachers will treat in detail the personnel employed in public schools, it is believed desirable to consider at this time certain phases of the status of those staff members employed in local school systems whose major duties have to do with administration and supervision in the secondary schools. The educational qualifications, the general professional experience, and the types of educational experiences the professional employees have had are elements affecting the patterns of organization that are to be found in actual operation for the administration and supervision of the schools. Therefore this part of the study is presented primarily as a background against which the analysis of supervisory organizations may be projected for a clearer understanding of existing conditions and their implications.

2. THE STAFF OFFICERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The limitations of the grouping of schools.—The classification of schools or school systems on the basis of the number of persons who are delegated administrative and supervisory duties may confuse the reader unless it is clearly understood that the plan chosen for classifying the schools is used because under the circumstances there is no better one to select. Grouping secondary schools according to the size of the com-

munity (see sec. 2 of Ch. I) in which they are located provides no true index of the size of the school. Bringing together schools operated in sections of the country may conceal or distort certain elements of the problem. For example, a sectional classification of schools may result in bringing together States that have on the whole a relatively large number of small communities. If the reader will recognize these limitations and appreciate that the facts presented in the tabulations are relative and not absolute, it is believed that the analyses made will yield the significance of existing conditions.

Number of staff members employed in secondary schools.—Thirteen different types of staff officers were reported by high-school principals as serving in various capacities in the high schools. Some of the persons employed as physicians and nurses are on part-time duty. The types of staff officers reported by the greatest number of principals of 368 city secondary schools are assistant principals, supervisors of various subject fields, heads of departments, and deans of boys or girls. (See Table 14.) The percentages of schools in which the various officers are reported range from 54 per cent of the systems for assistant principals to less than 1 per cent for several types of staff members.

TABLE 14.—*Percentages of secondary schools with the different types of administrative and supervisory officers*

Types of officers	Group				Region				All combined
	I (108)	II (82)	III (111)	IV (67)	E. (127)	M.W. (132)	S. (63)	W. (46)	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Assistant principals	68.6	47.6	46.0	50.8	57.2	51.6	57.2	47.9	53.8
Counselors and advisers:									
General	17.6	12.3	3.6	1.5	3.9	10.6	3.2	28.3	9.3
Boys	6.5	1.2	.....	.....	.8	1.5	1.6	8.7	2.2
Girls	7.4	1.2	.9	4.5	1.6	3.0	3.2	10.9	3.5
Deans:									
General	9.3	.....	.9	.....	2.4	.8	4.8	8.7	3.0
Boys	3.7	6.1	3.6	3.0	.8	6.1	3.2	8.7	4.0
Girls	13.0	19.6	20.0	22.4	11.1	23.5	17.5	23.9	18.0
Directors of attendance	1.8	2.4	1.8	3.0	1.6	3.0	.....	4.4	2.2
Directors of extra-curriculum	.9	2.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	3.2	2.2	.8
Directors of guidance	2.8	4.9	2.7	3.0	5.6	3.8	.....	.....	3.3
Directors of cafeterias or lunch-rooms	1.8	2.4	.9	4.5	1.6	.8	3.2	6.5	2.2
Doctors	.....	1.2	1.8	1.5	.8	2.3	.....	.....	1.1
Heads of departments	38.9	36.6	35.2	34.4	43.7	25.1	41.3	43.5	36.4
Nurses	.9	2.4	3.6	3.0	3.2	1.5	1.6	4.4	2.5
Registrars	2.8	1.2	1.8	.....	.....	1.5	3.2	4.4	1.6
Subject supervisors	16.7	41.5	64.0	44.8	51.6	30.4	38.1	26.1	41.6
Visiting teachers	4.6	1.2	.....	.....	.8	3.0	.....	2.2	1.6
Others	4.6	6.1	3.6	6.0	2.4	6.1	3.2	10.9	4.9

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of reports for each group and region.

As is to be expected, assistant principals, counselors, deans, and heads of departments were reported with greater frequency in the large cities than in the smaller cities. Subject supervisors, however, were reported more often in the smaller cities. In most cases these officers are teachers of special subjects in the high schools and serve as supervisors in the grades. Supervisors considered members of the secondary-school staff were reported for only about 17 per cent of the secondary schools in cities of more than 100,000 population. The reason for this is probably that supervisors in larger cities are assigned to the central-office staff rather than to the several secondary schools. It was impossible to determine from the responses what proportion of the principals reporting secondary-school supervisors should have listed these persons as belonging to the central-office staff.

According to evidence not presented here in tabular form, supervisors in larger cities have under them several teachers and on the average teach only 17 per cent of the time. In contrast to this, supervisors in cities of Group II teach 20 per cent of the time; those in Group III, 78 per cent; and those in Group IV, 87 per cent. Consequently, supervisors in the smaller cities appear to be supervisors in name only, the major portion of their time being devoted to actual classroom teaching.

Administrative officers, such as counselors, deans, and heads of departments, were reported most frequently in the West and least frequently in the East, but supervisors were reported most frequently in the East and least frequently in the West.

The typical administrative staff.—It was found from data not presented here in tabular form that the typical administrative and supervisory staff in the 368 secondary schools of this study has, in addition to the principal and clerical assistants, an average of 4.3 members. The administrative staff in secondary schools located in cities of Group I averages about 5 members, whereas in cities of Group IV, it averages only 3.1 members. The number of administrative staff members increases as does the population of the cities in which the schools are located. In addition, the administrative staffs in schools located in the Eastern and Western

regions average about 4.7 members as compared with an average of approximately 3.7 in the Middle Western cities. It may be said that the typical administrative staff in the 368 secondary schools, exclusive of the principal and his clerical assistants, is made up of four or five members. In about half of the schools there is an assistant principal; in about one-third there are five department heads; in about two-fifths there are about three subject supervisors; in about one-fourth there are deans of boys or girls; and in about one-sixth there are advisers or counselors.

Administrative staff in independent secondary schools.—The various types of staff members as reported for city secondary schools are found less frequently in the independent secondary schools. These data are not shown in tabular form. An assistant principal was reported in about 37 per cent of the 171 independent secondary schools reporting data, supervisors in about 19 per cent, department heads in about 15 per cent, and deans of either boys or girls in about 12 per cent of the schools. These data no doubt indicate larger administrative staffs than is the actual case, due to the fact that many principals reported no data in that item of the inquiry form and it was impossible to determine whether there were no staff members or whether the respondent had merely failed to fill in the form. The fact that these incomplete replies were omitted from the tabulations increases the proportion of schools with various types of officers. The average number of staff officers, in addition to the principal and his clerical assistants, was found to be 2.4. The median number of department heads in the schools reporting heads of departments was about 2.6. The median number of supervisors, where reported, was slightly less than 2.

3. DEGREES AND FIELDS OF TRAINING OF STAFF OFFICERS

Degrees held.—If the degrees earned in residence is any criterion of adequate training, it is apparent from the data available that there is considerable variation with respect to the training of members of the administrative and supervisory staff. (See Table 15.) Larger percentages of assistant superintendents than of any other administrative officers hold masters' and doctors' degrees. From 42 to 47 per cent

of the superintendents, assistant superintendents, principals of city schools, assistant principals, and heads of departments hold masters' degrees. Supervisors and directors of special subject fields report fewer degrees than any other type of administrative officers.

On the basis of relatively few cases assistant superintendents appear to have had more training than superintendents, in part owing to the preponderance of executives of small school systems in this study. Even more interesting is the fact that assistant principals as a group appear to hold more advanced degrees than do the principals. A partial explanation of this may be due to the fact of the larger number of small cities represented in the study and that assistant principals are found more frequently in the larger cities where the qualifications are somewhat above those demanded of principals in the smaller communities. However, the difference can not be attributed altogether to this, inasmuch as a tabulation of the data according to population groups shows the same result.

TABLE 15.—*Percentages of administrative and supervisory officers holding various academic degrees*

Type of position	Number reporting	Degree held			
		None	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctor's
1	2	3	4	5	6
Central office—					
Superintendent	291	7	44	47	2
Assistant superintendent	27	7	33	45	15
Supervisors	100	39	39	22	.....
Directors of subject fields	57	32	35	28	5
Heads of departments	13	8	31	61	.....
Individual secondary schools—					
Principals	438	13	44	42	1
Assistant principals	60	5	50	45	.....
Heads of departments	137	16	40	43	1
Deans	24	8	67	25	.....
Counselors	15	7	33	60	.....
Principals of all independent secondary schools combined	273	11	66	23	.....

Differences between groups and regions.—In the larger cities fewer superintendents and principals are without degrees and there is a tendency for all administrative officers, particularly the superintendents, to hold advanced degrees. These data

are not here presented in tabular or graphic form. Differences among various sections of the country are larger than among the population groups. A larger percentage of the superintendents and principals in the East are without degrees. What is equally as important is the fact that fewer of them have either masters' or doctors' degrees. The largest percentages of superintendents and principals with bachelors' degrees only are found in the South; the greatest percentage of superintendents and principals with masters' degrees are found in the West and Middle West. Accordingly, if the academic degree is an indication of desirable preparation, it appears that the superintendents and principals in the larger cities are somewhat better prepared than superintendents and principals of smaller cities. It appears also that superintendents and principals in the East are perhaps the least well prepared and that principals and superintendents of the West and Middle West are the best prepared.

Principals of independent secondary schools.—The principals reporting from community high schools, county high schools, and township high schools seem to hold more advanced degrees than do principals of rural (reported as separate high schools in Kansas, Nebraska, and Idaho) and union high schools. Principals of the independent secondary schools as a group hold advanced degrees less often than do the principals of city secondary schools.

Major and minor fields of study.—In order to relate the education of the staff members to positions held, the fields of undergraduate study pursued were ascertained. The most significant fact derived from the analysis of the returns submitted by superintendents was that the field of education appeared most frequently as majors and minors. Education also ranked first as the major study for principals of city and of independent secondary schools and mathematics was the most frequently mentioned first minor for principals of both these classes of secondary schools. Considerable differences in frequency were found between the subject fields of science, history, mathematics, classical and modern languages, and English, on the one hand, and art, industrial arts, music, physics, and Latin on the other hand. The group first named was mentioned frequently and the latter not at all by super-

intendents. The same general facts were found for principals of city secondary schools and principals of independent secondary schools except that agriculture and chemistry were mentioned frequently as fields of study by principals of independent secondary schools. Relatively few supervisors reported education as the major field and only about 25 per cent reported it as the first minor subject. Heads of departments reported an even smaller proportion of cases in which education was the major or the minor field. Obviously the field of work in which they are engaged is dependent largely on the field in which they have received preparation to teach or supervise.

Differences between the groups and regions.—Somewhat larger differences appear among the geographical regions than among the population groups. No marked differences appear among the groups with respect to the frequency with which education, history, languages, mathematics, or the social studies are reported as majors by superintendents. English is reported as a major study by a greater percentage of superintendents in large cities and science is mentioned by a larger percentage in the smaller cities. English was also reported more frequently as a major subject by principals in cities of more than 100,000 population. History and science were reported more frequently by principals in smaller cities.

Differences among the geographical regions are of greater magnitude in certain fields of study. Education is reported as the major subject far more frequently by principals of the West than of any other region. This, coupled with the fact that they also report education as the first minor subject nearly as frequently as in any other region, implies that principals of secondary schools in the Western States have had considerably more undergraduate professional training for their positions than have principals of secondary schools in the South and East and somewhat more than principals in the Middle Western States. A smaller percentage of principals in the Middle West reported English, classical languages, or modern languages than was reported in other regions. Principals of the South seldom reported science but reported history and the classical languages more often than did the principals of any other region. These differences, while they

may not be extremely significant, point to the general types of training received by principals in the various groups and regions. They show that principals in the West are likely to have more professional training toward the bachelor's degree. In the South, principals are likely to have had more training in the classical languages and history and less in education and science. In the East languages were mentioned by a greater proportion of principals than elsewhere. In the Middle West, science, mathematics, and social studies were mentioned more often than in other regions. In the West professional courses and English rank high among the major fields of undergraduate study.

Differences among independent secondary schools.—Only slight differences were reported among the various types of schools with respect to the proportion of principals reporting education. In all types of independent secondary schools, from 20 to 26 per cent reported education as the major subject for the master's degree. English and mathematics were reported more often by principals of community high schools and agriculture was reported much more frequently in the rural and union high schools.

Major and minor fields of study for masters' degrees.—Superintendents and principals of secondary schools reported education as the major field of study for masters' degrees in about half of the cases. It was much more frequently reported than any other field. Superintendents also reported education as the most frequently mentioned first minor field, but principals of city schools more often reported psychology. Education in its various branches and its related fields was reported by superintendents as the major field of study for the master's degree in nearly 80 per cent of all cases. In addition, 44 per cent reported some branch of education as the first minor. This indicates that a considerable number of superintendents major in one branch of education and minor in some other branches of the same field. The same is true for principals in city secondary schools, where about 75 per cent reported education as the major and about 50 per cent reported it as a minor. In the cases where the master's degree is earned in residence, education or one of its branches is nearly always either the major or a minor field of study.

As a result, comparatively slight differences exist between the groups or regions except for education. English is reported somewhat more frequently in large cities and in the South; mathematics and foreign languages are also reported by a somewhat larger percentage of the principals of the South; education is reported as the major study by from 44 to 50 per cent of the superintendents in all population groups. A striking difference, however, exists between the geographical regions: Whereas education is reported as the major field by from 50 to 60 per cent of the superintendents in the West and the Middle West, only 27 per cent of the superintendents in the South report this as their major field of study.

Supervisors and heads of departments reported education as the major much less frequently. These officers major in their special subject fields and only from one-third to one-half of them pursue minors in phases of the field of education. Supervisors and heads of departments reported education as the major subject for the master's degree in a fourth and a third of the cases, respectively. Approximately 38 per cent of the supervisors reported education as a minor subject as compared with 15 per cent of the heads of departments.

Differences among types of schools.—Principals of independent secondary schools reported education as the major subject in 78 per cent of the cases and as a minor in 35 per cent of the cases. Rural high-school principals, union high-school principals, and community high-school principals report education as the major subject more often than community, township, or county high-school principals.

4. NUMBER OF YEARS SINCE DEGREES WERE RECEIVED

Superintendents.—Of the superintendents not holding bachelors' degrees (24 of a total of 275), the median length of time since they were in school was 10.5 years. The average year of receiving bachelors' degrees of those holding them was about 1920; for masters' degrees, about 1927. The basis for this interpretation is to be found in Table 16. A fact not found in the table is that it has been about 28 years since superintendents in cities of Group I and 26 years since those in Group II earned the bachelor's degree. During this period the superintendents of the larger cities may have attended school, but they have not thought it necessary to

obtain the master's degree. In the smaller cities the length of time since the bachelor's degrees were earned is not so great, doubtless because many of these officials are younger and because of their shorter tenure and more limited educational experience. Particularly is this true for cities of 5,000 to 10,000 population, where two years is the median period which has elapsed since superintendents received their bachelors' degrees. In the Middle West the median time elapsing is found to be 5 years, but in the South and East the medians are 10 and 13 years, respectively. Since it has been previously shown that a greater percentage of the superintendents and principals in the East are without bachelors' degrees, it is of interest that the superintendents of this region who reported bachelors' degrees received them on the average about 13 years ago.

Secondary-school principals of city systems.—The data from principals of city school systems show somewhat different features. The median period since principals without degrees were in school was about 5.5 years. The median period since those with bachelors' degrees only were in school is about 5 years as compared with 15.6 years for those with masters' degrees. Both bachelors' and masters' degrees have been obtained most recently by the principals of secondary schools in the smaller cities and in the South.

Length of experience and number of years since training has been received or a degree granted are interdependent factors. A person with long experience probably received his degree many years back. Superintendents, principals, and other staff members may either leave their positions for a year or two or attend school during summer terms. The amazing thing is that superintendents and principals, particularly in the larger cities of the East, without bachelors' degrees have not attended school for a considerable number of years. Forty-four per cent of the superintendents and principals have earned bachelors' degrees only and have not obtained masters' degrees in spite of the fact that they received their bachelors' degrees from 12 to 15 years before the time of supplying the evidence.

Other staff members of city systems.—The median periods since assistant superintendents, supervisors, heads of depart-

ments, and assistant principals received their bachelors' degrees (or if they are without degrees, since they last attended school) range from 7 years for supervisors to 15 years for assistant superintendents. (See Table 16.) Small differences were found with respect to the average years in which they received their masters' degrees.

TABLE 16.—*Median numbers of years since the highest degrees held by various administrative and supervisory officers were received* [1]

Administrative and supervisory officers	Degree received			
	None	Bachelors'	Masters'	All combined
1	2	3	4	5
Superintendents	10.5	14.7	5.3	7.0
Principals of city secondary schools	5.5	15.6	5.0	8.5
Principals of independent secondary schools	1.7	6.9	2.8	5.3
Directors of subject fields	6.3	5.6	5.0	6.2
Assistant superintendents	(2)	15.0	9.0	11.0
Supervisors	7.8	6.5	4.0	5.9
Heads of departments	5.5	10.7	4.4	6.9
Assistant principals	16.3	11.3	4.4	8.3
Deans	(2)	8.3	5.3	7.0
Counselors	(2)	10.0	6.0	6.0

[1] If no academic degree was received, the date of last training was used in the computation.
[2] None of these officials reported that they held no academic degree.

Principals of independent secondary schools.—The principals of independent secondary schools had in general attended college more recently than the principals of city systems. The median length of time since attending school for those without degrees was about 1.7 years. The median length of time elapsing since those holding bachelors' degrees and masters' degrees attended school is about 7 and 3 years, respectively. Differences among the various types of independent secondary schools are relatively slight.

Date of receiving bachelor's degree and advanced training.—Of the superintendents who received their bachelors' degrees prior to 1900, approximately 37 per cent have had no additional training; about 24 per cent of those receiving bachelors' degrees between 1900 and 1910 reported no further training; 14 per cent of those graduated between 1910 and 1920 reported none; and 28 per cent of those graduated after 1920 reported none. For each successive 10-year period except the last (in which case sufficient time has not elapsed to tell

definitely how many superintendents will take more training) the percentage of superintendents taking graduate work has increased considerably. In addition, superintendents are beginning to take advanced work sooner than heretofore. The median length of time elapsing before superintendents, who received bachelors' degrees prior to 1900, began graduate study was 9.3 years. Not only has a larger percentage of those receiving degrees during the 10-year period from 1900 to 1910 taken graduate work, but they began such work, on the average, within 7.4 years. The median period elapsing before those who received bachelors' degrees during the period from 1910 to 1919 began advanced study is less than 6 years.

It would be interesting to know why such large numbers of superintendents and principals who have been in service for a number of years have not felt moved to train for higher degrees. Whether they believe that their educational experience is such that degrees with the additional training entailed would not be worth the effort; whether they are too busy to leave their duties for a period of study; whether they are not professional; whether they are of the opinion that the type of training offered for the master's degree in higher institutions would be of little or no value to them; these and other similar questions can not be answered here. The facts are clear. Seven per cent of the superintendents and 13 per cent of the principals in this study are without bachelors' degrees, the median length of time since these persons were in school is 10.5 years for the superintendents and 5.5 years for the principals; 44 per cent of the principals and superintendents hold only bachelors' degrees regardless of the fact that the median length of time elapsing since they were received is nearly 12 years for superintendents and nearly 16 years for principals. Almost a fourth of the superintendents who have bachelors' degrees have done no advanced work.

1. TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS GRANTING THE BACHELORS' DEGREES REPRESENTED

The general comparison.—Almost two-fifths of the superintendents received their bachelors' degrees or their last training in private or endowed universities and more than

an additional fifth in private and endowed colleges. (See Table 17.) Since there is frequently no clear-cut distinction between these two types of institutions, it may be said that about three-fifths of the superintendents hold bachelors' degrees (or, if without degrees, received their last training) in private or endowed colleges and universities.

TABLE 17.—*Percentages of administrative and supervisory officers reporting certain types of institutions in which they received their bachelors' degrees, or, if without degrees, their last training*

Types of officers	Types of institutions				
	Normal school or State teachers college	State university or college	Private or endowed university [1]	Private or endowed college [1]	City college or university
1	2	3	4	5	6
Superintendents	9	28	39	22	2
Principals in city systems	12	29	33	25	1
Principals of all independent secondary schools combined	18	45	24	13	0
Directors of subject fields	5	30	36	29	0
Assistant superintendents	3	45	45	7	0
Supervisors	11	23	32	34	0
Heads of departments	6	37	40	17	0
Assistant principals	6	34	32	28	0
Deans	15	43	27	15	0
Counselors	0	53	35	12	0

[1] Schools were classified as private or endowed universities or as private or endowed colleges on the basis of the reports from the respondents in indicating the name of the institution. If the distinction was not made on the inquiry form, the classification was made according to the list of accredited higher institutions as given in the Office of Education Bulletin, 1930, No. 19.

Differences between groups and regions.—Even larger differences are apparent between the various population groups and geographical regions. Superintendents in the smaller cities are more likely to have attended teachers colleges or normal schools than are superintendents in the larger cities. Furthermore, superintendents in the Eastern cities reported bachelors' degrees from teachers colleges or normal schools much less frequently than in the Middle West or West. The same is true with respect to the schools attended by secondary-school principals. These data are not presented here in tabular form.

Comparisons with principals of independent secondary schools.—Larger percentages of principals of independent

secondary schools of our sampling received bachelors' degrees or, if without degrees, their last training, in State normal schools or teachers colleges than did either the secondary-school principals or superintendents of city systems. Likewise, larger percentages of the principals of independent secondary schools received their degrees, or last training, in State universities or State colleges. These tendencies may be accounted for in part by the fact that there are no principals of independent secondary schools in the East where the private colleges and universities are relatively prominent.

Summary.—From the data available it seems that persons represented in this study receiving bachelors' degrees in State universities or colleges and in private or endowed universities more frequently hold the positions of the superintendency, the assistant superintendency, or the principalship in larger school systems. State teachers college and private-college graduates are found more frequently in smaller cities.

6. TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS GRANTING THE MASTERS' DEGREES REPRESENTED

Superintendents and principals in city systems.—Data not presented here indicate that about a third of the 205 superintendents reporting received their masters' degrees from State universities and colleges and that about two-thirds received them from private or endowed universities. Of the 143 city-school principals, 40 per cent received masters' degrees from State universities and colleges and about 59 per cent from private institutions. Private and endowed universities grant larger proportions of masters' degrees held by superintendents and principals of large cities than do State universities. It is also interesting that nearly all principals and superintendents in the East received their masters' degrees in private or endowed universities, but more than half of the principals serving in the Middle West secured the masters' degrees in State institutions.

These data all point to the fact that persons serving in any given region receive their training from the schools dominant in that region. The dominant schools in the East

are private universities and consequently greater percentages of superintendents and principals serving in the East have received their degrees from them. In the Middle West the universities, with few exceptions, are State universities. Naturally, a greater proportion of superintendents and principals secured their graduate training in State universities.

The reports of 205 superintendents indicated that the masters' degrees had been received from 24 different State universities, 15 private or endowed universities, and 1 municipal university. The 143 principals received degrees from 29 different State universities, 37 private universities, and 2 municipal universities.

Principals of independent secondary schools.—About three-fourths of the masters' degrees held by the principals of 64 independent secondary schools were received from State universities. This again indicates the influence of the dominant type of institution in the region where schools are located: Most of these independent schools are in the West and Midwest. The principals of independent secondary schools have received degrees from 25 different State universities and from 4 private universities.

7. STATES IN WHICH OFFICIALS WERE TRAINED AND THE STATES IN WHICH THEY ARE EMPLOYED

The general situation.—With the exception of the principals of independent secondary schools and the deans of boys or girls in city secondary schools, from 50 to 60 per cent of all administrative officials have received their highest degrees in the States in which they are now serving. (See Table 18.) Inasmuch as a relatively few large educational institutions, as pointed out in the preceding section, grant large proportions of the bachelors' and masters' degrees, it is interesting that as many as 50 to 60 per cent of the administrative officers are employed in the States where they did their college and university work.

Differences in the geographical regions.—Of the persons trained in the schools of the East, a relatively small percentage are now serving in the States where they were trained. This points chiefly to the fact that superintendents, principals, and other staff members of schools in the South,

Middle West, and West frequently attend Eastern institutions for their training and then obtain teaching positions in these other regions. Of those trained in the South and West large percentages are employed in the States where they were trained.

TABLE 18.—*Percentages of administrative and supervisory officers trained in the States in which they are employed*

Officers	Per cent
Superintendents	50
Principals of city secondary schools	57
Principals of independent secondary schools	68
Assistant superintendents	52
Assistant principals	52
Director of subject fields	53
Heads of departments	61
Deans	64

8. TOTAL EXPERIENCE OF STAFF MEMBERS

The numbers of years of experience of staff members differ considerably for the various types of service. (See Table 19.) Superintendents reported having served from 1 to 48 years, with a median length of service of 26.3 years. Principals reported from 3 to 48 years of service, with a median length of service equal to 19.3 years. Half of the superintendents had served from about 19 to 34 years and approximately half of the principals from about 12 to 28 years. The median number of years served by assistant superintendents, vice principals, heads of departments, supervisors, deans, and counselors ranges from 15 years for the last-named to 25 for the assistant superintendents.

It is to be expected that administrative officers in the larger cities have served for longer periods of time than have those in smaller cities. Differences between the length of service of officials in the various geographical regions is not large. (See Table 19.) Principals of independent secondary schools have had, on the average, considerably less experience than have principals of secondary schools in city systems. This is true for all types of such schools, but particularly true for the rural, community, and union high schools.

TABLE 19.—*Median numbers of years of educational experience of administrative and supervisory officers*

Administrative and supervisory officers	Group				Region				All combined
	I	II	III	IV	E.	M.W.	S.	W.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Central office staff members:									
Superintendents (304)	24.3	30.0	28.3	21.7	28.1	23.6	25.5	28.1	26.3
Assistant superintendents (29)	25.3	21.5	.....	.....	23.0	24.8	27.0	23.5	24.8
Supervisors (97)	18.5	16.8	12.3	11.5	15.5	17.4	18.0	15.0	16.1
Directors of subject fields (58)	22.3	19.0	13.0	5.8	20.8	9.8	15.5	18.5	18.3
Heads of departments (14)	29.5	.....	.....	.....	30.0	.....	.....	.....	27.5
City secondary-school staff members:									
Principals (463)	26.3	22.7	17.1	14.5	19.2	20.2	17.2	22.8	19.3
Vice principals (67)	20.1	15.8	13.5	12.0	16.0	15.5	13.5	22.5	15.8
Heads of departments (157)	22.2	16.2	16.0	10.5	18.9	15.8	14.8	24.0	16.9
Deans (33)	19.5	14.5	11.5	13.0	10.0	14.5	22.0	12.5	14.5
Counselors (18)	14.5	15.0	.....	.....	.....	13.5	.....	16.0	15.0
Principals of independent secondary schools (275) [1]	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11.8	13.7	10.8	11.8

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of officers represented.

[1] Includes officers in 5 State secondary agricultural schools.

9. EXPERIENCE IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF POSITIONS

Experience of superintendents.—Superintendents have had considerable experience in teaching positions, in the principalship, in the superintendency, and in other types of positions. The facts along these lines are shown in Table 20. Differences among groups and regions are not large. A fact not shown in the table is that the experience of superintendents in the work of the superintendency averages about 10 years in Group I and 14.7 years in Group II. Superintendents in the West are somewhat more likely to have had longer experience as secondary-school principals than those of other regions, and the superintendents of the East are somewhat more likely to have had more experience as secondary-school or elementary-school teachers.

Superintendent's need for experience in elementary schools.—It will be shown in Chapter IV that secondary-school principals are allowed considerably greater freedom in educational and business affairs than are elementary-school principals. Data will also be presented later showing that superintendents devote approximately 42 per cent of their time to elementary schools and about 25 per cent to junior and senior high schools, respectively. In view of the large proportion of the time devoted by the superintendents to elementary schools, it follows that superintendents should

be well versed in the problems of elementary education. The actual situation, however, is that about 75 per cent of the superintendents have had no experience as principals of elementary schools. All the reasons for this situation can not be listed, but probably among the most important are the dearth of men in elementary-school principalships, the better preparation of high-school principals as compared with elementary-school principals, and the greater prestige of the high-school principalship. The fact remains, however, that superintendents devote the greater part of their time to elementary-school problems, are recruited largely from secondary schools, and typically have had no elementary-school experience.

TABLE 20.—*Average numbers of years of educational experience in certain types of positions of administrative and supervisory officers*

Experience	Superintendents	Secondary-school principals, city systems	Supervisors	Directors of subject fields	Assistant superintendents	Heads of departments	Assistant principals	Principals of independent schools
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Teacher of rural elementary school	1.2	1.0	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.5	1.2
Teacher of village or city school	.6	1.1	2.1	1.8	.8	1.3	1.2	.6
Teacher secondary school	2.2	4.7	3.4	5.9	3.4	15.1	8.4	2.2
Principal secondary school	4.4	9.1	.3	.4	5.6	1.0	8.7	5.6
Principal village or city elementary school	2.0	2.8	.3	.3	3.3	.5	.8	.7
Teacher in higher institution	.4	.[illegible]	.6	.6	1.1	.4	.3	.1
Supervisor	.5	[illegible]	9.3	8.2	1.2	.7	.9	.2
Superintendent of schools	13.6	[illegible]	.2	.2	4.5	1.3	.3	2.4
Other school experience	1.8	1.0	.6	1.0	1.6	1.7	4.0	.2

Experience of secondary-school principals.—Principals have served, on the average, 9 years in secondary-school principalships, 4.7 years in secondary-school teaching positions, 2.8 years in elementary-school principalships, and about 1 year in both rural and city elementary-school teaching positions. The facts are available in Table 20. A fact not shown in the table is that principals in cities of more than 100,000 population and in the West had the longest average service in principalships. Also, the average period of experience of principals in the secondary-school principalship ranges from 7.2 years in Group IV to 10.4 years in Group

II, and from 5.6 years in the West to 10 years in the East. Approximately 31 per cent of the secondary-school principals have never taught in secondary schools and 95 per cent—almost all—have never served as assistant principals.

Experience of other staff members.—Assistant superintendents have served as secondary-school principals, on the average, for 5.6 years; as assistant superintendents for 4.5 years; as teachers of secondary schools for 3.4 years; as principals of elementary schools for 3.3 years; and as superintendents for 2.3 years. (See Table 20.) Thus, the principalship of a secondary school and teaching in a secondary school are the most frequent stepping stones to the assistant superintendency. About 76 per cent of the assistant superintendents reported no elementary-school teaching experience, and but 24 per cent no high-school teaching experience. More than two-thirds have never been principals of elementary schools, whereas only about a third have never been principals of secondary schools.

The supervisors reporting have had, on the average, 9.3 years of experience in supervisory positions, 3.4 years in secondary-school teaching positions, and about 21 years in elementary-school teaching positions. Nearly 40 per cent of the supervisors reported no teaching experience in secondary schools and, in spite of the fact that supervisors devote a large part of their time to elementary schools, about 67 per cent report no elementary-school experience. Only 9.9 per cent of the heads of departments have had no teaching experience in high school.

Deans and counselors are recruited chiefly from the ranks of high-school teachers. It is interesting to note the lack of experience of large numbers of these officers in the field both of actual elementary-school and secondary-school teaching.

Experience of principals of independent secondary schools.—The data for principals of independent secondary schools do not differ greatly from those shown for the principals in city-school systems. These principals have served, on the average, about 5.6 years in secondary-school principalships, about 2.4 years in superintendencies, about 2.2 years in secondary-school teaching positions, and about 1.2 years in rural elementary-school positions.

CHAPTER IV : BOARDS OF EDUCATION AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. THE RELATION OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION TO SCHOOLS

In certain school systems the boards of education concern themselves more with the business affairs than with the educational affairs of the schools. In other organizations the responsibility for administrative and supervisory services related to all school matters is delegated to the professional staff employed. There are school systems in which the responsibilities for activities associated with the public schools are delegated by law to local authorities other than the boards of education.

These variations in the relationships among boards of education, the civil authorities, and the school systems are in reality indicative of the evolutionary processes that public-school administration has been experiencing. Although a body of principles has been developed for the administration of public schools, laws, special city charters, and traditions have perpetuated certain peculiar administrative arrangements in the school systems within some States. As a rule these variations from standard practices retard progress rather than serve as bases for experimentation in the development of more efficient management. They do, however, affect materially the nature of the organization that is created for the administration of the schools. In Boston, Mass., the city has been provided with a "Schoolhouse Department" in charge of three commissioners. One member of this commission is selected by the board of education, one by the mayor, and the third is selected by the two other members. A department under the direction of this committee controls the school plant in Boston. Building plans and construction must, however, have the approval of the superintendent of schools.

In Somerville, Mass., the buildings are under the control of a building commissioner who is an appointee of the mayor and entirely independent of the school committee. He

employs the janitors, buys building materials, and submits a budget to the mayor for these and other matters having to do with school buildings. The only connection with the school department is one of recommendation by the superintendent or his assistants as to desirable repairs or improvements designed to make the buildings more suitable educationally.[1]

In a number of cities boards of education are fiscally dependent and do not have the final approval of budgetary requests. In other cities the law provides for an executive in charge of the business affairs of the schools. This individual is responsible directly to the board and operates independently of the superintendent of schools.

Cases can be found in which the position of superintendent of schools was established as the superintendent of the elementary schools. As the public high schools were created in these cities, the principals were made responsible directly to the board or to its committees. Practices thus established were most difficult to overcome as modern methods of administration evolved.[2]

Since the high schools are in more continuous contact with the public through the extracurriculum activities which they carry on, it is held by some that school board members are more disposed to interest themselves in the secondary schools than in the other divisions of the system. In certain respects this may be true, since more specific attention must be given to the regulations prescribed for the use of high-school buildings when they are to be used for other than the regular school work.

Boards of education in school systems operating 12 to 14 years of schooling can not be expected to devote the same attention to the work of the upper grades as can those in systems operating secondary schools only. The reader will note that the principals of high schools of this latter type of school system are in practice the chief school executives and will be considered in this study as superintendents.

It is the purpose of this chapter to bring together the facts gathered in this investigation that reveal any unique re-

[1] Letter from the superintendent of schools, 1931.

[2] Finegan, T. E. Philadelphia School Survey, Child Welfare Organization, Philadelphia, pt. I, ch. I, 1924.

lationships of boards of education with the secondary schools. From the data presented it may be determined whether or not, in the judgment of those responding, boards of education do treat the secondary schools as of primary importance.

1. STANDING COMMITTEES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The general situation as to standing committees.—For a number of years students of educational administration have endeavored to put into practice principles of management that would provide for the handling of school board business without resorting to the standing committees. Although progress in this regard has been made, the present study reveals that about 60 per cent of the cities reporting have standing committees. These facts are consistent with the findings of other recent studies.[3] About 18 per cent of the systems maintaining only secondary schools reported standing committees. The differences in these percentages are in part owing to the fact that the city systems are much larger than those operating township, community, and other independent high schools.

The number of different committees ranged from none to 16 in the cities and from none to 8 in the independent high-school systems. With few exceptions, the larger the city the greater the number of committees.

