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THESIS

A STUDY OF ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE STATE OF MICHIGAN, EXCLUSIVE OF THE UPPER PENINSULA AND THE CITY OF DETROIT

By

Gerald Raymond Rasmussen

AN ABSTRACT OF A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

College of Education

1962

ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE STATE OF MICHIGAN, EXCLUSIVE OF THE UPPER PENINSULA AND THE CITY OF DETROIT

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Statement of the Problem

To facilitate instructional improvement, a structure is needed through which it can function. This is a study of that structure with reference to administrative organization in the public schools of Michigan.

The dissertation maintains that the public schools must have an administrative organization that allows for and encourages the promotion of the democratic way of life and the fostering of creativity on the part of teachers and pupils. It develops the point of view that the administrative structure that will best satisfy these goals will utilize existing principles of administrative organization; but these principles will assume unique characteristics in the administrative structure of public education.

The problem in this dissertation was to develop an approach to such an administrative organization and to compare

it with current practices and procedures in the public schools of Michigan.

Procedure

The procedures used in this study were:

1. To select and briefly describe a set of principles from the literature in the general area of administrative organization.

2. To develop an approach toward administrative organization for the improvement of instruction in the public schools. This approach was based upon selected principles as they should apply to the democratic way of life.

3. To determine the current practices of administrative organization in the public schools of Michigan through a questionnaire submitted to a random representative sample of those schools.

4. To draw conclusions and make recommendations based upon comparisons between the developed approach and current practices.

Major Findings of the Study

The major findings of this study were:

1. There are no common administrative organizational procedures in the public schools of Michigan.

2. There is a definite indication of lack of understanding of principles of administrative organization on the part of superintendents of schools in Michigan.

3. In many cases the superintendents of schools are not the instructional leaders of their school systems.

The data collected in this study strongly suggests that building principals are the instructional leaders in most school districts in Michigan.

4. There is positive evidence of overlapping, and vaguely defined functions of administrators and committees in Michigan public schools.

5. Administrative organization is an essential key to establishing an educational system that frees teachers and pupils to become creative, and insures a dynamic, growing institution. If this organization is to be effective, it must be planned in such a way that the superintendent of schools is freed of managerial details so that he will have the time necessary to become the instructional leader of his school system.

6. If the public schools of the United States are to continue to serve the needs of a free society that is dedicated to the recognition of the worth and dignity of every individual and is based upon the fundamental premise of constant evaluation and dynamic change, the schools must be so organized as to recognize and promote creativity,

individual freedom of thought and inquiry, individual worth and dignity, and individual development to capacity.

A firm implication in this study is that these goals can best be realized when the superintendent of schools is an educational leader in his school system, and when the entire administrative organization is based upon a philosophy of freeing teachers and pupils to be creative and productive in an over-all framework of cooperative participation of all employees, lay citizens, and pupils.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many persons have given of their time, counsel, and confidence so that this study might become a reality. It is impossible to thank all of them in print; but certain persons deserve special recognition at this time.

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I should like to express my appreciation to the superintendents of schools in Michigan who so willingly participated in the study by answering the questionnaire sent to them. Without their cooperation the study could never have been completed.

Lastly, I wish to give a special acknowledgement to my wife, Jacqueline; my daughter, Ann; and my sons, Dean and Russell. Without their confidence, understanding, encouragement, and faith I would not have even attempted to undertake the completion of an advanced degree, let alone the completion of this dissertation and earning its accompanying degree. It is with deep appreciation and love that I dedicate this study to them.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER PAGE

CHAPTER PAGE

CHAPTER PAGE

CHAPTER PAGE

LIST OF TABLES AND CHARTS

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

This dissertation is a study of administrative organization in the public schools of the state of Michigan as it relates to instructional leadership. The study will compare a set of selected principles of organization with existing procedures of operation as a step toward improving an area of investigation that has received meager attention in administrative theory as well as in practice.

In the beginning, it should be stated that "organization" is a term which can encompass a variety of meanings. A school may be organized in terms of things or objects, such as a federation of teachers, school grade-levels, and buildings, to serve certain purposes. A system of operation may also be established to serve certain functions, such as office administration, production, sales, public relations, and various phases of the educational enterprise.

Considerable research has been done in relation to the physical structure of the public schools in the United States. Most of this research has been concentrated on grade separation, location of buildings, and grade combinations within buildings; but little effort has been exerted in the area of personnel organization for instructional improvement.

This dissertation deals with the organization of staff personnel rather than that of the physical aspects of a school system. Specifically, it deals with how school personnel can be organized for the improvement of instruction. Selection of a set of organizational principles was made from broad areas of administrative theory and practice, including disciplines outside the field of public education. These principles were used as a framework upon which to build a workable and logical administrative organization for the improvement of instruction.

To determine the degree to which these principles were being applied in the public schools of the state, a random representative sampling of the schools was taken. The administrators of the schools selected for sampling were sent questionnaires and interviewed in order that the degree of application of the selected principles could be determined.

I. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

There is a pressing need to study administrative organization in the public schools as it relates to instructional improvement. Within an administrative structure commensurate to the need, it could be possible for the superintendent and other administrative personnel to release talented teachers and citizens to plan and direct learning better than they do under the present systems of operation. Many people who possess the will and desire to move forward

with new and improved educational programs today feel themselves throttled by roadblocks, real or imaginary, such as uncertainty about the priority of purposes as valued by the chief school administrator and the board of education, lack of clarity about the amount of freedom and responsibility of teachers or lay citizens in a particular educational situation, encroachment on other persons, jurisdictional rights, and the like. To say it another way, an administrative organization can obstruct the progress of competent, industrious, and dedicated people at every turn, even when all other aspects of the school system reflect high quality to a superb degree.

The reasons for the existence of this problem are many. Among the most obvious are the physical and technical complexities of modern public education. In modern school systems there are many administrative details that distract the administrator from his responsibilities as an instructional leader. School districts in the state of Michigan have attempted to solve the problem of instructional leadership by employing assistants to the superintendent, assistant principals, administrative assistants, staff specialists, department heads, supervisors, and committees whose purposes have been to help carry out the instructional leadership functions for the school systems.[1] In reviewing studies

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[1]Michigan Department of Public Instruction, Directory of Local Curriculum Programs in Michigan, Publication No. 504, 1960, 1961 edd. (Lansing: The Department, 1960, 1961).

prepared by the Michigan Department of Public Instruction, one finds no indication of a pattern evolving. The responsibility for instructional leadership varies from none at all, through committees, principals, administrative assistants, to the superintendents of schools.[2]

Specific details of operation such as transportation, school lunch, maintenance, finance, and public relations are important to the overall functioning of the system; but they all exist for, and should be secondary to, the true purpose of the administrative function, which should be instructional leadership. When the superintendent focuses his efforts on the managerial aspects of school operation, instructional leadership is assumed by other administrative personnel: by committees, or by individual teachers. Often the committee or individual approach results in persons or small groups working with no leadership at all. In any case, the instructional program suffers to the degree that it has been assigned a position of lesser importance in the organizational scheme of the school district.

To facilitate instructional improvement, a structure is needed through which a program can function. The most important aspect of the structure should be an organization through which people can channel their collective efforts, and through which human worth and creativity can be realized.

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[2] Ibid.

Neither the chaotic organization of laissez-faire programs nor the autocratic organization of superimposed ones will satisfy the need. The organization that will best suit public education must be tailored to the unique features and characteristics of it in such a way that classroom teachers may be released from burdensome details and allowed to challenge the minds of young people and adults. When such an organization is focused on the administrator as the instructional leader of the school and community, and when the organization encompasses the ideals of democracy as a way of life, the primary emphasis of the entire school and community will be on instructional improvement through the free inter-play of facts, ideas, and points of view. When this ideal organization is attained, the instructional program not only will resist spot criticism and fears but also will reflect the real needs of a constantly changing and evolving community and society.

A study of the problem of administrative organization, as it relates to instructional leadership, indicates that trends will be discovered, and techniques and guidelines developed, that will be valuable to all school systems. Worthwhile and lasting improvement of the instructional program is a distinct probability.

II. NEED FOR THE STUDY

An undertaking that successfully accomplishes its purposes has a structure around which it operates. Educational administration, dependent upon a system of operation or an organization that serves as a framework for the functioning of its purposes, is no exception. The keystone of the structure is here to determine the kind of organization that is commensurate with the needs of public education.

During the past fifty years considerable thought and attention have been given to administrative organization in various institutions of American society. In these deliberations, however, inconsiderable attention has been given to administrative organization in education. Griffiths and his associates note this paucity of interest when they observe that "organization as an administrative function of education has been largely ignored in the literature and research of education."[3] Those school administrators who have been aware of the need for organization in their operations have tended to imitate the structures of business, church, or military organization with little or no regard for the unique features of the educational program in a democratic society.

