DEVELOPING AND USING AN EVALUATION TECHNIQUE TO
MEASURE ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL PRACTICES

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DEVELOPING AND USING AN EVALUATION TECHNIQUE TO MEASURE ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL PRACTICES

THESIS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The problem of this thesis is to develop a technique to evaluate administrative personnel practices in schools. In order to reach a definite conclusion, two steps will be taken. The first step is to devise a method of evaluating the principles of personnel administration. The second step is to apply these evaluative criteria to the practices of personnel administration.

Administrative practices vary greatly in the school systems throughout this country. This thesis will attempt to answer the following five questions which have guided this study.

1. What practices are essential in the successful organization and administration of personnel in order to achieve the avowed purpose of serving best pupils, community, and teachers?

2. What are the duties of a successful administrator in the administration of personnel?

3. Do the personnel practices in evidence today accomplish the desired aims of efficiency throughout the school staff?

4. Are the various personnel practices democratic in
that they promote the general welfare of the teachers, children, and community?

5. Does the administration promote the professional effectiveness of the entire teaching staff?

The problem of this thesis is limited to: (1) an analysis of personnel practices as were found in the N. E. A. Research Bulletin, March 1942, and the N. E. A. Research Bulletin, May 1942; and (2) an analysis of personnel practices now used in certain school systems; (3) a comparison of the various administrative practices.

Definition of Terms

Analysis.—The term analysis as used in this thesis may be defined as a method of study through research to arrive at definite conclusions as to administrative practices as found in certain school systems.

Personnel.—The term personnel in this instance means the complete staff of paid workers in a school system; such as superintendent, principal, teachers, supervisors, and board of education.

Practices.—The term practices will be taken to mean the acts and decisions of the personnel administration.

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Democracy.---In this thesis, the term democracy means the fundamentals of democracy which may be applied to personnel practices. Democracy means, among other things, that the interests of the people should come first in the minds of professional leaders. It may best be defined in the terms upon which democracy depends. These are:

1. The essential dignity of man, the importance of protecting and cultivating his personality in a fraternal rather than a differential principle, and the elimination of special privileges based upon unwarranted or exaggerated emphasis on the human differentials.
2. Confidence in a constant drive toward the perfectability of mankind.
3. The assumption that the gains of the commonwealth are essentially mass gains and should be diffused as promptly as possible throughout the community without too great delay or too wide a spread in differentials.
4. The desirability of popular decision in the last analysis on basic questions of social direction and policy, and of recognized procedures for the expression of such decisions and their consideration in policy.
5. Confidence in possibility of conscious social change accomplished through the process of consent rather than the methods of violence.3

Sources of Data

For the analysis of personnel practices in certain school systems, much reading was done. The opinions, ideas, experiences, and suggestions of many recognized writers in the field of education were studied and analyzed.

Study was made of Gulick and Urwick, Cox and Langfitt,

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Newlon, Crowley, and others. Magazine articles and bulletins were also consulted. A great part of the research was gleaned from Gulick and Urwick, *Papers on the Science of Administration*. Gulick and Urwick are recognized writers on personnel administration in the business world. These principles of personnel administration were then applied to school administration.

The principle data for the analysis of the regular program of personnel practices as it now exists in certain school systems were taken from bulletins compiled by the National Education Association, Bulletin No. 2, March 1942\(^4\), and Bulletin No. 3, May 1942\(^5\), as a result of questionnaires sent to superintendents of schools in 1801 cities over 2500 in population. This was the third in a series of bulletins dealing with personnel procedures, the first being published in 1922, the second in 1932, and the last in 1942.

**Treatment of Data**

This study will first establish criteria of personnel administration, using the sources that have been selected as representing democratic personnel practices. The second

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step will set forth the practices that are used today. In this second step, a great majority of the practices were found in bulletins and magazines. The third step will be to apply this evaluation device to the practices. After the application of this evaluation device, conclusions and recommendations will be given, drawn from the results of the evaluation of personnel practices.

Related Studies

The March and May issues of the N. E. A. Research Bulletin for 1942, which have already been mentioned in this chapter, are more closely related to this study than any other research material. In the study made by this group, the entire school administration was examined with particular reference to conditions of employment under which teachers work and the effect these conditions have on the efficiency of the teachers.

Another study related to this problem was found in the June, 1940 issue of The Review of Educational Research. In this study, the survey was limited to the recruitment, evaluation, and eligibility of personnel.

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In her Master's thesis, Janie Hopson Shands used the subject, "The Application of Democratic Cooperative Procedures to the Administration of Curriculum Revision." It involves the examination of some illustrations of theory and practice in the administration of curriculum revision. It also involves a study of the fundamental philosophy of American democracy as implied in the Declaration of Independence and the Preamble to the Constitution.

Shands' purpose in making this study was two-fold: (1) To select procedures based on principles of cooperation implied in American democracy, and (2) To apply these democratic cooperative procedures to the administration of curriculum revision.

She used as a guide to research in the problem the following leading questions:

(1) What has been the nature of the administration of curriculum revision in the past?
(2) What is the nature of educational procedures implied in the fundamental philosophy of American democracy?
(3) What specific procedures and techniques consistent with democratic philosophy are available for use?

The author came to these conclusions: (1) that the democratic cooperative procedures should be applied to the administration of curriculum revision; (2) that unless educational institutions themselves democratize their own administration

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8Ibid.
they could not hope to play a very important role in the maintenance and extension of democracy.

Gulick and Urwick edited a series of papers on the science of administration. Even though they set forth principles found in the business world, they were easily adapted to the policies of school administration.

Another study was made by Francois S. Gillie on Centralization or Decentralization? The problem in this study was to determine whether centralization or decentralization was best in school administration. The problem was studied by taking sixteen schools outside of New York which were decentralized, and sixteen schools in New York which were centralized. A questionnaire was used in this study. The author came to the conclusion that some problems could best be handled by centralization and some by decentralization. He concluded that, since New York was so large, centralization would be a better plan than in smaller units.

In this study the primary purpose was confined to the problem of centralization or decentralization, and it did not include complete criteria of personnel practices.

9 Francois S. Gillie, Centralization or Decentralization?
CHAPTER II

PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATIVE TECHNIQUE

The Superintendent.

It is the purpose of this chapter to set up criteria of good personnel practices.

It is clear from long experience, both in government, business, and school affairs, that organization, as a way of co-ordination, requires the establishment of a system of authority whereby the object or purpose of the business, and in this case, the school, can be carried out with the least amount of confusion and for the greatest benefit of the public.

The problem of organization has become the problem of building up between the superintendent, who is the nerve center, the teachers, the trustees, and the rest of the community an effective network of communication and control.\(^1\)

Determining the Duties of the Superintendent

Planning.--The first duty of the superintendent is:

Planning, that is, working out, in broad outline, the things that need to be done and the method of doing them to accomplish the purpose set for the enterprise.\(^2\)

\(^1\)Philip W. L. Cox and R. Emerson Langfitt, "The Principal Looks at His Job", High School Administration and Supervision, p. 64.

The superintendent and the principal, before school starts, should set up a broad outline as to what their main objectives are going to be that year. Then the principal calls the teachers together and explains the main objects of the school for that particular year. After the principal has explained these objectives he should then work with the teachers on methods of carrying out these plans.

The superintendent and the principal do not arbitrarily decide on the major objects for the school. They will have had the assistance of the board of education, the members of which are elected by the people for the purpose of representing the community as a whole; but this last statement assumes that individual members of the board have "accepted the policy of absolutely refusing to let their positions on the board of education be used as a means of advantage to their friends or families." 3

Organizing.--The second duty of the superintendent is:

Organizing, that is, the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined, and coordinated for the defined object. 4

We know that if the school is to carry on adequately all or any part of its duties as a place where children


learn to live in a democratic nation, all officers who participate in school administration should have clear conceptions of their duties, privileges, and responsibilities. Of course, this could be carried too far. If specific and complete assignments are laid down by the superintendent and principal it leaves little room or latitude for the rest of the personnel of the school, which is composed of the teachers, pupils, and parents of the community. However, if there is too little organization, confusion will be the net result. No one will know what to do and when to do it.

One type of man who organizes a school is the "detail man." He wants to do everything himself. He thinks he should know where every pupil and every stick of athletic equipment is during every minute of the day. He is embarrassed if a mother comes to the school and wants a certain pupil and he cannot tell her where to find the student. He is embarrassed if he cannot tell a mother, who wants her child excused for a party, whether or not the child has a class the last period in the day.

Now the second type of administrator feels no insecurity or shame if he is not able to tell from personal knowledge at what hour the sixth grade has reading or at what time of the day the seventh grade has fine arts. He believes that this is not a part of his business. He leaves such

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5 Philip W. L. Cox and K. Emerson Langfitt, "The Principal Looms at His Job", High School Administration and Supervision, p. 62.
matters to a member of his staff. In this type of school the
teachers, pupils, and parents have some latitude in which to
work. They can think for themselves. An administrator of
this second type spends his own energy on the promotion of
school spirit, on the development of a philosophy of school
life, and on the inspiration of the teachers and pupils. He
works with committees, teachers, pupils, or parents as they
strive to reach wise decisions.