Standing committees for secondary schools.—A peculiarity found in the reports of the larger school systems in the East was the number of special secondary-school committees of the boards of education. In all there were only 11 of the 135 different kinds of committees found that had responsibilities relating specifically to the secondary schools. Table 21 presents the titles applied to the various committees and the relative frequency with which they were reported.

[3] Deffenbaugh, W. S. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-1930, Office of Education Bulletin, 1931, No. 20, p. 23.
Engelhardt, Fred. Public-School Organization and Administration. Ginn & Co., Ch. IV, 1931.

TABLE 21.—*Percentages of city and independent high-school districts having standing committees for which certain titles are reported*

Title of committee	Per cent of 188 city-school systems	Per cent of 48 independent secondary-school districts
1	2	3
Business and finance	75.5	43.8
Buildings, grounds, and sites	57.4	56.3
Teachers	40.4	47.9
Supplies	26.1	22.9
Rules and regulations	14.4	(1)
Buildings and equipment	12.8	22.9
Education	10.1	6.3
Audits and accounts	9.6	(1)
Textbooks and courses of study	8.0	(1)
Athletics	8.0	10.4
Teachers and textbooks	8.0	(1)
Purchasing	6.9	16.7
Insurance	6.4	(1)
Health and recreation	5.9	(1)
Property	5.9	(1)
Administration (or executive)	5.3	6.3
Elementary schools	4.3	(1)
Cafeteria or lunch room	4.3	(1)
Instruction	4.3	(1)
Athletics and military	3.7	(1)
Janitors	3.7	(1)
Textbooks	3.7	(1)
Textbooks and supplies	3.7	(1)
Evening and continuation schools	3.7	(1)
Hygiene	3.2	(1)
Transportation	3.2	10.4
Library	3.2	(1)

[1] Very few or no cases reported.

3. UNIQUE RELATION OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The case of the independent high schools.—Boards of education perform duties and functions which vary according to the type of school system. In some systems more or less unique relations exist between boards of education and secondary schools. In city school systems the members of the boards of education are usually elected by the voters of the district or are appointed by the municipal officers and have jurisdiction over both elementary-school and secondary-school levels. However, in a number of States legal provision is made for the creation of separate school districts for the control of secondary education only.[4] Examples of these are found in the township and community high schools, the

[4] For a more complete discussion of the legal provisions relating to the establishment and control of separate high-school districts the reader is referred to Monograph No. 8 of the report of the National Survey of Secondary Education.

union and joint union high schools, and the rural high schools. Naturally, school boards controlling secondary education have no control over, and perhaps little interest in, elementary education, and the boards controlling only elementary education may have no great concern for secondary education

It should not be overlooked that in States where these districts controlling only secondary education exist a conscious effort has been made in spite of the difficulties involved to coordinate the work of the two boards and to articulate better the work of the two school levels. Evidence of this is found in the Downers Grove (Ill.) Community High School, where one person serves on both boards of education and thereby enables an interchange of ideas between the boards on mutual problems. The two boards meet together and select a joint superintendent of schools. Nevertheless, each board has definite control over but one school level and may have little interest in the other. In most districts of these types there is no common membership of boards or joint administrative personnel. The boards of education were chosen for the specific purpose of controlling either elementary or secondary education, and as a result show little, if any, concern for the affairs of the other level. Other cases somewhat like the one described above are to be found. For example, in Mendota and Wheaton, Ill., the superintendent of the elementary schools is also superintendent of the township high school. He is employed separately by both boards, is responsible to both boards, and in all ways is the head of two separate systems.

Since the secondary school is not large, a teacher, who has been designated as principal, devotes the major portion of his time to classroom teaching and the remainder to administrative and supervisory work. In Watsonville, Calif., as in some other California communities, the principal of the union high school is at the same time superintendent of the district elementary schools. This fact not only makes possible direct contact between the board and the secondary-school principal, but also makes possible articulation between the elementary and secondary schools. In nearly all secondary schools maintained by separate high-schools districts, official relationships exist between secondary-school principals

and school boards simply because there is no intermediate officer corresponding to the city school superintendent.

Principals as executives.—Secondary schools established by independent school districts, such as the community and township high schools of Illinois, the union high schools of California, the rural and community high schools of Kansas, and the county high schools of the South, usually have no person delegated as superintendent. In these cases the principals of the high schools are the executives and are entirely in charge of the high school and directly responsible to the board of education. Their relation to the board is the same as usually obtains for the superintendent of schools in the typical city or village school systems. In many other instances, the principals of the secondary schools may be appointed also as superintendents of elementary schools for the local community. As reported above, this situation is frequently found in the community, township, county, union, and rural high schools. The individual so chosen is the official head of two school systems, and as such is responsible to two independent boards of education.

Boards of education for special types of high schools.—A number of States authorize the establishment of county high schools. These schools are usually controlled by county boards of education which may or may not control the schools operated in comparatively large communities within the county. In States having either county high schools or State-supported high schools the boards of education for secondary schools devote their attention solely to the work of the secondary schools and not to elementary education.

Special interests of boards in secondary schools.—To the inquiry asking whether boards of education show a different interest in the secondary schools of the city than in the elementary schools, superintendents gave only 31 affirmative replies among 325 responses. Of this number, five were from superintendents of schools in elementary-school systems where the control of secondary education is vested entirely in separate boards of education. One of the 31 replies was from Hartford, Conn., where a peculiar relationship exists by virtue of a unique school district organization in which the high-school district is superimposed on separate elementary-

school districts. Each elementary-school district chooses a school committee of three members, but a separate city board of education chosen by the voters of the city controls secondary education. This board chooses a superintendent for all the schools of the city. In general, however, this city board has no control of elementary schools except in determining the course of study, in selecting textbooks to be used, and in choosing, but not paying, the teachers of manual arts, sewing, and cooking, and also employing an attendance officer for both levels. In all other fields of activity, each board of education has distinctive interests.

The remaining 25 superintendents who indicated that the board shows a different concern for secondary schools than for elementary schools reported a variety of reasons for this difference of interest. The reason most frequently reported for the greater interest shown by board members in secondary-school affairs was the place the extracurriculum assumes in the school and in the community. It also appeared that since better qualified teachers were demanded for the high schools than for the elementary schools and since the secondary-school plant and equipment were more elaborate, boards tended to show greater concern about these phases of school business than when personnel or building issues arose concerning the elementary schools.

Principals and boards of education.—In the typical city or village school system, the whole responsibility for education is vested in one board of education which chooses as its administrative officer a superintendent of schools. Under him, and usually responsible to him, are the various principals of elementary and secondary schools. However, at times conditions arise which cause a deviation from the usual line of authority in certain types of activity.

It is the exceptional case rather than the rule in which one finds a principal of a school dealing directly with the board or its committees. In several city school systems the secondary-school principals report that they have direct and official relationships with the board of education. To an inquiry asking whether or not official relationships existed, principals gave only 20 affirmative replies among 325 returns. In 10 cities the principals reported that they are frequently called before the board or are visited by committees of the

board for the purpose of obtaining information concerning athletics, school repairs, and needed personnel. In two of these cities, the athletic board is composed of the high-school principals and selected board members. In three cities principals report that they regularly attend board meetings and in the other five cities a variety of relationships were reported.

1. FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY OF SPECIFIC INTERESTS OF SCHOOL BOARDS

Excluding the high-school districts, the boards of education referred to in this study have few special secondary-school committees and evidently do not show officially greater interest in the secondary schools than in the elementary schools. Where superintendents are employed, it is rare to find boards of education dealing directly with the high-school principals. In discussing this problem with superintendents in connection with visits to schools, few indicated that the boards of education were more deeply interested in the secondary schools than in the elementary schools.

In certain school systems the boards of education do assume through their committees direct administrative and supervisory control over certain school affairs. Where such a state of affairs exists one may expect to find that preparation of budgets, purchase of supplies and equipment, and the planning of new building construction are among the items over which the boards most frequently hold sway. About 4 per cent of the superintendents reporting in this study indicated that in the activities just enumerated the boards assume rather complete control. The responses of principals for the most part check with the responses of superintendents.

In reference to the authority assumed by boards of education in determining policies relating to the internal administration and supervision of schools the responses of principals and superintendents agree closely. In 5 per cent of the cases boards of education are reported as determining graduation requirements. The other items reported as receiving marked attention by the boards are here listed in order (from greatest to least) of relative responsibility assumed for them by the boards: Curriculum matters, textbook selection, athletics, marking systems, and library books. Superintendents and principals of the East reported that boards assume considerably more responsibility not only for business activities but

also for determining policies and practices relating to the internal administration of secondary schools. Particularly is this true for business activities, which 6.3 per cent of secondary-school principals in the East report are assumed wholly or partially by the board, whereas in all other regions the percentage is no more than 2. Although the responsibility is not frequently assumed by the board of education, the differences between the regions indicate that boards of education in the East assume greater responsibility for determining policies and practices than in the other regions.

TABLE 22.—*The numbers and percentages of all activities reported to be assumed by the board*

Type of school	Business activities and functions			Determination of policies for activities related to specific secondary-school matters		
	Total number of items [1]	Number of items assumed by board	Per cent assumed by board	Total number of items	Number of items assumed by board	Per cent assumed by board
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. City schools reported by principals	3,468	116	3.3	6,834	55	0.8
2. City schools reported by superintendents	5,626	61	1.1	4,423	51	1.2
3. Township high school	495	158	31.9	401	47	11.7
4. Community high school	668	199	29.7	571	81	14.2
5. County high school	1,456	383	26.3	1,201	108	9.0
6. Rural high school	571	190	33.2	483	57	11.8
7. Union high school	1,360	400	29.4	1,103	102	9.2
8. State agricultural high school	86	25	29.0	69	14	20.2
9. All independent secondary schools (groups 3–8)	4,636	1,355	29.2	3,828	409	10.7

[1] The total number of items represents the sum of the number of items reported on by all the respondents.

The most pronounced dissimilarity to be found in the reports for city school systems when compared with the reports of the independent secondary schools is the large difference in the percentage of activities for which boards are reported as assuming either all or part of the responsibility. (See Table 22.) In city school systems, the board of education is not reported by either the superintendents or secondary-school principals as assuming responsibility for more than 3.3 per cent of the total number of business activities. Boards of education responsible for independent secondary schools assume authority for about three-tenths of all business activities.

CHAPTER V: THE DELEGATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY RESPONSIBILITY

1. A COMPLEX PROBLEM FOR INVESTIGATION

A matter of basic importance in school administration is the manner in which the superintendent delegates the responsibilities intrusted to his office to principals and the degree to which the central office performs the work connected with certain important activities. In this study, which attempts to review the condition in this respect for the country at large, it is realized that a clear delineation of conditions is most difficult. The method of securing the data does not make it possible to relate the extent to which responsibilities are delegated to principals to specific patterns of organization. Communities of the same size may not have the same number of building units, and the high school in one city of a given population may be much larger than the high school in another city of the same size. As a rule, elementary schools are organized in most cities in much smaller units than high schools. If these and other local factors are taken into account, the findings of the study may be expected to have considerable significance.

2. COMPARISON OF RESPONSIBILITY OF SUPERINTENDENTS FOR ELEMENTARY AND FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

An analysis of the evidence gathered brings forth convincingly the fact that the superintendent of schools has the same degree of responsibility for secondary schools as for elementary schools. There were only 2 superintendents (328 reporting) who stated that they exercised more authority in the high schools than in the elementary schools, while only 10 indicated that the reverse would be true in their organizations.

In three cities the variation in authority was caused by the fact that the superintendent of schools has no jurisdiction over the other school levels because the elementary schools and the high schools in these places comprise two or more separate school district corporations. The places referred to are Hartford, Conn., and two cities in Illinois in

which township high schools are located within the boundaries of the municipality reporting. Six superintendents stated that the high-school principals are given full responsibility for their schools because of the "better training and preparation" of the persons in charge of these schools. In these cases the superintendents evidently choose to transfer their responsibility completely. In Mariana, Ark., the superintendent reported that he assumes more responsibility for the high schools and delegates the supervision of the elementary schools in most part to the elementary-school principal. This condition obtains in many of the smaller school systems in which the superintendents act also as high-school principals.

An unusual situation was reported by a middle western city and is cited here to indicate the extent to which the personnel employed on the school staff may at times determine the organization. In the city referred to the superintendent has little or no control over one of the local high schools, a situation caused by local political entanglements and the peculiar relationship existing between the principal and certain board members. Three superintendents have served in the city during the past eight years, while the principal of this one high school has been in office for more than a quarter century. Conditions of this kind may be found in other places but they are of relatively infrequent occurrence. They are not the consequences of a peculiar theory of management, but are, as a rule, the outgrowth of poor leadership.

3. *DIFFERENCES IN RESPONSIBILITIES ASSUMED BY SUPERINTENDENTS FOR SECONDARY AND FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS*

Certain differences found.—In the previous section note was made of the fact that few differences exist in the responsibilities assumed by superintendents for elementary and secondary schools. Information was also obtained from superintendents to show whether or not they actually perform functions and duties for one school level which they do not perform for the other. For all schools combined, 12.3 per cent of the superintendents reported that they perform duties and functions for secondary schools which they do not perform for elementary schools. (See Table 23.) At the same time, 18.2 per cent reported the performance of

certain duties for elementary schools which they do not perform for secondary schools. Significant differences in this regard exist among the several population groups and geographical regions. In cities of Group II (30,000 to 100,000 population) the percentage of superintendents reporting the performance of functions for secondary schools but not for elementary schools is only 9.1 per cent as compared with 19.2 per cent in Group IV (5,000 to 10,000 population). Even larger differences exist between schools in the Middle West and those of the West, where 6.9 and 20.7 per cent, respectively, of the superintendents, reported for secondary schools the performance of functions that are not performed for elementary schools.

Types of activities performed for one level but not for the other.—The activities carried on by superintendents in secondary schools only are those relating chiefly to the supervision of instruction and to serving as principal of the high school. Superintendents frequently have their offices in the high-school building and this gives them an opportunity for keeping a closer contact with high-school activities than with elementary-school affairs.

TABLE 23.—*Percentages of systems in which superintendents perform for one school level duties and functions which they do not perform for the other level*

Population group or geographical region	Per cent performing duties	
	For secondary but not for elementary schools	For elementary but not for secondary schools
Group:		
I	15.6	3.0
II	9.1	7.7
III	10.7	23.7
IV	19.2	24.7
Region:		
East	13.4	19.8
Middle West	6.9	18.7
South	16.4	15.0
West	20.7	16.8
All systems combined	12.8	18.2

On the other hand, more than 18 per cent of the superintendents reported that they perform certain activities for elementary schools only. Of the 57 superintendents so reporting, 25 give more detailed attention to supervision in the elementary grades; 4 report the administration of a testing program in the elementary grades; and 1 is also principal of an elementary school. The remainder report miscellaneous duties of administration and organization. The conclusion is that no significant tendencies are apparent with respect to the types of duties and functions which superintendents are likely to perform for one level but not for the other. Local conditions appear to be the major determinants of the variations from standard practices found in the reports.

4. LOCATION OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR ACTIVITIES AND FUNCTIONS

The officers responding.—Each of the inquiry forms submitted to local school officials requested information concerning the responsibility of the superintendent, the principal, and other persons in reference to the determination of policies and practices and in regard to the performance of certain administrative and supervisory activities for secondary schools. The number of superintendents and principals reporting on the functions listed on the inquiry forms is not constant. Some of the activities, such as cafeteria service, are not found in all schools and on some items the superintendents and principals neglected to make responses. However, the number of superintendents usually replying was slightly more than 300, the number of secondary-school principals in city school systems was slightly less than 500, and the number of principals of independent secondary schools was about 275.

Limitations of the data.—It should be remembered that the data of this study have been produced by schoolmen who in general are reasonably well versed in modern educational theory and practice. Consequently, when these persons are asked either to indicate the location of the responsibility for the administration and supervision of the activities and functions or to tell who is responsible for the determination of specific policies and practices, their estimates may at times

be prejudiced in the direction of what they believe to be the most desirable practice. There are other elements difficult to isolate that color the responses; hence the true condition may not always be accurately revealed.

TABLE 24.—*Percentages of superintendents reporting that responsibility for certain administrative and supervisory activities is assumed in whole or in part by the central office, and the ranks of these percentages*

Activities and functions	Wholly by central office		Partially by central office		Either wholly or partially by central office	
	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Budget preparation	69.3	3	27.5	17	96.8	2
Budget administration	78.5	1	18.0	18	96.5	3
Pay roll preparation	74.7	2	15.7	19	90.4	5
Purchase of supplies and equipment	69.1	4	26.1	16	95.2	4
Supervision of physical education	23.4	12	44.4	5	67.8	9
Medical and physical examination	29.7	9	34.4	12	64.1	13
Nurse service	41.9	7	28.6	15	70.5	7
Cafeteria service	18.4	14.5	31.6	13	50.0	17
Supervision of home economics	17.5	16	46.0	4	63.5	16
Supervision of industrial and vocational education	18.4	14.5	48.4	3	66.8	12
Supervision of art instruction	20.0	13	44.0	6	64.0	15
Supervision of music instruction	23.9	11	43.2	7	67.1	10.5
Supervision of instruction in academic subjects	9.5	18	54.9	1	64.4	14
Selection of personnel	47.1	5	50.9	2	98.0	1
Attendance service	39.3	8	30.1	14	69.4	8
Research service	45.6	6	41.1	9	86.7	6
Athletics	5.8	19	38.3	10	44.1	19
Supervision of libraries	13.0	17	36.9	11	49.9	18
Operation of the high-school plant	25.0	10	42.1	8	67.1	10.5
All activities combined	35.9	------	36.7	------	72.6	------

Responsibility for activities assumed by the central office as reported by superintendents.—The responsibility for activities and functions reported least frequently by the superintendents as being wholly assumed by the central office (Table 24) are: Control of athletics, supervision of instruction in the academic subjects, supervision of libraries, supervision of home economics, supervision of cafeterias, supervision of industrial education, and supervision of art. The activities reported most frequently as wholly assumed by the central office are largely related to general administrative and business functions of the entire school system, whereas those reported least frequently relate chiefly to the super-

vision of instruction in subject fields. The central office in addition to assuming complete responsibility for certain functions in a number of systems is also reported by superintendents in certain other systems as bearing a portion of the responsibility.

Responsibility for determining policies.—Superintendents report that the central office assumed considerably less responsibility for the determination of policies and practices in reference to the internal administration and supervision of secondary schools than in the actual administration of activities. (See Table 25.) For the total number of activities combined, only about a fifth of the superintendents reported that policies and practices are determined solely by the central office, and, in addition, less than two-fifths reported partial central office determination.

TABLE 25.—*Percentages of superintendents reporting that certain policies and practices in reference to the internal administration and supervision of schools are determined either in wholeor in part by the central office, and the ranks of these percentages*

Policies and practices	Wholly by central office		Partially by central office		Either wholly or partially by central office	
	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kinds of records to be kept	36.8	1	41.5	6	78.3	3.5
Pupil load	17.1	10	31.4	10	48.5	8
Teacher load	26.1	6.5	40.1	7	66.2	7
Organization of supervision within school	18.7	8	25.8	12	44.5	10
Teaching assignments	11.2	11	23.6	13	34.8	14
Transfer of pupils	26.1	6.5	14.1	14	40.2	12
Organization of guidance in school	6.7	14	29.3	11	36.0	13
Subjects offered	34.1	3.5	56.6	2	90.7	1
Marking systems used	36.0	2	42.3	5	78.3	3.5
Selection of text books	17.2	9	60.6	1	77.8	5
Selection of library books	8.5	12	36.5	8	45.0	9
Research program relating to the school	32.7	5	45.0	4	77.7	6
Graduation requirements	34.1	3.5	52.2	3	86.3	2
Athletics	6.9	13	36.0	9	42.9	11
All activities combined	22.2	.....	38.1	.....	60.3	.....

The policies and practices for which the central office most frequently assumes complete responsibility rank as follows: Kinds of records, subjects offered, graduation requirements, research program for secondary schools, teacher load, and the transfer of pupils. (See Table 25.) A need exists for

certain uniformities within each system in the matter of records, marking systems, graduation requirements, and curriculums. Consequently, it is to be expected that the central office should have more responsibility for determining policies and practices relating to all schools of the systems than for policies pertaining to particular secondary schools, such as those relating to the organization of guidance within the school, the direction of athletics, the selection of library books, the assignment of teachers, and the pupil-teacher load. The determining policies relating to these activities is chiefly restricted to individual secondary schools and is done largely by the principals of these schools.

In the selection of textbooks, the central office assumes partial responsibility in 60 per cent of the cases; in the determination of subjects to be offered in the schools, in 56.6 per cent of the cases; and in the determination of graduation requirements, in 52.2 per cent of the systems. The policies for which the central office is reported to assume the least responsibility are teaching assignments, organization for guidance within secondary schools, transfer of pupils, athletics, and the organization of supervision within secondary schools.

Responsibilities for activities assumed by the central office as reported by secondary-school principals.—The reports of secondary-school principals show the percentages of systems in which the central office assumes complete responsibility for certain business activities and functions. (See Table 26.) It is noticeable that the central office plays a significant part with reference to performing all the business activities listed: For the total number of business activities in all schools combined, principals report complete centralization in approximately 70 per cent of the cases. In addition, since the central office bears a portion of the responsibility in almost 20 per cent of the cases, there remain only approximately 10 per cent of the business activities for which secondary-school principals report no central office responsibility. Principals report that the central office assumes more complete administrative responsibility for the planning of new secondary-school buildings, for preparing the budget, and for administering the budget than for the other activities listed in the table.

TABLE 26.—*Percentages of secondary-school principals reporting that responsibility for certain administrative and supervisory activities is assumed either in whole or in part by the central office, and the ranks of these percentages*

Activities and functions	Wholly by central office		Partially by central office		Either wholly or partially by central office	
	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Business activities:						
Budget preparation	69.1	4	25.8	2	94.9	2
Budget administration	78.5	1	13.8	5	92.3	3
Purchase of supplies and material	70.0	3	18.4	4	88.4	5
Pay roll preparation	68.2	5	13.2	6	81.4	7
Employment of janitors and engineers	75.1	2	9.7	7	84.8	6
Administrative routine	68.1	6	20.6	3	88.7	4
Planning new secondary-school building	61.6	7	34.8	1	96.4	1
All business activities combined	69.9	-------	19.4	-------	89.3	-------
Administrative and supervisory activities:						
Medical and physical examination	43.4	2	37.9	8	81.3	2
Activities of school nurse	49.9	1	36.8	10	86.7	1
Attendance service	27.0	4	36.9	9	63.9	6
Research service	31.3	3	41.1	4	72.4	4
Supervision of physical education	16.8	9	38.6	7	55.4	9
Supervision of academic subjects	5.0	13	32.8	12	37.8	12
Supervision of music	22.0	6	41.6	3	63.6	7
Supervision of art	20.3	8	40.9	5	61.2	8
Supervision of home economics	15.0	10	35.8	11	50.8	11
Supervision of commercial subjects	7.8	12	25.7	13	33.5	13
Supervision of vocational subjects	14.9	11	40.1	6	55.0	10
Selection of textbooks	20.5	7	51.6	2	72.1	5
Selection of subjects offered	22.5	5	57.7	1	80.2	3
All administrative activities combined	22.5	-------	40.1	-------	62.6	-------

Responsibility for administrative activities as reported by principals.—Secondary-school principals, in reporting the location of the responsibility for determining policies relating to administrative and supervisory activities carried on within secondary schools, have indicated that the central office, on the average, assumed complete responsibility for about 22.5 per cent of the total number of activities reported. The central office is also reported as assuming partial responsibility for 40.1 per cent more of the activities. Thus, for about 62.6 per cent of all the activities, the central office assumes either partial or complete responsibility. Complete responsibility is assumed more frequently for supervising the activities of the school nurse, for medical and physical examinations for pupils, for promulgating a research program for secondary schools, for the attendance service, and for

determining the subjects to be offered in the secondary schools. The activities reported with least frequency as completely assumed were the following: Supervision of academic subjects, commercial subjects, home economics, vocational subjects, physical education, and art. It is to be noted from the data presented that the management of all activities relating to the supervision of any particular subject or subjects is reported by principals as not being assumed to any considerable extent by the central office.

TABLE 27.—*Percentages of secondary-school principals reporting that certain policies and practices are determined in whole or in part by the central office, and the ranks of these percentages*

Policies and practices	Wholly by central office		Partially by central office		Either wholly or partially by central office	
	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kinds of records to be kept	27.1	5	32.5	4	59.6	5
Pupil load	18.1	10	20.6	10	38.7	9
Teacher load	24.8	6	24.2	7	49.0	8
Organization of supervision within school	9.3	12	10.8	13	20.1	13
Teaching assignments	6.8	13	14.7	11	21.5	12
Transfer of pupils	20.8	9	11.9	12	32.7	10
Organization for guidance within school	4.0	14	9.2	14	13.2	14
Subjects offered	30.7	3	44.8	2	75.5	1
Marking system used	37.2	1	25.0	6	62.2	4
Selection of textbooks	22.1	8	46.5	1	68.6	3
Selection of library books	10.0	11	21.9	9	31.9	11
Research program relating to school	23.2	7	29.1	5	52.3	7
Graduation requirements	36.2	2	34.7	3	70.9	2
Athletics	29.9	4	23.8	8	53.7	6
All activities combined	19.9	.....	25.0	.....	44.9	.....

Responsibility for determining policies and practices as reported by principals.—Secondary-school principals in reporting the location of the responsibility for determining policies and practices for activities relating to the internal administration of secondary schools have indicated that the central office, on the average, assumes complete responsibility in about 20 per cent of the total number of activities represented. (See Table 27.) They also reported that the policies relating to an additional 25 per cent of the activities are determined in part by the central office, making a total of nearly 45 per cent of the policies and practices relating to these activities which are determined completely or partially by the central

office. This office, according to principals, assumes complete responsibility most frequently for determining policies relating to marking system used, graduation requirements, subjects to be offered, and athletics. The activities reported with least frequency are organization of guidance, teaching assignments, organization of supervision within the school, selection of library books, and pupil load.

Comparison of the reports of superintendents and principals.—Superintendents and principals as groups differ little in their reports on the location of the responsibility for the administration and supervision of all activities and functions combined. Somewhat greater differences are found, however, with respect to their reports concerning the location of the responsibility for determining policies and practices. In each of the comparisons provided in Table 28 it is to be noted that the percentages of schools in which the central office is reported to assume either partial or complete responsibility for the administration of certain activities show that superintendents are somewhat more likely than principals to report the activities as being controlled by the central office.

TABLE 28.—*Percentages of superintendents and principals reporting complete, partial, and complete or partial centralization of responsibility for administration and supervision and for determining policies and practices*

Responsibility and degree of control by central office	Per cent reporting control	
	Superintendents	Principals
Administration and supervision of activities:		
Complete	41.2	41.1
Partial	36.6	30.5
Either complete or partial	77.8	71.6
Policies and practices:		
Complete	22.1	19.9
Partial	38.1	25.0
Either complete or partial	60.3	44.9

5. ACTIVITIES AND FUNCTIONS DELEGATED TO SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS REPORTED BY SUPERINTENDENTS

Reports of superintendents.—In the preceding section of this chapter data were presented showing the extent to which the central office either wholly or partially assumed the responsibility for the administration of certain activities, or either wholly or partially determined policies and practices relating to the internal affairs of secondary schools. In the present section data will be presented to indicate the extent to which the responsibility for administration of activities or responsibility for determination of policies is delegated solely to the secondary-school principals. The reason for not reporting the data which show the extent to which the responsibility is partially delegated to the secondary-school principal is that they correspond closely with those reported by superintendents. This is not always the case, but it is true so frequently that its inclusion would cause an almost superfluous duplication of material.

Superintendents of all groups combined reported that principals have the greatest degree of responsibility for administering the activities relating to athletics, the supervision of libraries, direction of cafeterias, the supervision of academic subjects, the supervision of home economics, and the operation of the high-school plant. (See Table 29.) In no case do as many as half the superintendents report that principals assume complete responsibility for these activities. For all activities combined on which principals reported, 13.5 per cent of the superintendents indicate that secondary-school principals are delegated complete responsibility for the administrative and supervisory activities.

The activities for which the principals are reported by superintendents as having least responsibility are purchasing of supplies and equipment, budget preparation, selection of personnel, budget administration, and pay roll preparation. In none of these activities do more than 7 per cent of the superintendents report complete responsibility as being delegated to principals. The administrative activities for which principals are delegated least responsibility are those for which the central office assumes the greatest degree of responsibility. The opposite is also usually true.

TABLE 29.—*Percentages of superintendents and secondary-school principals reporting certain administrative and supervisory activities as being delegated entirely to secondary-school principals*

Activities and functions	Superintendents		Principals	
	Per cent	Rank [1]	Per cent	Rank [1]
1	2	3	4	5
Athletics	47.4			
Supervision of libraries	45.2			
Direction of cafeterias	33.8			
Supervision of academic subjects	30.9	1	59.5	1
Supervision of home economics	26.1	2	41.4	2
Operation of plant	24.3			
Supervision of physical education	23.7	3	40.7	3
Supervision of industrial and vocational education	22.7	4.5	40.5	4
Attendance service	22.7	4.5	34.8	5
Supervision of art	21.8	6	30.7	6
Supervision of music	17.3	7	27.7	7
Medical and physical examination of pupils	10.7	8	14.5	9
Nurse service	10.1	9	10.5	10
Research service	9.5	10	27.3	8
Pay roll preparation	6.9	11	11.0	11
Budget administration	1.6	12	2.5	12
Selection of personnel	1.1	13	1.4	15
Budget preparation	.6	14	2.4	13.5
Purchase of supplies and equipment	.3	15	2.4	13.5
Supervision of commercial subjects			63.7	
Selection of textbooks			18.7	
Subjects offered			17.6	
Standardization of routine			7.1	
Planning new buildings			1.5	
All activities combined [2]	13.5		22.9	

[1] The rankings are made only for the items reported on by both superintendents and principals.

[2] These data represent only the percentages of superintendents and principals reporting on identical items.

Determination of policies by secondary-school principals.—Secondary-school principals are reported by superintendents and principals to have complete responsibility in dominant proportions of the systems for determining policies relating to assignment of teachers, the organization of guidance within the secondary school, transfer of pupils, organization of supervision in secondary schools, athletics, and pupil load. (See Table 30.) Complete responsibility for determining policies is reported delegated to secondary-school principals least frequently for subjects offered in school, graduation requirements, the selection of textbooks, marking systems used, kinds of records, and the research program relating to secondary schools. The policies for which the principals are delegated the most complete responsibility are those relating to their own individual schools, and the policies for which

they are delegated least responsibility are those relating to the determination of policies that should usually be uniform throughout the system. Superintendents reported that secondary-school principals were delegated responsibility for determining policies and practices in about 35 per cent of the total number of activities reported by all superintendents.

TABLE 30.—*Percentages of superintendents and secondary-school principals reporting certain policies as being determined entirely by secondary-school principals, and the ranks of these percentages*

Policies and practices	Superintendents		Principals	
	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank
1	2	3	4	5
Kinds of records to be kept	12	10.5	38.2	9
Pupil load	48.3	6	55.8	6
Teacher load	30.7	8	46.8	7
Organization of supervision	54.8	4	79.3	2
Teaching assignments	63.4	1	76.7	3
Transfer of pupils	58.5	3	65.0	4
Organization of guidance within secondary schools	62.4	2	83.1	1
Subjects offered	7.1	14	21.3	12
Marking systems used	20.2	10.5	33.4	11
Selection of textbooks	10.0	12	14.1	14
Selection of library books	33.6	7	37.2	10
Research program relating to school	20.8	9	43.3	8
Graduation requirements	8.8	13	20.9	13
Athletics	50.8	5	56.3	5
All activities combined	35.1	.....	47.9	.....

6. ACTIVITIES AND FUNCTIONS DELEGATED TO SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS REPORTED BY PRINCIPALS

The principal and business affairs.—For each activity relating to business affairs a greater percentage of secondary-school principals reported the responsibility delegated to principals than did superintendents. These data are shown for each activity in Table 29. The percentages of principals reporting that they have complete responsibility for business affairs range from 1.4 per cent for the employment of personnel to 11 per cent for the pay roll preparation.

Responsibility for general administrative activities.—It is interesting that the activities relating to the supervision of various subjects and subject-matter fields all rank high with respect to the degree of complete responsibility reported delegated to principals. This fact corresponds with the conclusion drawn with respect to the reports of principals concerning the responsibility assumed by the central office for these super-

visory functions. The activities for which principals reported they had responsibility in a small proportion of the systems are the activities and functions which relate primarily to more than one school in a system. These are the functions for which the central office assumes responsibility.

Responsibility for determining policies and practices.—Secondary-school principals reported that principals have been delegated responsibility for determining policies and practices for almost half of the total number of activities reported by all principals. (See Table 31.) Principals are delegated the responsibility for determining policies relating to their own schools, but the central office retains the responsibility for determining policies which concern all the schools of the system. The percentage of secondary-school principals reporting various policies and practices relating to the internal affairs of secondary schools as determined entirely by the principals ranges from 14.1 per cent for the selection of textbooks to 83.1 per cent for the organization for guidance within the school.

TABLE 31.—*Percentages of superintendents and principals reporting that the secondary-school principal has responsibility for administration and supervision and for determining policies and practices*

Responsibility	Percentages reporting the secondary-school principal as responsible	
	Superintendents	Principals
Administration and supervision of activities	13.6	22.9
Policies and practices	33.1	47.9

7. COMPARISONS OF REPORTS OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS

The general situation as to disagreement.—Principals reported a greater degree of responsibility delegated to secondary-school principals than did the superintendents. Table 31 shows a comparison of the reports of principals and superintendents on identical items with respect to the responsibility for administrative and supervisory activities and the determination of policies and practices relating to the internal affairs of secondary schools. Principals reported that they were delegated complete responsibility in from 9 to 12 per cent more of the total number of activities and policies than were reported by superintendents.

Comparisons of judgments of superintendents and principals in identical systems.—The reports of superintendents and principals of the same systems with respect to the location of responsibility for determining policies and practices for all activities combined are shown in Table 32. An attempt was made to compare the percentages of activities for which superintendents and principals were in complete agreement, in partial agreement, or without agreement as to the location of the responsibility. Complete agreement was considered to be the identical reports by superintendents and principals on the location of responsibility. Partial agreement was considered to be similar reports on one or more elements. For example, if superintendents reported that the responsibility was carried jointly by the central office and by the principal, and the principal reported that it was entirely vested in the central office, one element is the same and partial agreement was recorded. No agreement was recorded for those activities where no elements were similar.

TABLE 32.—*Percentages of all activities combined for which superintendents and principals of the same systems agreed in reports on the location of responsibility*

Group or region	Complete agreement	Partial agreement	No agreement
1	2	3	4
Groups:			
I	38.6	41.1	20.3
II	38.7	45.4	15.9
III	41.0	44.7	14.3
IV	48.6	33.4	18.0
Region:			
East	40.6	44.6	14.8
Middle West	44.4	37.8	17.8
South	42.0	40.7	17.3
West	36.4	32.5	31.1
All combined	41.6	41.7	16.7

Some differences are in evidence among the various groups and regions, but these are usually not large. The largest extent of complete agreement is reported in Group IV and the Middle West and West. Although the differences are not large, the data indicate that principals and superintendents have a better common understanding of the location of the responsibility for determining policies and practices

in the smaller communities; at least complete agreement is recorded more frequently by superintendents and principals of small cities than of larger ones. This may be accounted for by the fact that in smaller systems the responsibility for policy determination is definitely located in the board, the superintendent, or the secondary-school principal. In larger systems the more complex forms of organization frequently cause the responsibility for determination of policies for particular activities to be less easily understood.