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[3]Daniel E. Griffiths, et al., Organizing Schools for Effective Education (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1962), p. 3.

Two of the few attempts to gather information pertaining to administrative organization for instructional improvement were undertaken by the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction.[4] These studies listed positions and groups that were responsible for curriculum improvement in the public schools of Michigan; but no attempt was made to relate the positions to any type of organization, or to draw any conclusions from the data.

Thus, there appears to be a serious gap in the literature of educational administration and research in the area of organization for the improvement of instruction in the public schools. By determining the existing patterns of organization for instructional improvement and evaluating them in terms of selected principles, as these principles fit into the democratic way of life, a new look can be taken at the structure and function of administration in public education. These selected principles may be found to have been misunderstood and thus misused by public school officials. By re-evaluation and redefinition of these principles in the context of freedom of speech, religion, the press, and of other fundamental concepts of a democratic society, they can be used to build an effective organization as a framework for instructional improvement.

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[4]Michigan Department of Public Instruction, loc. cit.

Such a study will be of specific value and interest to those engaged in public education; it will relate the findings and points of view of many writers, with varied backgrounds in administrative organization, to an administrative operation in public education that allows for creativity, and recognizes individual worth and dignity. Schoolmen will be given insights into current practices and will have a specific point of reference from which to evaluate their own administrative organization structure.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It is the purpose of this study (1) to propose an administrative organizational structure for the improvement of instruction in the public schools of the state of Michigan; (2) to determine how the public schools of Michigan are organized to carry out the function of instruction, as indicated by the responses of a random representative sampling of superintendents of these schools to a questionnaire; and (3) to show relationships between the proposed structure and the existing organizational practices as determined by the questionnaire.

From its inception, public education has had instruction as its primary function. The term "instruction" has encompassed a variety of degrees of meanings from the limited, classical concept of the Latin Grammar School to the broad interpretation of experiences considered by John Dewey and William Kilpatrick.

Regardless of how narrowly or broadly it has been defined, instruction has remained the paramount function of public education; and the appointed head of a school system, it seems logical to infer, should strive constantly to improve that system's instructional program. To make possible the maximum utilization of a school superintendent's leadership function and advantageous utilization of the talents of all members of the teaching staff and the community, organization is necessary.

This study, then, is addressed to the problem of determining the most effective organization for the encouragement and nurturing of instructional leadership in the public schools. A system of organization that allows a superintendent to devote the largest portion of his attention to the instructional program of his school, to share details of the program with specialists, and to make possible "cooperative participation"[5] throughout the system should help, by its very nature, to facilitate and to improve instructional leadership.

A careful consideration of principles of administrative organization suggests certain procedures that can be applied successfully to instructional leadership organization in a public school system. These principles can provide a

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[5]Ephraim Vern Sayers and Ward Madden, Education and the Democratic Faith (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959), pp. 33-50.

broad foundation upon which the improvement of instructional leadership organization within a public school can be built.

IV. HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were formulated for analysis in this study:

1. The public schools of Michigan have no common organizational pattern to facilitate instruction.
2. An appreciable number of school districts that were considered in this study show a lack of instructional leadership organization.
3. An appreciable number of school districts that were considered in this study and that have an organizational structure for instructional leadership, do not have the superintendent of schools as the instructional leader.
4. The selected principles of organization will serve as guidelines for determining when certain types of administrative positions should be added to the personnel of a school system.

V. BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

The basic assumptions underlying this study are:

1. The superintendent of schools should be the instructional leader in a school system, so that the most effective instructional program can be assured.
2. Instructional leadership cannot be carried out effectively without organization.
3. Administrative organizational principles can be applied effectively to instructional leadership organization.

VI. DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms are defined so that there will be common understanding among readers.

1. Superintendent of schools. The appointed administrative head of a school system is the superintendent of schools.

2. Organization. As used in this study, the term "organization" refers to the framework around which an undertaking is carried toward its goals. The framework refers to human associations and purposes rather than to physical aspects of organization. Chester I. Barnard defines organization as ". . . a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons."[6] The American Association of School Administrators defines organization as ". . . the act of putting into systematic relationships those elements and activities essential to achieving a purpose."[7] Organization, in this study, then, is defined as the framework of human association, responsibilities, duties, and functions necessary to the smooth operation and ultimate accomplishment of the purposes of an undertaking.
3. Administration. Administration has been defined in autocratic terms, on one hand, as the decider, director, or controller of an enterprise. Administration has been associated with such democratic terms, on the other hand, as cooperation, guidance, and leadership. It is in the latter sense of joint cooperation that administration is defined in this study. The definition by William H. Newman, that administration is "the guidance, leadership, and control of the efforts of a group of individuals toward some common goal"[8] is accepted with the provision that the terms "guidance" and "leadership" receive maximum importance, while the term "control" be given only minor importance.
4. Instructional leadership. That framework around which the instructional program of the public schools is fostered is termed "instructional leadership."

VII. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This chapter presents only a brief review of the methodology of the study. Because of the importance of the

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[6]Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960), p. 73.

[7]American Association of School Administrators, The Superintendent as Instructional Leader, Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the Association (Washington: The Association, 1957, p. 163.

[8]William H. Newman, Administrative Action; the Techniques of Organization and Management (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951), p. 131.

method of investigation to the over-all study, a detailed description and discussion is presented in chapter II.

In general, the methodology is divided into two parts. The first half of the study is based upon historical research procedures, and is concerned with the selection of a set of administrative organization principles from the broad field of administrative literature. The study evaluates these principles in terms of how they should function in a democratic society. The second half of the study is based upon descriptive survey research, and is concerned with the current practices of administrative organization in the public schools of Michigan as determined by a combined questionnaire-interview technique. Comparisons and evaluations of current practices and selected principles conclude the study.

VIII. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter I introduced the problem. It set the stage for the dissertation by discussing the need for and the importance of the study and by describing the problem. The chapter also includes statements of hypotheses, basic assumptions, and definition of terms fundamental to the study.

Chapter II, also introductory in nature, considers the scope and method of investigation. The selection of principles of administration is the concern of Chapter III. These principles serve as a basis for administrative

organization in public schools. They were selected from the broad areas of administrative organization for the purpose of presenting as unbiased an approach as possible to the principles underlying organization. To understand the functioning of the selected principles, it was necessary to develop a point of view toward administrative organization for improved instruction as this organization relates to a democratic society. The goals of public education in such a society are important to the determination of how these principles should be applied in an educational setting. Chapter IV is addressed to these problems.

The compilation and analysis of the data collected from the questionnaires are covered in chapters V, VI, and VII. These chapters represent the practical side of the dissertation in that an analysis is made of the organizational situation as it exists in the public schools of Michigan today.

In chapter VIII, the findings of the dissertation are summarized. Conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further study appear in chapter IX.

The approach to this study, as outlined above, should present a logical and workable scheme for administrative organization for improved instruction in the public schools of Michigan. The selected principles with the consideration of the point of view toward the role of administration in a democratic society, serve as a frame of reference. The

analysis of the data determines existing patterns and allows evaluation of current practices in relation to the previously developed frame of reference. Finally, the last chapter summarizes this study and raises questions for further study.

CHAPTER II

SCOPE AND METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

I. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is interested in the organizational aspects of selected public schools in the state of Michigan as they pertain to the instructional programs in these schools. The intent here is to develop principles of organization that, theoretically, should lead toward improved instruction. No attempt will be made to prove effectiveness of instruction in relation to any given organizational pattern. Perhaps a follow-up investigation that would implement the principles developed herein, and then determine the extent of improved instruction, would be a valuable second step to this study.

Specific limitations of the study are:

1. Organizational principles are focused on administrative leadership of the instructional program. The physical aspects of organization, such as size of district, class size, and grade separation, are not included in the research.
2. Organizational patterns for instructional leadership are confined to public elementary and to senior high schools employing twenty-six or more teachers. The number, twenty-six, is used as a cut-off point in this study because in school districts employing twenty-five or fewer teachers, the superintendents of schools are usually the only full-time administrators. Also, the faculty interactions in small school systems are apt to be face-to-face contacts of a semi-formal or informal nature, which are not practicably adaptable to formal organizational procedures.

3. The random representative sampling is taken from the schools of the Lower Peninsula of the state of Michigan, excluding the city of Detroit. The Upper Peninsula is not included in the sampling because there are relatively few school districts there of the size investigated for this study. Detroit is omitted because it has the only school district of its size and complexity in the state. Large cities outside of Michigan would have had to be studied if valid comparisons were to have been made with Detroit.

II. METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

The method of investigation for this study includes three phases. First, a set of organizational principles was selected from writers in the broad area of administration. Second, current organizational practices in the public schools of the state of Michigan were determined. This was done by means of a questionnaire submitted to the superintendent of schools in a sample of the public schools of the state. Third, a comparison was made between the developed principles and the current practices as determined by the questionnaire.

Selected principles. The principles selected for this study were chosen from writings in the broad field of administration. These writings are in general agreement with respect to the importance of the principles selected for this study. Chester Barnard and James D. Mooney represent a group of authorities who place considerable emphasis on human relations in administrative organization, but they still agree with traditional writers when they discuss basic principles.

Since no wide divergence in basic principles was found among recognized authorities in the area of administrative organization, the principles selected represent a consensus. These principles were specifically selected with respect to their degree of applicability to the unique function of public education in a democratic society.

Collection of data. The data concerned with current practices of administrative organization for the improvement of instruction was obtained through a combined interview and questionnaire technique. The sampling and the details of obtaining it are discussed in detail in the next section, so they will not be covered here.

The questionnaire was constructed to determine (1) the existing patterns of organization in the public schools that pertain to the instructional program, (2) the position or positions that perform specific selected functions common to most public schools, (3) the degree that the superintendent is free to exert instructional leadership, (4) the degree of involvement of citizens and staff in the development and execution of the instructional program, and (5) the degree that the principles discussed in chapters III and IV are being implemented in the public schools of Michigan.[1]

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[1] See Appendix p. 217.

To validate the questionnaire, a number of techniques were used. First a rough draft of the instrument was constructed. This was submitted for evaluation to members of the Guidance Committee on research. A second draft of the instrument was then submitted, by personal interview, to six superintendents of schools for the purpose of varifying clarity of questions and ease of answering. Fifteen of the final questionnaires, which contained corrections and changes gathered from the sources discussed above, were completed during personal interviews with the superintendents of schools. The remaining 95 questionnaires were mailed to the participating school districts. This technique was used as a further check against the validity of responses from the mailed instrument.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts. In Part I, basic school district data was requested. Physical information about the school district, much of which was obtainable from records in the State Department of Public Instruction, was collected as a foundation for analyzing data with respect to the physical characteristics of the school district. Part II requested information about the administrative personnel of the school district to give to this study a picture of the kinds of administrative positions in school districts, the number of these positions, and the number of people responsible to each position. Part III explored the operational procedures of the school districts

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with respect to the instruction program to determine how the schools operated in the area of instructional leadership and improvement.

III. THE SAMPLE

The process of selecting the random representative sampling of persons to whom the questionnaires were submitted required that a total population be determined and that the sample be selected from this population. The methods used for determining the total population for this study were as follows:

1. All class A, B, and C public schools in Michigan's Lower Peninsula, as defined by the Michigan High School Athletic Association,[2] were selected excepting Detroit.
2. The schools selected were arranged in order of the number of teachers employed, as determined from the Michigan Education Directory.[3] Schools employing less than twenty-six teachers were excluded from this list.

These procedures resulted in a choice of 367 school districts; and the number of teachers employed ranged from 26 to 1370.

The total population thus obtained had two characteristics: (1) the wide variation in numbers of teachers employed, and (2) a skewed population, with many school

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[2] Michigan High School Athletic Association Bulletin, Directory Issue, XXXVIII (November, 1961), pp. 282-232.

[3] Michigan Education Directory and Buyer's Guide, 1961-62 (Lansing: 1961), pp. 126-225.

districts employing a small number of teachers a few school districts employing a large number of teachers. Table I gives the stratification areas and also shows the two points made above.

Table I.--Number and Per Cent of School Districts in Total Population, By Stratum

Strata Divisions (Teachers Employed)	Number of Schools	Per Cent of Total Population
1. 501 - above	15	4
2. 201 - 500	35	10
3. 101 - 200	71	19
4. 51 - 100	115	32
5. 26 - 50	131	35
Total	367	100

Hansen, Hurwitz, and Madow suggested a method of sampling a highly skewed population:

> It is desirable in such sampling problems to identify in advance the units that are large in size and include in the sample a higher proportion of these than of the smaller units.[4]

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[4]Morris H. Hansen, William N. Hurwitz, and William G. Madow, Sample Survey Methods and Theory (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1953), Vol. 1, p. 102.

They refer to this method of handling highly skewed populations as "disproportionate stratified random sampling."[5]

In line with this approach toward skewed populations a disproportionate stratified random sample was taken for this study. The population was stratified with respect to number of teachers employed by the school district. Each stratum was sampled disproportionately with respect to the range of size of school districts within each stratum. The following table shows the stratification and proportion of school districts chosen in each stratum of the population.

Table II.--Number and Per Cent of School Districts Chosen in Each Stratum

Strata Divisions (Teachers Employed)	Size of Sample	Per Cent of Stratum in Sample
1. 501 - above	15	100.0
2. 201 - 500	17	48.6
3. 101 - 200	24	33.8
4. 51 - 100	30	26.0
5. 26 - 50	24	18.3
Total	110	

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 205.

Table III.--Schools Selected for the Questionnaire Sample with Pertinent Selection Data

School District	Number of Teachers[a]	Stratification Assigned
Ann Arbor	650	1
Birmingham	512	1
Dearborn	977	1
Flint	1257	1
Grand Rapids	1370	1
Kalamazoo	755	1
Lansing	1074	1
Livonia	845	1
Pontiac	745	1
Port Huron	622	1
Royal Oak	723	1
Saginaw	802	1
Taylor Township	529	1
Waterford Township	510	1
Wayne	510	1
Battle Creek	443	2
Berkley	375	2
Farmington	408	2
Garden City	465	2
Grosse Pointe	455	2
Hazel Park	300	2
Jackson	461	2
Lincoln Park	460	2
Midland	402	2
Mt. Clemens	251	2
Muskegon	467	2
Portage	321	2
Roseville	433	2
Southfield	325	2
Trenton	208	2
Utica	321	2
Wyandotte	373	2
Adrian	193	3
Avondale	104	3
Bedford Temperance	130	3
Bloomfield Hills	195	3

[a]Michigan Education Directory and Buyer's Guide, 1961-62 (Lansing: 1961), pp. 126-225.

Table III - Continued

School District	Number of Teachers	Stratification Assigned
Cadillac	107	3
Clawson	141	3
Coldwater	102	3
Davison	113	3
Dearborn Township # 3		3
Flint Kearsley	120	3
Fraser	120	3
Grand Blanc	131	3
Harper Creek, Battle Creek	111	3
Holland	195	3
Howell	118	3
Huron Valley, Milford	160	3
Inkster	162	3
L'Anse Creuse	149	3
Ludington	103	3
Madison Heights	167	3
Mt. Pleasant	155	3
Muskegon Heights	192	3
Southgate	150	3
South Lake, St. Clair Shores	186	3
Airport, Carleton	67	4
Algonac	68	4
Bendle, Flint	87	4
Big Rapids	63	4
Blissfield	79	4
Cheboygan	52	4
Clare	54	4
Croswell-Lexington	62	4
East Jackson	61	4
Fremont	68	4
Haslett	72	4
Hastings	87	4
Kelloggsville, Grand Rapids	90	4
Manistee	79	4
Mason, Erie	66	4
Mt. Morris	98	4
Napoleon	54	4
Northville	90	4
Otsego	91	4
Parma Western	64	4

Table III - Continued

School District	Number of Teachers	Stratification Assigned
Pennfield, Battle Creek	73	4
Petoskey	63	4
Plainwell	88	4
Richland	52	4
Romeo	94	4
Shepherd	51	4
Stockbridge	68	4
Vicksburg	88	4
West Bloomfield, Orchard Lake	67	4
Williamston	52	4
Boyne City	42	5
Bridgman	29	5
Cedar Springs	49	5
Centerville	28	5
Charlevoix	35	5
Decatur	40	5
East Jordan	30	5
Frankenmuth	29	5
Fulton, Middleton	35	5
Galien	34	5
Harbor Springs	28	5
Hartland	37	5
Ida	50	5
Jonesville	46	5
Linden	30	5
Marcellus	32	5
New Troy	27	5
Portland	41	5
Quincey	48	5
Sebewaing	29	5
Thornapple Kellogg, Middleville	42	5
West Branch	40	5
Whiteford, Ottawa Lake	34	5
White Pigeon	39	5

The sample was randomized by use of the table of random numbers found in Dixon and Massey.[6]

The school districts included in the sampling and data pertinent to the statification may be found in Table III. These school districts are a representative sample of all school districts in the total population as defined on page 19 of this chapter. Thus, the data gathered from this group of school districts may be generalized upon to all of the school districts in Michigan.