Such a principal should surely feel free to
administer his school with a maximum of freedom
for pupils, teachers, and parents to assert their
own personalities, provided only that they do not
limit unduly the rights of other pupils, teachers,
and parents to work out their own problems.⁶

Regardless of the type an administrator might compare
to, he should be guided by two principles:

As a minimum of superimposition, he should
in any case provide enough mechanical direction
and oversight so that the success of each pupil
and teacher is probable. To state the principle
negatively, he should so organize and plan the
work of his school as to guard against such a
collapse of morale as will surely follow if teach-
ers and pupils have only vague ideas regarding
their responsibilities or the regulations of the
school.

As a maximum of superimposition, he should
refrain from requiring of pupils, or teachers, or
parents any uniformity of procedures if pupils and
teachers and parents might work out their own pro-
cedures diversely but adequately.⁷

**Staffing.**—The third duty of a superintendent or an ad-
ministrator is:

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⁶Ibid., p. 63. ⁷Ibid.
Staffing, that is the whole personnel function of bringing in and training the staff and maintaining favorable conditions of work. 8

The school should be staffed with professional, trained workers within the educational system so as to let them help in the capacity that they are best fitted to occupy. In the last few years the practice of delegating some of the chief executive duties to other people has been taking form in our United States government. Thus it has become more and more important that the government get only the best men in their particular fields. The "brain-trust", if you please.

In the selecting of personnel for the school there are three different groups of people to be considered: (1) teacher; (2) child; (3) community.

The total process of selection and appointment of a teacher to a position in the school includes six steps:

(1). Setting up the qualification and disqualification that shall govern eligibility.
(2). Forecasting the probable needs for new personnel in the near future.
(3). Assembling applications, both by recruiting and by accepting voluntary applications.
(4). Assembling the written and personal data about the candidate that makes it possible to choose the best.
(5). Actually selecting individuals to be nominated to the board of education.
(6). The appointment of the candidates by the board of education. 9


The first step in this series is chiefly the responsibility of the board of education together with the help of the superintendent and his assistants. The other five steps are the responsibility of the professional staff, subject to whatever general rules of procedure the board of education may define.

In all schools in which the superintendent has anything to do with the hiring of teachers, he will need the assistance of all the people who are connected with the school system and have had professional training, such as principals, supervisors, committees of teachers, and, of course, the personnel director if there is one in the school system.

Methods of Hiring Teachers

There are several ways by which teachers may be hired:

1. The board appoints on the basis of nomination by the superintendent. This idea rests on several basis assumptions:

   (1). It assumes that the superintendent of the school has been chosen by the board of education to serve as its professional executive.
   (2). It assumes that the superintendent of the school is professionally competent to select personnel, and that he is informed and equipped to follow procedures most likely to serve the best teachers that the local school system could hope to obtain.
   (3). It assumes that individual members of the board of education are accepting the policy of absolutely refusing to let their position on the board of education be used as a means of advantage to their friends or families.10

10 Ibid., p. 54.
2. The superintendent nominates two or more qualified persons for appointment to a given position and then lets the board make the final appointment.

3. The board of education or a committee of the board selects the personnel for the school without official participation by the superintendent.

4. The superintendent of schools selects and appoints teachers without official action by the board of education.

The Personal Interview

Recent personnel research has proven that there are several serious limitations on the interview procedure. It has been found that when the interviewer is asked a question he will tell what he thinks he does, or how he thinks he acts under certain situations, but since so many of the interviewers are not accurate observers of themselves, this may not be a true account of behavior.

Again the person interviewed is likely to be influenced by suggestions coming from the interviewer. He may unconsciously assume an attitude or a mental state in harmony with that of the person interviewing him.11

There seems to be a general agreement that in most forms of personality appraisal, direct observation of behavior is essential.

The observation of relatively static or isolated characteristic of human beings, either directly

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or through photographs, is not comparable with the observation of natural immediate behavior. The more permanent trends in character are not indicated by the measurement of any facial features.12

The In-Service Training of Teachers

The in-service training of teachers is a vital problem in personnel work. Below are listed methods of improvement in the in-service training of teachers:

1. The intelligent use of the teachers meeting.
2. The skill of the superintendent, principal, or supervisor in suggesting means of improving the work.
3. Perhaps the most significant, the attitude of the superintendent toward professional growth and his sympathy for and appreciation of the effort of individual teachers to increase their efficiency.13

The need for in-service training is an accepted fact. Teachers either progress in their ability to accept new ideas and new trends, or they become satisfied with their methods and their teaching tends to become stagnant. It is a responsibility of the superintendent, principal, or supervisor to see that their teachers get helpful training in several ways.

It is not only for the benefit of teachers already in the system that in-service training should be offered. There


are new teachers entering the schools each year who need the assistance. Out of this group a great many of the teachers are not well-trained. They have not met the same situation in school and college training that they meet in actual teaching experience; thus they are not able to cope with the many new situations which will arise.

Both the teachers with years of experience and the new teachers who are entering the profession should avoid merely accepting the standards set up by the school, and becoming entirely satisfied with them. Cooke says:

He has enlarged his outlook but little and broadened his knowledge only slightly since entering the profession. Stagnation or arrest of growth is the danger at this stage.14

Types of Teachers Meetings

**General professional meetings.**—The general professional meeting is usually held two or three days before school starts in the fall. Sometimes these meetings are called "institutes". This type of meeting usually accomplishes these four ends:

1. General directions are given to the teachers.
2. Opportunities for improvement are called to the attention of the teachers.
3. Teachers are oriented.
4. If these meetings are conducted properly, they are valuable in promoting interest and "esprit de corps".15

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Grade Meetings.—The grade meeting as a means of in-service training is good only if there are several who are teaching the same grade. In these meetings only the problems which are peculiar to a particular grade will be discussed. The problems dealt with in such a meeting are usually of an instructional nature.

Department or subject-matter meetings.—The department or subject-matter meeting compares to the grade meeting except for the fact that it is held for the benefit of high school teachers instead of elementary school teachers. Only the problems of the subject for which the meeting is held are discussed.

Reading circles.—Reading circles are of three different types: (1) local; (2) state; (3) national. If the reading circle is local the superintendent should make it as attractive as possible. The whole personnel should select some problem that is of interest to all and then work on the problem that is chosen until it has been solved or definitely improved. If the group has decided to work on the problem of teaching social science, a collection of books on the subject should be secured. One of the members should act as instructor, but questions should be discussed by the entire group. After the study has been completed, a good teacher of social science should demonstrate the points under discussion.
Visiting Days

Another effective method of giving in-service training is to allow the teachers to visit other schools on allotted days.

A practical plan for the effective administration of visiting days is to allow approximately ten per cent of the teachers to visit schools on the same day. Substitute teachers should be asked to do the work of these teachers during visiting days. If the school board has provided no substitute teachers, the remaining ninety per cent of the teachers should be asked to teach the extra classes. By such a plan all teachers will have had an opportunity to visit schools on one of the ten visits.

It is not advisable merely to give the teacher permission to visit schools unless checks are made on the visits. An effective plan is for the superintendent, principal, or supervisor to take the visiting teachers in a group to a neighboring school system. 16

Before the teachers make a visit, arrangements should be made with the school to be visited. The follow-up is very important. The principal should hold conferences with the teachers after the visit and discuss what they saw and whether or not it was an improvement over their own methods.

The Leave of Absence

The leave of absence as a means of giving in-service training is practiced only in large schools. Under this plan the teacher is allowed to leave the school in order to attend a college or university.

Summer School

Attending summer school is another way of growing in

16 Ibid., pp. 256-257.
the service. "Summer school attendance increased over 800 percent between 1920 and 1931."  

**Democracy in Personnel Administration**

The achievement of a democratic purpose through the administrative organization for education means that both professional personnel and students must be free to think and to act within the pattern of adopted legal and social policies.

**The Purpose of Democracy in Administration**

Since the purpose of educational effort in the United States is to develop democratic competency in children and adults, the school should offer the child the best initial training.

**The Need for Democracy in Personnel Work**

Certainly the need for democratic practices in personnel work cannot be questioned in a democratic country. The problem is to get as good or better results using democratic methods as one would get using totalitarian methods. Efficiency involves more than a thorough

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17 Ibid., p. 259.
19 Ibid., p. 383.
application of technique in the mechanical aspects of administration. It involves the employment of broad social purposes.

The applications of the principle of democracy in a process so complex as education and so dependent on the highest professional and technical competence presents peculiar difficulties. 20

Problems of Democracy

Lay control.—The first difficulty arising under the democratic principle is the question of lay control. The traditional practice of democratic control exercised by the community electing their board of education, however genuine its merits, and however beautiful in theory, exhibits some glaring defects.

Some students of the problem of lay control have completely discarded the idea of school boards as they are now constructed. The problem seems to be capable of being worked out in either of these ways;

1. Some type of more democratic representation under local control that is free from political influence.

2. The frank and aboveboard merger of the school with the city government.

The glaring defects in the operation of local control of education doubtless explains in large measure the clearly discernible tendency toward centering more power in

state departments of education. This policy of centering more power in the hands of a few is prevalent throughout the world today in every phase of government.