Superintendents and principals agree most often when the responsibility is reported as being delegated completely to one agency. Data on this subject were tabulated but have not been shown in tabular form. For instance, perfect agreement is reported between superintendents and principals for 66 per cent of all activities for which the policies are reported as determined by the principals. This tendency for the extent of agreement to be higher when the responsibility is vested completely in one official is natural and significant. When the responsibility is completely delegated to one official or the other, the location of the responsibility is clear-cut and evident. Assuming for the moment that the estimates of superintendents are correct as to the location of the responsibility for the determination of policies relating to particular activities, it would appear that only when the responsibility for the different activities is actually delegated to the secondary-school principals, do the latter know its location. In other words, when principals do not bear the responsibility, they are far less likely to agree with the superintendents in their reports on its location. This would imply, particularly in larger cities, the necessity for the dissemination of information relative to the functions and duties of various administrative and supervisory officers so that all may have an understanding of what are the duties and functions of other officers.

The most significant fact in the comparison of the reports of superintendents and principals with respect to the responsibility for determining policies and practices is the similarity of the responses. (See Table 33.) However, marked differences exist with respect to the reports of superintendents and principals regarding the delegation of policy-determining

responsibility to secondary-school principals. The reports of principals indicate a much larger percentage of systems where the responsibility is completely delegated to principals than do the reports of the superintendents. On no one of the 14 activities mentioned do superintendents report a greater frequency. For certain activities such as the research program relating to secondary schools, organization for guidance within the school, and the organization of supervision within the school, the differences between the estimates of principals and superintendents are more than 20 per cent.

TABLE 33.—*Percentages of superintendents and principals reporting location of responsibility for determining policies and practices in reference to administrative activities in secondary schools*

Administrative activities	Percentages of activities relating to policies and practices completely determined by—					
	Central office		High-school principals		Agencies other than central office or principal	
	Reports of superintendents	Reports of principals	Reports of superintendents	Reports of principals	Reports of superintendents	Reports of principals
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kinds of records to be kept	36.8	27.1	20.2	38.2	0.9	1.4
Pupil load	17.1	18.1	48.3	55.8	1.2	2.2
Teacher load	26.1	24.8	30.7	46.8	1.6	2.0
Organization of supervision within school	18.7	9.3	54.8	79.3	.3	0
Teaching assignments	11.2	6.8	63.4	76.7	.9	.6
Transfer of pupils	26.1	20.8	58.5	65.0	.9	1.0
Organization for guidance within school	6.7	4.0	62.4	83.1	.6	2.1
Subjects offered in the school	34.1	30.7	7.1	21.3	1.2	1.8
Marking system used	36.0	37.2	20.2	33.4	.9	3.0
Selection of textbooks	17.2	22.1	10.0	14.1	7.2	11.0
Selection of library books	8.5	10.0	33.6	37.2	11.0	13.6
The research program relating to the school	32.7	23.2	20.8	43.3	1.2	1.7
Graduation requirements	34.1	36.2	8.8	20.9	3.8	5.7
Athletics	6.9	8.0	50.8	56.3	1.9	5.2
All combined	22.2	19.9	35.1	47.9	2.4	3.7

Size of school related to the percentages of activities delegated entirely to principals.—The size of the school plays an almost negligible part in determining the percentage of activities for which principals are delegated sole responsibility. Data on this subject were compiled but are not presented here

in tabular form. For all schools combined, the median percentages of activities delegated to secondary-school principals, based on data supplied by principals, range from 35 in schools of 2,000 to 2,500 enrollment to about 40 in schools of less than 1,500 enrollment.

TABLE 34.—*Median percentages of activities for which the responsibility is delegated entirely to secondary-school principals as shown in their own reports. (Classification based on type of school)*

Group or region	Junior high school	Senior high school	Junior-senior high school	4-year high school
1	2	3	4	5
Group:				
I	20.0	33.3	[1] 37.5	40.1
II	30.2	48.3	[1] 55.0	48.0
III	40.0	52.5	47.5	52.5
IV	42.5	37.5	35.6	54.4
Region:				
East	30.4	43.3	34.3	50.0
Middle West	31.4	48.3	41.9	42.5
South	23.8	47.1	45.0	46.5
West	30.8	28.8	55.0	55.0
All combined	31.4	44.5	[1] 41.0	49.8

[1] Median based on fewer than 10 cases.

Type of school and the percentages of activities delegated to principals.—Some superintendents delegate more complete responsibility to the principals of regular 4-year high schools than to the principals of any other type of secondary school. (See Table 34.) The median percentages of activities for which sole responsibility is delegated to the principals range from 31.4 for senior high school principals to 49.8 for principals of regular 4-year high schools. Principals of junior high schools are delegated the least complete responsibility. Data available in this study do not reveal why principals of 4-year high schools are delegated more responsibility than the principals of any other type. The fact that the 4-year high school is an older institution and in charge of principals with longer tenure may account in part for the differences noted. On the other hand, the responses in this investigation may be from school systems that are continuing with the 4-year high school and have not been affected by recent developments in educational administration. Since the

staff organization in many junior high schools has been recruited from the elementary-school organization, one might be led to believe that the relationships between the central office and junior high schools in these systems may correspond more closely to the condition that obtains in the administration of the elementary schools. Also, it must be remembered that the central office may give more attention to newer institutions than to older units in the system.

8. THE RELATIONSHIP OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

The situation in individual States.—It was asserted earlier in this report that principals of independent secondary schools are usually responsible directly to boards of education. In consequence of this, principals of independent secondary schools frequently report types of official relationships with the county boards of education and with county superintendents that are not reported by principals of other types of schools.

County superintendents are reported as members of boards controlling independent secondary schools in 26 per cent of the community high schools (as in Kansas), in 10 per cent of the township high schools, in none of the rural high schools, in 80 per cent of the county high schools, and in almost 3 per cent of the union high schools. In Illinois, no community high school reported that it was controlled by a board of which the county superintendent is a member. In Kansas, however, the law provides that the "county superintendent of public instruction shall be ex-officio chairman of the community high-school board, with power to cast the deciding vote in case of a tie."[1]

Seventy-two out of ninety county high school principals reported that the county superintendents served on their school boards. In Tennessee, the law provides that the county superintendent not only shall serve on the executive committee of the board but shall also be its secretary. This is true of all county high schools in this State excepting those which are considered a part of the county high-school system

[1] Revised School Laws of Kansas, 1927, p. 135.

by virtue of counties contracting with cities to furnish educational facilities to rural pupils.[2]

In Mississippi the county superintendent serves as an ex-officio member of the board of education which controls the county agricultural high schools.[3] The Alabama school code of 1927 provides that the county high schools and all other high schools which have been established by the county board of education shall constitute a system of high schools for the county. It further provides that by agreement between county boards of education and city school boards of education the high schools located in cities or towns of 2,500 or more inhabitants may be utilized as a part of the high-school system of the county.[4] The county superintendent is the chief executive officer of the county board of education and also serves as secretary of the board which governs the county high schools except those conducted by agreement between the city and county boards of education. Each of the 20 county high schools of Montana is governed by a county board of education on which the county superintendent serves as a member. The same is true of the county high schools of Colorado.

Responsibility of principals of independent secondary schools to the county superintendent.—Principals of independent secondary schools are often directly responsible to the county superintendent for the performance of certain duties and functions. Almost two-thirds of the principals of community, township, rural, and union high schools reported that they are directly responsible to the county superintendent. Approximately 73 per cent of the principals of county high schools make similar reports.

The type of responsibility existing in the county unit States such as Alabama, Tennessee, Georgia, and Maryland is widely different from the types of responsibility existing in States where the county superintendent has chiefly super visory and advisory functions. Thus, in Illinois, the principals of township and community high schools have direct relationships with county superintendents only in matters

[2] Public-School Laws of Tennessee, 1925, p. 37.
[3] Laws of Mississippi, 1924, p. 45.
[4] Alabama School Code, 1927, pp. 167–168.

pertaining to the certification of teachers, the making of periodic reports, teachers' institutes, and certain other general cooperative relationships. In Kansas, the same general type of relationship exists. However, in the case of the community high schools in this State the county superintendent is an ex-officio member of the board, a fact which establishes a somewhat different type of relationship. Nevertheless, the county superintendent, as a member of a board of education, acts in the same capacity as the other members, and performs the duties of his office as superintendent in the same manner as any other county superintendent.

In Washington, Oregon, and Wisconsin the principals of the union high schools have only minor relationships with the county superintendents in matters of reports, records, and in the general oversight of all education within the county. County superintendents usually deal more directly with the principals of county high schools. A county high school is a part of a county system and under a county board of education of which the county superintendent is usually the secretary and executive officer. The relationship between the principals of the county high schools and the county superintendent is comparable to the relationship existing between the principal of a city high school and the superintendent of public schools for the city.

Space will not permit a detailed analysis of the duties and functions of county superintendents in relation to the county high schools. For this purpose the reader is referred to Monograph No. 8 of the report of the National Survey of Secondary Education entitled District Organization and Secondary Education.

It must suffice to say that in most instances the county superintendent is empowered to make recommendations concerning the control of the county high schools, supervise these schools, recommend employees, assign teachers, require reports, submit budgets, issue warrants, and perform such other duties in relation to these schools as may be required by the county board of education.

CHAPTER VI : THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES

1. STUDYING VARIATIONS IN ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES

One will not find it necessary to visit many school systems to find differences in the manner in which specific activities, classed among business and educational affairs, are arranged for performance. In the study of the various practices found in school systems one will also note that existing conditions are caused by factors that are completely out of the range of influence of the boards of education or of the superintendent of schools. Even in those situations in which the superintendent of schools is delegated full administrative control of all matters pertaining to the schools, it will frequently be found that school activities are not conducted in the same manner in systems judged to be comparable.

A dominant aim of the National Survey of Secondary Education has been to review those administrative and supervisory practices that may be classed as unique in order to ascertain the direction that the development and the improvement in school affairs are taking. To this end the responses of superintendents and principals were carefully studied with a view to visiting those systems and schools in which the organizations set forth in the report portrayed singular situations.

While studying the reports and during visits the investigators were impressed with the degree to which variations in practice were caused by peculiarities in law or because the executive was forced to adjust his plan of organization to the personnel employed. It was rare to find among the organizations judged to be innovational a situation in which the plan in operation was the expression of a new hypothesis that was being tried out and evaluated.

2. ACTIVITIES PECULIAR TO THE CENTRAL OFFICE

Activities classed as business.—If one excludes those systems in which the management of the business activities is not in the hands of the educational offices, one will find that the

plans for directing the work dealing with the secondary-school budget, the pay roll, building planning, and the operation and maintenance of the plant are frequently under central office control and execution. It is unusual when high-school principals have much to do with these matters.

TABLE 35.—*Percentages of systems in which the responsibility for certain activities is assumed wholly by the central office or delegated wholly to secondary-school principals*

Activity and function	Responsibility assumed by—			
	Central office		Secondary-school principals	
	In reports from superintendents	In reports from principals	In reports from superintendents	In reports from principals
1	2	3	4	5
Attendance service	39.3	27.0	22.7	34.8
Medical and physical examination	29.7	43.4	10.7	14.5
Supervision of libraries	13.0	(1)	45.2	(1)
Management of cafeterias	18.4	(1)	33.8	(1)
Supervision of academic subjects	9.5	5.0	30.9	59.5
Planning new buildings	(1)	61.6	(1)	1.5
Research service	45.6	31.3	9.5	27.3
Selection of personnel	47.1	75.1	1.1	1.4
Budget preparation	69.3	69.1	.6	2.4
Budget administration	78.5	78.5	1.6	2.5
Purchasing supplies and equipment	69.1	70.0	.3	2.4
Pay roll preparation	74.7	68.2	6.9	11.0
Plant operation and maintenance	25.0	(1)	24.3	.....

[1] No reports on these activities.

A review of the data in Table 35 reveals the extent to which this statement is true. Whether or not this plan of administration is sound depends upon the principles underlying the scheme of organization. In certain school systems the responsibilities for the performance of business affairs are centralized on the assumption that they can be performed more economically and efficiently under such a plan. It is likewise held that through centralization the secondary-school principals are free to devote more time to the specific problems of their schools. It is also contended that, if principals participate in the creation of standard practices that relate to budgetary allowances, to salary schedules, to the quantity and quality of supplies and equipment to be used, and to standards essential to designing satisfactory

school buildings there is no occasion for principals to be concerned with the administrative routine associated with the management of business affairs, provided the central office operates efficiently. On the other hand, there are superintendents who follow the same theory that dictates the actions of some boards of education. These executives believe that it is not essential to the efficient management of a school system to have the secondary-school principal concerned in any way in the business affairs. The latter theory applied in a form in which principals have little or nothing to say about the business activities is not so commonly found in practice.

Building planning.—Sixty-two per cent of the principals reported that the central office assumes full control over the planning of new high-school buildings. Only 4 principals of the 474 reporting from city school systems indicated that they were assigned the duty of planning a new structure. In 35 per cent of the responses the principals indicated that they were accustomed to cooperate in the performance of the functions connected with planning the plant program.

The purchase of supplies and equipment.—As was to be expected, a very large proportion of the superintendents and principals reported complete central office responsibility for the purchase of supplies, equipment, and materials. The degree to which principals participate in the determination of standards to be applied to the quality and quantity of goods to be purchased is not ascertainable from the data received. Almost no superintendents and only about 2.4 per cent of the secondary-school principals reported complete delegation of responsibility to the secondary-school principals. In many cities the control of purchasing supplies and equipment is delegated largely to a business manager who handles all matters pertaining to school finance. In some systems he is a subordinate officer to the superintendent being chosen by him and responsible to him. In other cities he is chosen directly by the board of education and is responsible only to the board. In these cases of "dual control," the business activities are carried on sometimes independently of educational affairs. The system in Highland Park, Mich., is an illustration of the type of organization in which an assistant superintendent, called the business manager, is in

charge of the business department. This department is under the immediate supervision of the superintendent of schools, who is in turn directly responsible to the board of education. Business affairs are administered under six heads: (1) Purchasing, storing, distribution, and accounting for supplies, (2) textbooks, (3) maintenance, (4) operation, (5) accounting, and (6) transportation. The purchasing department includes a purchasing clerk, an assistant, and a stockkeeper. Purchases are made regularly on bids after items have been approved by the board of education. The requisitions are made by principals of elementary or secondary schools, on approval of the business manager, and are filled by the purchasing and stock department.

The preparation of the pay roll.—Superintendents and principals agree fairly well on the location of the responsibility for pay roll preparation for the high-school staff. The former report that the responsibility is assumed entirely by the central office in about three-fourths of the systems, while the latter report that this is true in almost seven-tenths. The superintendents and principals reported this responsibility as completely delegated to secondary-school principals in about 7 and 11 per cent of the systems, respectively. In all, 22 superintendents in a total of 320 reported that principals assume complete authority and responsibility for this duty. Some of these systems are as follows: Erie, Pa.; Wilmington, Del.; Fort Wayne, Ind.; Wichita, Kans.; Altoona, Pa.; Davenport and Dubuque, Iowa; Beaumont, Tex.; Ottawa, Kans.; and Logan City, Utah. In some systems the business office bears the responsibility for pay roll preparation. In reviewing the actual practices in city school systems it was clear that in many cases the office of the principal prepared monthly time reports for all employees in his building and these statements formed the basis for pay roll preparation. In reality in these instances pay roll responsibility was located in the central office.

Operation and maintenance of the plant.—Superintendents in systems in which the boards of education are responsible for the plant report that the authority for the operation of the plant is assumed completely by the central office in 25 per cent of the systems, is delegated completely to the secondary-school principal in about the same percentage

of the systems, and controlled jointly by the central office and principals in about 37 per cent of the systems. Principals did not make reports on this activity.

In Waltham and Somerville, Mass., the janitorial staff is responsible to the superintendent only through the business office. However, the appointments of the janitorial staff, clerical workers, and attendance officers are subject to the rules and regulations of the State civil service commission.

To the business office is delegated the responsibility for operation and maintenance of secondary schools in Erie, Pa.; Bridgeport, New Haven, and Hartford, Conn. In the first three cities named the business office is not responsible to the superintendent. Functions and duties pertaining to plant operation are frequently conducted independently of his knowledge and possibly against his wishes. Ample authority may be found to point out the possible evils of the "dual system" of organization which fails to centralize the control of educational and business activities in the hands of the superintendent of schools. Interviews held with superintendents and principals in systems where the "dual system" of organization obtains brought out the fact that the business office at times attempts to regulate educational activity with the almost inevitable lack of harmony and loss of educational efficiency.

3. THE CENTRAL OFFICE AND CERTAIN EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES[1]

Attendance.—Less than a third of the principals and more than a third of the superintendents reported that the central office assumes full responsibility for the attendance service. (See Table 43.) The proportions are in the reverse order for those reporting that the responsibility for this service is placed with secondary-school principals. In certain systems visited, the high-school office assumed only the responsibility of reporting to the attendance division in the central office the individuals who were absent and who had violated the attendance regulations. In a few systems the visiting teacher, the school nurse, or the attendance officer, although responsible to a division in the central office, is

[1] Responsibility for supervision will be treated in a subsequent chapter. Because other projects of the National Survey of Secondary Education deal with the selection of the staff and with research (see Monographs Nos. 12 and 15, respectively) these 2 activities will not be treated in this particular report.

assigned to specific schools to cooperate with the principals in handling the cases involving irregular attendance. In these systems the problems of guidance, health, attendance, and the various clinics and social agencies organized about the schools endeavored to cooperate to bring about a more effective handling of problem cases. In reality, each school assumes the full burden of responsibility for each problem case until all the available services have been utilized. It is only as a last resort that the individual is referred to the central office. In some school systems, as indicated, the child is reported to the central office for attention as soon as school regulations have been violated. These basic differences in policy regarding the treatment of the problem child attending secondary schools are not so easily detected until one observes the operation of the organizational machinery set up for the control of attendance, health, and social service.

Medical service and physical examinations.—The responsibility for medical and physical examination of school children and for the supervision of the activities of the school nurses is assumed largely by the central office. Principals are reported by superintendents as being delegated the responsibility for this function in about a ninth of the systems. The reports of principals indicate the delegation of this responsibility to principals in a slightly greater proportion of the systems.

A study of school systems and their organizations reveals certain barriers that create difficulties in progressively developing the health services and in coordinating them with the activities related to them. Medical and physical examinations and nurse service are usually provided by one or a combination of the following methods: By boards of education, by the city or county boards of health, or by philanthropic agencies or volunteered services. Combined services of various kinds are frequently found. For instance, a school district may employ a school nurse; certain physicians and dentists may donate their services for medical inspection; civic clubs may supply the funds needed for treating the defects of pupils whose parents are unable to bear the expense of proper treatment.

In the cities of Somerville, Mass., and Bridgeport and New Haven, Conn., the problem is a municipal affair. Physicians

and nurses are employed and paid by the city or by the city board of health. Nurses in Bridgeport are sent directly to the schools. In New Haven, the board of health pays for first-aid treatment administered to pupils at school.

In Nashville, Tenn., the chief medical inspector and his assistants are directly responsible to the superintendent of schools and the board of education. An example of cooperation among the various agencies is shown in Owensboro, Ky. Preliminary eye examinations are made by teachers who have been trained for the work; dental examinations are made by dentists who have donated their services; the school district has employed a full-time nurse; the rotary club has donated a fund which has supplied more than 30,000 free lunches to poor children during the last three years; and the county health officer has rendered valuable service particularly during epidemics of contagious diseases.

Library service.—The administrative organization for library service in high schools, in public-school systems as whole and in the communities appears to be in the formative state. There is no general agreement as to what constitutes the fundamental principles on which an organization should be erected. Superintendents of schools and other educators are not agreed that the responsibility for all library services in a community should be placed with the board of education. Librarians of municipal libraries are generally of the belief that municipal libraries should be operated independently of school libraries. School officials in large communities appear to be skeptical regarding the efficiency of making the school library a branch city library for general public use. These differences of opinion are largely due to the rapid development of the use of the library in secondary schools. The need exists for much careful study in connection with the organization of library services in public schools.

The superintendents reported that the supervision of libraries is assumed by the central office in 13 per cent of the systems and is delegated entirely to the secondary-school principals in 45 per cent. (See Table 35.) Practices vary considerably over the country. For example, in Highland Park, Mich., all libraries in the city schools are under a head librarian and a library board appointed by the superintend-

ent who are directly responsible to him in the performance of their duties. Funds are secured from the county, as well as from regular appropriations, by the board of education.

In many cities, a close relationship exists between the public library and the public schools. In Bayonne, N. J., while the free public library is not an integral part of the school system, its resources are placed at the service of the public schools. In Cleveland, Ohio, the board of education and the public library have each contributed funds for the purchase of books in the high-school libraries. The equipment and rooms are supplied by the boards of education, while the supervision and the majority of the staff salaries have been furnished by the public library.[2]

In Erie, Pa., a board of library trustees, with a head librarian, has been created for control of the public library. This board is made up of five citizens chosen by the board of school directors, the president of the board, and the superintendent of the schools. In addition to the branches of the public library established throughout the city, there is a library in every elementary school provided from the fund appropriated in the library budget and administered by the extension department of the public library. School libraries in junior and senior high schools have no connection with the public library, but are maintained as one of the school activities and supported from school funds. The public library and its branches are financed from school funds. The board of library trustees makes up its budget each year to cover the amount recommended for the following year. This budget is then submitted to the board of school directors for approval.

The management of cafeterias.—Only about 71 per cent of the secondary schools for which data were available reported cafeterias. Cafeteria service is found most frequently in schools of the larger systems. Superintendents reported that the central office assumes complete control in only about 18 per cent of the systems, whereas they reported that complete responsibility is delegated to principals in nearly 34 per cent of the systems. Other agencies bear the responsibility in about 12 per cent of the schools.

[2] Report of the Superintendent of School, Senior High Schools, Cleveland, Ohio, 1930, p. 216.

CHAPTER VII : CLERICAL SERVICE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. THE CLERICAL SERVICE PROVIDED

The general situation.—Among the obstacles to an adequate organization for supervision in secondary schools most frequently reported by educational officials are the teaching load carried by the principal and his burden of routine and clerical duties. Although a thorough-going study of office practices has already been made and reported,[1] it was essential that the issue of clerical assistance be considered in this investigation along with the other factors contributing to the problems of organization for supervision.

TABLE 36.—*Percentages of secondary schools for which clerical assistance is reported and the median number of clerks supplied*

Group, region, and type of school	Percentages of schools reporting clerical assistance—		
	Yes	No	Clerical service (in full-time clerks)
1	2	3	4
Group:			
I	96.6	3.4	2.0
II	88.8	11.2	1.6
III	81.7	18.3	1.3
IV	65.3	34.7	.9
Region:			
East	83.0	17.0	1.5
Middle West	81.4	18.6	1.4
South	90.0	10.0	1.3
West	98.0	2.0	1.8
All city high schools combined	85.4	16.6	1.5
Community high schools	39.0	61.0	.7
County high schools	38.0	62.0	.6
Rural high schools	22.9	77.1	.5
Township high schools	30.0	70.0	.6
Union high schools	35.8	64.2	.6
All independent secondary schools combined	34.3	65.7	.6

In cities of more than 100,000 population clerical assistance is furnished in all but 3.4 per cent of the secondary schools, whereas in cities of less than 10,000 population clerical assistance is supplied in approximately 65 per cent of the schools. (See Table 36.) In the West clerical aid

[1] Reavis, W. C., and Woellner, R. C., Office Practices in Secondary Education. Chicago, Laidlaw Bros., 1930. 240 pp.

is given in 98 per cent of the schools. Only about 34 per cent of the principals of independent secondary schools have reported that clerical assistance is furnished them, a condition no doubt affected by the size of school when one compares city school systems with the independent high schools.

Number of clerks provided.—The median number of equivalent full-time clerks is 2 in cities of Group I, as compared with 0.9 in cities of Group IV. (See Table 36.) The smallest number of clerks is supplied to principals of Southern schools while the principals in schools of the West are given the most assistance. The principals of the different types of independent secondary schools are on the average furnished only slightly more than the services of a clerk for half time.

The size of schools is important in determining not only the number of clerks needed but also the number furnished. The coefficients of correlation between the number of clerks furnished secondary-school principals and the size of the school (as measured by enrollments) were 0.79 for city schools and 0.8 for independent secondary schools. City schools with enrollments of fewer than 500 have a median of 1.2 clerks; for schools of 500 to 1,000 the median is 1.4; for schools of 1,000 to 1,500 the median is 2; and the median school with more than 1,500 pupils has about 3 clerks.

Selecting clerks.—Data presented in Table 37 show both the officials by whom clerks are selected and also the officials to whom they are responsible in the performance of their duties. Superintendents are reported as having the most responsibility for the selection of the clerical workers in cities of less than 10,000 and least responsibility in cities of more than 100,000 population. In the West superintendents are reported as selecting the clerical staff for about 19 per cent of the schools as compared with about 28 per cent in the Middle West and 31 per cent in the South. Principals choose the clerks in from 36 per cent of the schools in cities of Group I to 59 per cent in Group IV; and they assume least responsibility for this function in the East and most in the South. A civil service commission chooses the clerks for about 15 per cent of the schools in cities of more than 100,000, and in about 5 to 7 per cent of the schools in the Middle West and East. The school board assumes the responsibility chiefly in the

cities of more than 100,000 and in the East, whereas the business manager has the responsibility more frequently in largest cities and in the West. Although the data are not presented in tabular form, it should be asserted that superintendents assume somewhat more responsibility for the selection of the clerical staff for secondary schools with enrollments of fewer than 1,000 than for schools of more than 1,000 enrollment, whereas principals seemingly are delegated somewhat more authority for schools with enrollments of fewer than 500 than for those of any other size.

TABLE 37.—*Percentages of clerks for secondary schools selected by various officials and percentages of clerks responsible to each of several types of officials, as reported by secondary-school principals*

Agency	Group				Region				All city schools combined	Independent secondary schools
	I	II	III	IV	E.	M. W.	S.	W.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Selected by—										
Superintendent	22.5	25.6	23.3	26.6	22.0	27.6	30.7	18.8	24.1	27
Assistant superintendent	2.7	1.3	-----	-----	.8	-----	1.6	4.2	1.0	-----
Principal	36.0	53.9	67.2	59.4	47.0	56.0	59.7	52.1	53.5	68
Business manager	3.6	6.4	-----	1.6	1.5	.8	-----	6.3	2.7	-----
Civil service commission	15.3	-----	-----	3.1	4.5	7.0	-----	8.3	5.1	-----
School board	12.6	2.6	6.9	9.4	17.4	7.0	6.5	4.2	8.1	4
Others	7.2	10.3	2.6	-----	6.8	1.6	1.6	6.3	5.5	1
Responsible to—										
Superintendent	.9	1.3	6.0	18.8	2.3	7.1	12.9	2.1	5.7	26
Principal	96.4	93.6	91.4	79.7	95.5	89.0	83.9	95.8	91.3	70
School board	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	3
Others	2.7	5.2	2.6	1.6	2.3	3.9	3.2	2.1	3.0	1

In more than half of the 369 secondary schools for which data are available the principals reported that they are responsible for the selection of the clerical staff. The reports also indicated that superintendents are responsible in about 24 per cent, school boards in 8 per cent, and civil service commissions and business managers in about 8 per cent. The principals of independent secondary schools select the clerks in 95 per cent of the cases and the school board in the remaining 5 per cent.

Responsibility of clerks.—According to the reports of principals, clerks are responsible to secondary-school principals in more than 90 per cent of the 369 schools for which data are at hand. (See Table 37.) In the larger cities the percentage

of systems in which clerks are responsible to the superintendent is less than in the smaller cities and the percentage of systems in which clerks are responsible to principals increases as the population of the cities increases. Differences among the geographical regions are smaller than among the population groups. In the South the percentage of systems where the clerks are responsible to the superintendent is about 15 per cent as compared with only about 2 per cent in the East and West. In the independent secondary schools the clerks are responsible to superintendents in 27 per cent of the systems and to principals in 70 per cent of the systems. A portion of the 27 per cent may be explained by the fact that the administrative head frequently is referred to as either superintendent or principal.

Clerical assistance to staff members employed in schools.—More than 62 per cent of the principals reported that the clerks assist teachers and other staff members. (See Table 38.) The percentage of clerks rendering this service increases as the population of the cities in which schools are located increases. In cities of more than 100,000 population, 305 (72 per cent) of 491 principals reported that clerks give time to teachers or administrative officers. In schools of the South approximately half of the principals indicated that clerical assistance was given administrative staff members as compared with 86 per cent in the West. Clerical assistance not only is more frequently supplied to principals of secondary schools in larger cities and the West but is also more frequently furnished other administrative officials.

Data not presented in tabular form in this report indicate that of principals who reported that clerks devote time to administrative staff members, 67 per cent indicated that teachers were given assistance, 28 per cent indicated that the assistant principal was given assistance, 17 per cent stated that the department heads were furnished aid, about 11 per cent stated that deans received assistance, and nearly 8 per cent reported that counselors were given some clerical aid. In a few instances principals reported that directors of attendance, directors of guidance, school nurses, and supervisors received some clerical assistance. Teachers are given clerical aid most frequently in the smaller cities.

TABLE 38.—*Percentages of secondary schools in which clerks give assistance to persons other than the principals*

Group, region or type of school	Giving time to staff members—		Giving time to other agencies
	Responsible to principal	Not responsible to principal	
1	2	3	4
Group:			
I	71.8	6.2	8.4
II	65.7	11.1	7.0
III	64.5	9.3	3.5
IV	44.7	12.2	1.8
Region:			
East	57.5	10.8	2.9
Middle West	64.4	9.1	5.2
South	52.2	8.9	3.2
West	85.8	7.6	14.3
All city schools combined	62.1	9.5	5.1
Independent secondary schools	22.1	4.6	3.2

Principals of independent secondary schools reported clerical assistance for staff officers less frequently than did the principals of city secondary schools. Staff members are reported as receiving aid in about 14 per cent of the rural high schools, 19 per cent of the township high schools, 21 per cent of the community high schools, 23 per cent of the union high schools, and 26 per cent of the county high schools. For all independent types combined clerical aid is given staff members in about 22 per cent of the cases.

Clerical assistance to school officials not responsible to principals.—Almost 10 per cent of the secondary-school principals with clerical assistance reported that their clerks give time to school officials who are in no way responsible to them. This practice is reported somewhat more frequently in smaller cities and in the East. When clerks devote some of their time to the officials not responsible to the principal their time is usually given to the superintendent, to the central office staff, to directors of attendance, or to the other secondary-school principals. The clerks serving other school officials not responsible to the principal usually give approximately 30 per cent of their time to these officials. Less than 5 per cent of the principals in independent secondary schools reported that clerks devote time to officials not responsible to the secondary-school principal. These clerks devote time

to the school board and to the superintendent of elementary schools. When they serve such officials they give about 30 per cent of their time to this work.

Service given by clerks to other persons or agencies.—Only about 5 per cent of the principals of city systems and only about 3 per cent of the principals of independent secondary schools with clerical assistance reported that their clerks render service to persons or agencies not responsible to either the principal or the superintendent. The reader interested can note in Table 46 any significant variations by population groups or regions.

TABLE 39.—*Median amount in dollars spent for clerical assistance during school year 1929–30 by the secondary schools reporting*

Group, region, and type of school	Number of reports	Number of dollars spent
Group:		
I	104	1,538
II	79	1,179
III	126	818
IV	92	434
Region:		
East	145	1,021
Middle West	139	785
South	71	802
West	46	1,583
Enrollment:		
Fewer than 500	118	399
500–999	169	936
1,000–1,499	70	1,250
1,500–1,999	27	2,250
2,000 and more	17	3,312
All city schools combined	401	962
Community high schools	42	350
County high schools	81	302
Rural high schools	33	258
Township high schools	30	300
Union high schools	76	297
All independent secondary schools combined	262	306

Amount expended for clerical service.—The median number of dollars expended by secondary schools for clerical assistance in 1929–30 varied considerably not only within the different population groups, but also within the different geographical regions and schools of different sizes. (See Table 39.) As one would expect, schools in the largest cities and with the largest enrollments spent most for clerical aid. Among the geographical regions schools in the West reported the greatest expenditure. The amounts expended in the

independent secondary schools were considerably less, due no doubt to the small enrollments of these schools. It might be suggested that it would be good economy for many systems to spend more money for clerical assistance in order that the secondary-school principal may devote more of his time to administrative and supervisory matters of greater importance.

2. SECONDARY-SCHOOL PUPILS SERVING AS CLERKS

The general extent of use.—Secondary-school principals often attempt to provide for additional clerical aid through the use of pupils and teachers. Of the 461 principals reporting, 281 (61 per cent) indicated that pupils are utilized for performing clerical duties. (See Table 40.) It may be noted that relatively small differences exist in these reports between the various population groups and geographical regions. Likewise, differences in schools of various sizes are relatively small except for schools of more than 2,000 enrollment, where but few cases are reported. Pupils are used in about 55 per cent of the independent secondary schools.

As one might expect, the number of pupils utilized for giving clerical assistance to secondary schools varies in proportion to the population of the city and the size of the school. (See Table 40.) As the population of the city increases and as the size of the school increases the number of pupils utilized for giving clerical assistance also increases. The median number of pupils giving aid ranges from 5.3 in schools located in cities of Group IV to 13 in schools located in cities of Group I. The median number of pupils used in eastern and western regions exceeds by about three or four the median number used in the secondary schools of the Middle West or the South. Fewer pupils are used in the independent secondary schools, but these schools, it should be remembered as pointed out in Chapter I, are considerably smaller than the city secondary schools used in this study.

TABLE 40.—*Provision for the use of pupils and teachers for giving clerical assistance in secondary schools*

Group, region, and type of school	Use of pupils			Use of teachers		
	Per cent of schools	Median number	Median number of hours	Per cent of schools	Median number	Median number of hours
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Group:						
I	57.5	12.9	26.9	37.5	7.5	8.8
II	69.2	10.9	15.0	40.2	19.0	7.1
III	58.3	9.0	12.2	36.1	11.3	7.3
IV	61.3	5.3	13.9	39.0	8.8	4.3
Region:						
East	59.0	11.6	14.8	39.4	15.5	6.3
Middle West	58.1	6.9	14.6	36.0	17.5	6.6
South	61.7	7.3	14.2	38.3	7.1	6.9
West	74.1	10.0	24.0	38.9	4.2	10.8
Enrollment:						
Less than 500	56.9	5.9	9.6	38.1	6.8	5.3
500–999	59.1	7.3	15.0	36.3	17.5	7.3
1,000–1,499	66.6	13.5	27.5	46.4	31.3	6.8
1,500–1,999	57.1	12.7	20.0	25.0	7.5	20.0
2,000–2,499	92.9	10.5	30.8	46.7	47.5	12.5
More than 2,500	75.0	21.0	37.5	14.3	67.5	2.5
All city schools combined	61.0	7.9	19.7	38.0	10.6	6.7
Independent secondary schools	55.0	3.6	7.7	28.0	2.8	3.2

Number of hours of clerical service given by pupils each week.—Just as the number of pupils utilized for giving clerical assistance increases with the size of the city and enrollment of the school, so also does the median number of hours of service given each week tend to increase as the size of city increases and as the schools become larger. In cities of Group I principals receive clerical aid from pupils equal to the services of one person for about 3.4 8-hour days per week, whereas principals of schools in Group IV receive from pupils clerical service equal to only about 1.8 days per week. These data are shown in Table 40 in terms of number of hours of service.