IV. SUMMARY

Chapters I and II have considered the mechanics of the dissertation. The rationale, need, importance, and limitations of the study are covered. Explanation of the methodology of the study and a description of the sampling procedure also are included. In general, these chapters have set the stage for the remainder of the dissertation by defining, describing, and delimiting the problem. The remaining chapters deal with development and completion of the dissertation.

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[6]Wilfrid J. Dixon and Frank J. Massey, Jr., Introduction to Statistical Analysis (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957), pp. 366-370.

CHAPTER III

SELECTED PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

I. INTRODUCTION

To understand the framework upon which current approaches to public school administrative organization is based, a familiarity with selected principles of administrative organization from writers in fields outside of educational administration is necessary. Such a familiarity is important because of the close association between these principles and current administrative organizational patterns in public education. One must be aware of the basic principles underlying a problem before an evaluation can be intelligently made of, and new approaches proposed to that problem.

This chapter deals with the selection and brief development of a set of principles of administrative organization upon which public school administrative organization is built. The fields chosen to develop this background information to educational administrative theory and practice were public administration, business administration, and military administration. These three areas were chosen because (1) they were deep historical background, (2) the great majority of literature in the area of administrative organization has been presented from the points of view of these

areas, and (3) these areas seem to encompass the principles which have been accepted by public education in the past.

The importance of, and necessity for, administrative organization to help perform any task in which two or more persons are involved has been recognized and accepted throughout recorded history. Chester Barnard writes:

> . . . many of the superior formal organizations of western civilization are traceable to the early Christian Church, the empire of Charlemagne, and the government of William the Conqueror. . . . but back of these is also a long history of formal organization extending into prehistoric times in the case of government, and to the small group of Apostles in the case of the Church.[1]

There are many examples, both in the literature of the field and in everyday practice, of the need for organization. Mooney notes that "the term organization, and the principles that govern it, are inherent in every form of concerted effort, even where there are no more than two people involved."[2] Many examples of everyday practice could be cited to verify the existance of, and necessity for organization in carrying out a task. A small group of men attempting to lift a heavy object must organize their efforts and work together if they are successfully to move

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[1]Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960), p. 101.

[2]Luther Gulick and L. Urwick (ed.) and others, Papers of the Science of Administration (New York: Institute of Public Administration, 1937), p. 91.

the object. Without some form of organization, the efforts of the men lack the necessary unity for them to complete their task.

The formal study of organization in terms of the development of scientific principles began at about the turn of the century. Before that, the church and the military did much toward the development of a system of organization; but there appeared to be very little formal writing and no systematized approach to the problem in the literature. Such writers as Henri Fayol, Alan C. Reiley, Mary P. Follett, James D. Mooney, and Chester I. Barnard began to look critically at a science of organization and to propose certain principles which they felt were applicable to a sound theory of organization. As the study of administration and administrative organization progressed, there began to appear an argument that there were aspects of organization which were common to all types of administrative responsibility. Many authors have expressed their ideas about this point. Barnard comments that:

> Many similarities in the conduct and attitudes of executives of these systems may be observed, and several students have postulated common elements in these systems. It is evident that if there are uniformities with respect to them generally they will be found in particular aspects or sections of them that are common to all. Effective study of them will therefore require the isolation or definition of these aspects. We shall name one common aspect "organization."[3]

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[3]Barnard, op. cit., pp. 65-66.

Urwick's point of view toward common aspects of organization is that

> . . . there are principles which can be arrived at inductively from the study of human experience of organization, which should govern arrangements for human association of any kind. These principles can be studied as a technical question, irrespective of the purpose of the enterprise, the personnel composing it, or any constitutional, political or social theory underlying its creation.[4]

Pfiffner and Presthus observed that

> . . . specialists in public administration have achieved a considerable degree of uniformity in their thinking on those problems of administration which tend to exist irrespective of the subject matter of the service or function being performed.[5]

They make a plea for

> . . . the recognition of the "generalizing mind," especially in general staff positions. . . . a "generalizing mind" is one which can grasp a multitude of complex relationships, penetrate and understand the significant conclusions of a variety of technical specialists, bring them together into order and unity, and lay out a plan of action which is within the realm of existing possibility.[6]

There is a fine point of distinction here which must be made clear. The above quoted authors present a point of view in favor of aspects of administrative organization which are common to any type of undertaking. This paper

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[4]Luther Gulick, et al. (eds.), Papers of the Science of Administration (New York: Institute of Public Administration, 1937), p. 49.

[5]John M. Pfiffner and R. Vance Presthus, Public Administration (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1953), p. 9.

[6]Ibid., p. 11.

accepts the existance of common principles but rejects the argument that maintains a thorough knowledge of these principles is all that is needed to insure successful administration in all fields. In order to administer--in a leadership sense--the administrator must not only be well versed in general principles of administrative organization but also must have a fundamental knowledge of the technical aspects of the enterprise he is administering. The successful administrative leader must be well founded in both the technical aspects of his enterprise and general principles of administrative organization. It is from this point of departure that the principles of organization used in this study were selected and developed.

II. SELECTED PRINCIPLES

Writers in the field approach the subject of organization from their own specific points of view and use their own terminology. As one reviews their contributions, certain concepts and principles seem to be common to all.

Chosen to be developed here are principles that are fundamental to organizational theory and specifically oriented to the public schools. They are (1) common purpose, (2) unity of direction, (3) line and staff, (4) span of supervision, (5) centralization-decentralization, (6) departmentation, and (7) informal organization. Following is a brief explanation of each.

Common purpose. Fundamental to any successive enterprise is the necessity for a common purpose among all parts of the enterprise. Urwick points up this idea, saying:

> Every organization and every part of every organization must be an expression of the purpose of the undertaking concerned or it is meaningless and therefore redundant.
>
> You cannot organize in a vacuum: you must organize for something.[7]

Barnard lists the elements of organization as "(1) communication; (2) willingness to serve; and (3) common purpose."[8] The first two elements refer to the third common purpose. Common purpose cannot exist without communication of that purpose and a willingness on the part of employees to serve that purpose. The successful organization will have purposes that are carefully developed and well understood by all members of the system from the common day laborer, through the entire membership, to the senior executive. Gulick uses the term "work division" in discussing the same point. He writes that

> . . . it is not possible to determine how an activity is to be organized without, at the same time, considering how the work in question is to be divided. Work division is the foundation of organization; indeed the reason for organization.[9]

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[7]Lyndall Urwick, Notes on the Theory of Organization (New York: American Management Association, 1952), p. 19.

[8]Barnard, op. cit., p. 82.

[9]Gulick, et al., op. cit., p. 3.

For an undertaking to be successful it must first have a purpose: a reason for the undertaking. To win games is the primary purpose of athletic teams, along with development of sportsmanship and skills. Also, common purpose implies an understanding and acceptance of the purposes by everyone associated with an enterprise. If winning, as a purpose, is not understood and accepted by each member of the athletic team, the successful accomplishment of this purpose may be seriously hindered.

The degree to which the goal of common purpose is achieved will directly affect the efficiency of the enterprise. The methods used to accomplish this ideal of common purpose may be defined as the organization of the enterprise.

Unity of direction. Unity of direction is similar to common purpose but is more directly concerned with the internal operation of the enterprise. Whereas common purpose refers to understanding and acceptance of goals, unity of direction is related to implementation and interpretation of these goals. There should be a single person responsible for execution of policy.

The need for unity of direction is recognized in organization literature. Dimock and his associates refer to unity of command (direction) by stressing

> . . . the fact that if all component parts of an administrative program are to move forward in a unified and synchronized fashion, there must be a single

directing official at the top to see that this integration takes place.[10]

An organization that has more than one head is open to different interpretations of purposes, and thus to confusion on the part of its members. To quote from Gulick:

> A man cannot serve two masters. A workman subject to orders from several superiors will be confused, inefficient, and irresponsible; a workman subject to orders from but one superior may be methodical, efficient, and responsible.[11]

Basic to any organizational strcuture is the concept that there must be a single individual or board that is the sole, or final responsible agent for the aims and purposes of that organization.

Workers who find themselves reporting to more than one supervisor in relation to the same or overlapping areas will often be confronted with conflicting points of view and emphasis. When this situation arises, a person, or several persons within a department can be caught between conflicting directions and allegiances, and they can find themselves lacking a unity of direction. As the individual workers have direction, so the over-all institution tends to proceed smoothly toward its goals.

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[10] Marshall E. Dimock, Gladys O. Dimock, and Louis W. Koenig, Public Administration (New York: Rinehart and Company, 1958), pp. 129-130.

[11] Gulick et al., op. cit., p. 9.

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[11] Gulick et al., op. cit., p. 9.