Centralization.—Another problem of democracy is centralization of authority. The tendency towards this practice seems irresistible under our present economic system and the age of modern communication.

It will be desirable to leave to the local community as much freedom of initiative as it can exercise consistent with the good of the larger public.\(^{21}\)

The local government of education should not be made a fetish in our highly integrated industrial society. One problem of the school is to make it more sensitive to the interests of all the people, without sacrificing efficiency. "Concentration of authority commensurate with responsibility is essential."\(^{22}\)

The Spirit of Democracy in the Administration

It is the duty of the superintendent to build a public sentiment that will demand, at all times, freedom of teaching in the schools.

Freedom of teaching is at this time particularly essential if youth are to be realistically and adequately educated with reference to the leading

\(^{21}\text{Ibid.}\) \(^{22}\text{Ibid.}\)
social, moral, political, and economic problems of the modern world.  

If a spirit of democracy is to be introduced into the internal administration of schools the superintendent and other administrative officials must be reconciled to the idea of teacher participation in formation of broad policies of the school.

Administrators should see that the exclusion of teachers from the process of formulating policies atrophies their power to think, and eventually makes of them the most unquestioning and submissive of conformists.

The result is educational policies less well considered, less well comprehended by those who must put them into operation and in the end a less competent classroom teacher.  

To say that the administrators who do not use these democratic methods are simply hurting themselves is not true. The interests of the people demand that the wisest and most competent professional ability and leadership be employed in the school. It is even suggested that the teacher might help in the selection of the administrator since they are the ones who have to carry out the policies of the school. The main objection to this plan is that the teachers, in most cases, are not competent in the selection of administrators, but it is too often true that the trustees are also incapable of this duty.

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23 Ibid.  
24 Ibid.
The fundamental question of public concern is not that of control versus freedom, for all institutions are controlled. It is the question of whether the control always seeks to advance public interest. 25

An adequate personality results from cooperative undertaking with pupils, parents, and teachers and with ultra-school groups in achieving purposes for which they are enthusiastic. Let the principal act as though he were friendly and approachable, as though he respected the personalities of his colleagues, as though he wished to treat them as he would that they would treat him, as though he and they were engaged in common, enthusiastic undertaking, as though he considered them self-governing, democratic groups—-. By endeavoring to maintain the mental health of his colleagues, he will himself achieve mental health. 26

Sociology and Psychology of Handling Personnel

Relation of Administrator to Community

The importance of understanding the community.—If an administrator is successful in the handling of personnel, he will know and understand the sociology and psychology of the community in which he is working.

To be of the greatest functional value in education, psychology must also deal with social processes and total social situations existing or arising between individuals and other individuals, between individuals and groups, and

25 Ibid., p. 248.

26 Daniel W. La Rue, "Mental Health and the Principal", Journal of the National Education Association, XVIII, No. 6, (June, 1929), p. 36.
between the several different kinds of groupings to be found in any community.\textsuperscript{27}

He will know the society which he serves and the effect of such social forces as propaganda, gossip, rumor, and the other social processes which operate for social control. The technical training is by no means complete without a great deal of training in the above mentioned social process.

The importance of having the support of all social classes.---Another must in the handling of the personnel of the school is that the administrator must have the support of all social classes. If he appears to be too aristocratic, he will alienate the laboring class, or as we sometimes say, the common citizens of the community. They are by far the largest group in the community. While the upper group generally has the power to hire and fire, it is better to have the majority of the people behind you. They have no public reputation to maintain and will probably be more sincere in their allegiance. Russia, for example, has ultimately been given over to the leader who represents the masses or who the masses think represents them.

The observance of tradition and precedent.---If a person is elected as superintendent of schools during a crisis of the school, he should watch and not overthrow all of the

\footnote{A. O. Bowden and Irving R. Melbo, \textit{Social Psychology of Education}, p. 159.}
traditions of the school and community, although some of the traditions may have been part of the cause of the crisis.

If he does this he may be expected to be stoned, figuratively speaking, gossiped about, vilified, and probably professionally crucified. Society has always had a tendency to put its leaders to death, either actually or socially. 28

Just how much a person may be able to do in a different manner from the way in which it has been done will depend upon the method he uses to accomplish his aims.

If he has a program or policy of education to "put over", he should generally wait until he has been able to sell his ideas to his board of control and to his teachers. 29

Going into a community, an administrator is not likely to find all of his teachers A-1; but he should not get rid of all of them simultaneously. Usually there are teachers who have been in the system for a long time and they probably have friends in the community. The best method of handling this problem is to give them some in-service training with the hope that they will improve.

An administrator should know the difference between social compulsion and official pressure. A person handling people knows that it is better to have one or two incompetent persons in his organization, and try to get them to improve than to disrupt the entire school by annihilating a large group of the constituents.

\[28\] Ibid. \[29\] Ibid.
Relations with Other Persons

"To be able to exercise saneness of judgment and balance should be one of necessary qualifications of a school administrator."\(^{30}\) He must be able to deal with the school board. They are often swayed by a passion of hatred or influenced by some selfish desire. The administrator should be able to control them, and show them what their policy will eventually bring to the community. A knowledge of the psychology of rumor and propaganda would tend to eliminate such attitudes, both in teachers and administrators. While many school situations require immediate decisions, there are many others that require deliberate consideration. It is important that the administrator get all the facts and assemble the data because that is what the ultimate decision is based upon.

Before a person can handle other people he must first demonstrate his integrity of character.

Psychology adds to the specifications of characteristics desirable in a ruler which realistic students of political science set forth, a warning against excessive demands, rigidity, and over-simplicity. Rulers must be chosen from men, not angels. In a sense, no man is able and good enough to rule his fellow men. But somebody must.\(^{31}\)

\(^{30}\)Ibid.

Thus it is well to avoid the word must in specification of a good administrator for the job may be almost equally well done in many ways.

General Psychological Principles

There are available a number of general psychological principles dealing with various factors involved in the control of individuals. These principles are rather broad in nature but that is where lots of people fall down. They want a hard and fast rule to govern every situation.

The law of stabilization.--If in the course of an unstabilized activity the new experiences which this activity produces appear to form a negative axiological scale, in such a way that every subsequent experience assumes the character of a relative negative value as compared with the preceding experience, there develops a desire for stability in the given line of behavior. 32

An example of this law is as follows: As a superintendent becomes older he will become conservative, especially if he has been punished or fired from a position because of policies which were too far in the advance of the community.

The law of mobilization.--If an actual or possible change in the course of a stabilized action appears to produce a series of desirable new experiences, which seem to constitute an axiologically positive scale and are relatively positive as compared with the foreseen consequences of the original action, there develops

a desire for new experience along the line of activity indicated by the change.33

In general we might say that the law of mobilization is opposite to the law of stabilization. For example, when an administrator goes into a new community and leaves one in which he has had marked success, he is apt to find practices to which he is not accustomed and conditions which are not to his liking. He makes the mistake of introducing many changes too rapidly, and soon finds himself involved in too many innovations, which ultimately bring failure.

The law of negative change.—If a social action including in positive social tendency and the expectation of an intrinsically positive reaction of the social objects meets with an unexpected intrinsically negative reaction of the latter, the positive tendency changes into a negative one.34

If a teacher is very aggressive in her teaching and wishes to make some plans which have not been used in the school and the superintendent has told her to go ahead and then the plans do not come up to expectation, the teacher will hesitate to venture into new fields again if the superintendent does not back her.

The law of repression.—If an action is socially repressed by a negative reaction of an individual or group not the original object of the action, the original tendency (positive, negative, or social) becomes antisocial.35

33 Ibid. 34 Ibid. 35 Ibid.
To illustrate, an administrator has a certain policy to introduce to the board of control. If they refuse to accept the policy he does one of these three things:

1. He relinquishes his plan and continues to think as he did.
2. He redefines his plans in accordance with the wishes of the board.
3. He will still insist on its establishment. In this last case he will likely resign.36

The purpose of this chapter is to set up criteria of personnel administration. It is with this thought in mind that the following evaluating device has been developed in order that the practice might be evaluated.

Method of Evaluating Personnel Practices in the School

Instructions: Each Roman number presents a fundamental of personnel work. Under each of these fundamentals, some school personnel practices and methods of organization are listed. The left-hand column is for schools located in towns of 10,000 to 100,000 population. The right-hand column is for schools located in towns of 2,500 to 10,000 in population. Place an X in the practice most representative of your school, or of any situation being evaluated.

1. Planning, a duty of the superintendent.

Practices regarding planning major objectives of the school.

36 Ibid.
Schools in towns of 10,000 to 100,000 in population

Schools in towns of 2,500 to 10,000 in population

The teacher helps the superintendent in the planning.

The teachers and the board of education help the superintendent in the planning.

The superintendent does all the planning and then explains to the teachers and the board of education.