Methods of compensating pupils for clerical assistance.—Of the 256 reports from city school principals concerning the methods used for compensating pupils for their clerical services only 12, or 4.7 per cent, indicated that money was paid. Credit in business courses was reported in almost two-fifths of the schools; office experience, which in some

instances was required for graduation from the commercial course but which usually was considered merely as desirable experience for pupils, was reported in about 10 per cent of the cases; activity awards of citizenship merits in 12 per cent; and nothing but a "thank you" was reported by almost a third of the principals. In the larger cities and schools pupils more frequently receive office practice or activity awards for their services, whereas in the smaller schools, they more often receive money or credit in business courses. These data are presented in Table 41.

TABLE 41.—*Percentages of secondary schools using various methods of compensating pupils for clerical assistance given*

Group, region, and type of school	Salary per unit of time	Wage per hour	Credit in commercial courses	Activity awards, citizenship merits	Office experience	No compensation	Combination of methods
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Group:							
I	1.6	3.1	34.4	18.8	12.5	28.1	1.6
II		3.5	26.3	14.0	12.3	38.6	5.3
III	1.4	2.8	45.8	15.3	11.1	22.2	1.4
IV	4.8	1.6	42.9		5.4	38.7	4.8
Region:							
East		3.5	47.1	4.6	12.6	22.9	2.3
Middle West	3.5	3.5	26.5	11.8	12.9	30.6	1.2
South	4.3		14.9	19.2	4.3	53.2	4.3
West		2.7	48.7	21.6	8.1	10.8	8.1
All city schools	2.0	2.7	37.9	12.1	10.5	31.6	3.1
All independent secondary schools	6.2	12.4	36.6	6.9	6.2	25.6	6.3

3. TEACHERS AS CLERKS

The general extent of use of teachers as clerks.—Of the 461 principals reporting the use of teachers as clerks, 175 (38 per cent) indicated that teachers were utilized for performing certain clerical and routine duties. Relatively small differences exist either among the population groups or among the geographical regions. In no case is the difference among groups or regions more than 4 per cent. Teachers are utilized in about 28 per cent of the independent secondary schools.

Numbers of teachers used as clerks.—The median number of different teachers called on to give clerical assistance ranges from 7.5 in cities of Group I to 19 in Group II and from 4.2

in the West to 17.5 in the Middle West. (See Table 48.) In general, the number of teachers so used increases with the size of the secondary school. Facts not reported tabularly show that the number of teachers assigned clerical duties in independent secondary schools ranges from 1.8 in rural high schools to 3.3 in township high schools with a median for all independent secondary schools combined of 2.8.

Numbers of hours of clerical service given by teachers each week.—The median number of hours of clerical assistance given each week by teachers for all groups and regions was reported as 6.7 hours, which is less than the service of a clerk for one day. The larger schools receive slightly more clerical aid from teachers each week but in general the differences among the different groups and regions are rather small. (See Table 40.) Teachers in independent secondary schools are required to give even less clerical assistance than are teachers in city schools.

CHAPTER VIII : PLANS FOR COORDINATING THE WORK OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS

1. THE PROBLEM AND THE PRESENT INQUIRY

"The great problem in education on the administrative side is how to unite these different parts." [1] The problem that constantly confronts any enterprise in which a large number of individuals are working at various tasks and in which all employees are contributing to the accomplishment of definitive ends is that of coordinating effort so that desired results may be forthcoming in the most economical and effective manner.

A few years ago an extensive report appeared that indicated the progress that was being made in articulating the activities in the various units of American education.[2] The issues and methods in use for articulating secondary education with the other divisions in public schools were well set forth. In the present chapter the manner in which the school districts canvassed undertake to coordinate the work of the various secondary schools operated in the school systems and to coordinate the work of the secondary schools with that carried on in the elementary schools and in the central office are to be presented. The devices and methods used in the several secondary schools to develop cooperation among the staff members engaged in the various activities of the school will also be presented.

2. PRINCIPALS COOPERATING WITH THE CENTRAL OFFICE

The reports of superintendents in about a fourth of the returns (277) reveal no plans through which principals of secondary schools may cooperate with the central office in formulating policies or standard practices. (See Table 42.) As one would expect more specific plans for cooperation are to be found in the larger cities.

[1] Dewey, John. The School and Society. The University of Chicago Press, 1899, p. 78.

[2] The Articulation of the Units of American Education, Seventh Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1929.

TABLE 42.—*Percentages of staff members reporting various plans whereby staff members cooperate with the central office in the formulation of policies and practices*

Plan	Reported by								
	1[1] (277)	2 (448)	3 (28)	4 (57)	5 (101)	6 (60)	7 (144)	8 (22)	9 (15)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
None	25	53	21	35	38	37	49	40	33
Meetings of principals	35								
Occasional conferences	18	15	21	11	12	7	8	13	7
Cabinet or council of principals	7								
County, State, or local principals' or teachers' associations		1			1	2	3	5	
Principals' clubs	2								
Committee of principals	4								
Committee of teachers chosen at large		12		5	3	8	8	5	
Faculty meetings		6		12	13	10	5		7
Group or department meetings		4		2	1	3	4	5	7
Conferences with administrative officers	6	6	50	31	27	30	17	24	34
Teachers' council		3	4		3		1		
Other plans	2		4	5	3	3	5	4	13

[1] The staff members designated by these numbers are as follows: 1. Superintendent of schools; 2. Secondary-school principals; 3. Assistant superintendents; 4. Directors of subject fields; 5. Supervisors; 6. Assistant principals; 7. Heads of departments; 8. Deans; 9. Counselors.

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses are the numbers of staff members reporting.

The method employed in the largest proportion of the systems is that of holding meetings of principals either at stated intervals or on the call of the superintendent. In the larger systems these meetings are usually definitely scheduled but in the smaller cities they frequently assume the form of conferences between the superindendent and one or two principals to discuss problems relating to administration and supervision. Superintendents have reported the occasional conference as being an important method by which principals may participate in the formulation of policies and practices. Cabinets or councils of principals, principals' clubs, and principals' associations are reported in some of the larger cities.

In San Diego, Calif., there are general councils of supervisors and principals, a "Council of Coordination and Guidance," curriculum councils at the secondary levels headed by secondary-school principals, and a "Council of Secondary-School Principals."

In Hartford, Conn., a principals' club is in operation composed of the superintendent, the three high-school principals, and the nine district elementary-school principals. This organization meets once a month and discusses the problems affecting the general management of the schools.

Committee or council organizations are frequently reported as the means of developing cooperation between the schools and the central office. From the data gathered and from observation one is led to believe that these conferences or committee meetings are largely of the kind in which discussions center about issues that have currently arisen, that have caused misunderstandings, or that are leading to friction. It is rare to find, except in the case of the committees on curriculum construction, administrative committees that are organized primarily to create and to project standard practices that will serve to coordinate school services, and that will bring about cooperation among the divisions of the schools and between the schools and the central office.

3. *STAFF MEMBERS COOPERATING WITH CENTRAL OFFICE*

The administrative and supervisory staff members of both the central offices and the secondary schools also reported on the ways and means used to develop cooperation among the schools, among their administrative and supervisory officers, and between the schools and the central offices. Plans for such cooperation were not reported by large proportions of these various officials. (See Table 43.) Twenty-one per cent of the assistant superintendents reported no plan, and directors of subject fields, supervisors, assistant principals, and counselors indicated no plan in from 33 to 38 per cent of the cases. Faculty meetings and individual contacts with various administrative officials appear to be the most common means through which these staff members are expected to develop cooperative attitudes toward the central office.

4. *COORDINATING ACTIVITIES WITHIN THE SCHOOLS*

Reports received from 411 principals (not indicated in the tabulations) in city school systems in which two or more secondary schools are operated yield only 31 cases in which some

specific plan is in operation whereby the several principals of a system may cooperate in the coordination of their work. The study of practices in individual schools corroborates this finding and reveals that where cooperation is developed it is through the superintendent's office. Cases were found during visits in which the high-school principals of the cities referred to rarely met each other on professional business, and instances were noted in which the junior high school principal and the senior high school principal were outspoken in their disagreements concerning the administrative policies that controlled the operation of the other school. In one instance the superintendent was not full aware of the situation and in the other, because of local conditions, the superintendent believed it unwise to create a more difficult situation for himself by bringing the issue to a head.

TABLE 43.—*Percentages of staff members reporting various plans for cooperation with secondary-school principals in the formulation of policies and practices*

Plan	Reported by—						
	1[1] (667)	2 (46)	3 (90)	4 (58)	5 (150)	6 (24)	7 (15)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
None	82	24	34	38	33	29	33
Occasional conference	27	2	2				
County, State, or local principals' or teachers' association	4	2	3	2	9	4	7
Committee of teachers chosen at large	2	11	16	9	11	13	7
Faculty meetings	46	33	23	33	18	17	13
Group or department meetings	1	2					
Through contact with administrative officers	2	6	13	7	8	20	21
Teachers' council					2		
Other plans	4	17	5	10	15	12	20

[1] The staff members designated by these members are as follows: 1. City secondary-school principals and principals of independent secondary schools; 2. Directors of subject fields; 3. Supervisors; 4. Assistant principals; 5. Heads of departments; 6. Deans; and 7. Counselors.

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses are the numbers of staff members reporting.

5. THE COOPERATION OF TEACHERS IN FORMULATING POLICIES AND PRACTICES

In his extensive study of supervision Melby noted that high-school teachers were more inclined to express the belief that they had no responsibility for the school organization

than did the elementary-school teachers.[1] He also found in the same school systems little agreement among different respondents concerning the conceptions held by secondary-school teachers to the administrative responsibilities that the executives expected them to assume.

The present investigation made no canvass to ascertain the plans provided in the secondary schools for soliciting the cooperation of teachers in the formulation of policies and practices to govern the school activities. Responses on this subject were received from principals and the various supervisory and administrative officials employed in the schools. The plans most frequently mentioned through which teachers and staff members of secondary schools are brought together with a view to developing cooperation are the teachers' meetings and special committees of teachers. Yet the faculty meeting as a means of providing teacher participation in the formulation of policies was reported by only 46 of the 967 principals registering responses. (See Table 43.) In the minds of the other administrative officers of a school, faculty gatherings appear as a very significant means of providing the opportunity to teachers to participate in the administration of the school. Group and departmental meetings, meetings with other staff members, and the teachers' council are mentioned less frequently.

In Oakland, a secondary-school committee exists for the improvement of instruction. This committee, as in the case of similar committees of elementary-school teachers, is held responsible for recommendations concerning problems of administration and supervision. The action taken is passed on to a committee of principals for further consideration and then to the superintendents' council. When the policies initiated by teachers' committees are approved by the superintendents' council, they are introduced.

An example of one of the most highly organized forms of a teachers' council is found in New Britain, Conn. In

[1] Melby, E. O. Organization and Administration of Supervision. Bloomington, Ill. Public School Publishing Co., 1929, p. 59.

1920 the school committee of the New Britain schools voted to establish a teachers' council in order—

To secure a more active and effective participation of the teachers in an advisory capacity in the professional direction of the schools.

To furnish the teaching body a definite and organized means for conference with the school committee or for the expression of its sentiments or judgments with reference to questions of school policy.

To encourage professional improvement through the study and discussion of important problems of education and school management.

To develop the sense of solidarity of the teaching body, and an increasing appreciation of community of interest and responsibility among all teachers of all grades.

To afford the largest possible opportunity for initiative on the part of the teacher.

The council is composed of 45 members at present chosen so that 9 representatives and the principal come from the senior high school, 12 representatives including the principals come from the junior high schools, 1 representative comes from each elementary school with an enrollment of fewer than 500, and 2 including the principal from each elementary school with an enrollment of 500 or more. One representative is chosen from among the general supervisors. The superintendent is an ex-officio member. The council organizes and chooses a committee of conference, the function of which is to make contacts with the school committee and to "communicate to them the sentiment and judgment of the council" pertaining to many definitely specified problems of school management. Regular meetings are held monthly and special meetings may be called by the executive committee of the council. A plan of this nature provides for direct contact of teachers with the administrative and supervisory staff, the school committee, and the superintendent. It enables teachers to make known their needs and desires through their council. It gives teachers a direct voice in the determination of many policies relating to their work. On the other hand, inasmuch as its contacts are made largely with the school board it makes possible a type of direct contact between the teaching staff and the board which may not be desirable.

6. *INADEQUACY OF DATA*

The brevity of this chapter can be no indication of the importance of the topic considered. The study of the data gathered, the analysis of actual situations, and the review of the literature available lead one to conclude that the most baffling of the public-school problems continues to center about the articulation of services, the coordination of effort, and the cooperation of employees. Whether this obtains because of inherent limitations of the type of organization that has been created for the administration of public schools in America or for other organic reasons, the data available do not disclose.

This study of the organization for administration and supervision in secondary schools does, however, bring into clearer focus certain issues that need more intensive investigation. An analysis of any plan to achieve an end in one phase of administration can hardly be properly evaluated except it be studied in its relationship to the organization taken as a whole and in relationship to the personnel employed. The need is for extended experimentation and study in order that principles may be evolved for the more effective mutual cooperation by members of the staffs of the schools.

CHAPTER IX: TIME AVAILABLE FOR ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

1. THE SOURCE OF DATA IN THE STUDY

A significant measure of the possibility of effectiveness in administrative and supervisory services is the time devoted to the activities by the staff members responsible for them. It is difficult, however, to ascertain accurately the time that a superintendent, principal, supervisor, or any other staff member allocates to a specific task or to the more important duties of his office. The work of school officials varies from day to day and from semester to semester, and even though each day's work may be budgeted in a most precise manner, a comparison of reports of the actual time devoted to any one duty by any group of officials may be subject without intention to gross misinterpretation. Yet, despite the obvious limitations, it is believed that some light is thrown on the problems of administrative and supervisory organization by a study of the time school officials devote to their various duties.

2. TIME DEVOTED TO DIFFERENT SCHOOL LEVELS BY SUPERINTENDENTS

Superintendents and their associates perform many duties and functions for which there is no simple way of allocating the time to the various school divisions. For example, what part of a superintendent's time devoted to budgetary preparation should be charged to the secondary school? Nevertheless, serious attempts were made by the various staff members represented in this investigation to provide on the inquiry forms a statement of the manner in which their services were assigned to the major school divisions. (See Table 44.) A review of the data made available indicates that superintendents devote less attention to elementary schools than to secondary schools. As school systems increase in size, the secondary division appears to receive greater attention. As concerns secondary units the atten-

tion of superintendents appears to be about equally divided between the junior high schools and senior high schools.

TABLE 44.—*Median percentages of time reported as given to the different school levels by administrative staffs of central offices* [1]

Officers represented	Elementary school	Junior high school	Senior or 4-year high school	Other forms of educational activity
1	2	3	4	5
Group:				
I	31.2	22.0	21.3	24.5
II	31.5	21.3	18.5	25.4
III	42.5	23.0	22.4	12.1
IV	47.7	23.1	23.7	13.3
Region:				
East	48.4	23.1	21.7	10.8
Middle West	39.1	22.8	22.5	18.2
South	31.5	21.7	24.2	22.2
West	38.3	22.9	23.6	11.9
All superintendents	40.1	22.7	22.7	18.3
Directors of subject fields	22.7	30.2	28.2	13.8
Assistant superintendents	11.0	30.8	26.5	21.0
Supervisors	43.9	25.4	24.0	8.0

[1] Medians, when tabulated from frequency tables, vary somewhat in accordance with the scale used in the tabulation. When the percentages of time devoted to the different levels are tabulated, the sum of the median amounts devoted to each level approximates but does not always equal 100 per cent.

Five tendencies stand out with respect to the time devoted by the superintendent to the various school levels:

(1) The larger proportion of time devoted to elementary education in the smaller cities.

(2) The smaller proportion of time devoted to other forms of educational activity in the smaller cities.

(3) The larger percentage of time devoted to elementary education by superintendents of the East as compared with other regions.

(4) The larger percentage of time devoted to other forms of educational activity by superintendents of the South as compared with other regions.

(5) The approximately equal proportions of time reported as given to junior high school and to senior or 4-year high schools by superintendents of all groups and regions.

The following statements summarize the more significant facts regarding the time devoted to the various school divisions by directors of subject fields, assistant superintendents, and supervisors:

(1) The relatively small amounts of time devoted by directors of subject fields and by assistant superintendents to elementary education as compared with the proportions given by superintendents and supervisors.

(2) The large amount of time devoted to elementary schools by supervisors.

(3) The approximately equal distribution of time by each of these administrative officers to junior high schools and to senior or 4-year high schools.

3. SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES OF SUPERINTENDENTS

Supervision by superintendents.—A probable implication of the evidence just presented is that superintendents supervise instruction more frequently in the smaller cities and in the East than in cities of other groups or regions. It is almost certain that, as the size of the city increases, the time available for supervision by the superintendent decreases.

Facts not presented tabularly show, as might be expected, a tendency for superintendents of cities with fewer secondary schools to supervise instruction more often than in systems with a larger number of schools. The median number of secondary schools in all systems where superintendents reported that they supervise instruction is less than three and the number of schools in systems where no personal supervision is reported by superintendents is about four.

Responsibility of superintendents for supervision in elementary as compared with secondary schools.—Of the 222 superintendents who reported that they actually performed supervisory duties and functions only 47 reported that their responsibilities differ for elementary and for secondary schools. Of these 47 who report different responsibilities, 35 reported that they give more detailed attention to elementary schools; 10 reported that they give more detailed attention to secondary schools; and 2 reported different responsibilities with no indication as to the school level receiving the most attention. Secondary-school principals are often delegated more responsibility for supervision than are elementary-school principals. Sometimes this is due to the fact that they are better qualified to supervise, but in most cases it is because the elementary-school units are small and the principals teach full time and are unable to assume supervisory functions. There are also superintendents who are of the opinion that high-school teachers need less supervision. On the other hand, superintendents in 10 systems devote more time to the supervision in secondary schools due to the fact that the supervision of elementary schools is delegated largely to assistant superintendents, to general

supervisors, or to directors of special subjects. In a few instances superintendents have reported that secondary-school teachers need more supervision and that they are more difficult to supervise than are elementary-school teachers. In general, however, the supervisory responsibilities assumed by superintendents are the same for both levels. When different, there is some tendency to delegate more responsibility to principals of secondary schools.

Types of supervisory activities assumed by superintendents.—The supervisory activities reported to be performed most frequently by superintendents are: Classroom visitation, conferences with teachers, principals, or supervisors; general activities relating to supervision, teachers' meetings, and the administration of tests. (See Table 45.) The supervisory activities tabulated from responses by the 182 superintendents reporting are seldom listed singly but usually in combinations of two or more activities which, taken together, may be thought of as types of supervisory programs. However, it is not the purpose of this project to show the nature of supervisory programs. These will be reported in Part II of this monograph, prepared by Roy O. Billett.

TABLE 45.—*Number of times various activities relating to supervision were reported by the superintendents of 182 city systems*

Activities	Times reported
Classroom visitation	75
	55
Conferences—	
With teachers	32
With principals	4
With principals, teachers, and others	19
Supervision (general)	47
Supervision of particular classroom problems	39
Supervise methods of teaching	21
Suggest changes in room conditions	3
Aid in selection and use of material	5
Aid in making assignments	2
Suggest methods of presentation	2
Aid in disciplinary problems	2
Develop aims and objectives	1
Plan lessons	5

TABLE 45.—*Number of times various activities relating to supervision were reported by the superintendents of 182 city systems*—Continued

Activities	Times reported
Administration of tests	28
Demonstration teaching	13
Supervisory activities conducted outside of classroom	45
Hold teachers' meetings	20
Write bulletins and the like	9
Suggest and direct professional reading	6
Hold council discussions	3
Lecture on education	2
Discuss teacher's work with individual teacher	17
Advise on social relations of teachers	1
Organization and administration of supervision	8
Plan supervisory program	3
Direct supervision	3
Organize supervision	2
Determine policies for supervision	1
Activities listed by superintendents as part of their supervisory duties	56
Construct courses of study	18
Construct curriculums	8
Give remedial treatment	6
Inspect teaching	5
Rate teachers	3
Select textbooks	3
Schedule classes	4
Teach classes	2
Conduct research	2
Make reports	1
Conduct health activities	1
Perform committee work	2
Classify pupils	2

Visits to schools by superintendents.—Schools in smaller cities are visited much more frequently by superintendents than are schools in larger cities. (See Table 46.) The reasons for this may be numerous but the most important one, as indicated from the data, is that superintendents in

larger systems report visits to schools of all types less frequently than do superintendents in smaller cities; the greater number of schools in larger systems makes it almost impossible for superintendents to visit all schools so frequently as do superintendents in cities with one or two secondary schools only. Consequently, the number of times superintendents visit secondary schools each year is likely to vary inversely with the population of the city.

TABLE 46.—*Median number of times superintendents visit schools at the different levels during each year and the median length (in minutes) of the typical visits*

Group and region	Elementary schools		Junior high schools		Senior or 4-year high schools	
	Number of visits	Length of visits	Number of visits	Length of visits	Number of visits	Length of visits
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Group:						
I	3.1	70	3.8	98	5.0	97
II	8.7	99	11.8	95	13.0	95
III	21.2	67	21.0	69	20.5	66
IV	31.6	73	28.0	69	28.7	66
Region:						
East	16.0	68	20.0	68	20.9	64
Middle West	20.2	73	16.0	83	16.4	68
South	22.7	97	19.0	98	22.0	95
West	14.0	67	14.7	67	22.0	66
Median of all systems combined	18.9	70	16.9	77	20.1	68
First quartile	8.0	47	8.0	45	8.3	45
Third quartile	38.7	125	35.0	126	38.4	126

The differences among the various geographical regions are not large. Nevertheless, superintendents in the South reported the largest number of visits per year to elementary schools; superintendents in the East reported the largest number of visits to junior high schools; and superintendents in the South and West reported the largest number of visits to senior or 4-year high schools. In Groups I and II superintendents visit secondary schools with slightly greater frequency than they do the elementary schools, but in Group IV superintendents reported that they visit elementary schools slightly more often than they do the junior or senior high schools. However, the similarities among the number of visits made to schools of the various levels are more sig-

nificant than the differences. The data tend to show that superintendents visit all schools with about equal frequency. A fourth of the superintendents make no more than 8 visits to elementary schools, to junior high schools, and to senior or 4-year high schools during the year. On the other hand, a fourth make at least 38 or more visits during the year to elementary and senior high schools and 35 or more to junior high schools.

Duration of typical visits made by superintendents.—From the reports of the 244 superintendents who supplied data concerning the length of their visits to schools of the different levels it was found that the length of the median visit to elementary schools of all groups was 70 minutes; to junior high schools, 77 minutes; and to senior high schools, 68 minutes. (See Table 46.) The length of the visits ranges from as few as 5 minutes to as long as 5 hours. The length of the typical visit to the elementary schools seems to bear little or no relation to the size of the cities in which the schools are located, but superintendents in southern cities report the longest visits to schools at all levels. The most significant feature of these data is the fact that length of visits to elementary, junior high schools, and senior high schools does not differ to any significant extent.

Percentage of time devoted by superintendents to various activities during visits.—During the typical visit to elementary schools approximately 23 per cent of the superintendent's time is spent in conference with the principal, approximately 14 per cent in conferring with teachers, about 9 per cent in inspecting buildings and grounds, and about 50 per cent in classroom visitation. In the visits to junior high schools a slightly larger percentage of time is devoted to conferring with principals and a slightly smaller percentage to conferences with teachers or in classroom visitation. Visits to senior high schools are made up even more largely of conferences with principals and less of actual classroom visitation. The approximate number of minutes devoted to certain activities during a visit are as shown in Table 47. The most striking conclusion to be drawn from the data is that only slight differences exist among the school levels as to the

percentage of time devoted by superintendents to all the activities listed.

TABLE 47.—*Approximate number of minutes given by superintendents to certain activities during typical visits to schools at the different levels*

Activities during visits	Elementary schools	Junior high schools	Senior high schools
1	2	3	4
Conference with principals	16	21	19
Conference with teachers	9	10	10
Inspection of records	3	3	3
Inspection of building and grounds	6	7	6
Classroom visitation	34	33	28
Other activities	2	3	2
Median length of visit (in minutes)	70	77	68

4. ACTIVITIES AND FUNCTIONS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Percentages of time given to various activities.—The amount of time devoted to the many duties and functions by principals in secondary schools of different groups, regions, and types varies considerably. The inquiry forms sent to principals of city and independent secondary schools requested an estimate of the percentages of time devoted by principals to each of eight duties listed in Table 48. The reports of principals show a direct ratio between the median percentage of time devoted to administrative duties and the size of the city. This is without doubt a reflection of differences in the size of high schools as measured by enrollment. The facts on size were reported in Chapter I. The median percentage of time spent in administrative duties by principals in Group I is 43.6 as compared with 26.9 in cities of Group IV. On the other hand, principals of smaller cities spend larger proportions of their time on clerical and routine matters. Relatively small differences exist among the percentages of time devoted to public relations and to research activities. Principals in larger cities tend to devote slightly more time to supervisory activities and to guidance. However, the differences among the median percentages of time devoted to these activities for the various groups are hardly remarkable.

TABLE 48.—*Median percentages of time devoted to various activities and duties by secondary-school principals*

Principals	Administrative	Clerical	Public relations	Research	Supervisory	Teaching	Guidance	Other types
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Group:								
I	43.6	6.7	9.6	6.0	26.9	2.7	10.1	3.1
II	43.3	4.8	8.2	6.4	28.8	2.8	10.4	3.1
III	33.8	10.8	8.8	6.5	26.8	3.4	11.1	3.6
IV	26.9	10.9	7.4	5.9	24.6	13.8	9.2	3.1
Region:								
East	35.0	9.3	7.0	5.7	29.5	3.6	11.0	3.1
Middle West	41.8	10.2	9.1	6.3	24.8	3.5	8.9	3.4
South	35.0	10.9	10.2	6.1	26.0	3.8	10.2	3.1
West	42.5	6.3	10.1	7.1	26.3	2.7	12.1	3.6
All city high schools combined	40.2	9.5	8.5	7.2	26.6	3.1	10.0	3.3
Community high schools	24.4	12.3	6.7	3.6	15.5	41.0	5.4	3.3
Township high schools	23.5	10.2	7.7	4.4	17.5	40.0	6.1	2.8
Rural high schools	20.4	12.1	6.4	4.8	10.3	45.8	5.2	3.0
County high schools	27.9	10.9	8.6	3.5	18.5	29.7	6.4	2.9
Union high schools	16.6	9.4	6.3	4.1	14.3	38.8	7.2	3.5
All independent high schools combined	22.9	11.1	7.3	3.8	15.2	36.5	6.3	3.0

The reports of principals in Groups I, II, and III indicate that they devote from 2.7 to 3.4 per cent of their time to classroom teaching. Contrasted with these small proportions, the reports of principals in cities of less than 10,000 population (Group IV) show that they spend 13.8 per cent of their time in actual teaching. Relatively small differences appear among the different geographical regions. The reports of principals from the East and South indicate that they devote less time to administrative activities, and principals of the South devote slightly more time to routine clerical duties and to public or community relations than do the principals of other regions. The differences, however, are probably not important.

The reports from principals of independent secondary schools indicate that they devote smaller percentages of their time to administrative activities, to research duties, to supervisory activities, and to guidance activities than do city secondary-school principals. On the other hand, these principals without exception reported that large percentages of their time were devoted to classroom teaching. Unimportant differences exist with respect to clerical duties, public rela-

tions, and other types of activities. Differences also exist among the types of independent secondary schools. Principals of county high schools report more time to supervision and administration and less time to teaching than do the principals of other independent secondary schools. Principals of rural high schools devote less time to administration and supervision and more time to teaching than do principals of other types of independent secondary schools.

The data of this study are in approximate agreement with findings of studies by Eikenberry [1] and Foster [2] insofar as the categories used in the different studies permit putting the data into comparable form.

Supervision by principals.—The reports from secondary-school principals indicated that approximately 97 per cent of the city secondary-school principals and almost as large a percentage of the principals of independent secondary schools perform some duties relating to the supervision of instruction. Because it is recognized by educational leaders that supervision is perhaps the most important single activity and function of the principal, it is particularly unfortunate that principals of independent secondary schools devote only about 15 per cent of their time to supervisory activities and that the principals of city secondary schools devote only from 24.6 per cent in cities of less than 10,000 population to about 29 per cent in cities of from 30,000 to 100,000 population. (See Table 56.) Melby [3] has shown for 171 cities of from 10,000 to 20,000 population that junior high school principals devote approximately 40 per cent of their time and senior high school principals about 25 per cent of their time to supervising instruction. He also reports that the median number of classroom visits made per month by junior high school principals is about three and by high-school principals about two.[4] The median duration of these visits is 20 minutes in the junior high schools and approximately 30 minutes in the senior high schools.

[1] Eikenberry, D. H. Status of the High-School Principal. United States Bureau of Education (now Office of Education) Bulletin, 1925, No. 24, p. 54.

[2] Foster, F. K. Status of the Junior High School Principal. United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1930, No. 18, p. 54.

[3] Melby, E. O. Organization and Administration of Supervision. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1929, p. 73.

[4] Ibid., p. 75.

5. ACTIVITIES OF OTHER ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF MEMBERS

Conclusions from the evidence.—Data from administrative staff members of the central office and from within secondary schools indicate (1) the percentages who devote a portion of their time to different activities and functions, (2) the median percentages of time devoted to the different functions by those who perform such duties, and (3) the persons to whom these staff members are responsible in the performance of these functions and duties. The reader is referred to Tables 57 and 58 for a systematic portrayal of these data. However, several of the tendencies may be pointed out:

(1) Relatively large percentages of staff members of all types except assistant superintendents devote a portion of their time to classroom teaching.

(2) Relatively large percentages of time are spent in teaching by those of these staff members who teach at all.

(3) Large proportions of supervisors, assistant superintendents, directors of subject fields, and heads of departments supervise instruction.

(4) Large proportions of the time are spent in supervisory duties by members of the central office staff who supervise.

(5) Small amounts of time are available to most department heads and assistant principals for the supervision of instruction.

(6) Small percentages of staff members report the performance of committee work, health work, placement work, research work, and the performance of duties relating to the direction of personnel, lunch rooms or cafeterias, extension, and the selection of personnel.

(7) Large proportions of time are devoted by some staff members to functions and duties not frequently reported as being performed by staff members. This indicates a wide diversity of functions and duties assigned to members of the administrative staff. For example, less than 6 per cent of the supervisors report curriculum work, yet the median percentage of time devoted to this activity by those who do is almost 17. Or again, only 2 per cent of the heads of departments reported that they performed the duties of deans of boys or girls. Yet for those who do, the percentage of time devoted to this work is 25. Consequently there is little agreement as to the types of duties and functions assigned staff members and wide range in the amount of time devoted to various activities by staff members.

Persons to whom staff officers are responsible.—Members of the central office staff are usually responsible to some other

member or members of the central office. Assistant superintendents are accountable directly to the superintendent in more than 98 per cent of the activities which they perform. (See Table 49.) Supervisors and directors of subject fields are responsible to the superintentent in 70 and 75 per cent of the cases, respectively. The former are accountable to secondary-school principals in about a fifth of the cases and the latter in about an eighth of the cases. Supervisors are frequently responsible to an assistant superintendent.

Members of the administrative staff of secondary schools are usually directly responsible to some administrative officer of these schools. Assistant principals are directly responsible to the principals in 90 per cent of the activities performed, heads of departments in 89 per cent, deans in 92 per cent, and counselors in 87 per cent.

TABLE 49.—*Percentages of all activities and duties performed by staff members and the line of responsibility to certain administrative officers in the performance of these activities*

Officers to whom responsible	Assistant superintendent	Director of subject field	Supervisor	Assistant principal	Head of department	Dean	Counselor
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Board of education	1.5		1.0				
Superintendent	98.5	75.4	70.0	6.5	8.8	2.3	5.1
Assistant superintendent		9.8	2.0		.3		2.5
Principal		12.3	21.0	90.1	89.0	91.9	87.2
Assistant principal				.5	.3	1.2	
Chairman of subject field			2.0	1.5	1.0	1.2	5.0
Supervisor		.8	1.0				
Head of department			1.0				
Dean			.5	.5			
Principal and superintendent					.6	3.5	
Miscellaneous		1.6	1.5				

A few instances are reported in which supervisors and assistant superintendents are directly responsible to the board of education for the performance of certain duties and functions. Examples of this may be found in some systems where an assistant superintendent is placed in charge of business functions and activities. Direct relationships may develop between the assistant superintendent and the board of education. In one case an assistant superintendent is also the purchasing agent and secretary of the board. His re-

sponsibility for purchasing supplies and materials is to the board of education; his responsibility for supervisory and administrative activities is to the superintendent. Other illustrations may be cited where supervisors of home economics may have direct relationships with the board of education with respect to the purchase of supplies. In at least two cities the supervisor of home economics is directly responsible to the board for budgeting, buying, and checking delivered supplies. Direct contacts of this kind between the board and assistant superintendents or supervisors are not recommended by leaders in educational administration.

In from 2 to 9 per cent of the activities performed by heads of departments, deans, and counselors, the responsibility is to an assistant superintendent or to the superintendent. In the case of assistant principals, the majority of these instances arise by virtue of the fact that assistant principals with supervisory or administrative functions are frequently responsible to an assistant superintendent or superintendent in the performance of their functions. The same is frequently true for the heads of departments. On the other hand, supervisors and directors of subject fields are at times directly responsible to secondary-school principals. Whenever supervisors are assigned responsibility for club work or for classroom teaching they are usually responsible to the principals; this practice is in accord with the educational theory that the principal is head of his school and that activities carried on within it should be largely under his direction. However, several instances have been reported where supervisors are held accountable to superintendents for the direction of clubs and classroom teaching.

Cases in which staff members of the central office are responsible to secondary-school principals are usually found when staff members are assigned diverse types of activities. For functions such as classroom teaching staff members are usually responsible to the principal, but for the remainder of their activities they may be responsible to other officials. When staff members of secondary schools are directly responsible to central staff officers, it is usually in instances where those persons are responsible to the superintendent for supervisory activities.

Responsibility of central office staff members to elementary-school and to secondary-school principals.—A few members of the administrative staff of the central office reported that their responsibility to elementary-school principals is different from that to secondary-school principals. Only three of the directors of subject fields reported such differences and all indicated that they are more subordinate to secondary-school principals than to elementary-school principals. Assistant superintendents report no differences. Two supervisors reported that they are slightly less subordinate to secondary-school principals, because of the fact that in secondary schools they are responsible to the principal whereas in elementary schools their responsibility is chiefly to the superintendent.