When a school board member attempts personally to implement his point of view without working with his fellow board members and the superintendent of schools, unity of direction of the entire system is in jeopardy.

Line and staff. The physical complexities brought about by the number of employees and their geographic distribution requires that a plan be adopted that will integrate the various aspects of an enterprise to insure growth and improvement. The system developed and accepted in all fields of administrative organization theory is called "line and staff." Considerable confusion has existed and still exists about the definitions of the two terms.

Gulick's definition is, ". . . there are included in staff all of those persons who devote their time exclusively to the knowing, thinking, and planning functions, and in the line all of the remainder who are, thus, chiefly concerned with the doing function."[12] He places the emphasis on delimiting the staff function. Pfiffner and Presthus define the line clearly as

> . . . those operating officials, and workers, who are in the direct line of command of the scalar ladder. They are the ones who issue orders and those who work at the tasks relating directly to the functional objective.[13]

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[12] Ibid., p. 31.

[13] Pfiffner and Presthus, op. cit., p. 84.

The principle of line includes the following: (1) a framework or channel for the transmission of decisions, directions, and other processes pertaining to direct day-by-day operations of an enterprise; and (2) those positions that are primarily responsible for the daily operation of an enterprise.

As an example, when it becomes necessary to transmit specific directions to all teachers and students in a school system, such as disaster alert procedures, the detailed plan originates in the office of the superintendent. He relays the information through the line to an assistant. The assistant, in turn, relays the information to the building principals, who, in turn relay it to department heads, or directly to teachers who finally relay it to the individual pupils in each of the classrooms throughout the school system. This process operates in reverse when it is necessary to transmit information to the superintendent concerning an individual pupil or classroom. Suppose there is an outstanding accomplishment produced by a pupil in a specific classroom, and the teacher wishes to have the accomplishment recognized throughout the district. The usual procedure is to call the accomplishment to the attention of the department head. A report of the accomplishment is relayed in turn, up the line, until it is finally acknowledged by the superintendent and board of education.

In contrast, but certainly complementary to the principle of line, is the sister principle of staff. Newman gives a broad definition of staff assistants when he says: "One of the best ways to regard staff assistants and staff divisions is as extensions of the thinking capacity of the executives they serve. They do planning work that the executive might do himself if he had the time."[14]

He lists the duties assigned to staff positions as:

1. Assembling facts;
2. Summarizing and interpreting facts;
3. Recommending courses of action;
4. Discussing proposed plans with various other executives and obtaining their concurrence or reasons for objection;
5. Preparing written orders and other documents necessary to put a plan into action;
6. Explaining and interpreting orders that have been issued;
7. Watching actual operations to ascertain if the orders issued are achieving the desired results;
8. On the basis of operating experience and anticipated conditions, initiating new plans;
9. Promoting an exchange of information among operating officials so that there will be greater voluntary coordination;
10. Developing enthusiasm among operating people for established policies and program;
11. Providing information and advice to operating people regarding performance of duties that have been delegated to them.[15]

From this list it is easy to see that the staff function may serve a wide variety of purposes in an organization. It

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[14]William H. Newman, Administrative Action; the Techniques of Organization and Management (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951), p. 97.

[15]Ibid., pp. 181-182.

is from this diversity of responsibilities that much of the confusion over staff duties arises.

In public schools, the staff position should be one of assistance and service to the line person. Subject matter directors, visiting teachers, educational consultants, the business manager, and counselors are examples of staff positions. Their function is one of giving technical assistance to line administrators and classroom teachers so that line persons may better perform their jobs--teaching children.

The top executive must weigh complexity and expense against efficiency and effectiveness when considering the addition of staff persons to his organizational complex.

Span of supervision. As the principle of line and staff is developed along with that of unity of direction, there begins to appear the questions of how many persons can one individual direct and supervise, and how complex an organization can one man administer effectively. These questions serve to introduce the principle of span of supervision.

Span of control (supervision) is defined as (1) "the number of subordinates to which one administrator can give his time without exceeding the limits of effective attention,"[16]

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[16] Dimock, Dimock, and Koenig, op. cit., p. 131.

(2) "The number of persons who should report to an administrative chief or supervisor,"[17] and (3) "The number of men an executive can supervise effectively and still perform the other duties he has been assigned."[18] In each case, number of persons is basic to the definition; and in two cases, effectiveness of operation is important.

The problem of how many persons one individual can effectively supervise has been considered by many writers, and it varies from three to twenty, with the majority of writers agreeing on a figure that is less than ten.[19] Urwick considers in depth the complexities of numbers of persons reporting to a supervisor. He summarizes his findings as follows:

> Students of administration have long recognized that, in practice, no human brain should attempt to supervise directly more than five, or at the most, six other individuals whose work is interrelated. A supervisor with five subordinates reporting directly to him, who adds a sixth, increases his available human resources by 20 per cent. But he adds approximately 100 per cent to the complexity and difficulty of his task of coordination. The number of relationships which he must consider increases not by arithmetical but by geometrical progression.[20]

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[17]Pfiffner and Prethus, op. cit., p. 72.

[18]Newman, op. cit., p. 259.

[19]Barnard, op. cit., pp. 104-106; Urwick, op. cit., p. 53; Pfiffner and Presthus, op. cit., p. 72.

[20]Urwick, op. cit., pp. 53-54.

To understand fully the philosophy of span, it is necessary to consider broad underlying factors that form the basis for span theory. Graves expresses a realistic approach to span when he writes:

> It is probable that no definite rule can be established and that the span will vary in any given case according to the ability and experience of the supervisor, the nature of the work being done, and the character of ability of the members of the staff.[21]

In any case, all authorities on administrative organization would agree that there is a limit to the number of persons or tasks that one individual can direct or supervise at one time. The administrator must be aware of this principle and constantly evaluate himself and other employees to be sure that none of them is spread too thin in relation to the variety of responsibilities he directs.

Centralization-decentralization. Another important principle in organization theory is expressed by the opposing terms of centralization and decentralization. The degree of opposition between these terms can best be expressed by asking the degree to which an institution or enterprise should be run from one office, by one individual or board. Fortunately, this is not an either-or principle; there are degrees of centralization and decentralization recognized

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[21] W. Brooke Graves, Public Administration in a Democratic Society (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1950), p. 60.

by many authors in the field of organization. Newman summarizes many of these positions. He lists and describes four degrees of centralization and decentralization:

> Centralized administration
> . . . detailed and comprehensive planning by the key executive. . . .
> Limited decentralization
> . . . policies, programs, and major procedures are decided in the top echelons of the company; the application of these plans to specific situations and the detailed day-to-day planning are delegated down the line to the first or second level of supervision.
> Delegated authority
> . . . operating decisions are pushed well down the line . . .
> Bottom-up administration
> . . . not only authority but also initiative is decentralized.[22]

According to Newman, the advantages of centralization are that it tends (1) to stimulate the use of knowledge of the top executive; (2) to improve regulation of quality, service, risk, et cetra; and (3) to keep expenses at a minimum.[23] Advantages of decentralization, he explains, provide

> (1) Relief of senior executives from the time-consuming attention to detailed methods; (2) Increased flexibility . . . ; (3) Greater interest and enthusiasm of employees . . . ; (4) Development of junior executives. . . .[24]

A practical example of degree of opposition between centralization and decentralization can be cited in relation to

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[22] Newman, pp. 204-208, *passim*.

[23] *Ibid*., p. 205.

[24] *Ibid*., p. 208.

curriculum development. The centralized approach holds that curriculum should be determined in one place by one person or group of persons for the entire system. Centralization tends to encourage standardization and, in its extreme form, would expect all pupils of a given grade to be studying the same thing at any given time. Decentralization takes a different point of view and maintains that the curriculum can best serve the needs of the pupils if it is allowed to vary with individual buildings and even with individual teachers. The decentralized approach to curriculum development places the responsibility in separate buildings and in the hands of the teachers in those buildings.

It is interesting to note that little attention is given to human relations in the literature pertaining to centralization and decentralization. The emphasis is on the effect of authority, communication, and smooth operation of the machinery of the organization. Newman expresses the general tone of public administration toward this problem by noting that:

> The real issue is the decentralization of authority to plan, that is, who is to decide what is to be done. . . . Viewing the problem from a higher echelon are the executives expected to make detailed plans that are then carried out by their subordinates, or are executives primarily concerned with helping subordinates do their respective jobs well?[25]

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[25] Ibid., p. 203.

To develop human relations--human worth and dignity--as a basic philosophy of organization, it becomes necessary to develop a system that is dedicated to involving people. In this context the principles of decentralization are of primary importance and it behooves the administrator to develop an organizational structure that will allow and encourage individual involvement. One of the better ways to accomplish this is through decentralization.