II. Organization, a duty of the superintendent.

A. Practices regarding organizing the formal structure of authority.

There is a formal structure of authority whereby everyone knows to whom he is responsible.

Teachers are left to their own initiative as to whether or not their students will organize their home-rooms.

The teacher does not know whether he is responsible to the supervisor, principal, or superintendent.

B. Practices used in organizing the main objectives of outside organizations so that they will coincide with the objectives of the school.

The superintendent has led, supported, or followed adaptations or changes in the past.

The superintendent has been the leader in adaptations or changes.

The superintendent is participating in changes or adaptations to be made.
III. **Staffing, a duty of the superintendent.**

A. Practices used in the selection of teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools in towns of 10,000 to 100,000 in population</th>
<th>Schools in towns of 2,500 to 10,000 in population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The superintendent has the right to nominate individual persons for appointment to specific positions and the board elects them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The superintendent nominates several candidates for appointment to a given position; the board elects one of the suggested candidates.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The superintendent selects and appoints teachers without the official action of the board.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The board of education selects and appoints teachers without the assistance of the superintendent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Practices regarding educational preparation as a requirement in the eligibility of a teacher.

- Applicants are required to hold a Bachelor Degree from some recognized senior college.
- Applicants are hired and are required to attend summer school if they have no degree.
- Applicants are required to have had five years of college work or a Master's Degree.

C. Practices regarding teaching experience as a requirement in the eligibility of a teacher.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools in towns of 10,000 to 100,000 in population</th>
<th>Schools in towns of 2,500 to 10,000 in population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are required to have more than two years of experience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are required to have had two years of experience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are required to have had one year of experience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No experience at all is required.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. Practices regarding the use of married women teachers.

| Married women are never given appointments as new teachers. |
| Married women teachers are rarely given appointments under special conditions, including responsibility for dependents. |
| Marriage has no relation to eligibility. |

E. Practices regarding the selection of local applicants as teachers.

| Only local residents are appointed. |
| Local applicants are given first consideration if qualifications are equal. |
| Out-of-town applicants are favored. |
| Residence is not a factor one way or the other in teacher-selection. |
| No local residents are appointed as teachers until they have had one or more years of experience elsewhere. |
IV. Recruiting and appraisal of teachers on an objective basis.

A. Practices in the recruiting of teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools in towns of 10,000 to 100,000 in population</th>
<th>Schools in towns of 2,500 to 10,000 in population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are secured from teacher placement bureaus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are secured from voluntary application.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators are on the look-out for good teachers throughout the year.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Practices regarding the appraisal of candidates.

| The personal interview is used. |
| The application blank is used.  |
| The superintendent observes the teacher while she teaches before he hires her. |

V. Democracy in the in-service training of teachers is essential in a democratic school system.

Practices in the in-service training of teachers.

| Teachers are allowed to pick out their own method of professional growth. |
| Teachers are required to attend summer schools.                           |
| Teachers are permitted to attend summer schools, or to travel.          |

VI. Democracy is essential to good personnel administration.

A. Democratic practices in personnel administration.
Schools in towns of 10,000 to 100,000 in population

Schools in towns of 2,500 to 10,000 in population

Teachers are secured from various departments to serve on official committees on personnel problems.

The superintendent cooperates with local teachers in the study of personnel problems.

The teachers are allowed to express their opinions of some problems.

B. Practices regarding the selection of a board of education.

Members of the board of education have an income of less than $2000.

Members of the board of education have an income between $2000, and $5000.

Members of the board of education have an income between $5000, and $10,000.

Members of the board of education have an income above $10,000.

VII. Modern psychology has proven that a human-being cannot be judged in parts.

Practices used in the selection of a personnel as related to psychology.

The applicant is observed at her work.

The applicant is interviewed and then her statements are checked.

The applicant uses application blank to which her picture is attached.
Summary

In setting up criteria of administrative technique it is revealed that the success of an administration depends, in great measure, upon the ability of the superintendent, principal, or supervisor to execute his duties in a systematic, business-like manner.

Organization.--This duty of the superintendent involves these outstanding problems: (1) setting up broad objectives; (2) arranging for work subdivisions; (3) training the staff for favorable work conditions.

In-service training.--The schools of today should see that their teachers be given new ideas and new standards through: (1) teacher's meetings; (2) visiting days; (3) leave of absence; (4) summer school.

Democracy in administration.--The underlying motive of all educational effort in education should be to offer the child training in democratic principles. The problems often encountered in the practice of democratic principles are: (1) lay control; (2) centralization.

Sociology and psychology of handling personnel.--In order for an administrator to meet success in this phase of personnel management he must have: (1) an understanding of his community; (2) the support of all social classes; (3) a consideration of tradition and precedent.

General psychological principles.--There are several general laws which deal with various factors involved in
the control of individuals: (1) the law of mobilization; (2) the law of stabilization; (3) the law of negative change; (4) the law of repression.
CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION PRACTICES

Having established evaluating criteria that will be used to measure personnel practices, the author of this thesis finds it necessary to present the various practices to be evaluated. Thus the purpose of this chapter is to present practices in order to secure information needed for evaluation.

Determining the Duties of the Superintendent

Planning.—Gulick and Urwick say that most administrators fail to "plan or to lay out in broad outline what the main objective of the enterprise is to be."\(^1\) This seems to be true to a great extent in school administrators. According to Cox and Langfitt\(^2\) most superintendents think that if they plan in detail the number of classes they are going to have and if they have figured the budget, their work is completed. Too, many superintendents think that


\(^2\)Philip W. L. Cox and R. Emerson Langfitt, "The Principal Looks at His Job", *High School Administration and Supervision*, p. 64.
the main object of the school should be for "every boy and girl to prepare for college."  

Or­ganizing.—The modern day superintendent has a tendency to have better organization than the superintendent of a decade ago. According to Cox and Langfitt the administrators are about evenly divided as to these two practices:

1. Over-organization, leaving little latitude for the teacher, pupil, or parent to think or act.

2. Not enough organization, having too much latitude.

In this latter practice, the teachers, pupils, and parents do not know what to do. For example, a P. T. A. is organized in the school. The principal fails to take a lead in this organization. More than likely, at the end of the year, the P. T. A. will not have accomplished very much because the administrator failed to organize and to tell the P. T. A. what needed to be done.

Responsibility for Selection and Appointment of Teachers

In the National Education Association Research Bulletin,


4 Philip W. L. Cox and R. Emerson Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision, p. 62.

in answer to a questionnaire sent out, it was found that in eighty percent of the schools tested, the "superintendent, with such help as he may require from the administrative staff, nominates individual persons for appointment to specific positions." After the superintendent makes the nomination, the board makes the appointment. This leaves twenty percent of our larger cities using some other plan of selecting teachers, when every one of the schools knows that the "superintendent of the school should nominate all employees and the board of education should elect only upon his nomination."

Standards for Eligibility

**Educational Preparation.**—In the decade since 1931, the proportion of cities requiring at least four years of preparation for new elementary school teachers has risen from six percent to sixty-three percent. Qualifications for junior and senior high school positions have likewise risen. In 1931, a requirement of at least four years of preparation for junior high school teachers was found in fifty-one percent of the schools, while in 1941 the requirement was made in ninety-two percent of the schools. The number of cities requiring five years of experience for high school has risen from four percent in 1931 to twelve percent in 1941. All of these given statistics were

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given in the National Education Association Research Bulletin\(^8\) as a result of their survey.

**Previous teaching experience.**—The survey also shows that sixty-five percent of the elementary schools required no experience; ten percent required one year experience; twenty-three percent required two years of experience; two percent required more than two years experience. Of the large towns of a population of around 100,000, seventy-one percent required no experience. The smaller schools had the same percentage. The middle-sized towns of from 10,000 down to 5,000 population required more experience than any other size town. Twelve percent of the schools covered by this report required one year of experience; twenty-six of the schools required two years of experience; three percent required more than two years of experience; fifty-nine percent required no experience at all. Of the senior high schools covered by this report, fifty-six percent required no experience at all; eleven percent required one year experience; twenty-seven percent required two years of experience; six percent required more than two years of experience.

**Marriage as Related to Eligibility**

The National Education Association Research Bulletin\(^9\)

\(^8\)Ibid., pp. 56-57.  \(^9\)Ibid., pp. 60-61.
reveals that married women are employed as new teachers in less than one-half of the cities over 100,000 in population, and in less than one-fifth of the cities between 30,000 and 100,000. Sixty-four of the ninety-three larger cities permit teaching after marriage; while fewer than one-half of the smaller cities allow such. In the larger schools, the practice of discrimination against married women has been checked, while in the smaller schools it has increased. In 1936, the percentage of married women was only nineteen and seven-tenths percent, a decrease of twelve and nine-tenths percent in the last ten years, according to Anthony in the Review of Educational Research.\textsuperscript{10} Hanson and Umstatted in the Review of Educational Research\textsuperscript{11} found, in their study of a certain section of the country, that seven-eighths of the schools have no married teachers.

Local Residence as Related to Eligibility

Fifty-eight percent of the schools in Cooke's study, as given in the Review of Educational Research\textsuperscript{12}, favored local residence of teachers. There has been a general tendency toward the hiring of local residents.