Of the central office staff members, approximately 77 per cent of the assistant superintendents, 83 per cent of the directors of subject fields, about 97 per cent of the supervisors, about 31 per cent of the assistant principals, and about 68 per cent of the heads of departments devote time to supervision. (See Table 50.) These officers devote from 23 to 75 per cent of their time to supervisory activities.

TABLE 50.—*Percentages of staff members who devote time to certain functions and the median percentages of time devoted to these functions*

[The columns headed "1" indicate the percentages of staff officers devoting time to certain activities; the columns headed "2" indicate the median percentages of time devoted to these activities by those who perform them]

Duties and functions	Central office staff members						Secondary school staff members							
	Assistant superintendents (107)		Subject directors (28)		Supervisors (60)		Assistant principals (149)		Heads of departments (67)		Deans (33)		Counselors (17)	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Committee work	3.7	(1)	3.3	.....	1.0	.....								
Counseling							13.5	25.0	6.7	18.3	24.3	32.5	94.3	60.0
Curriculum construction	22.2	14.0	5.0	.....	5.6	16.7	.....	.....	2.0	17.5	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dean's work							4.5	27.5	2.0	25.0	45.5	72.5	11.8	.....
Departmental administration	.....	.....	13.3	30.0	9.4	21.7	7.5	22.5	22.2	30.0	6.1	.....	.....	.....
Direction of special activities	.....	.....	10.0	18.3	2.8	15.0	7.5	25.0	6.7	22.5	18.2	20.0	5.9	.....
Direction of continuation education	.....	.....	5.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Direction of attendance	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	10.5	27.5	.....	.....	21.2	21.2	11.8	.....
Direction of personnel	3.7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Direction of club work	.....	.....	5.0	.....	11.3	15.0	6.0	16.7	2.0	7.5	9.1	.....	11.8	.....
Direction of lunch room	.....	.....	.....	.....	1.9	.....	.....	.....	.6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Direction of publicity	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Direction of subject field	3.7	.....	26.7	37.5	8.4	52.5	.....	.....	5.4	70.0	.....	.....	.....	.....
Direction of music	.....	.....	3.3	.....	2.8	55.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Direction of extension work	3.7	.....	1.7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Discipline	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	15.0	35.0	.....	.....	9.1	17.5	5.9	.....
General administration	88.9	53.8	6.7	45.0	5.6	25.0	70.2	55.0	6.0	23.8	15.2	50.0	17.7	37.5
Guidance work	.....	.....	11.7	20.0	1.9	.....	4.5	.....	.6	.....	6.1	.....	5.9	.....
Health work	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.6	.....	3.0	.....	.....	.....
Placement work	.....	.....	1.7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3.0	.....	.....	.....
Administering special schools	.....	.....	1.7	.....	.....	.....	1.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Research	18.5	52.5	3.3	.....	3.8	11.0	.....	.....	1.3	.....	3.0	.....	5.9	.....
Selection of personnel	7.4	.....	1.7	.....	1.0	.....	.....	.....	1.3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Study-hall supervision	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1.5	.....	1.3	15.0	24.2	25.0	11.8	.....
Supervision of instruction	76.9	50.0	83.3	10.0	97.2	75.4	31.3	23.1	67.8	22.8	9.1	15.0	5.9	.....
Teaching	.....	.....	26.7	45.0	37.4	52.9	56.7	46.7	91.8	78.5	42.4	40.0	41.2	25.0
Miscellaneous	11.1	.....	8.3	17.5	9.4	11.7	31.4	43.3	21.5	14.2	21.2	35.0	11.8	.....

[1] The dash indicates that the function is infrequently reported.

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses are the numbers of staff members reporting.

CHAPTER X : ORGANIZATION FOR ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

1. THE UNIQUE POSITION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

In relationship to the community.—A number of factors place the secondary schools in a position that tends to command more attention than the elementary schools from all community agencies that come in contact with these institutions. In addition to the fact that the high school is constantly before the public through the program of activities carried on, the buildings housing the secondary-school grades are usually much more elaborate and more expensive than those housing the elementary schools and the cost per pupil for high-school work is much greater than is the cost in lower grades.

It is worthy of note that in many cities and towns in which several elementary schools are in operation, all high-school pupils are housed in one structure. In consequence, a relatively large school results and the sympathies as well as the criticisms of the entire community center on this school, and the support of all the people is attracted to it, whereas for elementary schools each one is the particular concern only of the patrons served by it.

One must not overlook the fact that high-school pupils are somewhat mature. Their enthusiastic absorption in their own problems makes the school a topic of interesting conversation at home and about town. The high school and all its problems are thus ever before the people. This group of maturing young people has no small economic appeal to the press and to the local merchants, and as a result the secondary schools are given some prominence through every avenue of publicity.

In many small communities the high school approximates the elementary school in enrollment because of the influx of nonresident pupils. In these situations the people in large areas that contribute pupils to a particular school center are associated in many ways with the high school. Frequently

the high school not in their district absorbs the interests of the people to a greater degree than can the small 1-room elementary school which they directly support.

In relationship to the State.—In many localities the State supervision of local schools grew out of the interest of higher institutions in the quality of the product turned out at the secondary-school level. The State high-school inspector and the high-school examiner were created for the purpose of accrediting secondary-school work. From the very beginning the secondary schools in many sections of the country have been the major concern of the State educational officials and have received from them more direct attention than have the elementary schools. When courses in agriculture, home economics, industrial arts, and physical education were introduced in public schools, special directors and supervisors were appointed in the various States and again the interest was focused mainly on the secondary schools.

In relationship to administration.—In view of these statements it is highly significant that this study should reveal that boards of education are in general not unduly devoted to the work of the secondary schools. There were relatively few superintendents who stated in the inquiry forms or who, in the interviews during visits of the investigators, admitted that the school boards concerned themselves more with the secondary-school problems than with the work of the other divisions of the system. The situation disclosed is particularly applicable when educational activities are considered apart from the business affairs.

2. THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Although school boards operate to some degree through standing committees and tradition appears to be the main force that perpetuates this practice, it is only in the older sections of the country that special high-school committees of boards of education are found to function. Even these committees appear to have less authority than was formerly delegated to them.

The evidence points clearly to an increasing recognition by school boards of the superintendent of schools as the executive head of the school system. Complete acceptance of this principle is usually found in the cases where the superintend-

ent is qualified and sufficiently competent to command the full confidence of the board of education.

It is rather uncommon to find situations, in which a superintendent holds office, where boards of education deal directly with the secondary-school principals. Wherever the practice is found, local political strife appears as the cause. The schools in such cases suffer from the violation of fundamental principles, and the injury may be reflected in the work of the schools for a period of time and until an adjustment in the organization takes place.

In the States in which the business manager or the secretary of the board is the business executive of the school system, certain direct contacts with the secondary-school principals are made that do not involve the superintendent of schools. In these situations the evils of the practice seem not so pronounced as in years past. Many boards of education realize the unsoundness of the practice which results in having several independent executives endeavoring to direct various school activities without a unifying and coordinating leadership.

It is the exception rather than the rule to find school systems in which the superintendent, if qualified and professionally worthy, is not accepted by the board of education as the administrative head of the school system. In making this statement one must recognize the fact that in some matters boards of education, and particularly board members, are not willing to apply the principle of good management. Ignorance, current reactions to unsatisfactory situations, political expediency, and misunderstandings will bring forth again and again violations of what have become accepted principles of public-school administration. Notwithstanding these occasional reactionary tendencies, no school systems are known to have chosen, after thorough study of the executive and administrative problems, a plan of organization that did not make the superintendent the responsible head of the schools.

3. THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Many factors explain current relationships.—One can not speak specifically regarding the relative interest of the superintendent of schools in the several administrative units

without having in mind some particular situation. There are many factors other than those already enumerated that may determine the responsibility the superintendent of schools may assume in regard to the administration and supervision of the work in the secondary division of the school system.

In general no basic administrative principles appear to have guided superintendents in formulating the organizations now in operation, nor can one find a single principle that has been uniformly applied in placing the superintendent in his present relationship to the secondary schools in his system. Tradition, expediency, personnel factors, peculiarities of the school system, and the special interest of the superintendent appear from actual case evidence to have been determinants of the part played by the superintendents in the administration and supervision of the secondary schools.

In small school systems.—Practices are not uniform in what is for present purposes regarded as the small school system; that is, the school district that operates a high school of 500 pupils or fewer. Marked variation is found in the comparative enrollments in the high-school grades and elementary grades in such communities. The elementary-school population may be distributed to two or three small buildings, local parochial schools may enroll a large share of the younger children or the nonresident pupil body may be large in the high school. In each of these circumstances the high school overshadows the elementary school, and the superintendent finds it to his advantage to act as high-school principal and to allocate various administrative duties to a functionary designated as assistant principal and to the teachers. In other situations of this kind the title of principal is assigned to one who is given nominal control over the high school.

Situations can be found in which the high-school enrollment approximates 500 and in which the elementary attendance equals or exceeds this number, where the superintendent acts as the high-school principal and has associated with him a general supervisor of elementary grades. An assistant principal of the high school performs certain administrative and supervisory duties. In art, music, and physical education the persons who teach these special subjects in the high

school supervise the work in their respective fields in the elementary grades. In these small high schools one finds in certain States a definite tendency to look to the State for the supervision of the work in agriculture, home economics, and in the industrial arts whenever these departments are operated.

Certain small school systems were visited in which about 500 pupils were enrolled in the lower grades and about 600 pupils in grades 7 to 12, inclusive, the systems being operated on the 6-3-3 plan of organization. These particular systems were found to have a superintendent, a senior high school principal, a junior high school principal, an elementary-school principal, and one part-time clerk. The salary in these systems is often such as to preclude the selection of outstandingly competent persons for these four administrative positions. Observation leads one to believe that if the superintendent had retained the active principalship of the junior-senior high school, if a grade supervisor were employed, and if adequate clerical services were made available, a much more effective organization would result. A study of the administrative and supervisory problems would have brought about the assignment of certain duties to an assistant high-school principal and to teachers carefully selected because of their qualifications.

In large high schools.—In school districts in which the high school demands the attention of a full-time person as head, a number of patterns of organization have been developed. There appears to be no agreement as to the size a school should attain before it is entitled to the full-time attention of a principal. Many high schools having enrollments of about 400 are assigned to principals whose teaching duties assume half or less of their time. In this discussion, as previously indicated, the high school enrolling more than 500 pupils is considered a large school. The school building has much to do with determining many of the lines of operation in the plan of organization, particularly if the office of the superintendent is housed in the high-school building.

The most common practice in these school systems is to assign full responsibility for the high school to a high-school principal. There are cases in which this practice is followed

but where the superintendent continues to share in the supervisory activities of the secondary school or where he from time to time may assume responsibilities for certain administrative duties.

It is in this group of school systems that the most delicate administrative problems appear to arise. A large high school, if administered efficiently, must be in charge of a principal who is equally competent and qualified in most respects as is the superintendent of schools. The high school attracts greater public attention than the elementary schools, and in communities where one relatively large high school exists the superintendent of schools must be an extraordinary person if he is not at times disturbed by the recognition given the high-school principal by the public. This is especially true if the principal is outstanding in his work and if he is given full authority over the school.

Observation of organization in the larger high schools reveals a decrease in the use of teachers in clerical and administrative work. Assistant principals, deans, and librarians are to be found in these institutions whose teaching duties are reduced to a minimum and who devote practically full time to their field of special interest. Heads of departments are rarely found except in larger schools, and they do not have much free time during school hours to supervise teachers or to perform the other duties of their office. One notes that the title given this latter group of staff members often serves chiefly as a means of elevating an outstanding teacher beyond the maximum allowed in the regular salary schedule.

With two more high schools.—Organization takes on more specific shape as the management of school systems that have two or more large secondary schools is analyzed. The superintendent is often drawn away from the high schools to a central office, usually not located in any of the schools. The superintendent only casually shares in the supervision of instruction; in fact, he rarely visits the schools in some cities. The assistant superintendent in charge of secondary schools is delegated the responsibility for secondary education in the large cities. Where this official is not employed the high schools receive such attention as the superintendent is

able to give them during a very busy life. The central office through its staff of supervisors attends more specifically to the elementary schools. Supervisory contacts with the high schools are made primarily in art, music, physical education, home economics, and industrial arts. Administrative contacts are made through the business office and through the attendance division.

As a rule the high schools in larger communities have been reorganized and the junior high school in some form is in operation. Each secondary school is administered as an independent unit. The senior high schools tend to struggle free from any central office domination, and, although the principals cooperate with the superintendent and his staff, they prefer freedom in the internal management of their schools. On the other hand, the junior high school principals are more inclined to seek leadership and guidance from the central office, as do the principals of elementary schools. Although there is not sufficient evidence for a categorical statement, there appear to be some differences in the cities that have chosen the principals for the junior high schools from among those whose professional training and experience have been in the 4-year high school and in those school systems in which leadership for the junior high schools has been selected from among the elementary-school principals.

4. CENTRALIZATION OF BUSINESS AFFAIRS

The method of managing the business affairs of a school system, as previously indicated, can hardly be intelligently discussed apart from the policy controlling the plan in operation. There is a great difference between centralizing the routine and clerical activities associated with conducting business activities and the centralization of the authority for the formulating of policies having to do with these activities. The need for centralization of the first type appears basically essential to the efficient and economical management of the schools. However, in reference to the degree to which high-school principals participate in developing standards and policies that form the foundation for the budget, that determine the materials and supplies to be made available, and that determine the staff to be employed, an issue may

be raised. Superintendents and the principals associated with them are far from uniform in the expression of reports on the powers and privileges granted to principals in this respect. It is equally true in the analysis of clerical service to find that a superintendent and the principals of secondary schools of the same system register conflicting statements concerning the degree of responsibility that clerks have to the central office and to the secondary schools.

Considerable additional study is warranted in connection with the internal management of the business affairs of school systems and the relationships that should exist between the personnel employed in the several administrative units and in the central office to produce the best educational results most economically. The relationship of the clerks to the officials they serve in each building and to the central office becomes most important, if efficient standard practices are to be evolved and continued in operation. The business staff in the superintendent's office and each principal must be agreed on the policies and practices that are to apply to budgetary preparation and control and to every other activity relating to the business management of the schools.

5. ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

An analysis of the allocation of their time as reported by staff officials shows that superintendents of school systems included in this study are inclined to devote more of their attention to the elementary schools than to secondary schools. It also shows that superintendents report that they supervise secondary-school instruction even in large cities. More detailed analysis appears to indicate that the supervisory activities carried on in such cases are casual and of a general nature. Assistant superintendents and other central office staff members report some time devoted to secondary-school supervision. Intensive studies of selected systems lead one to conclude that the supervisory services rendered by these officials are more often indirect and general, and are not regularly performed.

Principals charge a greater proportion of their time to administration than to supervision. School systems were visited in which principals of high schools definitely stated

that they did not believe that supervision in secondary schools was practical or desirable. In most cases, however, the principals held that they did supervise, although some contended that the techniques generally used were not effective.

Assistant principals and heads of departments admitted that the time they have available for supervision is hardly adequate for satisfactory work. In but one system visited was there a specifically projected plan for supervision in which the assistant principals and the heads of departments were devoting sufficient time to the improvement of instruction to assure desirable outcomes.

The special fields of music, art, home economics, industrial arts, and physical education received in many large cities much more central office direction and attention than the commercial and the academic subjects. It is significant to note the extent to which practices that started with the original development of the special subjects have persisted and have become traditional, presenting to-day a rather paradoxical situation in so far as the organization for the supervision of instruction in secondary schools is concerned. It would appear that profitable results would indeed be forthcoming if school systems would study in greater detail the types of central office supervisory organizations that are now being maintained.

In most systems health service, clinical services, attendance service, and guidance are carried on with little or no coordination. Enforcement of attendance continues traditionally in many systems to be a function of the central office and each school relieves itself as soon as it can of the problem pupils, whether they are cases of truancy or of other designation. There appears to be some confusion in the organization of these services that are intended to hold those children who do not or can not conform. The development of counseling and the creation of the position of visiting teacher bring to the school organization new viewpoints and appreciations of the problems of individual pupils.

The confusion referred to appears to be caused by a challenge to the old organization, and there is evidence that a new plan is in the process of evolving for the administration

of the social services and other somewhat allied activities in the schools.

Many variations in practice are developing for taking care of the atypical pupil, whatever his difficulties may be, and for providing guidance service to all the pupils of the secondary schools. Among these one notes a point of view that holds that all pupils shall continue to be the responsibility of the school they attend, and that principals may no longer shift their difficult burdens on the central office. This point of view results in an organization in which the central office becomes the cooperating agent and provides the professional assistance not available at the school. The principal, however, remains responsible for the pupil until it has been proved that the facilities of the school are inadequate to cope with the problem. Thus, guidance and functions related to it, such as attendance, health, and the clinics, are service agencies provided to help those who are responsible for treating such cases as are unusual and difficult to handle. The central office organization that may best serve in situations where this policy pervades has not yet been developed. There appears to be some disagreement as to the personnel needed in the schools and in the superintendent's office to produce the most efficient service.

6. THE PERSONAL ELEMENT IN ORGANIZATION

Most variations from standard practices in organization in the public schools studied seemed necessitated by the nature of the personnel employed. Work had to be performed and from day to day the superintendent was forced to use the most expedient method to produce results. The outcome in many cases resulted in the assignment of tasks to those in the organization who sympathized with the program, to those in whom the superintendent had confidence, and to those who would produce results. Makeshift adjustments in the administrative machinery are on many occasions constructed around various noncooperating staff officers in the hope that time and change would provide relief.

It is this personal factor that appears one of the greatest hindrances to the continued improvement of the organization set up to render school services.

7. THE USE OF COMMITTEES

Committees seem to be the most common practice used to bring members of the staff together for the study of organizational and administrative problems. From observations one is inclined to conclude that the problems discussed at these committee gatherings or assigned to committees for investigation are those that have arisen and that have caused some current concern. The participation of teachers, principals, and other staff members in the deliberations of committees chosen to help formulate administrative policies and to discuss changes in organization are indeed conducive to good fellowship, mutual confidence, and morale. These committees are truly effective when some competent and qualified person is assigned the task of making the preliminary studies necessary to gathering and analyzing the facts involved in the issue under discussion.

When committees are used as a camouflage or as a means of stimulating the necessary rationalization on the part of school employees that they are participating in a democratically managed public-school system, a tremendous amount of time can be wasted. The attainment of the rationalization can hardly compensate for the loss of time. The study by committees of school problems consumes much time of the executive and his associated staff. It is believed that the plan can be carried too far, considering the meager benefits that often accrue, that much better results will be accomplished if competent individuals are assigned in the first instance to make the study necessary, and that committee gatherings can be reduced to the number essential to an intelligent discussion of the reports made by the investigators. Teachers and other school officials so often complain that committee duties consume much of their valuable time and that as a result their work suffers.

8. CLERICAL SERVICES

Although principals report that but a fraction of their time is devoted to clerical work, a study of the office activities in secondary schools indicates that a considerable part of the work classified by them as administrative duties, if

properly organized, may be handled and routinized for clerks to perform. The element of time is one of the greatest barriers to the professionalization of the office of the secondary-school principal. If the type of work that is expected of principals, assistant principals, heads of departments, supervisors, counselors, and deans is to be performed, then more time of those employed in these positions must be set aside for it. No one can be absorbed in teaching or in clerical routine all day and then have time to do constructive thinking on the major functions of any one of the administrative positions.

A more detailed analysis of the services and activities of secondary schools must be made and more clearly defined classifications of duties must be forthcoming if administrative offices in secondary schools are to be raised to levels that will permit the proper performance of important school duties and if principals and their associates are to be raised above the clerical group of employees of a school system.

9. ISSUES NEEDING CLARIFICATION

A number of issues relating to the organization for the administration and the supervision of secondary schools may be mentioned that, while not new, nevertheless demand clarification if progress in school administration in these issues is to contribute much to the economy of school management and to the effectiveness of public-school services. Some of the more important of the problems referred to may be set forth as follows:

To what extent should a secondary school, operated as a unit of a school system, be independent of central office control in case there is one secondary school, and in cases where there are two, three, or more secondary schools? What constitutes desirable freedom of action and power of initiative on the part of the staff employed in each school?

To what extent should a school system maintaining several secondary schools endeavor to establish standard practices that shall govern the activities of all principals and associates in all schools?

Is it a sound administrative policy to perpetuate a plan of organization for the administration and supervision of

schools without a periodic check of the organization against the services rendered?

Is it a sound policy to adopt changes in organization without a thoroughgoing study of the effect any one change may have on the personnel and the organization of the entire system?

Are there differences in the effectiveness of the teaching services and other activities in small schools as compared with large schools? In the former teachers are required to share in all school activities, while in the latter a larger number of administrative officers are employed and many teachers have in large measure only their teaching duties to perform. In other words, what effect does the centralization of a function have on the performance of that function and the performance of other functions closely allied to it?

10. PLANNING

It was rare to find in school systems visited a projected program set up in organized forms for the study of the effectiveness of the organization or the plan being used to carry on the many activities within a secondary school. Nor was one able to find any school system in which the problems of articulation and coordination among the various units of like kind were being systematically studied for solution.

New schemes of organization that differed from more general practices were in most cases evolved locally and were carried on because of the enthusiasm of the promoter; rarely were they being tested out in any scientific or even quasi-scientific manner. It seems fair to say that one rarely finds in the fields of organization and administration the application of principles suggesting that school officials believe organization to be a dynamic and not a static thing. Patterns of organization frequently continue on when once established, irrespective of the other changes that have been made in the school system.

It is believed that improvement in the educational services in secondary schools and in the economical operation of these schools will result if those responsible for them will plan more specifically for a continued study of the problems involved in the organization and the administration of the schools.

Schools can not be efficiently and economically operated year after year, staff members can not be added, and changes in the program of services can not be made without affecting the organization planned for the administration of schools. The machinery used to manage a school system and its various divisions must be periodically studied and the plan in operation for the supervision of services and activities must from time to time be scrutinized in order that waste may be eliminated, unnecessary parts removed, and the plan of organization modernized to meet conditions as they exist. Schools are dynamic institutions, and the plan for the administration and supervision of their services must likewise be dynamic.

PART II : AIMS AND ACTIVITIES OF SUPERVISORS

By Roy O. Billett

CHAPTER I : A SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS OF AIMS AND ACTIVITIES

1. SCOPE OF THE STUDY AND PRELIMINARY DATA

Number of schools studied and criteria for selecting them.—This report deals primarily with the aims and activities of supervisors in a small number of schools carefully selected on the basis of the following criteria: First, each school should be recommended by some competent authority as having an unusually successful supervisory program; second, the supervisory staff of the school should have some confidence in the merit of its program of supervision; third, the supervisory staff should be willing to assist the visiting member of the Survey staff in collecting the necessary data; fourth, the schools selected should be representative of the various geographical areas of the country. On the basis of these criteria, 30 cities were selected for intensive study. The staff member in charge originally planned to visit one school in each city. In a few of the cities it later seemed advisable to include two or three schools.

Selecting schools for intensive study.—Preliminary to the final selection of the 30 cities for intensive study, a brief inquiry was addressed to the principals of 130 schools recommended by State superintendents, city superintendents, or other informed persons as having unusually successful programs of supervision. Sixty-nine principals replied. To the question, "Do you believe that a successful supervisory program is functioning in your school?" nine answered "No" and five expressed doubt. The remainder indicated a reasonable confidence in their procedures. From these replies 30 cities were selected for further study, care being exercised to represent all geographical areas.

Outstanding elements of supervisory programs mentioned in replies to the preliminary inquiry.—In the replies to the

question, "What seem to you to be the outstanding elements of the supervisory program in your school?" four words figure prominently. These words are simplicity, informality, cooperation, and spirit. Perhaps the typical phrases are vague in which these words are used, but the frequency of their recurrence suggests some vital connection between them and practical supervision. "The absence of formality and the presence of a cooperative spirit in tackling the problems of child growth"; "cooperation of teachers, heads of departments, principals, supervisors, and the supervisory staff of the central office"; "ability of heads of departments to cooperate and to take suggestions from each other"; "simplicity and efficiency"; and expressions of a similar nature receive emphasis through repetition by respondent after respondent. Accompanying these general statements were many specific statements referring to testing programs, marking and promotion schemes, informal objective examinations, departmental examinations, classification of pupils into homogeneous groups, differentiation of courses and curriculums for the very slow and the very bright, traits of bright and dull pupils, effect of absence on marks, improvement of the study habits of pupils, value of home-work assignments, pupil guidance or adjustment, demonstration teaching, visiting classroom teachers, individual conferences, departmental and faculty meetings, revision of curriculums, grade placement of subject matter, the unit organization of subject matter, service studies on problems of teaching methods and of the curriculum, the extracurriculum, vocational choices of graduates, and follow-up studies of the success of graduates. If the preceding items represent a fair composite of the matters with which supervision should be concerned, then supervision is potentially coextensive with the art and science of education. The nature and the variety of the elements listed by these practical supervisors seem to show that supervision may comprehend not only the improvement of classroom instruction but also the improvement of the extracurriculum and of guidance, although the preliminary and superficial nature of the evidence at this stage of the study makes any inference hazardous.

The detailed follow-up study.—Information as to what the aims and activities of supervisors are, or should be, is available from two sources, namely, the literature of the field and the reports and judgments of the supervisors themselves. In this study an attempt has been made to draw upon both sources and to make possible a comparison of the results obtained. The study was planned on the theory that a supervisory program is one thing and supervisory activities are another; that the program is a systematic arrangement of the aims or objectives of the supervisory staff, and that the activities are what the supervisory staff does in an effort to approach or to attain these aims. Therefore, the first step in the follow-up study was the analysis of what competent writers on the subject of supervision have said these aims and activities are or should be. Analysis and resynthesis of the literature on supervision showed that a theoretical supervisory program consists of six major divisions (Table 2), namely: (1) Helping to develop educational aims or objectives; (2) helping to develop subject matter or content, including pupil activities and experiences; (3) helping to develop teaching methods and procedures; (4) helping to adjust the teacher to the community; (5) helping to provide for the individual differences of teachers; and (6) helping to evaluate the supervisory program. The word "helping" is used advisedly, since in the opinion of competent writers the supervisor should seek above all else to be a cooperator. Even though vested, as he often is, with administrative functions, he should divest himself of this cloak of authority when engaged in supervisory work, depending upon superior ability and training for the right to lead, and not hesitating to follow when others better qualified to lead are working with him.

A similar search of the literature for the activities of supervisors revealed 72 activities (Table 3) which competent writers have classified at one time or another as supervisory. For the purpose of the present study it is entirely unnecessary that either this writer or the reader be convinced that all these activities are really supervisory activities on the one hand or important activities on the other hand. An analogous observation holds for the supervisory program. The

question, "What seem to you to be the outstanding elements of the supervisory program in your school?" four words figure prominently. These words are simplicity, informality, cooperation, and spirit. Perhaps the typical phrases are vague in which these words are used, but the frequency of their recurrence suggests some vital connection between them and practical supervision. "The absence of formality and the presence of a cooperative spirit in tackling the problems of child growth"; "cooperation of teachers, heads of departments, principals, supervisors, and the supervisory staff of the central office"; "ability of heads of departments to cooperate and to take suggestions from each other"; "simplicity and efficiency"; and expressions of a similar nature receive emphasis through repetition by respondent after respondent. Accompanying these general statements were many specific statements referring to testing programs, marking and promotion schemes, informal objective examinations, departmental examinations, classification of pupils into homogeneous groups, differentiation of courses and curriculums for the very slow and the very bright, traits of bright and dull pupils, effect of absence on marks, improvement of the study habits of pupils, value of home-work assignments, pupil guidance or adjustment, demonstration teaching, visiting classroom teachers, individual conferences, departmental and faculty meetings, revision of curriculums, grade placement of subject matter, the unit organization of subject matter, service studies on problems of teaching methods and of the curriculum, the extracurriculum, vocational choices of graduates, and follow-up studies of the success of graduates. If the preceding items represent a fair composite of the matters with which supervision should be concerned, then supervision is potentially coextensive with the art and science of education. The nature and the variety of the elements listed by these practical supervisors seem to show that supervision may comprehend not only the improvement of classroom instruction but also the improvement of the extracurriculum and of guidance, although the preliminary and superficial nature of the evidence at this stage of the study makes any inference hazardous.

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essential point for this study is that here is an organized statement of what competent writers on supervision have said the aims and activities of supervisors should be. The questions to be answered by this study are whether these largely theoretical aims and activities actually coincide with the aims and activities of outstanding supervisors on the job, and if not, the nature and extent of the differences. To answer these questions, the theoretical aims and activities of supervisors were organized into a comprehensive interview form to be filled out by each person doing any effective supervision in the schools selected for intensive study. The reactions of 284 supervisors from outstanding schools are available. Their replies were tabulated to show (1) the programs of practical supervisors; (2) the activities of practical supervisors; (3) the extent to which practical supervisory programs coincide with a composite program advocated by competent writers on the subject; (4) the extent to which the real activities of supervisors coincide with a composite list of activities which one or more competent writers have regarded as supervisory; and (5) the degree of success, as estimated by the supervisors on a 3-point scale, with which each supervisory activity has contributed to each of the major divisions of the supervisory program.

At every step of the inquiry ample opportunity was provided respondents to indicate other aims or activities not listed in the form. The tabulated replies were supplemented and checked by the analysis of a large amount of printed, typed, and mimeographed data submitted from the several schools. Moreover, each school included in the study was visited by the staff member in charge and additional data were collected. These data are the basis for Chapter II.

1. THE SUPERVISORS COOPERATING IN THIS STUDY

Types of supervisors included.—The supervisors who have contributed the data of this investigation include every person doing any effective supervision in the schools studied. Twenty-five different official titles are represented. For the purposes of the present chapter these various officials have been classified into three groups: (1) Those supervisors charged with a large measure of administrative or coordinat-

ing functions—for example, the principal; (2) those supervisors who usually give a considerable part of their time to teaching—for example, the department head; and (3) those supervisors who usually give full time to supervision having no administrative functions and no regular teaching to do—for example, the special supervisor.

Value of their judgments on supervisory matters.—Probably no brief need be presented to establish the obvious fact that no other group of 284 supervisors is likely to possess ability, training, and experience which would better qualify them to supply the data sought in this study. If the theoretical aims and activities of supervisors have been realized in practice in any group of schools, they have been realized in the schools in which these supervisors are working. The manner of selecting the schools for intensive study would seem to leave little doubt of the truth of these assertions. The following data also tend to establish the statements as reasonable inferences, although no formal proof will be attempted.

Size of the schools.—Ninety-four per cent of the 284 supervisors are employed in schools with enrollments of more than 1,000, 60 per cent in schools with enrollments of more than 1,500, and 46 per cent in schools with enrollments of more than 2,000. Most readers would agree that the success of these supervisors as a group may be inferred from the well-known tendency for the best talent in the profession to be promoted to the larger schools. This statement is made with full knowledge of many exceptions which prove the rule.

Experience in school work.—Experience taken by itself may mean little or nothing; but high premiums are paid everywhere for successful experience. The first group of supervisors mentioned above has a median experience in school work of 20.3 years; the supervisors of the second group, 19.8 years; of the third group, 23.1 years; of all three groups combined, 20.8 years. Since these supervisors are now working in outstanding schools of large enrollments, one may infer conservatively that this noteworthy amount of experience is eminently successful experience.

Training of the group of supervisors cooperating in the study.—Thirty-eight per cent of these supervisors hold bachelor's degrees only. Forty-five per cent hold both

bachelor's and master's degrees. Four per cent hold bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees. Eleven per cent, consisting mainly of special supervisors, hold special diplomas in their fields of work, but not degrees. A fourth of the bachelor's degrees, two-thirds of the master's degrees, and a third of the doctor's degrees were received within the past 10 years. This training has been received in institutions located throughout the length and breadth of the United States (Table 1), although most of the supervisors were trained in the regions where they are now employed. Hence the amount of training which this group has received, the recency of the training, and the widely distributed institutions where the training was received, all seem to make the group highly acceptable for the purposes of this investigation.

TABLE 1.—*Extent to which supervisors have been trained in regions where at present employed*

BACHELOR'S DEGREE

Region where training was received	Region where supervisor is now located				
	New England	Middle Atlantic	Southern	Middle West	West
1	2	3	4	5	6
New England	14	6	1	3	
Middle Atlantic	1	32	4	2	3
Southern		1	15	1	1
Middle West	1	4	19	67	25
West				1	39

MASTER'S DEGREE

New England	3	3		2	
Middle Atlantic	2	20	8	6	7
Southern	1		6		
Middle West		1	13	32	3
West					26

DOCTOR'S DEGREE

New England		1			3
Middle Atlantic	2	6			
Southern			2		1
Middle West		1			1
West					

Distribution of the supervisors' time.—Stated briefly, four-fifths of the supervisors of the first type listed near the opening of this section, nine-tenths of the supervisors of the second type, and a half of the supervisors of the third type give full time to secondary-school work. A fourth of the supervisors of the first type, 3 per cent of the supervisors of the second type, and three-fourths of the supervisors of the third type give full time to supervision. These data suggest that the main business of special supervisors usually is supervision, but the main business of all other supervisors is teaching or administration, or both. Moreover, the work of the first two types of supervisors is much more generally confined to the secondary school than is the case for supervisors of the third type.

3. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL SUPERVISORY PROGRAMS COMPARED

The method of comparison.—As stated previously, a theoretical program for supervision was derived from an analysis and resynthesis of the literature. The elements of the program were arranged logically under subdivisions and major divisions (Columns 1, 2, 3, and 4, in Table 2). Since this program is reproduced in Table 2, no detailed reference to the several items need be made in the text. The supervisors checked the elements of the theoretical program to show, first, those elements which they recognized as their own aims or objectives during the year 1930–31, and, second, those elements which they recognized as having been especially prominent in determining the nature of their supervisory activities during that year.

The findings.—The first significant fact to be reported is that no additional aims or objectives were suggested by any of these competent, trained, and experienced supervisors. The second equally significant fact is that no element was recognized by less than 30 per cent of the supervisors as a part of their programs for the year 1930–31 and at least one element was recognized by as many as 77 per cent. (See range at bottom of Table 2, Column 5.) Therefore, the program presented in Table 2 comprehends not only a theoretical but

also a practical statement of the aims and objectives of supervisors. Moreover, each element was recognized by from 3 to 29 per cent (Column 9) of the supervisors as an especially prominent goal toward which they had been working during the year 1930–31. On the average (see arithmetical means at bottom of Table 2, Columns 5 and 9) each element was recognized as a goal by 57 per cent of the supervisors and as an especially prominent goal by 14 per cent.