Departmentation. Departmentation is a specialized part of decentralization. Departmentation is a way of dividing the work force or employees of an undertaking according to some factor which is common among them. The reasoning behind this approach is that common experiences or interests will tend to bind a group together to make progress easier to achieve. Integral to this concept is the present trend in our society toward specialization. As a person begins to specialize, his interests and knowledge become confined to the area of his specialization. Since specialization can be more than a specific task, departmentation often is considered in terms of various factors operating within the organization.

Strict adherence to the fundamental principles of departmentation introduces difficulties into the organization and operation of an enterprise. Departmentation, as a means of decentralization, was introduced with the advent of specialization. This type of organization, however tends to

encourage further specialization and thus "kingdom building" within the system. When "kingdom building" occurs, unity of purpose is threatened and often the overall operation becomes composed of a number of smaller operations each competing with the others. The degree of specialization desired in an organization will determine, to a large degree, the amount of departmentation desireable for that organization.

Informal organization. To this point the discussion has been confined to selected principles of formal organization. Co-existent with formal organization is the system of day-by-day interactions of the members of the organization. These interactions develop from similar interests, similar jobs, physical proximity, social contacts, and many other cultural and societal factors that comprise the lives of individuals. These kinds of interactions are referred to as informal organization by authorities in administration. Barnard describes the factors involved in informal organization when he comments:

> It is a matter of general observation and experience that persons are frequently in contact and interact with each other when their relationships are not a part of or governed by any formal organization. . . . The fact of such contacts, interactions, or groupings changes the experience, knowledge, attitudes, and emotions of the individuals affected. . . . By informal organization I mean the aggregate of the personal contacts and interactions and the associated groupings of people that I have just described.[26]

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[26]Barnard, op. cit., pp. 114-115.

A good example of informal organization in a school system is the association of teachers with each other in the teachers lounge. Much of the faculty reaction to policies, procedures, and practices is determined in this room over cups of coffee.

So that the formal organization may function properly and smoothly, the executive must be aware of the existence of an informal organization within his enterprise. Beyond this, he must know something of the subtleties of such an informal system by being aware of its leaders; its system of communication; and, in general, the social, physical, and political factors underlying its existence and operation.

III. SUMMARY

This chapter has dealt with the presentation of a set of selected principles of administrative organization as found in the writings of authors in fields other than education. For a full understanding of administrative organization, such a presentation was necessary. Had the research for this study been confined to administrative organizational principles found in education, only a limited approach to the problem could have been presented. By combining the principles presented here with public education philosophy and administrative organizational theory, a broad and realistic approach can be taken toward instructional leadership organization in the public schools.

Each of the principles selected--(1) common purpose, (2) unity of direction, (3) line and staff, (4) span of supervision, (5) centralization-decentralization, (6) departmentation, and (7) informal organization--were presented, defined, and briefly analyzed in terms of their respective values and limitations, their relation to each other, and their relation to the whole concept of administrative organization.

CHAPTER IV

AN APPROACH TOWARD ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP ORGANIZATION FOR IMPROVED INSTRUCTION

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with a point of view and practical approach to public school organization as it relates to instructional leadership. The contention here is that there are aspects of public education that may make its administration quite different from parallel situations in business, industry, the church, or the military.

Education in a democratic society should have distinct features and goals that should, in turn, determine the kind of organization to be used in educational institutions. Education in a democratic society sets out to develop individuals. Rather than being merely a process of indoctrination, it should be an attempt to further critical thinking and to recognize worth and dignity in every person. Thus, creativity should be the key feature of an instructional program. If creativity is a primary purpose of instruction, then it should follow logically, that administrators, teachers, and pupils should be afforded an atmosphere that will allow and encourage creative and critical thinking. The tone of such an atmosphere is set by the kind of administrative

organization functioning in an institution. This concept should dictate a modified interpretation of organizational principles for instructional leadership in the public schools.

This chapter develops the unique features of a democratic society, places the principles selected in chapter III in this context, and suggests an approach toward administrative organization which utilizes the point of view developed herein.

II. THE DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

To discuss administrative organization for the improvement of instruction intelligently, it is necessary to understand the concepts and ideals underlying the society in which this organization functions. The United States is found upon a philosophy of democratic government and operation within and among its institutions and social agencies. The assertion here is that these founding principles are still fundamental to the American way of life and are the prevailing principles upon which the United States operates domestically and internationally.

Few people would quarrel with the above conceptions. The difficulty that often arises in a discussion of democracy is the interpretation of the true and deeper meanings of the word. An understanding of the basic aspects of a free society is vital to any analysis of public school administration operating within it. Clyde M. Campbell comments that:

> Surely one of the most significant problems in public school administration today is the establishment of a structure that will help to further the democratic idealism that has been discussed so widely by educators in the last two or three decades.[1]

Before the structure can be developed, an understanding of that "democratic idealism" is necessary.

General characteristics. The founding fathers of this nation approached the word "democracy" primarily in relation to a form of government. This approach is still important to an understanding of the term and is encompassed in the phrase, "government of the people, for the people, and by the people." As the nation progressed, the word "democracy" began to assume a broad connotation that can best be expressed as a way of life. In the words of Kilpatrick;

> The term democracy is . . . used in two senses. On the one hand, it indicates a kind of government, a government of the people. On the other hand, it means a way of life, a kind and quality of associated living in which sensitive moral principles assert the right to control individual and group conduct.[2]

Dewey expresses a similar viewpoint. "A democracy," he says, "is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experiences."[3]

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[1]Clyde M. Campbell, "The Administrator Treads a Perilous Path," The Nation's Schools, XLIX (March, 1952), 49.

[2]William Heard Kilpatrick, Philosophy of Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951), p. 127.

[3]John Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916), p. 101.

This way of life is based upon an approach of the personal conduct of the individual toward himself and his fellow man. To quote from Childs: ". . . the person is the ultimate seat of all value, and, as Dewey has observed, 'the cause of democracy is the moral cause of the dignity and worth of the individual.'"[4] In order to accomplish the democratic way of life, society must arrive at some point not only where authoritarianism is rejected, but also where more than anarchy is accepted. Childs describes the necessary characteristics of a democratic society when he says:

> It [democracy] is a pattern of moral authority which is to be differentiated from a social regime that requires uncritical obedience to whatever happens to be established in its operating customs and institution, from a situation of anarchy in which each person is a law unto himself, and from an autocratic system in which the many are subjected to the arbitrary exercise of power by some privileged group. This type of moral authority denotes a system of self-government in which activities are carried on under authorities which the people have formed and sanctioned and which they voluntarily obey. Insofar as any society provides in its social and legal arrangements for the functioning of this kind of authority, it will be marked by characteristics we have come to recognize and cherish as democratic.[5]

Democratic principles. In a set of principles which comprise the framework upon which these characteristics should function, general statements become specific criteria of

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[4]John L. Childs, American Pragmatism and Education (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1956), p. 132.

[5]Ibid., pp. 130-131.

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operation. Many writers have addressed their thinking to such a set of principles. Kilpatrick developed one when he listed and discussed the "principles that characterize democracy as a way of life."

> 1. "Sovereignty of the Living Individual"; 2. The Principle of Equality: "Equal Rights for All" . . . Perhaps the most personally cherished of all democratic rights is the right to grow and thrive, so that each may be given a fair chance in comparison with others to make of himself and his life the best that in him lies; 3. Rights Imply Duties; 4. Cooperative Effort for the Common Good . . . Since each individual enjoys the common good, each is involved in supporting the common good; 5. Faith in the Free Play of Intelligence: Discussion and Persuasion, not Force or Violence; 6. Freedom of Discussion. Specifically, democracy demands that each be free to think for himself--this is the chief dignity of man--and free likewise to argue his belief before others.[6]

Child indicates his views regarding a democratic framework when he remarks that:

> A society in which authority rests on the voluntary consent of its members will . . . tend to support the principle of <u>equality</u>. . . . A society which lodges its authority in the uncoerced consent of its members will not only be marked by the principle of reciprocity, it will also be characterized by a genuine sharing of interests. . . . A society which measures up to the moral criterion approved by Dewey will not pretend to have any good or end other than the good of individual human beings. The center of conscious experience is the individual human being. . . . A society which regulates its processes of social control by this criterion must be one in which all its members, irrespective of factors of race, creed, color, sex, and occupation, have an effectual share in making and evaluating basic social policies. . . . A society cannot provide

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[6]Kilpatrick, <u>op. cit</u>., pp. 139-146, <u>passim</u>.