\textsuperscript{11} Ibid., p. 206.

\textsuperscript{12} Ibid.
Recruiting and Evaluation of Candidates

Recruiting new teachers.—The larger schools use the voluntary application to secure teachers. They also use teacher placement bureaus, both the teacher college agency and the commercial agency.

There is a tendency to use more objective means in the selection, guidance, and recruitment of teachers. The results to date are, on the whole, disappointing as far as any scientific validation of pre-training, selection, guidance, and recruitment practices are concerned.13

Procedure for appraisal of candidates.—Each school has several different methods of appraising candidates. According to the National Education Research Bulletin,14 the interview method is used ninety-nine percent of the time. The majority of the cities required a formal application blank. Persons named as references were asked for information regarding the applicant; then a personal interview was held with the candidate. In slightly more than half of the cities, arrangements were made to observe the classroom work of the prospective teacher. Less than five percent of the cities required their candidates to take a written examination. Ten years ago, only seventeen percent of the teachers were requested to undergo a physical

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examination. Twenty-five of the cities reported that requirement in 1940-1941.

Development of Personnel in Service

Seventy percent of the schools questioned by the National Education Association\textsuperscript{15} mentioned opportunities for formal professional courses, either through university extension courses sponsored by the local school system, courses available at local colleges or universities, or other methods. Sixty-five percent of the cities used various phases of the curriculum emphasized by committee assignments as a means for professional growth in service. Not only curriculum problems were studied, but many other problems; such as pupil, parent, and school relationships. The faculty meeting, and departmental meetings were reported as means for growth in service by sixteen percent of the schools. In eighty-one percent of the cities, teachers may attend educational meetings without loss of pay, and sixty-nine percent allow teachers to visit other schools without loss of pay.

Sabbatical leave.—In 1940-1941, seventy-one percent of the cities granted extended leave of absence for professional improvement, and twenty-one percent of those provided some salary during the leave of absence. Ninety-five percent of the cities of over 100,000 grant leaves.

Summer School and additional study.--In fifty-one percent of the cities teachers have to attend summer schools or to undertake other studies every few years. There is a tendency to recognize the professional value of other types of experience as a partial fulfillment of the study requirements. Over fifty percent of the cities accept educative travel as such an equivalent and more than ten percent of the cities accept committee work or special school assignments, publication of professional articles or books, and outstanding service in teachers professional associations.

Transfers and Promotions

Transfers.--The majority of school systems have developed no standard procedure in arranging transfers. Where there is a definite plan the most frequent practice is for the teacher to submit his request for transfer directly to the superintendent of schools.

Promotions.--Very few school systems have developed standard procedures in promotion of personnel. Only seventeen percent of the cities of over 100,000 have a system and cities of smaller population have a much lower percentage. The majority of the schools give preference to teachers already in the service, while eighty-one percent are on the look-out for exceptional teachers, whether or not the teachers concerned have asked to be considered.
Democracy in Personnel Administration

The interests of the people, which demand that the wisest and most competent professional ability and leadership be employed in the schools, are frequently subordinate to other interests.

Inside the school systems administration is still largely a benevolent despotism. Supervision is usually technical and close. Teachers hold a subordinate status, and their participation in formulating educational policy is still largely a dream.16

Lay control of the traditional board of education elected by the people and for the people is one of the finest sentiments in the world, but it just doesn't work. Some people who have studied the problem have despairing altogether of boards of education as now constituted. Actually, powerful forces, which often operate behind the scene, exert tremendous influence on the actions of the board members. In many cities the superintendent still has no control over finances and business administration. Since every expenditure in a school system is for an educational purpose, this divided authority means that educational needs are liable to be subordinated to purely business or political considerations. There is frequently graft. In a great many of the schools the boards are merely part of dominant political machines.

Two of our largest schools in the country, Chicago and New York, are examples of political machines getting hold of the school. In Chicago the educational board for years ran the school system in a high-handed manner, using the school to promote political ambitions. Large sums of money were wasted on buildings, equipment, superfluous janitors, and other employees.

The two important surveys of the public schools of New York City in the last quarter of a century have found evidence of the...

...baneful effects of political dominance in the matter of professional promotion and appointment to important positions, the development of school policy, and in other ways.17

Another of the indictment against the practice of the boards of today is their policy of retrenchment. Especially during the depression from 1931 to 1938 this policy was in evidence. Now the same thing is happening during this present war. Boards of education believed during the depression that we should cut down on all educational expenses. Notwithstanding, unemployment increased the need for schools.

During this war the idea will be that we do not have the money to spend on education. It is logical to believe that it will be harder to make a living after the war than

17Ibid., p. 108.
it was before if one does not possess an education. Nevertheless, we are badly in need of experienced and educated men and women in almost all professional fields.

In large schools "ninety-eight percent of the school board members come from the upper class, or from less than fifty-percent of the people."18

Psychology of Administrative Personnel

In Deffenbaugh and Zeigil's investigation, according to Lynch in the American School Board Journal19, of the selection and appointment of teachers, they found that one-third of the new high school appointments and more than one-half of the junior high school appointments were made on the basis of application from individual teachers. Even though these procedures came into existence and spread as a practice without recourse to any formulation of psychological principles, they imply, nevertheless, the acceptance of a psychology that long has been abandoned. The understanding conviction that a true estimate of the worth of an individual can be gained by adding together the values of a few separate impressions is supported only by the discarded psychological concept which considered the individual

18Ibid.

a bundle of independent mental and bodily elements, and held that the parts are equivalent to the whole.

Applied to selection of personnel, the import of these newer developments in psychology is that they call into question many of the practices in vogue. Psychologically, the all too prevalent dependence upon the photograph and the letter of application, for example, in the matter of judging candidates for teaching positions, does not rest on solid ground. The exclusive use of these devices violate the fundamental "undivided individual principles." At best, it yields only fragmentary qualities. This means that even from the most complete set of paper records, application forms, scholastic credits, references, or photographs, it is impossible to predict, with any degree of certainty, whether a candidate would make a good teacher or not. This practice takes the applicant out of his or her content, away from the environment to which he or she is best accustomed.

Summary

1. Planning and organizing as duties of superintendent.— It is revealed, by examining the present-day situation, that the modern superintendent plans his work more thoroughly than did the superintendent of only a decade ago. The

\[\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 32.}\]
superintendents are about equally divided as to the practices of (1) over-organization and (2) not enough organization.

2. **Selection and appointment of teachers.**—The majority of schools allow the superintendent to nominate the candidates and the board of education elects upon the basis of his nomination. It has become evident that the educational qualification requirements have risen considerably. Now at least four years of preparation are required in most elementary schools. In larger cities, five years of experience are often required. It is gradually becoming a practice to hire teachers with no experience. It is the towns of moderate size which require the most experience. In larger schools the practice of discrimination against married teachers has been checked, while in the smaller schools it has increased. There has been a general tendency to the hiring of local residents.

3. **Recruiting and appraisal of candidates.**—It may be concluded that the majority of schools use the personal interview as an ultimate means of appraising the candidates. The more preferable method of observation of teachers in actual practice is used by about half of the schools. It is favorable that the percentage of schools requiring physical examinations has risen.
4. Development of personnel in service.—The majority of schools use additional professional training found in extension courses and classes at colleges and universities. Only sixteen percent of the schools examined reported that they used faculty and departmental meetings as a means of growth. When teachers desire transfer it is generally the custom for written requests to be made directly to the superintendent. As for promotions, greater preference is given to teachers in the system who are worthy of the promotion.

5. Democracy in personnel administration.—In most cases, the board of education is just a benevolent despotism. Often the members are influenced by outside powers, and the superintendent knows very little of the real situations of the school. The practices of the board of education are, in most cases, far from democratic. The policies tend to be arbitrary and dictatorial in nature. Too many times, graft is found in the school system.

6. Psychology of personnel administration.—The old psychology of adding separate parts together and thinking they will make the whole is still being used in the majority of schools.
CHAPTER IV

APPLICATION OF THE CRITERIA TO THE PRACTICES

After having established a criteria of personnel administration in Chapter II, and having set forth the actual practices in Chapter III, it will be the purpose of this chapter to set the criteria up against the practices and to determine to what extent the practices conform with the criteria.