TABLE 2.—*Major divisions, subdivisions, and elements of supervisory programs and percentages of 284 supervisors reporting the significance of each element in their programs*

Major divisions, subdivisions, and elements (elements ranked under each subdivision)	Percentages of three types[1] of supervisors regarding each element							
	As a part of their supervisory programs				As an especially prominent part of their supervisory programs			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	All	(1)	(2)	(3)	All
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I. Development of educational aims or objectives:								
A. To help to initially formulate the educational objectives of—								
1. Certain subjects	67	+70	40	63	20	+17	+17	+18
2. Certain subject-matter fields	+73	57	45	59	22	15	+18	+18
3. Subdivisions of certain subjects	52	53	34	−48	20	+16	7	15
4. The whole educative process	64	−39	40	−47	+32	−8	10	14
B. To help continuously to plan the reformulation of the educational objectives of—								
1. Certain subjects	+73	+70	40	64	27	+17	+15	+19
2. Certain subject-matter fields	+76	62	38	61	+28	+17	13	+19
3. Subdivisions of certain subjects	54	65	36	56	19	+26	8	+20
4. The whole educative process	64	−34	−30	−42	+28	−4	−2	11
II. Development of subject matter or content:[2]								
A. To help to determine—								
1. Textbooks, reference books, and classroom equipment	+75	+87	+56	+77	26	+30	+23	+27
2. Content of certain subjects	69	+81	+53	+71	21	+22	+30	+23
3. Subjects adapted to different types of pupils	+77	+73	47	+69	+46	+19	+20	+27
4. Content, in certain subjects, adapted to individual differences of pupils	69	+74	43	+67	+36	+29	+18	+29
5. Subjects to be offered	+71	+72	47	+66	19	12	+27	17
6. Curriculums to be offered	70	60	+54	61	26	8	+22	16
7. Amount of time to be given to the subdivisions of certain subjects	50	65	+50	57	−10	14	+18	14
8. Grade placement of certain subjects	65	−52	45	55	16	7	+17	12

[1] These three types are: (1) Supervisors with administrative and coordinating functions, of which the principal is typical; (2) supervisors with more or less classroom teaching to do, of which the department head is typical; (3) supervisors usually known as special supervisors, giving full time to supervision with little or no classroom teaching or administration. The reader will note that the type of supervisor numbered (1) is dealt with in columns 2 and 6 of the table; similarly the data contained in columns 3 and 7 refer to type (2) and columns 4 and 8 to type (3).

[2] Including pupils' activities and experiences.

TABLE 2.—*Major divisions, subdivisions, and elements of supervisory programs and percentages of 284 supervisors reporting the significance of each element in their programs*—Continued

Major divisions, subdivisions, and elements (elements ranked under each subdivision)	Percentages of three types of supervisors regarding each element							
	As a part of their supervisory programs				As an especially prominent part of their supervisory programs			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	All	(1)	(2)	(3)	All
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
II. Development of subject matter or content—Con.								
B. To help to measure by tests the results of—								
1. Adapting content to individual differences of pupils	68	67	34	60	+38	+20	7	+22
2. Adapting subjects to different types of pupils	70	61	−24	56	+33	10	7	16
3. Including or excluding certain content from subjects offered	57	64	−30	55	15	12	8	12
4. Using certain textbooks, reference books, or classroom equipment	53	58	−25	50	−10	10	7	10
5. Giving certain amounts of time to the subdivisions of a subject	−37	−50	−27	−42	−9	10	7	−9
6. Offering certain subjects	−51	−42	−24	−40	14	−5	7	−8
7. Offering subjects in certain grades	−37	−43	−16	−36	−6	−5	−3	−5
8. Offering certain curriculums	−39	−32	−14	−30	−6	−2	−2	−3
C. To help to judge through careful observation the results of—								
1. Adapting content to individual differences of pupils	+73	+80	+51	+72	+42	+21	8	+24
2. Adapting subjects to different types of pupils	+75	+74	+50	+69	+38	+19	−5	+21
3. Including or excluding certain content from subjects offered	66	+75	+51	+67	20	15	13	16
4. Using certain textbooks, reference books, or classroom equipment	68	+72	46	+65	19	12	13	14
5. Offering certain subjects	64	68	+52	64	15	8	+22	13
6. Offering certain curriculums	62	55	46	56	16	−4	13	10
7. Giving certain amounts of time to the subdivisions of a subject	−44	67	+49	56	−9	12	7	10
8. Offering subjects in certain grades	−49	54	+54	52	−6	6	12	−7
D. To help continuously to plan the change, reorganization, or revision of—								
1. Content of each subject	69	+74	+55	+69	21	+17	+25	+20
2. Textbooks, reference books, or classroom equipment	70	+72	48	+67	16	12	10	13
3. Subjects offered	66	68	+52	64	15	9	+20	13
4. Subjects adapted to different types of pupils	70	66	45	63	27	15	7	17
5. Content, in each subject, adapted to individual differences of pupils	68	67	42	62	+37	+18	−5	+21
6. Curriculums to be offered	68	53	+55	58	20	8	+15	13
7. Amounts of time given to the subdivisions of each subject	−44	62	47	54	−9	12	7	10
8. Grade placement of each subject	53	−48	47	50	−2	−5	−5	−5
III. Development of teaching methods and procedures:								
A. To help to devise teaching methods adapted to—								
1. Pupils of different interests	+78	+74	+50	+70	+37	11	10	+18
2. Pupils of different levels of academic ability	+84	66	44	+66	+51	+26	7	+29
3. Pupils with special talents	+71	+73	43	+66	+31	14	8	+18
4. Pupils in classes of varying size	−51	62	35	53	14	9	7	10
5. Pupils of different experiential backgrounds	60	53	−27	50	17	7	−5	10

TABLE 2.—*Major divisions, subdivisions, and elements of supervisory programs and percentages of 284 supervisors reporting the significance of each element in their programs*—Continued

Major divisions, subdivisions, and elements (elements ranked under each subdivision)	Percentages of three types of supervisors regarding each element							
	As a part of their supervisory programs				As an especially prominent part of their supervisory programs			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	All	(1)	(2)	(3)	All
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
III. Development of teaching methods and procedures—Continued								
B. To help to measure by tests the results of teaching methods adapted to—								
1. Pupils of different levels of academic ability	67	58	−24	53	25	9	7	13
2. Pupils of different interests	−48	−43	−30	−42	−11	−3	−5	−6
3. Pupils with special talents	−46	−43	−25	−40	14	7	7	−9
4. Pupils of different experiential backgrounds	−42	−37	−20	−39	−6	−3	−3	−4
5. Pupils in classes of varying size	−41	−41	−18	−37	−9	6	−5	−7
C. To help to judge through careful observation results of teaching methods adapted to—								
1. Pupils of different levels of academic ability	+84	+71	43	+69	+33	12	8	+18
2. Pupils of different interests	+75	60	48	63	21	−5	8	11
3. Pupils with special talents	64	61	40	57	17	8	7	10
4. Pupils in classes of varying size	53	58	35	52	−11	−5	10	−8
5. Pupils of different experiential backgrounds	62	−51	−30	50	−9	−4	−5	−6
D. To help to revise teaching methods adapted to—								
1. Pupils of different levels of academic ability	+80	68	45	+67	+32	12	7	17
2. Pupils of different interests	+71	59	+49	60	19	6	7	10
3. Pupils with special talents	65	58	45	57	17	8	7	10
4. Pupils of different experiential backgrounds	60	−50	−27	−48	−11	−4	−5	−6
5. Pupils in classes of varying size	−43	53	−30	−45	12	8	8	−9
IV. Adjustment of the teacher to the community	−47	−43	−28	−42	−6	−3	10	−6
V. Provision for individual differences of teachers	60	69	40	60	19	13	10	14
VI. Evaluation of results of supervisory program	52	57	+50	54	14	−3	+17	−9
Ranges of percentages for all 63 elements	37–84	32–87	14–56	30–77	2–51	2–30	2–30	3–29
Arithmetical means of percentages for all 63 elements	62	60	40	57	20	11	11	14

NOTE.—For explanation of meanings of plus and minus signs, see the text, p. 150.

Still another fact revealed by the arithmetical means (Columns 2, 3, and 4) is that supervisors of the first and second types have a more comprehensive and hence a less specialized program than supervisors of the third type. However, if one considers only those elements which are especially prominent in determining what the activities of the supervisory staff shall be (Columns 6, 7, and 8), then the pro-

grams of supervisors of the second and third types are about equally specialized, including only 11 per cent of the elements; and the programs of the supervisors of the first type are considerably more comprehensive than either of the other two, including, on the average, 20 per cent of the elements. These findings are in line with what might be anticipated. Supervisors of the first type, with extensive administrative and coordinating functions, of necessity must be concerned with a wide variety of objectives. Supervisors of the second type, consisting for the most part of department heads, are interested in an almost equally wide variety of objectives (Columns 2 and 3), but, because of the relatively limited amount of time which they have for supervision, they must concentrate their efforts on a small number of objectives each year (Columns 6 and 7). Supervisors of the third type—that is, the special supervisors—live up to their titles and "specialize" more than the other two types, although as a rule they have full time to give to supervision. A common-sense interpretation of these data would affirm that none of these supervisors is trying to do everything at once; that in schools having relatively large supervisory staffs a division of labor obtains; and that in schools having only one or a very few supervisors the number of objectives is wisely limited to whatever one may reasonably expect to attain, the objectives being changed from year to year.

Elements of the theoretical program most generally recognized as objectives during 1930–31.—As stated previously, the theoretical supervisory program is divided into six major divisions: I. The development of educational aims or objectives; II. The development of subject matter or content, including pupils' activities and experiences; III. The development of teaching methods and procedures; IV. The adjustment of the teacher to the community; V. Provision for the individual differences of teachers; and VI. The evaluation of the results of the supervisory program. (See Table 2.) The first major division dealing with aims or objectives is divided into two subdivisions, the first concerned with the initial formulation of aims and the second with the continuous reformulation of aims. The reader should observe that the four elements appearing under each of these subdivisions

are the same elements, arranged perhaps in different orders, since in each instance the elements are ranked within each subdivision, according to the percentages of all supervisors (Column 5) who recognized them as parts of their supervisory programs for 1930–31. The second major division is composed of four subdivisions, the first dealing with the initial determination of what the subject matter shall be, the second and third dealing with measurement and observation of the results of this initial determination, and the fourth dealing with reorganization or revision in the light of the measured or observed results. Under each of these subdivisions the same eight elements appear, slightly changed in wording occasionally and ranked under each subdivision in the order of percentage frequencies. The third major division, dealing with teaching methods and procedures, also is divided into four subdivisions, the first dealing with the devising of teaching methods and procedures, the second and third dealing with estimating the results of teaching methods or procedures already in use, either through the use of tests or careful observation, and the fourth dealing with the revision of teaching methods or procedures on the basis of measured or observed results. The fourth, fifth, and sixth major divisions are not subdivided, and hence may be regarded also as elements.

Attention focused on data for all supervisors combined.—A mass of detailed relationships are available from the data of Table 2. So many quantitative comparisons could be made that one must steer a middle course in pointing out relationships likely to be of general interest. To aid the reader to select readily those elements most frequently and least frequently recognized by each type of supervisor or by all supervisors, those percentages in each column falling in the upper fourth of the frequency distribution have been marked with a plus sign (+) and those percentages falling in the lowest fourth of the distribution have been marked with a minus sign (−). These designations are not absolutely exact, since the total number of elements (63) is not divisible by 4, and since, in a few cases, tied ranks interfere with the precise division of the distribution into fourths. However, for practical purposes the plus and minus signs show readily

and with sufficient accuracy those portions of the program which are receiving most and least attention.

In this discussion attention will be focused on the data for all supervisors combined (Columns 5 and 9). Such differences as exist among the three types of supervisors are those which might readily be anticipated to exist, and the interested reader may search them out as he desires. For example, element I–A–1, dealing with the initial formulation of the aims or objectives of individual subjects, is a goal most frequently recognized by supervisors of the second type (Column 3). However, as might be expected, not element I–A–1 but element I–A–2, which deals with individual subject-matter fields, is the goal in this particular group of elements which is most frequently recognized by supervisors of the first type. Needless to say, in view of the coordinating function of the principal and the fact that he deals directly with department heads he is far more likely to be concerned with the aims or objectives of subject-matter fields than with those of individual subjects. Likewise the department head dealing directly with the teacher is likely to be concerned with the aims or objectives of the individual subject. To point out all such relationships revealed by this table and to check their logic would drag the report into unprofitable detail. By the use of Table 2 the reader may go as far as he likes and in the directions he prefers.

Elements most frequently recognized as goals.—Returning to a consideration of the data for all supervisors combined (Column 5), one finds that goals or elements related to the determination of subject matter or content are those receiving greatest emphasis during 1930–31. In other words, five of the eight elements listed under II–A fall in the upper fourth of the total distribution of percentage frequencies shown in Column 5. Of these five the "selection of textbooks, reference books, and classroom equipment" is the most frequently recognized. The remaining four include "subjects to be offered," "the content of certain subjects," and "subjects and content adapted to the individual differences of pupils." Under II–C (helping to judge through careful observation) one finds four of the five elements referred to above to be included in the upper fourth of the

percentage distribution, and the remaining one of the five lacks only 1 per cent of being placed in the upper fourth. Similarly under II–D (helping continuously to plan for change, reorganization, or revision) one finds two of the five elements ranking in the upper fourth and the other three very close to the border line between the highest and next highest fourths.

Under III–A (devising teaching methods) three elements rank in the highest fourth. They include devising teaching methods adapted to pupils of "different interests," of "different academic abilities," and of "different special talents." Under III–C (judging results through careful observation) only the element applying to pupils of different academic abilities appears in the upper fourth, and this same element again appears in the upper fourth under III–D (revising teaching methods). The inference from these facts is that development of teaching methods or procedures adapted to pupils of different interests, different levels of academic intelligence, and different talents is among the most prominent goals of supervisors, but the development of such methods has proceeded far enough for evaluation and revision only in the case of methods adapted to different levels of academic ability.

From the data of Column 5 one may conclude that the 284 supervisors included in this investigation are primarily concerned with problems of subject matter or content. Next in order they are interested in the development of teaching methods and procedures. Since the development of educational aims or objectives must precede effective work with either subject matter or teaching methods, one must infer that this group of supervisors had given primary attention to the problem of educational aims or objectives prior to the year 1930–31, or that such aims have been accepted on the basis of the pronouncements of authorities in educational science and philosophy.

Elements least frequently recognized as goals.—The minus signs of Column 5 show that the formulation and reformulation of aims or objectives for the whole educative process (I–A–4 and I–B–4) are recognized as goals by comparatively few supervisors. The probable reasons have been

cited at the close of the preceding paragraph. Also, comparatively little attention is being given to the determination of aims or objectives for the subdivisions of each individual subject (I–A–3). In this respect, however, it is noteworthy that even 48 per cent of all supervisiors should be concerned with this problem, since in many instances, probably in most instances, the interest in developing aims or objectives for the subdivisions of each individual subject is related to efforts under way to organize subject matter on the basis of unit assignments. The large number of minus signs appearing under II–B and III–B reflect a lack of confidence in present-day tests for measuring the results of adaptations which have been effected in subject matter or in teaching procedure; and the minus sign opposite IV (adjustment of the teacher to the community) is an evidence of the relatively unimportant place of this element in the program of the supervisors who cooperated in this study.

An examination of the data of Column 9 shows that items recognized as goals (Column 5) are not always especially prominent in determining what the supervisory activities shall be, and vice versa.

Review.—Of the principal facts revealed by the data of Table 2 the following will bear restatement:

1. The theoretical supervisory program derived from the literature has proved to be inclusive of every goal which practical supervisors were working toward during 1930–31.

2. No element of the program was recognized as a goal by less than 30 per cent nor by more than 77 per cent of the supervisors cooperating in the study.

3. Supervisors of each type were concentrating their efforts on a comparatively small number of objectives. This is conspicuously true of supervisors of the third type, the example of which is the special supervisor. Such concentration of effort is partly the result of the division of labor, but it is largely the result of a wise decision to do a few things well.

4. The elements most frequently recognized as goals are elements in the fields of subject matter, teaching methods, and educational aims or objectives.

5. In the field of subject matter the selection of textbooks, reference books, and classroom equipment, the development of the content of individual subjects, and the adaptation of subjects and of content to the individual differences of pupils were most frequently the objectives of the group of supervisors for the year in question.

6. In the field of teaching methods, adaptations for pupils of different levels of academic ability and of different interests rank highest in frequency.

7. In the field of educational aims or objectives, individual subjects and subject-matter fields were more often the objects of attention by supervisors than were the subdivisions of individual subjects on the one hand, or the whole educative process on the other.

8. Measurement by means of tests is conspicuously not a common aim of the supervisors studied. By far the most frequently recognized means of evaluation is careful observation.

4. THE ACTIVITIES OF SUPERVISORS

What supervisors do to attain their goals.—As previously explained, a logical approach to the study of supervision would seem to inquire first into the aims or objectives of supervisors, as has been done already in section 3 of this chapter, and second into what the supervisors do to attain their aims or objectives. A third logical inquiry (and the last to be considered in the present study) would investigate the extent to which each activity has successfully contributed to each aim or objective. Answers to the second and third inquiries are attempted in this section. Obviously, the answer to the third inquiry must be based on the consensus of opinion of those best qualified to judge, namely, the supervisors themselves.

Reference has already been made to the fact that an analysis of the literature on supervision revealed 72 activities which one or more competent writers have regarded as supervisory in nature. The supervisors cooperating in this study checked each of the 72 activities which they regarded as supervisory and in which they had engaged during the year 1930–31. The results of this phase of the study are set forth in Table 3. No new activities were added to the list by the supervisors. On the other hand, the list contains no superfluous activities, since each activity was checked by at least 4 per cent of the supervisors and some activities were checked by as high as 88 per cent. (See Column 9, Table 3.) The chief value of the list of activities given in Table 3 inheres in the fact that it is a comprehensive list from either a theoretical or a practical standpoint. On the average each activity was checked by 52 per cent of all supervisors partici-

pating in the study. (See arithmetical means at bottom of Table 3.) Supervisors of the third type engage in a considerably larger number of activities than supervisors of the first type, and these in turn engage in a somewhat larger number of activities than supervisors of the second type.

TABLE 3.—*Percentages of three types* [1] *of supervisors engaging in various supervisory activities*

Supervisory activity	Types of supervisors							
	(1)		(2)		(3)		All	
	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Survey the community served by the school	57.5	37	60.0	22	35.5	20	−66.0	26
2. Survey the school plant and equipment	42.0	52	43.0	41	52.5	43	47.0	44
3. Read educational literature	1.0	84	4.5	87	1.5	90	+2.0	86
4. Visit other school systems and study educational practice	17.0	67	41.0	45	35.0	66	36.5	56
5. Visit classroom teachers	6.0	76	2.0	95	5.0	88	+1.0	88
6. Plan or follow up the results of intervisitation by teachers	59.5	36	46.0	37	38.5	65	50.0	43
7. Plan, conduct, or follow up the results of demonstration teaching	67.0	25	55.0	27	50.5	45	−61.0	30
8. Plan, conduct, or follow up the results of individual conferences	5.0	78	4.5	87	1.5	90	+4.0	85
9. Attend, plan, conduct, or follow up the results of group conferences or committee meetings	7.5	74	8.0	82	8.0	86	+7.0	81
10. Attend, plan, conduct, or follow up the results of departmental meetings	20.0	65	8.0	94	12.5	80	+6.0	82
11. Attend, plan, conduct, or follow up the results of general faculty meetings	12.0	70	12.0	74	57.0	38	+17.0	65
12. Study the interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff supervised	24.5	62	9.0	81	15.5	78	+10.0	75
13. Rate teachers	46.0	49	29.0	59	40.5	63	34.0	57
14. Provide means whereby teachers may rate systematically their own traits and activities	68.0	22	56.0	26	57.0	38	−65.0	27
15. Develop and maintain or help to develop and maintain cumulative records of teachers	61.0	33	49.5	33	54.5	40	−59.0	34
16. Plan, conduct, or follow up the results of testing programs	33.5	57	23.0	63	57.0	38	35.0	56
17. Study the interests, abilities, talents, and experiential background of the pupils	12.0	70	10.0	80	50.5	45	+12.0	70
18. Make case studies of problem pupils or have such studies made	9.0	73	35.0	52	64.0	23	41.0	52
19. Advise as to what subjects and how many subjects pupils should carry	12.0	70	25.5	63	63.0	31	31.0	58
20. Advise concerning classification or reclassification of pupils	3.0	81	18.0	65	61.5	35	21.5	63

[1] These 3 types are: (1) Supervisors with administrative and coordinating functions, of which the principal is typical; (2) supervisors with more or less classroom teaching to do, of which the department head is typical; (3) supervisors usually known as special supervisors, giving full-time to supervision with little or no classroom teaching or administration. The reader will note that the type of supervisor numbered (1) is dealt with in columns 2 and 3 of the table; similarly the data contained in columns 4 and 5 refer to Type (2), and columns 6 and 7 to Type (3).

NOTE.—For explanation of meanings of plus and minus signs, see the text, p. 150.

TABLE 3.—*Percentages of three types of supervisors engaging in various supervisory activities*—Continued

Supervisory activity	Types of supervisors							
	(1)		(2)		(3)		All	
	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21. Develop and maintain or help to develop and maintain cumulative records of pupils	7.5	74	23.0	63	61.5	35	28.0	60
22. Consult with parents concerning pupils	3.0	81	7.0	84	47.0	48	+9.0	76
23. Arrange conferences between teachers and parents	14.5	68	52.5	29	65.5	20	52.5	39
24. Direct, guide, or advise concerning the library service of the school	59.5	36	31.5	56	54.5	40	41.0	52
25. Secure or help to secure stenographic and other clerical aid for teachers	33.5	57	42.0	41	59.5	36	45.5	45
26. Help teachers to get along with little equipment	62.5	31	25.5	62	25.0	73	36.5	55
27. Help teachers to utilize newly introduced materials and equipment	42.0	52	13.0	71	21.5	75	+14.5	67
28. Requisition materials needed for classroom work	39.5	53	1.0	98	35.0	66	+8.0	78
29. Improve the teacher's classroom management (including distribution and collection of materials and filing of materials for later use)	44.0	51	14.0	70	35.0	66	20.0	64
30. Improve the teacher's efficiency in handling the routine matters of reports and records	33.5	57	37.0	52	48.5	46	41.0	52
31. Edit or contribute to supervisory bulletins and circulars	22.0	63	39.0	47	21.5	75	32.0	57
32. Plan, direct, or advise concerning exhibits of school work	46.0	49	27.0	61	5.0	88	21.5	63
33. Prepare news articles	55.5	38	57.5	25	25.0	73	51.0	39
34. Attend meetings of community groups or organizations	14.5	68	15.5	69	10.5	81	+11.0	71
35. Encourage teachers to attend meetings of community groups or organizations	33.5	57	40.0	45	25.0	73	38.0	55
36. Address community groups or organizations	20.0	65	49.5	33	15.5	78	43.5	52
37. Encourage teachers to address community groups or organizations	54.0	41	66.0	17	38.5	65	−60.0	34
38. Hold membership or office in community groups or organizations	27.5	60	31.5	56	21.5	75	25.0	61
39. Encourage teachers to hold membership or office in community groups or organizations	52.0	43	54.0	28	44.0	58	52.5	39
40. Maintain scheduled office hours for teachers who of their own initiative are seeking help	42.0	52	44.0	40	5.0	88	39.0	54
41. Maintain a system encouraging teachers to offer suggestions for the improvement of the educational program of the school	24.5	62	18.0	65	18.5	76	+14.5	67
42. Analyze and follow up suggestions made by teachers for the improvement of the educational program of the school	17.0	67	18.0	65	21.5	75	+13.0	68
43. Analyze and appraise own supervisory activities and traits	27.5	60	20.5	64	29.0	70	19.0	64
44. Provide means whereby teachers may rate systematically the supervisor's traits and activities	72.0	2	70.0	2	67.5	18	−71.0	6
45. Write professional articles for publication	55.5	38	61.0	22	29.0	70	−57.0	37
46. Encourage teachers to write professional articles for publication	52.0	43	59.0	24	43.0	60	−54.5	37
47. Attend professional meetings outside the school system	3.0	81	6.0	86	5.0	88	+3.0	85
48. Encourage teachers to attend professional meetings outside their own school system	30.0	56	28.0	63	9.0	83	+16.0	66

TABLE 3.—*Percentages of three types of supervisors engaging in various supervisory activities*—Continued

Supervisory activity	Types of supervisors							
	(1)		(2)		(3)		All	
	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent	Rank	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
49. Serve on professional committees outside the school system	24.5	62	38.0	48	12.5	80	30.0	59
50. Encourage teachers to serve on professional committees outside their own school system	49.0	46	49.5	33	35.0	66	48.5	44
51. Hold membership or office in professional organizations outside the school system	10.0	71	15.5	69	5.0	88	+5.0	83
52. Encourage teachers to hold membership or office in professional organizations outside their own school system	33.5	57	35.0	52	15.5	78	29.0	59
53. Address professional groups outside the school system	46.0	49	52.5	29	29.0	70	48.5	44
54. Encourage teachers to address professional groups outside their own school system	57.5	37	57.5	25	40.5	63	−57.0	37
55. Direct or guide teachers' professional training	64.5	28	65.0	20	48.5	46	−64.0	28
56. Direct or cooperate with teachers in the solution of research or service problems	17.0	67	30.0	57	29.0	70	23.0	62
57. Encourage teachers to attend teachers' institutes or conventions	39.5	53	28.0	60	15.5	78	24.0	62
58. Attend summer school or take extension or correspondence courses	37.5	55	35.0	52	29.0	70	33.0	57
59. Direct or guide teachers in the selection of summer school, extension, or correspondence courses	37.5	55	45.0	39	18.5	76	43.5	52
60. Teach summer school, extension, or correspondence-school courses	66.0	27	62.5	21	45.0	53	−62.0	30
61. Encourage teachers to attend summer school or carry extension or correspondence courses	28.0	59	33.0	53	10.5	81	26.0	61
62. Cooperate with normal schools, colleges, or universities to improve the quality, or increase the number, of summer school, extension, or correspondence courses available to your teachers	64.5	28	67.0	13	32.0	68	−63.0	29
63. Plan or advise concerning the teacher's daily schedule	33.5	57	11.0	75	46.0	51	+18.0	65
64. Recommend or make changes in location of classrooms for various subjects	20.0	65	20.5	64	52.5	43	27.0	60
65. Recommend or make changes in the daily program of the school	24.5	62	49.5	33	69.5	11	−57.0	37
66. Recommend or arrange for the temporary exchange of positions by teachers	69.0	20	68.0	10	59.5	36	−68.0	19
67. Transfer or recommend the transfer of a teacher from one position to another	48.0	48	64.0	20	42.0	61	−54.5	37
68. Help to fill vacancies in teaching positions	50.0	44	47.0	36	35.0	66	45.5	45
69. Recommend teachers for bonus or salary increase	62.5	31	62.5	21	67.5	18	−67.0	23
70. Recommend teachers for leaves of absence with pay or part pay for travel	70.0	11	71.5	1	71.0	10	−70.0	6
71. Recommend teachers for leaves of absence with pay or part pay for further training	71.0	5	71.5	1	72.0	8	−72.0	4
72. Direct and coordinate the work of all supervisors in your school	52.0	43	69.0	6	69.5	11	−69.0	18
Range	.....	2–84	.....	1–98	.....	8–90	.....	4–88
Arithmetical mean	.....	52	.....	48	.....	58	.....	52

Those activities occupying the first 18 ranks, or the upper fourth of the percentage frequency distribution, are marked with plus signs in Table 3. Those occupying the last 19 ranks, or approximately the lowest fourth, are marked with minus signs. Since the activities as listed in the table follow a fairly logical order rather than an order determined by percentage frequencies, some gain may result from reproducing here the 18 activities most frequently checked as supervisory activities actually performed. In the order of percentage frequencies these activities are:

1. (5) [1] Visit classroom teachers.
2. (3) Read educational literature.
3. (47) Attend professional meetings outside the school system.
4. (8) Plan, conduct, or follow up the results of individual conferences.
5. (51) Hold membership or office in professional organizations outside the school system.
6. (10) Attend, plan, conduct, or follow up the results of departmental meetings.
7. (9) Attend, plan, conduct, or follow up the results of group conferences or committee meetings.
8. (28) Requisition materials needed for classroom work.
9. (22) Consult with parents concerning pupils.
10. (12) Study the interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff supervised.
11. (34) Attend meetings of community groups or organizations.
12. (17) Study the interests, abilities, talents, and experiential background of the pupils.
13. (42) Analyze and follow up suggestions made by teachers for the improvement of the educational program of the school.
14. (27) Help teachers to utilize newly introduced materials and equipment.
15. (41) Maintain a system encouraging teachers to offer suggestions for the improvement of the educational program of the school.
16. (48) Encourage teachers to attend professional meetings outside their own school system.
17. (11) Attend, plan, conduct, or follow up the results of general faculty meetings.
18. (63) Plan or advise concerning the teachers' daily schedule.

These activities seem to require no further comment. In the main they are activities which one would expect to be performed generally by good supervisors.

[1] Parentheses indicate the number of the activity as it appears in Table 3.

Those activities occupying the last 19 ranks in the *inverse* order of their percentage frequencies are:

1. (71) Recommend teachers for leaves of absence with pay or part pay for further training.
2. (44) Provide means whereby teachers may rate systematically the supervisor's traits and activities.
3. (70) Recommend teachers for leaves of absence with pay or part pay for travel.
4. (72) Direct and coordinate the work of all supervisors in the school.
5. (66) Recommend or arrange for the temporary exchange of positions by teachers.
6. (69) Recommend teachers for bonus or salary increase.
7. (1) Survey the community served by the school.
8. (14) Provide means whereby teachers may rate systematically their own traits and activities.
9. (55) Direct or guide teachers' professional training.
10. (62) Cooperate with normal schools, colleges, or universities to improve the quality, or increase the number of summer school, extension, or correspondence courses available to teachers.
11. (60) Teach summer school, extension, or correspondence school courses.
12. (7) Plan, conduct, or follow up the results of demonstration teaching.
13. (37) Encourage teachers to address community groups or organizations.
14. (15) Develop and maintain or help to develop and maintain cumulative records of teachers.
15. (45) Write professional articles for publication.
16. (54) Encourage teachers to address professional groups outside their own school system.
17. (65) Recommend or make changes in the daily program of the school.
18. (46) Encourage teachers to write professional articles for publication.
19. (67) Transfer or recommend the transfer of a teacher from one position to another.

Concerning most of the 19 activities ranking lowest in the order of percentages of supervisors performing them, it may be said that in general they are either activities which need not be performed by more than one or a very few supervisors in any given system, or they are activities which usually can not be performed because of circumstances over which the supervisor has no control. As an example of the former may be mentioned the directing and coordinating of the work of

all supervisors in the school [4. (72)], or surveying the community served by the school [7. (1)]. As an example of the latter may be mentioned recommending teachers for leaves of absence with pay or part pay for further training [1. (71)], or teaching summer school, extension, or correspondence school courses [11. (60)]. However, at least four activities appearing in the lowest fourth merit further comment. Two of these [2. (44) and 8. (14)] deal with the question of rating. Apparently either supervisors do not esteem highly the experience of being rated by their teachers or the idea has not yet become generally current. An analogous observation holds for schemes whereby teachers may rate themselves. The other two activities which merit comment because of the infrequency with which they are performed are demonstration teaching [12. (7)] and the development and maintenance of cumulative records of teachers. Clearly, demonstration teaching is a rare procedure in secondary education. In spite of the opinion of some writers on the subject, it seems that here is a much neglected means for the improvement of teaching in the secondary school. It need not be performed by the supervisor, but it certainly may be planned by him and the results may be followed up by him. An interesting experiment along this line has been under way for some time in Shaker Heights, Ohio.[2] A notion is current, however, with which the present writer has no sympathy, that elementary-school teachers can profit by demonstration teaching, but high-school teachers can not. Apparently this would be true only in case the high-school teacher had learned all there was to know about the art of teaching or was incapable of learning more. Neither assumption is sound. Finally, the development and maintenance of cumulative records of all significant facts concerning the members of the teaching staff seems to be a duty which all supervisors share. A record of the teacher's experience and training when he enters the system is only the nucleus of the data which should be systematically accumulated and recorded for each teacher.

Pages might be consumed in detailed comment concerning the data of Table 3. Since the table is self-explanatory, fur-

[2] A Departure in the Supervision of High-School Teaching. School Review, 39; 174-176, March 1931.

ther study is left to the reader who chances to be interested in items which have not been discussed here. Little has been said concerning the differences among the three types of supervisors in the frequencies which each activity is performed. Frequently these differences are large and the reasons are usually fairly obvious. Since the purpose of this aspect of the study was to produce a comprehensive list of supervisory activities, the writer makes no excuses for including a number of activities which may appear trivial to some readers. However, triviality is just as often a matter of point of view as of inherent values. In the writer's opinion each activity here listed merits consideration, though obviously some merit more than others.

Opinions of the supervisors concerning the success of each activity.—Each supervisor who performed a given supervisory activity also indicated whether, in his opinion, the activity had contributed with a low, fair, or high degree of success to each of the six major divisions of the supervisory program. (See Table 2, Column 1.) The essential findings of this phase of the study may be summarized as follows: Forty-six of the 72 activities were rated by 50 per cent or more of the supervisors performing them as having contributed with a fair or high degree of success to the first major division, namely, the development of educational aims or objectives; 40 of the 72 activities were similarly rated with respect to the second major division, namely, the development of subject matter or content; 47 of the activities were similarly rated with respect to the development of teaching methods or procedures; 11 with respect to provisions for the individual differences of teachers; 4 with respect to the adjustment of the teacher to the community; and 9 with respect to the evaluation of the supervisory program. These frequencies (46, 40, 47, 11, 4, and 9) are excellent indexes of what supervisors are doing and of the objectives which they seek to attain. In other words, the primary objectives of supervisors are those relating to educational aims or objectives, to subject matter or content, and to teaching methods or procedures. And by far the greater proportion of their activities, both successful and otherwise, have been planned to contribute to the attainment of these ends. Provisions for

the individual differences of teachers and the evaluation of the supervisory program are receiving little successful attention; and adjustment of the teacher to the community plays an exceedingly minor rôle in the programs and activities of supervisors.

For the benefit of those readers who may care to check up on those activities which 50 per cent or more of all supervisors have regarded as having contributed with a fair or high degree of success to each of the major divisions of the supervisory program, the activities are identified in the following paragraphs by means of consecutive numbers assigned them in Table 3, They are as follows:

Educational aims or objectives: 1 to 12; 16 to 20; 22 to 25; 27; 29; 31 to 34; 40 to 43; 47 to 49; 51; 55 to 61; 63; 65; 68; and 72.

Subject matter or content: 1 to 10; 12; 16 to 18; 20; 24; 25; 27 to 29; 31; 32; 40; 41; 42; 47 to 49; 55 to 63; 65; 68; and 72.

Teaching methods and procedures: 1 to 14; 16 to 18; 20; 23 to 32; 40 to 44; 47; 48; 55 to 62; 67; 68; and 72.

Provisions for the individual differences of teachers: 1; 5; 8; 12; 13; 40; 41; 63; 66; 67; and 72.

Evaluation of the supervisory program: 5; 8 to 10; 16; 40; 41; 43; and 72.