> for this kind of moral authority in the political sphere unless it maintains procedures that make it possible for governments to function efficiently and at the same time remain subject to the popular will. . . . A society can provide the conditions essential for a continuation of this kind of voluntary moral and political authority only as it keeps open the avenues of inquiry, discussion, criticism, and agitation. . . . A society which is to respect the democratic criterion must be a plural society able to preserve certain abiding restrictions on the sphere and authority of government. In a democratic society, government may not use its power to suppress or dominate the process by which ideas are expressed and matured, and the public is made conscious of its own interests and becomes intelligent about the concrete means by which their interests are to be promoted.[7]

The following quotation from Campbell should serve to establish the intended democratic point of view: "Democratic living is not a station at which people arrive, it is a method of traveling."[8]

These principles of democratic behavior suggest an administrative structure that is quite different from the traditional authoritarian leader of the past. This statement is especially true when one is discussing an institution that is charged with the dynamic evolvement of its society and thus the development of individuals to the limits of their ability and the recognization of the worth and dignity of every person in that society.

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[7]Childs, op. cit., pp. 131-135, passim.

[8]Campbell, "A Democratic Structure to Further Democratic Values," Progressive Education, XXX (November, 1952), 26.

III. DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

What does this discussion of democratic philosophy have to do with the topic at hand? The answer to this question can best be given by quoting Dewey.

> Government, business, art, religion, all social institutions, have a meaning, a purpose. That purpose is to set free and to develop the capacities of human individuals. . . . Democracy has many meanings, but if it has a moral meaning, it is found in resolving that the supreme test of all political institutions and industrial arrangements shall be the contribution to the all-around growth of every member of society.[9]

Childs, paraphrasing Dewey, brings in the word "education." He writes:

> According to his [Dewey's] view, there is an inherent connection between democracy and education, for democracy signifies the deliberate effort to organize a society in such a way that its social practices will contribute to the growth of all its members.[10]

These references should serve to point up the true bond that should exist between the aims of a democratic society and the educational program within that society.

Uniqueness of education. To accomplish democratic goals, every person associated with the educational enterprise should be involved in the policy-making function.

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[9]John Dewey, Reconstruction in Philosophy (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1920), p. 186.

[10]Childs, op. cit., p. 105.

THESIS

The correct democratic procedure is the procedure of all of the people, not the decisions of a few administrators or other officials. This concept, coupled with the creative and highly technical nature of teaching, sets educational administration apart from administration in other enterprises of society.

Campbell shows the basic differences between education and these other enterprises. He observes that:

> To a great extent, the professions do things for people, rather than do things with people. In education the task is not to do things to people, but to help people to do things for themselves.[11]
>
> Helping teachers to be creative calls for a different kind of administrative leadership from helping routine workers learn accepted ways of performing assigned tasks. The administrator of creative workers should think with staff members, not for staff members.[12]

Whitehead, discussing the management of the university, makes an observation pertinent to this discussion. He says:

> . . . the management of a university faculty has no analogy to that of a business organization. The public opinion of the faculty, and a common zeal for the purposes of the university, form the only effective safeguards for the high level of university work. The faculty should be a band of scholars, stimulating each other, and freely determining their various activities. You can secure certain formal requirements,

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[11]Campbell, "Human Relations Techniques Useful in School Administration," The American School Board Journal, CXXX (June, 1955), 32.

[12]Campbell, "A Democratic Structure to Further Democratic Values," Progressive Education, XXX, 26.

> that lectures are given at stated times and that instructors and students are in attendance. But the heart of the matter lies beyond all regulation.[13]

By expanding Whitehead's point to include the public schools, the approach toward instructional leadership expounded in this thesis is well presented.

Control, power, and authority. The discussion thus far has touched on the basic point in the consideration of democratic school administrative leadership. This basic point revolves around the concept of control, power, and authority. These terms have different meanings, depending on the philosophical basis of the society in which they are used.

The traditional and somewhat autocratic approach used in many communities, boards of education, and offices of school administration, is that the superintendent of schools and building principals are hired to control the school system by exercising the power vested in them by virtue of the authority of their position. Such an approach may lead to a smoothly running machine but certainly does not utilize or accept any of the democratic principles discussed herein. This type of school administration places the superintendent in a dictatorial position in the school

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[13] Alfred North Whitehead, The Aims of Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929), p. 104.

system, pre-supposes a definite hierarchy, establishes strict lines of authority, and, in general, fosters an autocratic situation in which conformity and uniformity becomes the accepted and expected mode of behavior. Horne's comments on uniformity in education are relevant. He declares that:

> The bane of the school has been the insistence upon uniformity of method and uniformity of product. This is not development but moulding. Men are not made after the fashion of the factory, but of the garden. The pupil must not be conformed to the wooden educational image, but transformed into the likeness of his true self.[14]

A comment by Campbell helps to clarify the shortcomings of the autocratic method of management.

> . . . the present structure has encouraged people to dominate others more than to cooperate with others.
> In short, the administrator is determining the policies, executing the policies, and recommending for dismissal those who refuse to abide by the policies.[15]

In a democratic setting the traditional definitions of control, power, and authority are rejected because they are in opposition to the basic philosophy of dignity and worth of the individual. The democratic way of life cannot be realized when an administrator sends down decisions from above or considers it his position to hold control, power,

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[14] Herman Harrell Horne, The Philosophy of Education (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1905), pp. 208-209.

[15] Campbell, "A Democratic Structure to Further Democratic Values," Progressive Education, XXX, 25.

and authority over employees under his supervision. On the other hand, the administrator who exerts no leadership, and who allows each individual complete freedom of choice and decision without regard for his fellow man, is not recognizing the intent of individual worth and dignity.

If a society dedicated to the worth and dignity of the individual and to his maximum development and self-realization cannot accomplish its goals with either autocratic or autonomous organization, how then is organization approached with respect to control, power, and authority? It is the contention of this dissertation that an administrative organization must be devised that will utilize and help to develop the unique talents and abilities of every member connected with the school program. Such an organizational scheme means many controls rather than one control. In the words of Mary Follett, ". . . (1) control is coming more and more to mean fact-control rather than man-control; (2) central control is coming more and more to mean the correlation of many controls rather than a superimposed control."[16] Power means a developmental power which, according to Follett, is the only genuine power. She says: "Genuine power can only be grown, it will slip from every arbitrary

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[16] Mary Parker Follett, Dynamic Administration (New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1942), p. 295.

hand that grasps it; for genuine power is not coercive control, but coactive control."[17] And control means group authority not arbitrary authority from above. Again quoting from Follett:

> Genuine authority is not a matter of "will" even of the "will of the people"; it is an interweaving activity.
>
> The authority of the chief executive is not, in the best managed businesses, an arbitrary authority imposed from above, but the gathering up of many authorities found at different points in the organization.[18]

Thus there is developed, in the words of Follett, "the authority of the situation."[19]

In an organization based upon these concepts the administrator truly becomes a leader and coordinator. According to Griffiths and his associates:

> The superintendent's job is to develop along with the professional staff, the community, and the board of education, those policies which will enable the school system to produce the finest educational program possible.[20]

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[17] Follett, Creative Experience (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1930), p. xiii.

[18] Ibid., Dynamic Administration, p. 296.

[19] Ibid., p. 59.

[20] Griffiths, et al., Organizing Schools for Effective Education, p. 163.

THESIS

IV. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL PRINCIPLES FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

It now seems propitious to evaluate the principles selected in chapter III in relation to their consistency with, and utility in the democratic setting outlined above. The real test of any thoretical and philosophical proposal is its applicability in practice.

Common purpose. The principle of common purpose as presented in chapter III is as necessary in education as it is in any other type of undertaking. The important point in a democratic setting is that the purposes of the enterprise should be arrived at cooperatively. This can best be done by group participation in the development of those policies.

According to previous discussion, the purposes of public education in a democratic society should be the development of the individual to the limit of his ability, and the recognization of the worth and dignity of every person. To realize these purposes, the administration must first recognize them within the staff of the school system. The autocratic administrator refuses to accept equality among his employees and often hands down decisions because he considers himself and his administrative staff to be above the rest of the employees. The purposes of democratic group involvement become a reality only if they are in

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operation at all levels of the school setting--in the community, with pupils, teachers, and above all, administration.

Unity of direction. The unity of direction in public education should be a unity in broad general aims with an atmosphere of academic freedom and individual experimentation prevailing within the broad general aims. General aims consistent with democratic philosophy can be developed effectively by cooperative action on the part of all participants. The administrator can set the example in terms of how he operates with the staff.

As an example, the development of what is to be taught in the school system should be a cooperative process that involves all facets of the community. The decision of how it is to be taught should rest with individual teachers. The administrator has a responsibility to lead, guide, and help teachers evaluate their techniques in this process; but when both the "what" and the "how" of teaching become standardized, creativity, critical thinking, and experimentation are stifled.