The percentages for Planning, a duty of the superintendent were taken from S. A. Courts, "Are Administrators Autocrats?", Nations Schools.\(^1\) Percentages for Organization, a duty of the superintendent were found in Mort and Cornell, American Schools in Transition.\(^2\) The percentages for Staffing, a duty of the superintendent, Recruiting and appraisal of teachers on an objective basis, Democracy in the in-service training of teachers is essential in a democratic school system, Modern psychology has proved that a human being cannot be judged in parts, and one, two, and three of Democracy is essential to good personnel


\(^2\) Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, American Schools in Transition.
administration were found in the National Education Association Research Bulletin, \(^3\) (March 1942), and the National Education Association Research Bulletin, \(^4\) (May 1942). Four, five, and six of Democracy is essential to good personnel administration were found in Arnett, Social Beliefs and Attitudes of American School Board Members. \(^5\)

### TABLE I

PERSONNEL PRACTICES USED RELATIVE TO THE DUTIES OF THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE PERCENT OF SCHOOLS IN EACH SIZE CITIES THAT ARE USING EACH PRACTICE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Percent of Schools Participating in Each Population Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning, a Duty of the Superintendent</td>
<td>10,000 to 2,500 to 100,000 to 10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The teacher helps the superintendent in planning major objectives.</td>
<td>29.6 to 29.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


\(^5\) Claude E. Arnett, Social Beliefs and Attitudes of American School Board Members.
### TABLE I—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Percent of Schools Participating in Each Population Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 to 100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Planning, a Duty of the Superintendent

1. The teacher and the board of education help the superintendent in planning the major objectives.  
   - 11.9
2. The superintendent plans all the major objectives and then explains to the teachers and the board of education.  
   - 52.5

#### Organization, a Duty of the Superintendent

1. There is a formal structure of authority whereby everyone knows to whom he is responsible.  
   - 43
2. Teachers are left to their own initiative as to whether or not their students will organize their home room.  
   - 35
3. The teacher does not know whether he is responsible to the supervisor, principal, or superintendent.  
   - 22
4. The superintendent has led, supported, or followed adaptations or changes in the past.  
   - 90
### TABLE I—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Percent of Schools Participating in Each Population Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 to 2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,500 to 10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization, a Duty of the Superintendent</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The superintendent has been the leader in adaptation or changes.</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The superintendent is participating in changes or adaptations to be made.</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Staffing, a Duty of the Superintendent</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The superintendent nominates individual persons for appointment to specific positions and the board elects them.</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The superintendent nominates several candidates for appointment to a given position and the board elects one of the suggested candidates.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The superintendent selects and appoints teachers without the official action of the board.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The board of education selects and appoints teachers without the assistance of the superintendent.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE I—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Percent of Schools Participating in Each Population Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 to 100,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Staffing, a Duty of the Superintendent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Applicants are required to hold a Bachelor Degree from some recognized senior college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Applicants are hired and required to attend summer school if they have no degree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Applicants are required to have had five years of college work or a Master's Degree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Teachers are required to have more than two years of experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Teachers are required to have had two years of experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Teachers are required to have had one year of experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. No experience at all is required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Married women are never given appointments as new teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Married women teachers are rarely given appointments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE I—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Percent of Schools Participating in Each Population Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 to 100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Staffing, a Duty of the Superintendent</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under special conditions, including responsibility for dependents.</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Marriage has no relation to eligibility.</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Only local residents are given appointments.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Local applicants are given first consideration, if qualifications are equal.</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Out-of-town applicants are favored.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Residence is not a factor one way or the other in the selection of teachers.</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. No local residents are appointed as teachers until they have had one or more years of experience elsewhere.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Recruiting and Appraisal of Teachers on an Objective Basis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Teachers are secured from teacher placement bureaus.</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teachers are secured from voluntary application.</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Recruiting and Appraisal of Teachers on an Objective Basis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Percent of Schools Participating in Each Population Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 to 100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Administrators are on the look-out for good teachers throughout the year.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The personal interview is used.</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The application blank is used.</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The superintendent observes the teacher while she teaches before he hires her.</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Democracy in the In-service Training of Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>10,000 to 100,000</th>
<th>2,500 to 10,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Teachers are allowed to pick their own method of professional growth.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teachers are required to attend summer school.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Teachers are permitted to attend summer school, or to travel.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Democracy Is Essential to Good Personnel Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>10,000 to 100,000</th>
<th>2,500 to 10,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Teachers serve on official committees on personnel problems.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice</td>
<td>Percent of Schools Participating in Each Population Division</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 to 100,000</td>
<td>2,500 to 10,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Democracy Is Essential to Good Personnel Administration

2. Superintendent cooperates with local teachers in the study of personnel problems. 49 24
3. Teachers are allowed to express their opinions of some problems. 21 28
4. Members of board of education have an income less than $2,000. 26 26
5. Members of board of education have an income between $2,000 and $5,000. 45 45
6. Members of board of education have an income between $5,000 and $10,000. 19 19
7. Members of board of education have an income above $10,000. 10 10

Psychology Proves a Human Being Cannot Be Judged in Parts

1. The applicant is observed at her work. 51 54
2. The applicant is interviewed and then her statements are checked. 99 99
TABLE I—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice</th>
<th>Percent of Schools Participating in Each Population Division</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,000 to 2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2,500 to 10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology Proves a Human Being Cannot Be Judged in Parts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. The applicant uses an application blank to which her picture is attached.

|   | 94 | 82 |

In planning the major objectives of the school, twenty-nine and six-tenths percent, of both large schools of 10,000 to 100,000 and small schools of 2,500 to 10,000, let the teachers participate in the planning; while in eleven and nine-tenths percent of both large and small schools, the teacher and the board of education help in the planning.

The superintendent, in over half of the schools, or fifty-two and five tenths percent, does all of the planning and then explains it to the teachers and the board of education. Over half of the superintendents do all the planning; yet over ninety percent say that they want more participation by the teachers.

Practices regarding organizing the formal structure of authority is an important part of personnel work. In this particular type of organization there seems to be either too
much or too little in the majority of schools. Cox and Langfitt say, "Unless policies are clearly understood, teachers may appear to be uncooperative or disloyal because of confusion or misunderstanding."¹ In Mort and Cornell's, American Schools in Transition, the same idea is brought out: "Employing supervisors who are inert and unskillful, giving supervisors responsibility without power should make supervision more definite."² This quotation brings out the idea that we need more definite supervision.

Negligence which results from an administration that has failed to be progressive, places too much responsibility on a familiarly known faculty—which tends to have each teacher do as he or she pleases. The results are an aimless, disorganized course of study. Organization, of course, is as important as, if not more important, than any other administrative duty.³

Too much organization can be just as bad as too little. Having to follow a daily program so that every grade will be doing the same thing every minute of the day all over the school system is a little too much organization.

If these writers are correct in their statements we can assume that a large majority of schools either over-organize, thereby taking away practically all the initiative of teachers,

¹Cox and Langfitt, "The Principal Looks at His Job", High School Administration and Supervision, p. 64.
²Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, American Schools in Transition, p. 213.
³Ibid., p. 214.
pupils, and parents, or they under-organize, thereby making it appear that the teachers, pupils, and parents are not cooperating. If this latter situation exists, the school suffers, because we must have cooperation in a democracy.

According to Mort and Cornell, ⁴ ninety percent of the superintendents organize their schools so that there will be adaptations or changes. Only fifty-five percent of this group are the leaders. The other thirty-five percent of the ninety percent are either supporters of the changes or followers of the changes. This has been the picture in the past.

The changes that are being made today show that thirty percent of the superintendents participate, leaving seventy percent who do not participate as changes are made. If we take the ninety percent who will accept these changes later on, we have sixty percent who are afraid to adopt changes until after they have been proved desirable.

Lack of supervisory leadership and lack of administrative organization conducive to effective teaching are other changes which administrations in many communities must face. ⁵

In the selecting of teaching personnel for a school, "the superintendent of schools should nominate all employees and the board of education should elect only upon his nomination." ⁶ Yet only eighty-nine percent of schools

located in towns of from 10,000 to 100,000 in population use this method. In towns of from 2,500 to 10,000 in population, the schools use this method only seventy-nine percent of the time, or ten percent less than the larger schools. In seven percent of the larger schools, the superintendent nominates several candidates for appointment to a given position; then the board elects one of the suggested candidates. In the smaller schools this method is used eighteen percent of the time. The superintendent appoints teachers without the official action of the board one percent of the time in the larger schools and one and one-half percent of the time in the schools of cities from 2,500 to 10,000 in population. In two percent of both large and small schools the board of education selects and appoints teachers without the assistance of the superintendent.

The procedure or practice that would be approved, in the light of the principle in which the superintendent nominates all employees and the board elects them, would be the first practice. Yet, according to the National Education Research Bulletin, this practice is observed in eighty-three percent of the cities represented. Thus seventeen percent of the cities represented use some other plan when nearly every superintendent of schools in the country knows that this is the approved procedure.\(^7\)

\(^7\)Ibid., p. 55.  \(^8\)Ibid., p. 54.
In the setting up of qualifications for teachers in senior high school, educational preparation has received a great deal of attention in the last decade. In cities of from 10,000 to 100,000 in population, seventy-nine percent of the schools require a candidate to hold a Bachelor Degree from some recognized senior college. Ninety percent of the cities ranging in population from 2,500 to 10,000 require a candidate to hold a degree from a recognized senior college.

In less than one-half of one percent of the large schools, teachers are hired without a degree. In the smaller schools in towns of from 2,500 to 10,000 in population, this practice is only slightly higher, or about one percent.

Applicants are required to have had five years of college work or a Master's Degree in twenty percent of the cities of population from 10,000 to 100,000. This requirement or qualification is required only in eight and one-half percent of the cities where the population is 2,500 to 10,000.