If one sets the standards still higher and seeks those activities which 76 per cent or more of the supervisors performing them have estimated as having contributed with a fair or high degree of success to the attainment of the major divisions of the supervisory program, the story is one soon told. Absolutely none of the activities meets this criterion with respect to educational aims or objectives, provisions for individual differences of teachers, adjustment of the teacher to the community, or evaluation of the supervisory program. Only four attain this standard with respect to subject matter or content and only five with respect to teaching methods and procedures. Two activities are common to both lists. They are "the reading of educational literature" and "the attending, planning, conducting, or following up of the results of departmental meetings." The remaining two, with respect to the development of subject matter or content, are "attending, planning, conducting, or following up the results of group conferences or committee meetings" and "planning, conducting, or following up the

results of testing programs." Thus it appears that, although comparatively few supervisors are using tests as a means of evaluation, nevertheless a large majority of those employing them estimate the results as very successful. The remaining three activities with respect to the development of teaching methods and procedures are "visiting classroom teachers," "visiting other school systems and studying educational practice," and "planning, conducting, or following up the results of individual conferences."

Review.—All 72 supervisory activities derived from an analysis of the literature are recognized as supervisory activities and are a part of the practice of the supervisors cooperating in this study. Supervisors added no new activities to the list. Supervisors of the third type engage in a considerably larger number of activities than supervisors of the first type, and these in turn engage in a somewhat larger number of activities than supervisors of the second type. With a few exceptions, those activities ranking in the lowest fourth of the percentage distribution are activities which need not be performed by more than one or a very few supervisors in any given system, or they are activities which usually can not be performed because of circumstances over which the supervisor has no control. The use of devices whereby teachers may rate themselves or of devices whereby the teachers may rate the supervisor are notably in low esteem. Demonstration teaching seems to be a neglected means of improving teaching in the secondary school; and apparently supervisors should do much more in the matter of developing and maintaining cumulative records of the experience, training, strengths, and weaknesses of the staff supervised. The frequencies with which a given activity is performed by the different types of supervisors often differ materially, and the reasons for the differences are usually obvious. Most of the activities are estimated, by more than half the supervisors performing them, to have contributed with a fair or high degree of success to the development of educational aims or objectives, of subject matter, and of teaching methods. Only very small proportions of the activities are estimated to have contributed with a fair or high degree of success to the attainment of the other three major divisions of the educational program.

CHAPTER II: PRACTICES IN INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS AND SYSTEMS

1. PURPOSE OF THE PRESENT CHAPTER

In the preceding chapter the aims and activities of a group of successful supervisors were compared statistically with what competent writers on the subject of supervision have said the aims and activities of supervisors should be. The purpose of this chapter is to supplement these statistical comparisons with illustrative excerpts of practices regarded as supervisory in the individual schools and systems studied. On the one hand, a complete statement of supervisory practices in each school visited has been avoided, since such an account would entail needless repetition. On the other hand, an effort has been made to include selections which in the aggregate reflect the best thought and practice in connection with supervision in the secondary schools in which supervisory practices were investigated. Occasionally a practice which is described is really unique or peculiar to the school or system named, but such is not necessarily nor usually true.

Of necessity the materials of the several sections of the chapter overlap somewhat. However, an effort has been made to organize the data to prevent undesirable reiteration.

2. TWO PREREQUISITES OF SUCCESSFUL SUPERVISION

A plan.—The typical supervisor in the schools studied begins the year with a definite plan. He states briefly and concisely what he intends to do and how he expects to do it. For example, the program of C. E. Nihart, supervisor of industrial arts, Los Angeles, for the improvement of instruction in junior high school industrial arts during 1931–32 was stated as follows:

1. Make a study of the best teaching methods to be used in conducting large shop classes.
2. Revise courses of study and print bulletins for each junior high school industrial-arts activity.

3. Inaugurate a campaign in shop classes for "correct-doing" practices in the fundamental skills of each activity.

4. Agree upon and adopt uniform methods of individual record-keeping in shop classes.

5. Review current text books, reference books, and magazine articles in our field of work.

6. Continue our work in developing new and more attractive project designs for distribution to shop teachers.

The methods by which the foregoing aims were to be attained included (1) supervisory group meetings, (2) working committees, and (3) individual conferences of teacher and supervisor.

A right attitude toward the supervised.—More often than not the supervisor's program has been developed through close cooperation with the teachers who are to participate in it. As a result the supervisor is regarded by the teachers as one of a group whose experiences, training, and capacities are to be pooled in a cooperative endeavor to improve the pupil's educative environment. Under such circumstances the supervisor may be recognized as a leader and a helper but never as a perfunctory inspector who occupies himself primarily in dispensing negative criticism. On this point, George H. Meredith, assistant superintendent of schools, Pasadena, Calif., might well be speaking for all the schools included in this investigation when he says: "The keynote of our program of supervision has been the development of a democratic relationship wherein the flow of suggestions may come either from the teaching corps or the supervisory staff. We have found that this better spirit has come about when teachers and supervisors have worked together on the larger problems of the curriculum. This wider range of helpfulness [on the part of supervisors] produces more desirable results than the so-called close supervision which tends to develop unsatisfactory relationships between the supervisor and the teachers."

3. SUPERVISORS AS CONSULTANTS

A growing tendency.—A democratic and cooperative relationship between the supervisor and the supervised is taken as a matter of course in leading secondary schools today. But in reality such a concept of supervision is so

revolutionary that one must raise seriously the question whether the word "supervision" is any longer the sign of the idea to be conveyed. Webster defines supervision as "the act of overseeing for the purpose of giving direction; the act of inspecting with authority." This definition quite satisfactorily describes supervision in its earliest stages, when it consisted of the perfunctory vists of the district trustee or of the superintendent. As an interpretation of supervision to-day it is not only incomplete but decidedly misleading. Probably no recent tendency in supervision is better indicative of the present inadequacy of the preceding definition than the growing tendency to regard supervisors as consultants rather than overseers or inspectors. In some schools the sentiment is unmistakably in favor of making all supervisory service a privilege which teachers may enjoy only upon request. In other schools a part of the supervisor's time is being scheduled to "consultation periods." For example, in the Skinner Junior High School, Denver, Colo., each of three supervisors sets aside one period each day, four days per week, for the help of individual members of the staff who of their own accord are seeking aid. (See Fig. 1.) The device is simple in execution but far-reaching in its results.

Educational experts from without the school system as consultants.—In a number of schools the idea of the supervisor as a specialist, whose primary function is to help teachers to solve their problems, has evolved in another manner with the result that educational specialists from outside the local school system have been secured for scheduled advisory meetings. For example, in Pasadena, Calif., an educational specialist from one of the large universities is retained as a consultant. The consultant meets twice a year with committees of teachers and supervisors who are at work constantly on problems of the curriculum, of instruction, and of educational objectives. The Board of Education of Pasadena further maintains a consistent policy of bringing to the system leading thinkers in education for constructive work with groups of teachers. Among other school systems in which noteworthy service is secured through an expert consultant, Hamtramck, Mich., may be mentioned.

[Form 40]

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SKINNER JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

CONSULTATION PERIODS

To Members of the Faculty:

These periods are set aside for your convenience. Use them freely. Let us be of real help to you. If you wish a conference with us, sign below. We are also at your disposal before and after school.

Dates: February 1-5, 1932.

MISS BROWN

Tuesday, Period I	Wednesday, Period II	Thursday, Period III	Friday, Period IV

MISS CLINTON

Period V	Period VI	Period VII	Period VIII

MR. LORT

Period I	Period II	Period III	Period IV

EMMA M. BROWN, *Principal.*

FIGURE 1.—Form used for the scheduling of consultation periods

Inspired by the same general idea, educational leaders in both Connellsville and Midland, Pa., have followed a policy of bringing educational specialists into the system to work with the teachers on projects requiring highly technical information. The supervisors and teachers in these schools have been interested during the past few years in developing unit assignments in various subject-matter fields. Hence,

for several years past a specialist in the theory of the unit assignment has spent a week each year in directing, guiding, and advising teachers in the development or revision of units and in the techniques of classroom procedure. It is probably not a coincidence that the unit assignments developed in these schools offer many evidences of success not characteristic of assignments produced in schools where expert advice has been lacking. Such part-time service from educational leaders is especially valuable in the smaller cities and towns, where the expense of maintaining any considerable number of specialists permanently on the staff is prohibitive. Incidentally, the specialists should find the experience of being called to the firing line and sent over the top at periodic intervals an excellent treatment for that frequent form of mental aberration which results from a hermitage in the misty realms of unapplied theory.

4. THE SUPERVISORY PERSONNEL AND THE ALLOCATION OF SUPERVISORY FUNCTIONS

Central and local[1] *supervisory staffs.*—In the preceding sections the discussion has centered around the new idea of the relationship which should exist between the supervisor and the supervised, together with reasons for believing that the relationship is one recognized in actual practice. The present section deals with the personnel to whom supervisory functions are allocated in a few representative schools. All the schools studied were parts of city or county systems. Hence, theoretically at least, each school would seem to be entitled to the services of both local and central supervisory staffs. Actually, however, even among schools of the same size, the amount of time allotted to supervisory functions differs remarkably so far as either the central or the local staffs are concerned, and often no supervisory help is available from the central office. Two schools enrolling 1,500 pupils each may be taken as examples. In one of these schools the principal gives half his time to supervision. No other local supervisory assistance is available, and the members of the staff of the central office are engaged in purely administrative

[1] By central staff is meant the staff employed to serve all the schools or a number of the schools of the city or county system. By local staff is meant the staff employed to serve but one school.

work so far as the secondary schools are concerned. In the other school the principal, two assistant principals, and a high-class secretary to the principal give full time to administrative and supervisory duties. In addition, a visiting teacher is available for three-fifths of her time, two teachers are released part time for research work, and specialists in the several subject-matter fields may be called from the central office when their help is needed. Needless to say, there is no comparison between the supervisory programs of the two schools or between the results which are being obtained in the form of improved teaching and learning situations. Frequently, however, desirable results are by no means directly proportional to the size of the supervisory staffs.

Among many school systems maintaining both central and local staffs with considerable amounts of time to give to real supervision may be mentioned Tulsa, Detroit, and Pasadena.

Supervision in the high schools of Tulsa is coordinated by the assistant superintendent in charge of high schools. A central staff consisting of 14 directors is available for specialized service in the following fields: English, history, mathematics, science, music, art, girls' physical education, boys' physical education, home economics, foreign language, commercial subjects, industrial arts, social studies, and the extracurriculum. The first seven directors serve the elementary schools as well as the high schools. In each school these directors cooperate with the principal, department chairmen, and teachers.

For the Detroit secondary schools the central supervisory staff is organized into six departments, namely, practical arts, fine arts, exact science, languages, social science, and health. Each individual school is also organized into departments presided over by department heads. The supervisors from the central office hold special meetings with the department heads to consider the work to be done in their respective fields. These meetings are devoted largely to the development of new teaching methods and to the revision of courses of study. The work of the department heads is coordinated by the principal, who is given full responsibility for supervision within his school. In the Foch Intermediate

School the principal gives more than half his time to visiting classroom teachers and to follow-up conferences. The department heads make written reports to the principal each month concerning teaching which they have observed. The principal has organized also an "instruction council" to assist in the solution of administrative and supervisory problems. The council consists of the department heads, the assistant principal, the counselor of boys, and the counselor of girls. Each department head holds monthly meetings with teachers of his department, and general teachers' meetings are held monthly dealing with reports or analyses of problems related to the supervision of instruction.

In Pasadena special supervisors are available from the central office in music, art, industrial arts, household arts, and agriculture. Another important contribution of the central office is made by the assistant superintendent in charge of high schools. Under his direction the teachers of the city are organized into groups according to the subject-matter fields in which they are working, and their own particular problems are solved through scheduled meetings and committee work. In addition an adequate staff is maintained in each local school. For example, in the John Marshall Junior High School, enrolling approximately 1,500 pupils, four persons (the principal, two assistant principals, and a counselor) are employed full time for administrative and supervisory purposes.

The general supervisor of instruction.—In the systems mentioned in the preceding paragraphs the coordinator of supervision within a given individual school is the principal. This is by far the more common procedure. However, in a few schools studied definite efforts are made to delegate the principal's supervisory functions to others and to reserve for him only administrative duties. The plan operates with apparent success, although it violates a theory commonly held to the effect that the chief business of the principal should be supervision and not administration. Probably the truth is that it is impossible to lay down a general rule for the allocation of administrative and supervisory duties and functions while such great differences continue to exist among schools, not only in the number of persons available

for supervisory and administrative duties but also in the experience, training, and traits of personality of these persons. In those schools where the principal is regarded chiefly as an administrator a general supervisor of instruction is employed. The title varies, the official sometimes being called a director of instruction or a dean. For example, in Thornton Township High School, Harvey, Ill., a director of instruction coordinates the work of the department heads. His time is distributed among the various departments according to their needs. In Junior High School No. 3, Trenton, N. J., a general supervisor of instruction is employed. The general supervisor is in charge of the work of all departments except music and art. Supervision in this school centers around two series of regular departmental meetings, the first to decide upon the objectives to be stressed in the classroom during the ensuing marking period and the second to decide upon tests which shall adequately measure the extent to which the objectives have been attained.

A somewhat more complex arrangement exists in the junior and senior high schools of Pawtucket, R. I. In this system the supervision of classroom instruction in grades 7 and 8 is in charge of a general supervisor, who also supervises grades 5 and 6. This arrangement tends toward improved articulation between the elementary and the junior high schools. In the senior high school a dean coordinates the supervisory activities of the department heads by acting as chairman of interdepartmental meetings. Special departments, such as art, shop, and home economics, are supervised by directors who function in both the junior and senior high schools. All supervisory activities for the city are coordinated by the city superintendent of schools through regular meetings with the deans and directors.

Duties of the dean of a junior high school in Pawtucket include classification of pupils, preparation of the schedule of each pupil, service on committees for the revision of subjects and curriculums, attendance at meetings of a committee consisting of the heads of departments of the senior high school for the purpose of improving articulation, and adjustment of problem pupils to school and home life through interviews with pupils and parents.

The director of the department of industrial arts in Pawtucket sums up his duties as follows: Selection, training, and encouragement of teachers; observation of teachers at work; purchase of equipment and supplies; designing of equipment; the correlation of the work of the teachers within the department; and the correlation of the work of the department with other departments.

The director of art visits art teachers of the junior and senior high schools each week, holds group and individual conferences during the year as needed, keeps records of talented pupils, visits and checks exhibits of work, confers with supervisors of other departments, and makes regular reports to the superintendent recommending changes for the improvement of the work of the art department.

Department heads and special committees.—The department head or chairman already has been mentioned frequently because he is seldom left completely out of the picture in any plan for supervision. That much supervision is performed by this official is evidenced by the fact that of the 284 supervisors included in this study (as reported in the foregoing chapter), 143 were department heads or chairmen. The amount of time given by department heads to supervision varies greatly from one school to another. In a few schools studied department chairmen have full-time teaching schedules. Therefore, the amount and kind of supervision which they can perform are limited to whatever can be accomplished through bulletins and through group or individual conferences held outside of regular school hours. In most schools department heads are relieved of teaching duties for a portion of the day in order to give attention to supervision. For example, in the Upper Darby (Pa.) Senior High School the department heads teach from 15 to 18 periods per week. The principal delegates to them many supervisory duties, including the cooperative preparation and revision of courses of study; the supervision of classroom instruction; the selection of textbooks and supplies, and equipment for instructional purposes; and the making of recommendations concerning the classification, adjustment, and placement of pupils in their respective departments.

In Dallas, Tex., 16 departmental chairmen with teaching duties are in charge of the following fields for the high schools of the city: English, social studies, mathematics, Latin, Spanish, French, sciences, home economics, manual training, including drafting and shops' divisions; art, music, commercial work, journalism, public speaking, physical education, and library. The first six are appointed by the district superintendent and the others are elected by the members of the respective departments usually for one year. The supervisory work of the high schools of the city is coordinated by the district superintendent of high schools in cooperation with the local building principals.

In most schools the department heads are appointed by the principal, although occasionally, as in the East St. Louis Senior High School, they are elected annually by the teachers of the department, and no department head may succeed himself. It is also interesting to note that in very large high schools—as, for example, the J. Sterling Morton High School, of Cicero, Ill.—the department head may be replaced by a committee. In the J. Sterling Morton High School the English department is supervised by a committee of five, a chairman, and one faculty member for each of the four high-school years.

In East Chicago, Ind., department heads have been replaced recently by special supervisors, each of whom is in charge of the work of a given subject-matter field in the elementary and secondary grades of all the schools of the city.

The University High School, of Oakland, Calif., is a high school for the training of student teachers. In this school the major part of the supervision is done by 21 supervisors with the rank of department heads or assistant department heads, distributed as follows through the several subject-matter fields: Art, 1; commercial subjects, 1; English, 4; German, 1; home economics, 1; modern languages, 1; Latin, 1; library science, 1; mathematics, 1; music, 1; physical education, 3; science, 2; social studies, 3. Six counselors, under the direction of the dean of girls and the boys' adviser, cooperate in the work of supervision through studies of the child's home environment, school adjustment, mental ca-

pacity, scholastic achievement, health record, plans for the future, and social needs.

Supervision through university cooperation.—The preceding paragraphs of this section have served their primary purpose if they have suggested that the personnel engaged in supervision and the allocation of supervisory duties among the members of that personnel are unique for each school. Probably no one questions the propriety of this wide variation, since each school is unique in the problems which it offers for solution and in the resources which its representatives may employ in the solution of these problems. In the remainder of this section two decidedly unique and successful arrangements for the improvement of instruction will be described briefly. The first plan is one under way in Albemarle County, Va. The enterprise has been made possible through the cooperation of the School of Secondary Education of the University of Virginia with the administrators of the city of Charlottesville and of Albemarle County. Seven county high schools, with enrollments ranging from 52 to 132 pupils, and the high school of the city of Charlottesville, with an enrollment of 695 pupils, are the beneficiaries of the plan. The primary objective of the supervisory staff is the development of techniques which will enable the small school to present educational offerings comparable to those of the large school. One general supervisor, E. E. Windes, is employed jointly by the county and the university. Special supervisors are employed by the university. In addition, three high-school principals, jointly employed but paid largely by the county, are used as critic teachers. In the city of Charlottesville the critic teachers are paid by the city in return for teaching two classes in the city high school.

Much attention has been given in this undertaking to the development of the written unit assignment. In building the units the following procedure is being used:

1. A conference of teachers in a given subject-matter field is held with the general supervisor and the special supervisor.

2. Teachers choose certain units which they undertake to develop or perfect.

3. Teachers submit completed units to supervisors who may submit them to other teachers. Consensus of opinion determines the final content and form of the unit.

4. The unit is mimeographed by the county office for all county schools.

As a result of this plan of supervision teachers are stimulated to professional study. They are given systematic training in the organization of subject matter and in methods of teaching. Inspection and negative criticism are minimized. The success of this venture raises the question whether normal schools, schools of education, and teachers colleges throughout the country could render conspicuous service to education through similar endeavors. Perhaps the movement toward such cooperation should originate in the administrative offices of the public high schools.

The home room as the unit of supervision.—This section will be closed with a brief reference to the unique arrangement for supervision to be found in the Thomas Starr King Junior High School, of Los Angeles. In this school the unit for supervision is the home room. A preliminary essential to the functioning of the plan is the scheduling of the pupils of a given home room to the same group of classroom teachers. Under such an arrangement a small group of five or six classroom teachers meeting with the home-room teacher, the school health representative, the counselor, and the principal, may discuss the individual pupils of a given home room *seriatim*, with the full assurance that every one present at the meeting has a personal interest in the group of pupils and possesses valuable information concerning them. In this school the adjustment of the individual pupil to his environment and guidance are the chief objectives of supervision. Therefore, the gathering of data concerning individual children and the intelligent use of the data are major supervisory activities. Immediately upon the pupil's entrance to junior high school the home-room teacher begins the preparation of a comprehensive "personality analysis chart," giving significant data for each pupil. The data are obtained through the analysis of test results, through conferences with classroom teachers, and through visits to the pupils' homes.

By the end of the pupil's first year in junior high school the following data are available in readily accessible form:

I. Social data:
   1. Vocation outside of school hours.
   2. Avocation.
   3. Companions.
   4. Social loyalties (organizations with which he is affiliated outside of school).
   5. Whittier home score:
      (*a*) Necessities.
      (*b*) Cleanliness.
      (*c*) Size.
      (*d*) Parental conditions.
      (*e*) Parental supervision.
   6. Parents:
      (*a*) Race.
      (*b*) Birthplace.
      (*c*) Naturalized or unnaturalized.
      (*d*) Significant facts of ancestry.
   7. Educational data:
      (*a*) Scores on Los Angeles Diagnostic Fundamentals of Arithmetic.
      (*b*) Scores on Stanford Achievement Test.
      (*c*) Grades skipped.
      (*d*) Grades repeated.
      (*e*) Attendance.
      (*f*) Standing in all required and elective subjects.
      (*g*) Special interests, aptitudes, or abilities.
      (*h*) Vocational ambitions.
   8. Physical data (from physical examinations by competent physicians and nurses).
   9. Psychological data:
      (*a*) Chronological age, mental age, and intelligence quotient.
      (*b*) Ability level.
      (*c*) Personality traits,
      (*d*) Type of mind.

The data thus collected are used in connection with the frequent conferences which are held by the principal, the home-room teacher, the teachers who have the group of pupils in classroom work, the school health representative, and the school counselor. Before each conference the principal visits the group of pupils both in their home-room period and in their classroom work. During the ensuing conference each pupil of the group is brought up for discussion.

If pupils are maladjusted or are not working up to expectations, the facts, the reasons, and the suggested remedies appear during the conferences. Information possessed by all participating in the conference is available. New data of significance brought out in the conference are made a matter of record. The plan is both economical and highly efficient. Incidentally, the school, along with each other school in the Los Angeles system, enjoys the services of a large and highly trained staff of specialists from the central office.

6. THREE APPROACHES TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF CLASSROOM WORK

Not one but many methods.—Once upon a time, and not so long ago, the chief approach to the improvement of classroom instruction was by way of the classroom visit and the inevitably ensuing conference, usually constructive and helpful, but occasionally possessed only of the uncompromising virtues of a post-mortem examination. To-day, in outstanding schools, supervisors are realizing as never before the potential aggregate benefits which may accrue from many methods of supervision proceeding simultaneously and efficiently. Three different approaches to the problem of improving classroom instruction are illustrated in this section. No effort has been made to exhaust the list of examples which might be given. Neither is any intimation intended that the improvement of classroom instruction is the sole business of the supervisor. The first illustration to be given is Seybold's "Studies in Motivation."

Studies in motivation.—While principal of Thomas Jefferson Junior High School, in Cleveland, Ohio, Arthur Seybold instituted a cooperative undertaking which he called "Studies in Motivation." Apparently he had no desire to depart from the necessary fundamentals of subject matter as prescribed in the various curriculums. Neither did he wish any teacher to abandon the methods by which success had been achieved in the past. But he did ask each teacher to attempt to develop during each two weeks some problem or device related to the regular work which would appeal intrinsically to the pupils, and to try to have in the process of completion at all times some problem or project which for its own sake was engaging part of the time of the pupils working in groups.

From this suggestion a series of "red-letter" lessons, prepared by various teachers, developed. A statement of the purpose and an outline of each lesson were submitted to the principal. Other essential data, such as size and ability level of the class, were included in the report.[2] These reports were edited by the principal, mimeographed, and bound in a neat volume entitled "Studies in Motivation." Each teacher received a copy. This supervisory activity stimulated the teachers to a full consideration not only of the objectives of education but also of content, and of teaching procedures adapted to different types of pupils. It was the source of many demonstration lessons of the finest kind. Such volumes of lessons taught in succeeding years should become stepping-stones on which the entire staff might rise to levels of teaching procedure otherwise unattainable.

Improving the pupils' habits of study.—Another way to improve classroom instruction is to improve pupils' habits of study. In the Robert Louis Stevenson Junior High School, Los Angeles, a committee of teachers headed by the school counselor have been at work on the topic of "Directed Study." The project was initiated by the committee in February, 1929, with a bulletin to teachers entitled "What is Directed Study?" The bulletin listed many definitions which have been given of "directed study" and gave bibliographical references. During the following month the committee issued a questionnaire to the teachers of the several departments asking each teacher to list (1) desirable habits of study and (2) special problems of directed study. The committee carefully read, analyzed, organized, and interpreted the replies to the questionnaire. A mimeographed report was issued presenting the data for each department separately. From the data for all departments a composite picture of "Desirable Habits of Study" was prepared in the form of a chart. Special committees later entered into more specific phases of the problem of directed study, such as "reasoning in arithmetic." All reports were made available to the cooperating teachers. A year later the general com-

[2] A few of these lessons are reproduced in sec. 23, Ch. VII, of Monograph No. 13, National Survey of Secondary Education, entitled "Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion."

mittee adopted the case method of securing data from the teachers. Each teacher supplied the name of each pupil who was a problem in his or her classes because of poor study habits. Along with the pupil's name were given his home room, the subject in which he was having difficulty, his grade, and a definitive statement of the way in which he was a problem. The data for the various pupils were entered on slips of paper which could be detached for the purpose of sorting and classifying. It should be unnecessary to argue that such studies are truly supervisory. They are aimed at the direct improvement of classroom instruction. They involve the active cooperation of teachers and pupils. They are continuous from year to year; the last word is never said. Whoever directs such a study is performing a supervisory function regardless of his official title or his other duties.

Systematic planning of classroom work and the testing of results.—An outstanding supervisory practice in the J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Ill., is concerned with the administration of a uniform objective test in each section of each subject at the end of each month. In the first place, the work to be done in the various classes of any given department is planned in advance by the teachers of the department cooperating with the department head. Next, an objective examination is built by the department head in cooperation with the department of research. So far as possible, the examination covers the goals previously established for the marking period in the departmental meeting. Teachers need not award their marks on the basis of this examination. They may supplement the test in any way they choose. Neither are teachers judged exclusively by the scores which their pupils earn on the test. However, these scores are valuable data indicating certain phases of a teacher's success. Since the entire school is classified into ability groups, it follows that the average classification index of any given class section may be compared with the average score made by the class on the objective test. Reports of the results of the tests are made available to each teacher for her classes only. Comparative reports of the results obtained by all teachers and by all departments are prepared for the

director of research and for the superintendent of the high school.

A similar piece of work is being done in Junior High School No. 3, Trenton, N. J., with the exception that a general supervisor of instruction, directly responsible to the principal, supervises the work of all departments.

6. THE PUPILS AS SOURCES OF DATA FOR SUPERVISION

Evaluation precedes improvement.—Supervision involves cooperative efforts to improve the educative environment. Before improvements may be undertaken the existing educative environment must be evaluated. Tests help in the process of evaluation, but the first chapter of this report has shown their rôle to be an exceedingly minor one in actual practice except in a few outstanding schools. Even in those schools where tests are being used with maximum efficiency the data are being supplemented by the careful observation of persons qualified to judge. In the past only the supervisor was considered qualified to judge. To-day supervisors are making extensive use of the observations and reactions of both teachers and pupils in an effort to secure a sound basis for evaluating present procedures and for consequent efforts at improvement.

Interviewing the pupils.—Many schools have reported carefully planned interviews with pupils to be a valuable source of data for supervision. For example, the director of physical education of the J. Sterling Morton High School has interviewed during 1930–31 about 1,100 pupils who have completed three years' work in the department and who will be seniors next year. A record of significant findings has proved useful in the matter of improving the work of the department.

Questionnaires to pupils.—Another source of information which often becomes useful in improving the service rendered by the school to the pupil is the questionnaire or inquiry addressed to the pupil. For instance, in the Skinner Junior High School of Denver, Colo., a questionnaire to the pupils dated March, 1931, inquired (1) how far the pupil intended to carry his education (whether through grade 8A, 9B, 9A, senior high school, or college), (2) why the pupil liked or disliked the home-room period, (3) whether the pupil would prefer

study periods to home-room periods, (4) whether the pupil would like to continue in the same home room next year if enrolled in the same school, and (5) reasons for desiring or not desiring to remain in the same room. The foregoing illustration is only one example of many inquiries addressed to the pupils each year in this school. Pertinent facts obtained from the inquiries are made available to the faculty through group conferences or by means of mimeographed bulletins. No argument seems necessary to establish that regular and systematic taking stock of the pupils' reactions to their educative environment should make available numerous suggestions for improving the environment, which, after all, is the main business both of supervision and of teaching.

7. *RATINGS, SCORE CARDS, PROFESSIONAL TESTS, AND QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS' SELF-ANALYSES*

Formal rating scales.—Formal rating scales are not used extensively in the group of schools included in this investigation. In a number of schools they are used only to rate new teachers or teachers on probation. In a few instances scales or score cards are developed, by means of which the supervisor is rated by the teachers. Since this is a report of practice only, space will not be occupied to present illustrations of various data-gathering devices or methods of evaluating the results of supervision which are available for use or which may be in actual use in schools not represented in this study. The reader is referred to two recent publications on supervision for extensive illustrations of devices which may be used in the gathering of data for the purposes of evaluating the results of instruction.[3] Most rating scales in actual use in the schools being studied have been devised locally and are in the experimental stage. Among the schools in which systematic use is being made of published rating scales may be mentioned the junior

[3] Barr, A. S. An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1931.

Knudsen, Charles W. Evaluation and Improvement of Teaching. New York, Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1932.

high schools of East St. Louis, Ill., where the Torgersen Diagnostic Teacher Rating Scale is used, as follows:

1. The scale is studied by the teacher and discussed with her.
2. The teacher uses the scale to rate herself, knowing that the supervisor later will rate her by means of the same scale. Two or three weeks are allowed for the ratings to be completed. Items which describe most nearly the teacher's usual practices, on the scale, are checked.
3. The teacher and supervisor compare and discuss the ratings.
4. A few weeks later the supervisor rates the teacher again.

The continuous nature of the process keeps the teacher constantly critical of her methods and leads to intelligent

LOS ANGELES CITY SCHOOL DISTRICT
DIVISION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS

Supervisor's Report of ..... teacher of Physical Education
..... High School, ... 193..... Hour .....

1. INSTRUCTION	Rating	3. PERSONAL EQUIPMENT	Rating
a. Preparation and Planning		a. Personal Appearance	
b. Aim of Work		b. Posture	
c. Selection of Material		c. Attitude and Manner	
d. Organization for Activity		d. Voice — Commands	
e. Pupil Activity		e. Use of English	
f. Teaching Techniques—Procedures		4. SUMMARY RATING	
2. MANAGEMENT			
a. Physical Conditions			
b. Routine Work		Length of Observation	
c. Discipline		Conference was had with Teacher	
d. Records			
e. Supplies		Supervisor	

(Over)

FIGURE 2.—Rating scale used in the division of physical education and athletics, Los Angeles

modification of her teaching procedures. However, unless the items of the rating scale represent valid criteria of good teaching procedure the use of such a scale can be productive of much harm. The warning should hardly be necessary that no rating scale should be used unless the supervisor is convinced that valid objectives are set up by the scale.

A rating scale dealing with various items of instruction, management, and personality of the teacher is used in the division of physical education and athletics, Los Angeles. (See Fig. 2.) The reverse side of the scale provides space for notations commending the teacher and for notation of

items needing further consideration. The items shown in the figure are rated on a 5-point scale.

In the Pittsburgh (Pa.) schools a scale (Program for Improving Teaching Procedure) is used as a means of improving classroom instruction. A second scale sets up a program for improving administrative and supervisory procedures. By means of this second scale the principal is rated on 98 items listed under the following five general headings: Personal equipment; academic, professional, and technical equipment; condition of entire school building; administration; and supervision. The items listed under the heading of supervision indicate those elements of supervision being stressed in this particular school system. The items are: [4]

1. Program of time set aside for supervision in view of the most immediate needs of the school.
2. Grouping pupils at the beginning of the term by means of pretests, intelligence tests, and standard tests. Determining achievement of the class as a whole and as individuals. Outlining appropriate procedures for subsequent effective instruction.
3. Adjustment of the course of study to the needs of the different groups of pupils.
4. Special provision for pupils needing or desiring extra individual help.
5. Solution of the preceding four items through the principal's thorough knowledge of his school, teachers, and pupils, and of the economic and social conditions of the community.
6. Confidential and sympathetic use of the "Program for Improving Teaching Procedure" at the beginning of each school year, and at other times deemed advisable.
7. Aiding the professional growth of teachers through—
   - (*a*) Increasing the teacher's ability to discover, analyze, and solve teaching problems.
   - (*b*) Practical demonstration in the classroom.
   - (*c*) Use of special supervisors.
   - (*d*) Urging teachers to observe the work of other teachers.
   - (*e*) Planning group conferences of teachers.
   - (*f*) Holding conferences with individual teachers.
   - (*g*) Guidance in reading professional and academic literature.
   - (*h*) Specific guidance in the pursuit of advanced studies.
   - (*i*) Use of achievement tests to measure the pupils' progress during given periods of instruction.
   - (*j*) Personal example.

[4] Adapted.

8. Recognition by both teacher and principal of appropriate methods of instruction based on sound educational principles supplemented by effective devices and techniques.
9. Evaluation of teaching procedure based on sound educational principles recognized by both teacher and principal.
10. Observation of a complete unit of work and the evaluation of its essential elements, as follows:
    (*a*) Definiteness and completeness of assignment.
    (*b*) Motivation.
    (*c*) Aim.
    (*d*) Effective use of illustrative material from texts and other sources.
    (*e*) Organization of teaching procedures.
    (*f*) Clearness and effectiveness of presentation.
    (*g*) Unmistakable evidence that the teacher has developed in pupils a successful method of attack in the unit of work taught and that he has led them to achieve the mastery of such a unit of work.
    (*h*) Evidence of ability to challenge thinking on the part of the pupils.
    (*i*) Student participation.
    (*j*) Accuracy, permanency, and utility of the lesson learned.

A professional test for teachers.—A "professional test for teachers" used in the junior high schools of East St. Louis is intended to acquaint the teachers with educational terminology and to stimulate their thinking about educational theory and practice. It consists of 100 true-false, 45 completion, 10 multiple-response, and 20 matching questions. The test is given to the teachers in the building meetings. Each teacher scores her own paper and need not reveal her score unless she wishes to do so. Discussions follow the testing and the scoring of the papers.

Helping the teacher to analyze himself and his teaching activities.—Supervisors occasionally provide teachers with lists of questions as a basis for self-analyses. For example, the director of the division of vocational education, Los Angeles, has supplied his teachers with the following questions: [5]

Teacher and Pupil Activities

1. Do the children work toward known goals?
2. Do the children use right methods?
3. Do you do the work for the pupils?

[5] The wording of the questions has been adapted.

4. Do you neglect the majority of the class in trying to meet individual needs?
5. Does pupil activity or teacher activity predominate?
6. Does your instruction provoke thinking?
7. Do your pupils ask questions?
8. Do you have an orderly routine for passing and collecting supplies and materials?
9. Are drawings, maps, charts, encyclopedias, and reference books available?
10. Are materials to be used during the class period on hand and ready for use before the class period begins?
11. Do you begin class work on time?
12. Do you have a definite procedure for checking up on work done by pupils?
13. Do you waste time—
    (*a*) In checking absences and tardinesses?
    (*b*) In writing long lists of problems, words, or paragraphs on the blackboard during class period?
    (*c*) In keeping materials, books, supplies, or equipment where they can not be secured conveniently by the class?
    (*d*) In dictating outlines and lists of references?
    (*e*) In explaining to all the difficulties of the few?
    (*f*) In discussing questions of interest only to a few?
    (*g*) By allowing rapid workers to wait for slower ones?
    (*h*) By giving inadequate directions concerning work to be done out of class?

Similar lists of questions have been prepared covering the following topics: (1) Equipment; (2) materials and supplies; (3) the pupil's product; (4) classroom conditions; (5) system and organization; (6) testing, rating, and promoting pupils; (7) class management; (8) teaching methods; (9) lesson planning; and (10) organizing subject matter.

8. GROUP, DEPARTMENTAL, AND FACULTY MEETINGS

The importance of group conferences and meetings in supervision.—This study has shown group conferences, departmental meetings, and faculty meetings to be among the means of supervision most frequently employed, as well as among those judged to be most uniformly successful. Obviously, the meetings have no magic virtue in themselves. They must be carefully planned and ably conducted. In every school studied, carefully planned schedules of meetings of teachers, supervisors, and administrators are under way. Much of the work done in these meetings is committee work.

Often educational specialists are brought in to discuss phases of educational procedure under investigation as a part of the supervisory program. Occasionally general faculty meetings are made to contribute to interdepartmental understanding through programs devised to show in turn what each department of the school is doing. No system is too small and none too big to make use of conferences and meetings as a part of the supervisory technique. For purposes of illustration the schedule of the vocational division of the Los Angeles public schools for 1930–31 involving all teachers of the division may be cited. Two meetings, held in September and April, were planned as general vocational meetings for all groups of instructors. Two other meetings, held in November and March, were planned for the heads of the shop departments. In addition, beginning the third week in September, meetings were scheduled each week for the following groups of instructors in the order named: (1) Automotive trades, (2) building trades, (3) drafting trades, (4) electrical trades, (5) metal trades, (6) machinists' trades, (7) printing trades, (8) related work, and (9) miscellaneous trades. This schedule was repeated at the end of the cycle, thus allowing two meetings for each group of instructors.

Faculty meetings repeated on the same day.—A unique feature of faculty meetings in South Philadelphia High School for Girls is the holding of a second session of each meeting on the same day. The first session is held from 9 to 10 o'clock in the morning and the second session in the afternoon. Carefully prepared agenda are mimeographed and delivered to the teachers in advance of the meeting. The same agenda hold for each session. The plan involves extra work for the supervisor, but makes it much more convenient for teachers to be present at all faculty meetings. The agenda for one meeting during the year 1929–30 are reproduced below.

MAY 20, 1930.

FACULTY MEETING AGENDA

N. B.—Bring this with you to the meeting.

I. *The Morrison Development of the Dalton Plan:*

A. The pretest. Report of the Washington application. *Discussion.*

B. The perfection ideal—remedial material. *Discussion.*

C. The Waples experiment: Miss Clapp. *Discussion.*

II. *May Revels Report:*

Miss Baker and Miss Mann.

Committee for next year: Misses Snyder, Leal, Mann, Fisler, Wheeler, Mrs. Chapman, Doctor Cadwallader.

The committee recommends the continuation of the name and the crowning of the May Queen.

Substituting the circus motif for the Maytime drama.

This is the second stage of our original 4-year plan.

They ask discussion of this question: Shall we make the Revels free?

III. *Home Room:*

A. *Radiogram*, twice weekly:

1. Dead line Wednesday and Friday 12 m. Notices and other data to Miss Cohen.
2. Papers will be put in box with attendance books.
3. Will teachers concerned please plan to get all regulation notices (student government—elections, petitions, etc.), as well as student activities, into the Monday issue?

B. In addition to the radiogram, try to use Monday for individual counseling.

Banking, as usual, on Thursday.

C. On Friday a similar schedule to that of Wednesday with a last period of about 30 minutes for real home-room work, centering round health standards (physical and mental).

D. Next term the representatives will meet once or twice a month, the counselors once, the traffic officers once—all from Friday home-room instead of club time.

IV. Faculty Meetings (next year):

Monthly, Daltonized; health (physical and mental), standards, habits.

Other professional problems will be threshed out in department and other group meetings, to which I shall be glad to come.

L. L. W. WILSON.

9. BULLETINS AND HANDBOOKS

The bulletin in supervision.—All schools use the mimeographed bulletin as a means of transmitting information intended to help in the realization of the supervisory program. Depending on the purpose to be served, these bulletins vary from a single page of letter-size paper to comprehensive bound volumes. Two examples of the latter may be cited. The first is a monthly mimeographed bulletin entitled "Postings," issued by the Division of Commercial Education of Los Angeles. A few of the topics discussed in the

issue for January, 1930, are: (1) Commercial teachers requested to make suggestions for the coming institute; (2) committees named to recommend new texts, revise courses of study, and prepare teaching helps; (3) suggestions to teachers of economic geography for securing illustrative materials from the department of visual education; (4) references to excellent work in the teaching of shorthand in a neighboring school system and a statement as to how the results were obtained; (5) excerpts from an address on new trends in the teaching of skill subjects; (6) summary of a published study on "The Possibility of Prognosis of School Success in Typewriting."

The second example of the use of the bulletin in supervision to be mentioned here is the annual report of the principal of the Upper Darby Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pa. Facts significant for future supervision are summarized under the following heads: (1) Enrollment, (2) occupational census of parents and guardians, (3) placement of graduates, (4) summer school, (5) practice teaching and observation, (6) library, (7) building and grounds, (8) service systems, (9) equipment, (10) student activities, (11) methods of school instruction, and (12) others.

A printed bulletin is issued weekly from the office of the superintendent of schools of Tulsa, Okla. A few of the many items contributing to supervision have been selected from recent copies of the bulletin. They include: (1) Report of books available for teachers in the teachers' library, (2) announcements of the services which the visual education department can render, (3) bibliography of articles dealing with the curriculums in English and reading, (4) list of professional magazines for teachers, (5) report of the committee on teaching penmanship, (6) curriculum development plans, and (7) major challenges of the modern high school.

An interesting example of the use of the 1-page mimeographed bulletin is the following "Guidelet for Writing Guide Sheets," issued by the principal, Dr. L. L. W. Wilson, of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls. The bulletin was issued following a series of conferences and faculty meetings dealing with the subject of units and unit assignments. No better example could be cited to show that a bulletin (or

any other supervisory device, for that matter) is effective in the degree to which the supervisor preparing it is informed and intelligent. The true spirit of cooperative supervision is reflected in the wording. Additions, corrections, and statements of omission are invited.

A GUIDELET TO WRITING GUIDE SHEETS—tentatively submitted for additions, corrections, and omissions.

1. *Aim* so stated as to make evident the worthwhileness of the task.
2. *Challenge* not only in the material but also through its presentation.
3. Definite, brief, unambiguous *directions*.
4. Definitely indicated *review* of the past work on which the new work will be based, whether in one's own department or another or even back in the grammar grades. (This is a much more useful procedure than inveighing against ignorance and lacks.)
5. Definite opportunity for adequate *practice* in necessary tools and techniques.
6. Due regard for *individual differences:*
   (*a*) Maximum and minimum.
   (*b*) Small, homogeneous groups, working together at times.
7. Careful *anticipation* together with first aid in overcoming *pupils' difficulties.*
8. *Self-checking* devices, their use effectively organized.
9. Definite assignment of research work *outside* books and textbooks; from people, for example, or from the daily newspaper, from real literature.
10. Somewhere, sometime (not *ad nauseam*) the relation of the subject to *real life*—in school, at home, in the world, to conduct, to a vocation.

* * * * * * *

So much for the planning and writing. In rereading, why not examine the finished product in the light of the laws of learning and the conditions for mental health. Have a task, a plan, and freedom been provided for? Is the plan of work simple, orderly, interesting? Has enough time been provided to permit a scientific attitude toward problems?

* * * * * * *

In presenting the guide sheet to the class, ought not the first emphasis be put on the aim and the challenge? Later, ought not initial review and practice opportunities be given under rather definite supervision and directions?

* * * * * * *

Tests: The December test in 10B History was in four parts—with the expressed aim to test, first, *accuracy;* second, *understanding;* third, *ability to reason;* and, fourth, *ability to explain* in correct clear English.

Perhaps there is something in this for *Guide Sheets* as well as for tests.

L. L. W. WILSON.

The handbook as a means of supervision.—Handbooks for practice teachers are issued by several departments of the University High School, Oakland, Calif. The topics discussed in the handbook of the department of social studies[1] will serve to suggest the contents: (1) Suggestions for the first week of school; (2) general and specific objectives of the social studies; (3) essentials of planning unit assignments; (4) teaching methods and techniques; (5) adaptations to individual differences; (6) evaluating the pupil's work—records, marks, and tests; (7) class management and discipline; (8) how the department is organized; (9) where social science materials may be obtained. Again it may be said that the virtue of such a book is entirely dependent on the ability and insight of the supervisor preparing it. Prepared as these books have been prepared, similar handbooks should be useful for beginning teachers in any school system. Mimeographing of the materials could be substituted for printing in cases where the number of copies needed did not justify the expense of printing.

10. SUPERVISION THROUGH THE ORGANIZATION AND REVISION OF SUBJECT MATTER AND THROUGH CURRICULUM REVISION

Development of subject matter a primary objective.—In Chapter I the point was established that, as a group, the supervisors cooperating in this study are concerned far more with problems related to the development of subject matter or content than with any other phase of the supervisory program. In this work the activities of teachers and supervisors are directed along two related lines. The first deals with the organization of existing subject matter into teaching units or unit assignments. The second deals with the fundamental development of new courses or curriculums. Space may be taken for two illustrations of the activities of teachers and supervisors along the first line and for three examples of work along the second line.

Suggestions for the construction of unit assignments.—As a result of a cooperative study made by a committee of teachers and supervisors in the Nathan Hale Junior High School of

[1] A Handbook. The Department of Social Studies, University High School, Oakland, Calif., 1931.

New Britain, Conn., the following suggestions were made for the construction of a unit assignment: The unit assignment should contain (1) an introductory paragraph to arouse the interest of the pupil; (2) names of texts and kinds of supplies needed; (3) names of reference books, authors, titles, and pages; (4) statement of ground to be covered—pages, chapters, lessons, exercises, articles, and notebook work; (5) names of important topics to be studied; (6) definite statement of standards of achievement emphasizing quality of performance on the minimum level; (7) an outline of the assignment dividing it into parts, including complete directions for the study of each part; (8) definite modifications for pupils of different abilities, and supplementary work to meet the varied interests of pupils, and to provide opportunities for original work.

Other suggestions concerning the use of the unit assignment accompanied the report.

Developing teaching units in vocational and industrial arts courses.—W. S. Kienholz, director of the division of vocational education, Los Angeles, has submitted working outlines which teachers may use in developing teaching units in vocational and industrial arts courses. These directions in adapted form are given in the following paragraphs. Three types of units are recognized, namely, the operation unit, the information unit, and the technical or problem unit. The idea is applicable to all subject-matter fields and is representative of the type of supervisory procedure which is proving most effective in outstanding schools to-day. The suggested procedures in adapted form are given in the following paragraphs.

Type jobs analyzed for instructional or teaching units.—Many of the Los Angeles vocational and industrial arts courses list a series of "type jobs." It is necessary to break these type jobs up into teaching units. The teaching units to be obtained are of three kinds: (1) The operation unit, which is concerned chiefly with *doing*, as "Drill holes in metal"; (2) the information unit, which is concerned with specific, important, and necessary information, as "Kinds of common woods"; and (3) the technical unit, which is con-

cerned with science or drafting absolutely necessary to the job, as "How to use the micrometer."

"Removing and overhauling a starting motor" may be cited as a type job. This type job may be broken up into the following operation teaching units: (1) Removing a starter from the engine, (2) disassembling a starter motor, (3) checking a gear drive, (4) testing winding, (5) checking bearings and shaft, (6) turning a commutator, (7) installing new brushes, (8) testing an electric starting motor, and (9) assembling an electric motor.

A scheme for developing instruction sheets for operation units, information units, and technical units is outlined in the following paragraphs.

The operation unit.—The operation unit is concerned with how to do something. The unit should be named in terms of what is to be done. Second, under the heading "Tools and Materials Required," list the items needed to perform the operation. Third, under the heading "Operations," give directions for the correct performance of the job and list the operations in the proper sequence. Use diagrams, illustrations, or sketches by progressive steps, if possible, to clarify the operation procedure. Finally, under the heading "Questions," list questions which (1) will enable you to discover what the student has observed in performing the operation, (2) will stimulate the pupil to think as to *why* the operations were performed as they were, and (3) will lead the pupil to see how the operations can be applied to other jobs in the trade.

The information unit.—Name the unit according to the information to be presented. Second, under the heading "Information," present information related directly or indirectly to operation units. The information may apply to many jobs. It may deal with mathematics, science, drawing, or related subjects. Third, under the heading "Questions," list questions which (1) will enable you to discover whether the pupil knows why the information is valuable, (2) will lead the pupil to associate the information with job experiences, and (3) will require the student to think through the topic. Fourth, under the heading "Job Application," make a brief statement which will help the pupil to apply the infor-

mation to other jobs. Finally, under the heading "References," list the trade texts, textbooks, handbooks, and lesson sheets which will give information on the subject. Give title, name of author, and page numbers.

The technical or problem unit.—Name the unit according to its general classification; as, for example, "Figuring Costs of Paper Stock." Next, under the heading "Trade Problem," state the specific problem; as, for example, "What will be the cost of paper for 1,000 letterheads, 8½ by 11 inches, cut from 17 by 22 inches, 20-pound stock, priced at 20 cents per pound?" Third, under the heading "Equipment and Supplies," list all tools and materials needed to work out the assignment. Fourth, under the heading "Procedure," suggest the thinking and manipulative procedure necessary to complete the problem. Use diagrams, illustrations, or sketches which will help to clarify the procedure. The content of the technical or problem unit may be derived from mathematics, science, or drawing. Finally, under the heading "Questions," list questions which (1) will stimulate thinking, (2) lead the pupil to see how the information can be applied to the job, and (3) help the student to realize the general use and importance of the knowledge.

Four series of instructional units.—Working along the lines suggested in the preceding paragraphs, the director of vocational education, cooperating with 9 assistant directors or supervisors, and with 500 teachers of industrial arts, vocational education, and agriculture, has developed significant changes in the content of courses and in teaching procedures. A recent product of these cooperative labors bearing the date of February, 1932, consist of four series of instructional units in each of the following 2-year courses:

1. Industrial arts woodwork for senior high schools.
2. Industrial arts auto mechanics for senior high schools.
3. Master training program for vocational auto mechanics.
4. Master training program for vocational cabinetmaking.

The type of work which has been done in building each of these courses may be illustrated by a brief description of the course in industrial arts woodwork. This course consists of 162 instructional units, which may be called operation units, or "things to be done," and 110 instructional units,

which pertain to knowing, understanding, or appreciating what is done. A wide list of projects in cabinetmaking, carpentry, and turning is suggested. The pupil works individually on most projects. Occasionally the principle of division of labor is applied through group work on a project. The instructional units are carefully coordinated under a list of general objectives which fall under four heads—the general, the exploratory, the avocational, and the vocational. Attitudes and habits to be acquired are stated, not in general terms, but in terms of good craftsmanship.

Cooperative development of courses and curriculums.—Probably nowhere in the country has work in curriculum construction advanced any further than in Los Angeles. This is true in all subject-matter fields, although illustrations must necessarily be limited to a few fields. In the opinion of the writer, no higher point in supervision has been reached than is represented in the cooperative efforts by which courses of study and curriculums have been developed and subjected to constant revision. The illustrations of work with the unit assignment, given in preceding paragraphs, obviously bear a close relationship to the development of courses and of curriculums. In fact, once courses and curriculums are organized on the basis of the unit assignment the revision of the latter amounts to a revision of the former. Work with the curriculum is so fundamental and so difficult that no better evidence is needed of the intelligence and courage of supervisory staffs in the leading schools of the country than the fact that they are concentrating their efforts on the improvement of the curriculum. They can not do this adequately unless they consider well the objectives of education, unless they know the community which they are serving, unless they have deep and broad knowledge of teaching procedures, for objectives are in part determined by the community served and both objectives and teaching procedures are profoundly influenced if not determined, by the finished curriculum.

A volume could be written concerning what is being done in the field of cooperative curriculum construction and revision in Los Angeles and in the other systems included in this study of supervision. Nevertheless, this discussion must

be brought to a close with three brief illustrations, one dealing with the development of a course of study in salesmanship, another with a course of study in business English, and the third with a course of study in junior high school English. All three illustrations are taken from the work in Los Angeles.

The course of study in commercial subjects is the product of several years of cooperative study and experience.[7] Outlines in salesmanship have been revised and mimeographed each year under the direction of the supervisor and assistant supervisor of salemanship. Similar outlines have been prepared in advertising and merchandising. The following procedure is employed in developing and revising courses:

1. Each week the classroom teachers note, on the mimeographed outline of the course, changes suggested by their experience in teaching the subject.
2. Each month the outlines with suggested changes are sent to the supervisor.
3. Suggestions for revision are carefully considered and the outline is changed to incorporate all suggestions likely to improve it.
4. The revised outlines are returned to the teachers for trial and further suggestions.
5. The process is continued until an outline acceptable to all teachers is developed.

These steps are simple but none the less fundamental. They imply of necessity a long-time program and a vision which reaches beyond the petty expediencies of the present day. Yet a vital point is missed if one overlooks the fact that only the long-time project can orient and give meaning to the supervisory activities from day to day.

A second illustration of the cooperative development of courses of study and curriculums in Los Angeles is a tentative outline of a course of study in business correspondence for the senior high school grades. The course is the result of the cooperative endeavors of the curriculum specialists of the division of psychology and educational research, of all teachers of business English, and of a special committee of six teachers under the chairmanship of the assistant supervisor of commercial education. The particular abilities which pupils should develop are outlined with great care, and

[7] Salesmanship and Advertising. Secondary-school course of study, senior high school grades, Los Angeles City School District, School Publication No. 187, 1929 p. 3.

the activities are listed in which the pupils should engage in order to acquire these abilities. A complete bibliography of reading references is listed. A teacher's outline is suggested for each week of the semester given to the course. Such a cooperative effort is far removed from primitive inspectorial supervision. Here the supervisor is a formulator, a consultant, a helper, an adviser, and a colaborer. He leads when his ability and training qualify him to lead, and he follows when others are better qualified to lead.

The third example of the cooperative construction of courses of study in Los Angeles to be given here is the new 1931 course of study in English for junior high schools. Hundreds of individuals, including teachers, supervisors, curriculum specialists, and administrators, participated in this study. A hundred persons are mentioned as having served more or less continuously since 1927. In this venture two research studies were conducted to determine children's interests and needs. In the first study each Los Angeles junior high school pupil wrote papers telling about (1) an interesting event that had taken place recently at school, (2) something that would especially interest a friend to whom he was writing, and (3) his own plans for the summer. These papers, carrying the pupil's school grade, intelligence quotient, and chronological age, were read and analyzed by different teachers under the direction of the psychological and educational research division. The purpose of the analysis was to ascertain the pupil's abilities in thought and content, sentence sense, spelling, language usage, and mechanics of composition for each of three ability levels in each of the six semesters of the junior high school. The data resulting from the analysis were tabulated and interpreted. This information became an important criterion for the selection of subject matter for the course of study in composition and grammar. To get criteria for the course of study in reading or literature a second research study was conducted. Pupils' interests were studied by means of the questionnaire. Five types of interest were discovered, namely, club interests, leisure-time interests, school interests, vocational interests, and reading interests. The reading interests were analyzed to show favorite books, books dis-

liked and causes for disliking them, favorite magazines, parts of magazines liked best, favorite poetry, poetry disliked and causes for disliking it.

11. A MORE COMPREHENSIVE VIEW OF SUPERVISION IN ONE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The Skinner Junior High School, Denver, Colo.—Since the entire chapter up to this point has been given over to more or less related illustrative excerpts dealing with the aims and activities of supervisors in individual schools, it has seemed fitting to close with a fairly comprehensive picture of supervision in one of the schools studied. For this purpose any one of several schools might have been selected. Skinner Junior High School, of Denver, Colo., has been selected because its enrollment approximates the median of all schools included in the investigation; it possesses an adequate local staff for supervision; it enjoys the services of an excellent central supervisory staff; and it is obtaining desirable results. No claim is made that any supervisory procedure to be described is unique.

A staff with a margin of time.—Skinner Junior High School, in Denver, enrolls about 1,500 pupils. The principal, two advisers, who are virtually assistant principals, and a capable, well-paid secretary to the principal give full time to administrative and supervisory duties. In addition, a visiting teacher is available for three fifths of her time, two teachers are released part time for research work, and several specialists in various subject-matter fields may be called from the central office when their assistance is needed.

Many principals of schools enrolling 1,500 pupils will recognize a contrast between the available supervisory and administrative personnel just mentioned and the corresponding personnel in their own schools. It would be easy to mention a number of schools in the same total-enrollment group wherein the principal is attempting to meet both administrative and supervisory problems with no aid other than that of one clerk. Therefore it occasions less surprise to find in Skinner Junior High School a supervisory program projected in its broad outlines for 10 years ahead, and

that this long-time planning orients the detailed plans for the week and the day at hand.

The following facts may be suggestive of what is being accomplished with hard work, high intelligence, and a margin of time.

Daily bulletins to teachers.—A carefully prepared mimeographed bulletin is issued daily from the principal's office. This bulletin serves admirably the purpose of disseminating information of an administrative nature and facts of general interest concerning the school and the community. It also carries a statement of one item of strength in good teachers; one element of weakness in poor teachers; and a thought dealing with teachers or with teaching, under the caption, "A Suggestion That Will Help You."

Questionnaires to pupils.—Frequent questionnaires are addressed to the pupils. These questionnaires show the result of much thought and planning. They are sources of valuable data bearing on pupils' interests in the various subjects, in the home-room program, and in the extracurriculum activities. Best of all, time is actually found to analyze the data, to organize and interpret the results, and to bring into actual being the improvements which the data suggest.

Consultation periods.—Each supervisor sets aside certain periods of the week for teachers who of their own accord are seeking help. This procedure has been referred to earlier in this chapter in section 3.

Adequate assistance to supply teachers.—Another evidence of the existence of that margin of time permitting attention to those details which tend toward perfection is found in the skillful efforts made to enable supply teachers to fit into their temporary positions. Every detail of what to teach, where to teach, whom to teach, and how to proceed is anticipated. There are no unanswered questions. The supply teacher does not rattle around in her position until the regular teacher returns. From the first hour of the first day she fits into the scheme of things.

Classroom visits.—The visiting of classrooms is a part of the regular program of the principal, the assistant principals, and the chairmen of departments. A report of every visit is filed in the principal's office. These reports become a

cumulative record, by means of which each teacher's failure or success in meeting the problems of the classroom may be diagnosed. Specialists from the central office frequently visit classes alone or in company with the principal, assistant principals, or department heads. These visits are usually made on call.

Demonstration lessons.—The subject-matter specialists are also available for teaching demonstration lessons. For example, the director of home economics may teach a class in her subject-matter field for a week, the regular teachers being privileged to observe.

Intervisitation of teachers.—The intervisiting of teachers throughout the school is carefully scheduled. An unusual feature of the intervisitation program permits each teacher once a year to visit each class in the school. The teachers regard this experience as especially valuable. Who has not known some teachers of academic subjects whose souls might have been saved by periodic inhalations of the atmosphere of a wood shop, or shop teachers whose narrow and utilitarian conception of education might have broadened in the classrooms of English, social studies, or foreign language?

Cooperative planning of faculty meetings.—A strenuous program of faculty meetings, departmental meetings, and other group conferences is maintained throughout the school year. The year's program is planned in advance by the principal on the basis of suggestions made by the teachers. In order that faculty meetings may contribute to the professional advancement of the teachers and leave them feeling that the hours spent have been pleasant and profitable, the principal requests the following information from each teacher before the close of the school year, to be used in building the program for the ensuing year: (1) The types of faculty meetings considered worth while; (2) the subjects desired for discussion; (3) faculty members preferred as speakers, and subjects; (4) outside speakers desired, and subjects; (5) social functions desirable for faculty meetings; (6) suggestions for improving the meetings.

General faculty meetings, departmental meetings, and group conferences scheduled a year in advance.—In September the principal issues a complete schedule of all faculty meetings

for the year. Last year this schedule included 13 general meetings, 8 departmental meetings, and 6 pupil-sponsors' meetings. So far as is advisable and possible, the schedule announces topics and speakers. Preceding each meeting detailed agenda are mimeographed and placed in the hands of the teachers. Topics are listed and questions for discussion are given.

Conferences at teachers' free periods.—In addition to the meetings just mentioned the free periods of teachers are utilized for a series of valuable conferences. These conferences are held biweekly. In order that each teacher may have a chance to participate, each conference is repeated six times, once for each period of the school day. These discussions are led by the principal or by some other member of the supervisory staff. The topics discussed during 1930 were home-room procedure, the case study as a means of pupil adjustment, teaching pupils how to study, and character education.

Teacher conferences at assembly periods.—A further series of conferences open to a group of 14 teachers is made possible by the fact that the auditorium of the school is too small to accommodate all pupils at assemblies. The pupils of 14 home rooms conduct their own home-room periods, thus releasing the teachers for professional meetings. During 1930 the following topics were discussed in these meetings: Vocational guidance; development of pupil initiative in the classroom; development of pupil participation in the classroom; the junior high school; juvenile delinquency in Denver.

Effects of the program on teachers and supervisors.—This program for professional growth and improvement of classroom instruction may seem heavy, but the faculty of Skinner Junior High School appear to be thriving on it and none the worse for its apparently strenuous features. Under such a program the supervisory staff must keep abreast of the best thought, which may account in part for the fact that eight department heads were enrolled last summer in courses on supervision.

Evaluating the results of teaching and of supervision.—Real advance is being made also in this school in the matter of evaluating the results of teaching and of supervisory activi-

ties. Three examples may be given. First, the success of each graduating class is carefully followed through the first year of the senior high school. At the end of the first 12 weeks of the school year the senior high school forwards to the junior high school the marks which the newly enrolled tenth-grade pupils have earned. The principal of the junior high school prepares for each junior high school teacher a list of those pupils who were in his or her classes the preceding year. The marks given the pupils in senior high school and the marks given them by the junior high school teachers during the preceding year are arranged for ready comparison in the subject-matter fields concerned.

Second, a thorough and continuous program of testing in each subject-matter field is maintained with the aid of the central office. Tests are built for each subject by a committee from the department concerned. Both objective and subjective written tests as well as oral tests are used. Tests are given both at the beginning and end of each semester, and numerous valuable studies have been made of the comparative results.

A third approach to evaluation of supervision may be illustrated from the field of physical education. The first class to be graduated under the present system of supervised health work was studied with respect to height, weight, and correction of bad tonsils, diseased or abnormal thyroids, flat feet, poor vision, and dental defects. Not only was improvement studied, but the relation between the improvement of physical defects and the extent to which scholarship improved was carefully investigated.

11. KEEPING SUPERVISION ABOVE THE INSPECTORIAL LEVEL

Administration and supervision.—Almost without exception the supervisors of the first and second types cooperating in this study are doing some work of a purely administrative nature, or some teaching, or both. (See Sec. 2 of Ch. I.) For instance, many counselors check attendance, direct groups of teachers in the solution of service problems, and perform various duties in connection with counseling or guidance, which are none the less teaching because they are

individual or tutorial. If one attempts an academic distinction between supervision and administration, he encounters numerous difficulties. For example, everyone agrees that fixing tuition rates and determining the boundaries of school districts are administrative acts, and few would dispute that the giving of a demonstration lesson and the directing of the work of a group of teachers through a series of conferences dealing with problems of the classroom are supervisory acts. But between these extremes lies a middle area where the acts of administration and of supervision merge so completely that it is profitless, if not impossible, to make distinctions. Moreover, whether an act is administrative or supervisory often depends on the circumstances, the manner, or the purposes of performance of the act. In general, administration is more impersonal, more remote from the environment in which teachers and pupils are working, and more indirect in its influence on the educative environment than supervision. In other words, intelligent and effective administration creates an environment conducive to the growth of teachers and pupils. Supervision begins where administration leaves off and provides for the additional and direct adjustments necessary if teachers are to function at their best and if pupils are to grow at their optimum rates.

The work of curriculum specialists and of research specialists.—The fact seems well established that supervision is no longer a one-man job, if ever it were such. An adequate supervisory program encompasses the entire field of education and hence is the work of a number of individuals of complementary trainings, experiences, and abilities. Outstanding projects now being undertaken in the name of supervision have raised supervision far above the inspectorial level. They involve the cooperative efforts of supervisors, teachers, and even pupils over long periods of time. They are aimed at the improvement of the environment wherein teachers teach and learners learn. They force a consideration of the objectives of education, of child nature, of children's present interests, and their immediate and future needs. They demand skill in all the techniques of research.

Hence, specialists in the curriculum, in tests, in measurements, and in other forms of research must become integral parts of the supervisory organization. In Los Angeles the work of the curriculum specialist and of the curriculum committee is stated as follows: (1) The formulation of statements of the purposes of education; (2) the formulation and organization of the program of studies; (3) the selection and development of materials of instruction, including textbooks, textbook materials, supplies, and equipment; (4) the preparation of courses of study; (5) the development of curriculum tests; and (6) the adaptation of the curriculum to various ability levels. Since the foregoing activities also practically determine teaching methods and procedures, unless the work of the various specialists is an integral part of supervision, little is left to the province of supervision except perfunctory inspection. Undoubtedly an adequate conception of supervision should include every cooperative effort making directly for improved teaching and learning situations (in the classroom, in the extracurriculum, or in guidance), whether the activity deals with the aims of education, with subject matter or content, with teaching procedures, with the better adjustment of the teacher to her working environment, or with the evaluation of the supervisory activities themselves.

13. SUMMARY

The concept of supervision has evolved to a point where the word is no longer a sign of the idea which it is supposed to convey. To-day the supervisor is recognized in outstanding schools as a leader, a formulator, an adviser, a consultant, a helper, but never as a perfunctory inspector. The relationship between the supervisor and the supervised is democratic and cooperative. The idea of the supervisor as a consultant is gaining ground rapidly. In some schools the sentiment is unmistakably in favor of making all supervisory service a privilege which teachers may enjoy only upon request. Occasionally a part of each supervisor's time is scheduled to consultation periods for the help of individual members of the staff who of their own accord

are seeking aid; and sometimes educational specialists are secured from outside the local school system for scheduled advisory meetings with teachers and supervisors.

The typical supervisor in the schools studied begins the year with a definite plan, usually developed through close cooperation with the teachers who are to participate in it. The plan is specific in nature, dealing with the problems most needing solution during the current year. The plan sets up goals and outlines the methods by which the goals may be attained. It is in no sense a formula. No formulas have been devised whereby success may be insured in the complex business of supervision. Certain goals may be established as worth striving for, and certain activities may be listed which supervisors have found successful, but in the last analysis successful supervision is unique with each supervisor, being conditioned to a large extent by his or her unique traits of intelligence, character, and personality.

Schools vary greatly in the size of supervisory staffs and in the amounts of time allotted to supervision. This is true both of the local staff, which gives full time to the individual school, and of the central staff, which serves all the schools of the system. No general rule exists for the allocation of administrative and supervisory duties and functions, largely because great differences continue to prevail among schools, not only in the number of persons available for supervisory and administrative duties but also in the experience, training, and traits of personality of these persons.

The principal approach to the problem of improving classroom instruction is no longer the classroom visit with its inevitably ensuing conference. This approach is still an important one, but in outstanding schools supervisors are realizing as never before the potential aggregate benefits which may accrue from many methods of supervision proceeding simultaneously. Group conferences, departmental meetings, and faculty meetings are among the most frequently employed means of supervision and among those judged to be most uniformly successful. The meetings have no magic virtue in themselves. They must be carefully planned and ably conducted. Carefully prepared agenda

issued to teachers in advance of the meetings are elements in their success. The time at which meetings are held should coincide with the convenience of those who are to attend. In one system faculty meetings are repeated on the same day for the convenience of teachers. All schools use the mimeographed bulletin as a means of transmitting information intended to help in the realization of the supervisory program. Depending on the purpose to be served, these bulletins vary from a single page of letter-size paper to comprehensive bound volumes. Printed bulletins and handbooks serve the ends of supervision in a few schools.

Since evaluation of existing procedures must antedate intelligent efforts to improve the educative environment, methods of gathering data on which to base plans for improvement are exceedingly important. Tests are little used as sources of data for evaluating present supervisory and teaching procedures, except in a few outstanding schools. Even where tests are used with maximum efficiency the data are supplemented by careful observation of persons qualified to judge. Questionnaires to teachers and pupils and interviews with pupils are proving valuable sources of data. Formal rating scales are not used extensively in the group of schools included in this investigation. In a number of schools they are used only to rate new teachers or teachers on probation. Most rating scales in use have been devised locally. In a few instances scales or score cards are developed by means of which the supervisor is rated by the teachers, or by means of which the teacher may analyze his or her own traits and activities. Valid rating scales used alternately by teacher and the supervisor tend to keep the teacher constantly critical of his or her methods and to lead to intelligent modifications of his or her teaching procedures. Only one system reported the use of a professional test for teachers. This test tends to acquaint teachers with educational terminology and to stimulate their thinking about educational theory and practice. Supervisors sometimes prepare lists of questions which teachers may use in the analysis of their own traits and activities.

Supervisors cooperating in this study are concerned far more with problems related to the development of subject matter or content than with any other phase of the supervisory program. In this work the activities of teachers and supervisors are directed along two related routes. The first route leads to the organization of existing subject matter into teaching units or unit assignments. The second leads to the development of new courses and curriculums.

Each school in a very real sense is a unique enterprise in supervision because of the many variables involved. However, two decidedly innovating enterprises in supervision are (1) supervision through university cooperation in Abemarle County, Va., and (2) supervision through the home room as a unit in the Thomas Starr King Junior High School, of Los Angeles.

Almost without exception the supervisors of the first and second types cooperating in this study are doing some work of a purely administrative nature or some teaching, or both. Attempts to make academic distinctions between administration and supervision meet with numerous difficulties. Intelligent and effective administration creates an environment conducive to the growth of teachers and pupils. Supervision begins where administration leaves off and provides for the additional and direct adjustments necessary if teachers are to function at their best and if pupils are to grow at their optimum rates. Supervision is no longer a "1-man" job, if it ever were such. Outstanding projects now being undertaken in the name of supervision have raised supervision far above the inspectorial level. They involve the cooperative efforts of supervisors, teachers, and even pupils over long periods of time. They are aimed at the improvement of the environment wherein teachers teach and learners learn. They force a consideration of the objectives of education, of child nature, of children's present interests, and their immediate and future needs. They demand skill in all the techniques of research. Hence specialists in the curriculum, in tests, in measurements, and in other forms of research have become integral parts of the supervisory organization. Present

practice suggests that an adequate conception of supervision includes every cooperative effort making directly for improved teaching and learning situations, whether the activity deals with the aims of education, with subject matter or content, with teaching procedures, with the better adjustment of the teacher to his or her working environment, or with the evaluation of the supervisory activities themselves.