Recent developments suggest that progress is being made toward qualitative improvement in the professional preparation of teachers to match this striking growth in the quantitative requirements in the length of such preparations.9

All educational agencies have been stressing the need for better educational preparation. In the period between

9Ibid.
1931 and 1941, teachers were plentiful and colleges took advantage of this situation to develop selective admission and to improve the program offered to students. The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education has put into effect a five year plan, the purpose of which is to put into practice the generally accepted principles of teacher education, which means that longer preparation is desirable.

Twenty percent of the larger schools require five years of preparation while only eight and one-half percent of the smaller schools make this requirement. The reason for this practice is that usually the larger schools pay better salaries than the smaller schools do, and the teachers in the larger schools have a better chance for advancement.

Another qualification that has been set up is experience. Nine percent of the cities with population of 10,000 to 100,000 require that teachers have more than two years of experience. Four percent of cities with population of 2,500 to 10,000 require that their senior high school teachers have more than two years of experience. Thirty-three percent of the cities of 10,000 to 100,000 population require that senior high school teachers have at least two years of experience before they are hired. Twenty-three percent of the cities of 2,500 to 10,000 require senior high school teachers to have had at least two years of experience elsewhere.
All teachers are required to have had one year of experience in eleven percent of the large cities where the population is from 10,000 to 100,000. In ten percent of the smaller schools in cities of 2,500 to 10,000 population, the requirement of one year of teaching experience is necessary for election. In forty-seven percent of the large cities of 10,000 to 100,000 population, experience has no relation to eligibility. No experience at all is required in sixty-three percent of cities of 2,500 to 10,000 population.

The longer period of professional preparation now being used more and more as expressed under educational preparation would seem to ridicule the need for previous teaching experience. In 1921 the salary committee expressed its opposition to such requirements in a statement that is equally pertinent today.

It is customary for some cities to require teaching experience as a pre-requisite to election to teach. This practice has the approval of tradition. There is no other justification for it except that cities making this requirement usually pay salaries enough higher than those in other places to enable them to enforce this regulation. It is not desirable and should not be necessary for the school authorities of one district to insist that young and untrained teachers secure their first experience at the expense of the children of another district. If all teachers were trained in standard normal schools or training classes where they had ample opportunity to do practice-teaching, there would be no excuse except selfishness to justify a requirement of experience elsewhere before a teacher is elected to a teaching position...The larger cities
with the attraction of their higher salaries are the worst offenders in the matter of requiring previous experience. 10

After twenty-one years, more than fifty-three percent of the cities of 10,000 to 100,000 and thirty-seven percent of the cities of 2,500 to 10,000 population still require previous teaching experience at the expense of some other school district.

Marriage as related to eligibility is a very important question in most schools. Fifty-three percent of schools where the population of cities is between 10,000 and 100,000 do not give appointments to married women, while fifty-eight percent of the cities of 2,500 to 10,000 do not give new appointments to married women. Twenty-eight percent of the schools in the larger cities rarely give new appointments to married women. Thirty percent of the schools in smaller cities rarely give appointments to married women. In nineteen percent of the larger schools and in just twelve percent of the smaller schools, marriage has no relation to eligibility.

In the platform of the National Education Association, it is specifically stated that "teachers should not be discriminated against because of race, color, belief, residence, or economic or marital status." 11


Every point in this platform is violated in practice, to some degree, on almost every point it mentions. But the most flagrant violation of this platform is the marital status. "Only spinsters need apply." This seems to be the slogan of the majority of the schools in the United States.

The National Education Association made a survey of 1,792 city schools and only ninety-three schools reported that marriage is no handicap to the woman who is applying for a teaching position. This policy of discriminating against married women seems to have come about during the so-called depression years of 1931 to 1941 when the arguments were that the jobs should go to single women who needed the money; whereas the married women could stay at home and let their husbands support them. This policy certainly has no professional justification.

The Committee on Equal Opportunity, appointed by the National Education Association gives the following evidence to show that, from the professional point of view:

1. Married women are fully as efficient as single women. Such differences as are reported usually favor the married teachers.
2. Discrimination against married women discourages young women who expect to teach from undertaking preparation beyond the minimum standard or from thinking of teaching as a life career.

12 Ibid.
3. Refusal to employ married women increases turnover and means a loss of public money invested in the preparation of women for teaching.

4. Marriage and parenthood are likely to enrich a teacher's understanding of childhood and family life and thus will help her to be a better teacher.\textsuperscript{13}

The Committee also made investigation into the arguments of socio-economic groups. Their findings are as follows:

1. Married women, generally speaking, do not work merely for extra money for luxuries, but because they must work in order to provide for the needs of themselves and their dependents.

2. The argument that employment will prevent women from bearing children is not valid. The privilege of working in their chosen professions, especially if maternity leave is provided, is probably no greater deterence to normal families than lot marriages and low incomes resulting from discrimination against married women.

3. The non-employment of married women does not, in the long-run, create jobs for other women, because married women, through their salaries, themselves create employment, often among domestics and other persons where actual unemployment is likely to be greater.\textsuperscript{14}

Practices regarding the selection of local applicants as teachers have received a great deal of study. We find that in sixty percent of the cities with population between 10,000 and 100,000 local applicants are given first consideration if qualifications are equal. Forty-three percent of cities with population between 2,500 and 10,000 follow this same practice of favoring home talent. Six percent of large cities of population between 10,000 and 100,000 and one

\textsuperscript{13}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 61. \textsuperscript{14}\textit{Ibid.}
percent of small cities of population between 2,500 and 10,000 appoint only local residents as teachers.

In nine percent of the small cities with population of 2,500 to 10,000 out-of-town applicants are favored. In the large cities, this rule of favoring out-of-town applicants was not used. In twenty-one percent of cities with 10,000 to 100,000 population, residency is not a factor one way or the other in the selecting of a teacher. Thirty-two percent of the smaller cities reported that residency was not a factor. In six percent of cities of 10,000 to 100,000 population, no local residents are appointed as teachers until they have had one or more years of experience elsewhere.

From these figures it would seem to indicate that a majority of the larger cities give preference to local residents as new teachers. While forty-three percent of the smaller towns have schools which give preference to local residents as teachers, there are a great many arguments pro and con on this question. The best argument seems to be that the educational welfare of the children should come first. If this is true, then we can assume that residence should have no bearing on the selection of personnel. However, only a small percent of the schools follow this plan.

In the recruitment of teachers there seems to be the greatest difference in cities of 10,000 to 100,000 and cities of 2,500 to 10,000. In forty-four percent of the former
group, teachers are secured from teacher placement bureaus and the bureaus are used in eighty-four percent of the latter group. Fifty percent of the cities of 10,000 to 100,000 population secure their teachers from voluntary applications. Only fifteen percent of the cities of 2,500 to 10,000 secure their teachers from voluntary applications. In six percent of the cities of 10,000 to 100,000 population, the administrators are on the look-out for good teachers throughout the year.

If the new psychology is correct in saying that we cannot take individual parts of human beings and add them together and make a whole, we can assume that the best method of recruiting teachers would be to view them in their actual work. Only six percent of the large cities, and one percent of the smaller cities use this method.

Schools of 10,000 to 100,000 use the personal interview in selecting teachers ninety-nine percent of the time. Before the personal interview, ninety-four percent of these schools have the applicants make out a formal application blank. Only fifty-one percent of this group ever observe the teacher while she teaches before she is hired.

Schools of 2,500 to 10,000 use the personal interview in selecting teachers ninety-nine percent of the time. Before this personal interview, eighty-two percent of these schools require the applicant to fill out a formal application blank. Fifty-four percent of this group observe the
prospective teacher at her work before she is hired for a given position.

This practice of having a personal interview does not depend altogether on this method of appraisal. Only a little over half of the cities of both population divisions ever observe a teacher while she is at work.

Teachers are allowed to pick out their own method of professional growth in seventy percent of cities with population from 10,000 to 100,000. This practice is used ninety percent of the time in towns with population of 2,500 to 10,000.

Teachers are required to attend summer schools by seventeen percent of the schools in larger cities of 10,000 to 100,000 in population. This is a requirement in seven percent of cities with population of 2,500 to 10,000.

Teachers are permitted to attend summer schools or to travel as a method of in-service training in thirteen percent of cities of 10,000 to 100,000 population, and in three percent of schools in cities of 2,500 to 10,000 population.

In these practices it does not make so much difference as to what the teachers do in the way of professional growth, but how much democracy is exercised in the administration of in-service training. The best practice would seem to be that of letting the teacher select some practice that
will offer the most development. The large cities are the worst offenders in this matter of too little democracy in the administration of in-service training. This could probably attribute to the fact that the large cities require more in-service training.

In most schools there are several different ways of handling personnel problems. In schools of towns where the population is between 10,000 and 100,000, forty-two percent have the teachers to serve on official constituted committees on personnel problems. Forty-nine percent of the time the superintendent cooperates in the study of personnel problems. Twenty-one percent of the time the teachers are allowed to express their opinions on some personnel problems.

In cities of 2,500 to 10,000, there are official constituted committees on which teachers serve thirty-six percent of the time. Twenty-four percent of these schools reveal that the superintendent cooperates with local teachers in the study of personnel problems. In twenty-eight percent of these cities the teachers are allowed to express their opinions on some problems.

To an increasing degree it appears that classroom teachers are sharing in the shaping and even in the execution of policies affecting the employment status of the entire professional staff.

Practices regarding the selection of board members has been one of the problems of administrators in schools.
Much study has been given to the situation, but very little has been done to correct it. Twenty-six percent of school board members have an income of less than $2,000. Forty-five percent have an income between $2,000 and $5,000. Nineteen percent have an income between $5,000 and $10,000. Ten percent have an income of $10,000 or over. From these statistics we can see that seventy-four percent of the school board members have an income of over $2,000, while out of the United States' total population, thirty-seven and one-half percent have an income of $2,000 or more.

These figures show that the people who make $2,000 a year are better represented than the people who make less than $2,000. It cannot be definitely stated that this group does not serve on the school board for the best interests of the community, but there are many cases to indicate that too often they represent the corporations or the individuals for whom they work.

Not all powerful property groups are blindly opposed to educational expenditure, but Mort and Cornell found that there was a "strong tendency for these groups to believe that the educational program could be cut to fit the current margin of profit."\textsuperscript{15} When profits are good these groups

\textsuperscript{15}Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, American Schools in Transition, p. 213.
are usually generous, but when profits are negative or narrow, "some become ruthless in their attacks on school budgets."\textsuperscript{16}

Men in politics are frequently more fearful of and responsible to, the will of the more powerful pressure groups then they are with respect to a mandate of the people. Representative government becomes the government of interests—those interests which can most effectively reward or frighten legislators and administrators. The representative of the people, in theory, thus becomes, in practice, the representative of the interests.\textsuperscript{17}

Only fifty-one percent of the larger city schools of population from 10,000 to 100,000 ever use the method of observing a teacher while she is at work before hiring her. Fifty-four percent of schools located in cities of 2,500 to 10,000 use this method. This leaves a little less than one-half of the schools in all the cities who never see the teacher work until after she is hired. Ninety-nine percent of the schools used personal interviews, in both large and small school systems. Of course most schools use both the personal interview and the application blank. Ninety-four percent of large schools located in cities of 10,000 to 100,000, and eighty-two percent of the schools located in towns of 2,500 to 10,000 use both procedures.

In the securing of teachers several practices must be used. To rely upon one is not scientific or practical.

\textsuperscript{16}Ibid. \textsuperscript{17}Ibid.
The essential practice is the observation of the applicant at work. This is based upon a new psychology that the individual is a dynamic whole.

In real life behavior, it maintains, the functions involved in adaptation are not separate parts; they are inextricable interwoven and interdependent... each being incorporated everywhere and playing different roles in many diverse patterns of activity...He cannot be studied satisfactorily in bits.18

Summary

Planning.--In practice we find that the superintendent does most of the planning with very little help from the teachers or the board of education.

Organization.--In organization the administrator tends to have either too much organization or not enough organization. A small percent of administrators ever take the lead in helping adapt or change ideals of a community.

Staffing.--A majority of schools let the superintendent nominate all employees and then the board elects on the superintendent's recommendation.

Schools are requiring less experience than in former years based upon the theory that longer educational preparation will take the place of experience.

Local teachers are favored in the majority of schools with population of 10,000 to 100,000. Local teachers are favored in forty-three percent of the smaller schools.

Most schools use several different methods of recruitments, but the most productive method for the larger schools was found to be voluntary application. While voluntary application is the best for the larger schools, teachers are secured from teacher placement bureaus in eighty-four percent of the schools located in towns with population of from 2,500 to 10,000 population.

The personal interview is used almost 100% of the time with other methods of appraisal used to a lesser degree. Superintendents depend too much on personal interview.

In-service training.—In the majority of schools, teachers are allowed to pick out their own method of in-service training. Administrators on the whole, think of the form of training rather than the outcome.

Democracy in personnel administration.—There is very little cooperation between the superintendent and teachers in the handling of personnel problems.

School board members represent only a small portion of the population and too many times use the office for their vested interests.

The psychology of personnel administration.—About half of the schools observe teachers in their work before they are hired. Thus the old psychology that all parts of an individual can be added together and equal a whole is used.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

The criteria indicates that planning is a duty of the superintendent, but that he should have the help of all the people with whom he is working. In the practices set forth in Chapter III, it was found that the superintendent does not want the help of other people in the planning of the major objectives of the school. Therefore it may be concluded that the practices do not meet the standards set up in Chapter II.

It was found in setting up the criteria in Chapter II that there should be a formal structure of authority and that everyone should know to whom he is responsible. In the practices regarding the formal structure of authority it was found that there was either too much organization or too little. It may then be concluded that the superintendent fails to set up the formal structure of authority so that it will function for the best interests of the community.

The criteria concerning the superintendent in making adaptations or changes, showed that the superintendent should lead in that practice. In practice, superintendents
fail to take the lead almost all of the time. Therefore it may be concluded that the practice does not meet the standard.

In the criteria set up in Chapter II, the superintendent should nominate an individual to a specific position and the board of education should elect that individual who has been nominated. In practice, it was found that a majority of the schools let the superintendent nominate an individual to a specific position and the board elect the individual nominated. Therefore it may be concluded that the practices, in the majority of schools, conform with the standards. As a strong minority fail to practice this, it may also be concluded that there is still ample room for improvement.

In the criteria set up in Chapter II it was shown that longer educational preparation is necessary for teachers. There were indications that a minimum of five years should be required. The schools located in towns of 10,000 to 100,000 are in practice requiring longer educational preparation. Schools located in towns of 2,500 to 10,000, in practice, do not require as long educational preparation as schools in larger towns. Therefore it may be concluded that the practice in larger schools conforms with the standards. It also may be concluded that the practice in the smaller schools conform in the majority of cases, but not as closely as the larger schools.
In the data set forth in Chapter II, it was shown that experience is not necessary since longer educational preparation is being required. In practice the majority of schools located in towns of 10,000 to 100,000 still require experience. Schools located in towns of 2,500 to 10,000 do not require experience as often as do the larger schools. Therefore it may be concluded that in larger schools the practice, most of the time, does not conform with the standard. It also may be concluded that the practice, in the majority of smaller schools, conforms with the standard set forth in Chapter II.

Data show that the married women teachers are just as efficient teachers as single women teachers. These data also show that there is no economic reason for discriminating against married women. In practice regarding the eligibility of married women teachers, both in the large and the small schools, it was found that married women teachers were still being discriminated against in the majority of towns. From these facts it may be concluded that the practice does not meet the standards.

The criteria set up in Chapter II shows that residency is not a factor in whether or not a person is a good teacher, and that residency should not be a rule of eligibility. In practice, it was found that residency played a large part, in schools of both population divisions, in whether or not
an applicant is elected. It may be concluded that the practice, in the majority of cities, does not meet the standard.

The criteria set up in Chapter II set up a standard in the recruitment of teachers by which the administrator should be on the lookout for good teachers throughout the year. The practices of administrators, in schools of both large and small cities, is to get teachers either from placement bureaus or by voluntary application. These practices almost never come up to the standard.

In Chapter II, the standard set up by the criteria for the appraisal of candidates is for the superintendent to see the candidate at work before he hires him. The practice in the appraisal of candidates is for the superintendent to depend almost entirely on the personal interview. Therefore it may be concluded that the practice does not meet the standard.

The standard set up for in-service training is for it to be democratic in that the teachers be given an opportunity to decide on the type of in-service training that would be of the most benefit to them. In practice the majority of schools let the teacher select their own method of in-service training; therefore it may be concluded that the practice, in the majority of schools, meets the standard.

Data show that the best way to handle personnel problems is for the teachers to participate in the administering of personnel. In practice the teachers do not have much to do
with the administering of the personnel. Thus it may be con-
cluded that the practice does not meet the standard.

The criteria set up in Chapter II shows that members
of the board of education should be selected to represent
all of the people. In practice it was found that in a large
percent of the schools, the board of education is not repre-
sentative of the community; therefore it may be concluded
that the practice does not meet the standard.

The criteria used say that the new psychology of se-
lecting teachers is to consider the candidate as an entire
personality. In practice the administrator depends on the
personal interview. This is inadequate for the purpose;
therefore it may be concluded that the practice does not
meet the standard.

Recommendations

From the conclusions reached, and from the results of
applying the criteria to the practices, some recommendations
were found to be needed. I recommend:

1. That there be more participation of teachers in
the planning of school objectives.

2. That organization be based upon scientific facts.
Have enough organization so that the personnel will know to
whom they are responsible.

3. That all teachers be nominated by the superintendent
to specific positions and then elected by the board.
4. That standards of eligibility be set up and that marriage, residency, and experience, as rules of eligibility be done away with; also, that all schools continue to demand longer educational preparation.

5. That the superintendent observe the applicant at work before nominating him.

6. That there be more democracy in in-service training.

7. That the community elect a lay board on which all the important groups and interests of the community are in some manner directly represented.
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