The distinction between unity, with respect to broad aims, and individual freedom, with respect to specific techniques, requires a fine administrative technique. When broad directions are developed cooperatively, the dignity of individual teachers can be maintained within a framework of general operational rules for the over-all institution.

Line and staff. As long as the traditional concept of line and staff prevails, with its hierarchical connotations, it will be a hinderance to democratic operation and creativity in the schools. Griffiths and his associates recognize this point of view. They hold that "The line and staff concept has been associated with autocracy."[21] They further comment:

> The greatest dissatisfaction found with the line and staff conceptualization of an organization is that it seems to restrict the creativity of individuals due to the fact that the hierarchical chain of authority must be followed throughout.[22]

Unfortunately, line organization is often associated with autocratic administration when the top line-position is the final authority, and has absolute power to enforce his authority. When the concepts of line positions are placed in a context of democratic living in such a way that they guide, direct, and enforce group policies--not personal policies--then, and only then, will the principle of line organization realize its proper function in democratic school administrative organization. In this frame of reference one might say that the line administrator becomes a leader, a motivator, and a resource person; he enforces group policies through the line organization, but he is not the final authority.

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[21] Griffiths, et al., op. cit., p. 27.

[22] Ibid., p. 25.

In the same vein, the staff person becomes an expert resource person in a specialized area. His function should always be one of service to the teaching staff. He too can motivate and lead, but his primary responsibility should be specialized service to the over-all aims of the school system. The staff person should not make decisions, but should help teachers and the community make better decisions for themselves. Mary Follett captures much of this approach to line and staff when she says:

> When the process of cooperation between expert and people is given its legitimate chance, the experience of the people may change the conclusions of the expert while the conclusions of the expert are changing the experiences of the people; further than that, the people's activity is a response to the relating of their own activity to that of the expert. Here we have the compound interest of all genuine cooperation.[23]

Considering the execution of adopted policy, the line administrator's emphasis should change from one of over-all concern to one of direct responsibility. In this context the administrator must assume the responsibility for proper enforcement of policies through the line positions of the organization.

Span of supervision. The principle of span of supervision, as presented earlier, has application in the democratic school organization. This application should not be

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[23] Follett, Creative Experience, p. 218.

in terms of superior-subordinate relationships but in terms of leadership, motivation, and service to a group.

The psychological limitations on one person's ability to participate in or perform a limited number of tasks or responsibilities effectively at one time must be accepted regardless of the type of society or philosophy in operation. The important difference in democratic administration is the context under which the principle of span is operated. The democratic administrator should allow the principle of span to be applied from the point of view of service to the teachers. When his service functions become so complex that he cannot relieve the creative worker of operational details so the creative worker can perform his contracted task, reduction of span by increasing the administrative personnel should be considered.

Centralization-decentralization. In an organization that adheres to the democratic philosophy, the dispute over whether to have a centralized or decentralized administration should be quickly solved. If the definition for centralization by the American Association of School Administrators is accepted;

> Centralization is based upon the conviction that instructional improvement should be initiated, planned, managed, and conducted by persons in the central office of a school system. The concern is usually with problems of the entire school system rather than with the problems of individual schools or of individual teachers. Individuals in the central office determine the goals to be attained and prescribe the technics and methodology

> to attain these goals. Even the subject-matter and learning experiences may be written down and handed to a corps of teachers to be followed rather precisely.[24]

It is easily seen that this approach has no place in a society recognizing and nurturing the worth and dignity of each individual, a society that works toward the goal of creativity and critical thinking on the part of all the people.

By rejecting the centralized approach because of its complete lack of harmony with democratic principles and its tendency to encourage standardization and thus reduce creativity, some degree or type of decentralization should be adopted. The extreme definition of decentralization would lead toward anarchy. Each individual would go his own way with no regard for his fellows. The American Association of School Administrators has suggested a type of decentralized organization that they call "centrally coordinated." They define centrally coordinated organization as follows:

> The centrally coordinated approach to instructional improvement maintains that the efforts of individual schools, individual teachers, and the central office are significant. The teachers in individual schools are encouraged to improve the instructional process in order to serve <u>their</u> children better. At the same time, staff members of some or all schools, together with supervisors and others, may combine their efforts to attack a problem of instructional improvement common to all or several schools.[25]

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[24]American Association of School Administrators, <u>The Superintendent as Instructional Leader</u>, Thirty-fifth Yearbook (Washington: The Association, 1957), p. 170.

[25]<u>Ibid</u>., p. 171.

Thus there is developed a vehicle to allow and encourage cooperative participation in the solving of common problems.

Departmentation. It was established in chapter III that departmentation had its seeds in decentralization and specialization. Decentralization has been defended above; and specialization is a fact of a modern, industrial, and highly complex society. Then, it should follow that departmentation is an established fact in public education. A qualification of the term and an understanding of the goals are needed, however, before the above statement can be accepted.

Departmentation by subject-matter specialization tends to build empires within the school system and encourages a highly academic curriculum. An organization policy that allows all teachers of a given grade in the elementary school, or a given subject in the secondary school, to meet and plan by themselves, tends to loose continuity of program. Individual departments tend to compete against each other for funds, excellence, and special considerations. If academic excellence per se, with no regard for integration of subject matter, is the primary goal of the school system, academic departmentation may be an excellent tool to aid in its accomplishment.

Academic departmentation has serious limitations, however, if the primary goal of the public schools is to provide a broad education, accompanied by exploratory

THES

experiences in a number of specializations, in an over-all atmosphere of academic excellence as it relates to critical thinking and the discovery of ultimate truths in our society. An alternative proposal could be the organization of groups of faculty members representing different grade levels in the elementary schools, and different subject matter specializations in the secondary schools. This type of departmentation would encourage the study of broad problems common to the entire school, would tend to make specialists aware of the problems and points of view of other specialists, and would bring various specialized skills and knowledges to bear on school problems.

Shared responsibility. The principle of shared responsibility receives little attention in areas other than public school organization, and therefore, it was not included in chapter III. This principle is so basic to democratic school administrative organization that it must be included in this chapter.

For the principle of span of supervision to work, it is necessary that the organization be so structured that detail work is assigned to detail workers, or that it is shared equally by all employees. Some executives feel that their positions require them to fulfill the "Folklore of the Big Man":

a. If you keep lots of people waiting in your anteroom.
b. If you have a lot of people reporting directly to you.

c. If you make yourself indispensable by refusing to pass on your knowledge to others.
d. If you do more detail work than anyone under you.
e. If you show the other fellow how wrong he is.
f. If you stick your fingers into other people's pies.
g. If you sign or initial a lot of papers.
h. If you make a big fuss over little things to show you are perfect and expect perfection in others.
i. If you do these things, You Are a Big Man--In Your Own Eyes![26]

Such an executive is devoting his time to unnecessary detail work and is overemphasizing the importance of his position. The true leader of an organization must be concerned with the management and over-all operation of that organization. His energies must be applied to broad policies relating to the total function of the organization.

On the other hand, when creative workers are overburdened with detail work their creative potential is stiffled and their effectiveness reduced. In an enterprise of creative workers, each of whom is a specialist in his own right, the individual should be responsible for the functioning of his specialized area. Campbell vertifies this point in relation to education when he notes: "The structure in educational administration should place responsibility and authority with the job to be done."[27] One of the primary functions

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[26] Catheryn Seckler-Hudson (ed.), Processes of Organization and Management (Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1948), p. 55.

[27] Campbell, "A Democratic Structure to Further Democratic Values," Progressive Education, XXX, 28.

of the administrator in a school system is to free the specialist so that he can apply his energies to his specialization. According to Griffiths and his associates:

> The role of the administrative staff in an institution is to create an organization within which the decision-making process can operate effectively. The organization should permit decisions to be made as close to the source of effective action as possible.[28]

Such an organization places the administration in the position of service to the specialized creative worker. This is as it should be for, if the institution is to accomplish its function, specialization must be handled by persons trained and equipped to carry out that function. Campbell notes this approach when he says:

> Creative workers should delegate routine duties to administrators rather than administrators delegating time consuming tasks to creative workers. Educational administrators should clear the way for teachers rather than teachers removing obstructions for administrators.[29]

The ideal alternative to such an approach is a true cooperative sharing of responsibilities on the part of all employees when duties and responsibilities are shared cooperatively and not delegated to or by anyone.

Informal organization. Since informal organizations exist in all formal organizations, no attempt will be made

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[28] Griffiths, et al., Organizing Schools for Effective Education, p. 62.

[29] Campbell, "A Democratic Structure to Further Democratic Values," Progressive Education, XXX, 28.

to deny it. Informal organizations are often in conflict with the aims and purposes of formal organizations; and the serious administrative problem of trying to resolve the conflict does exist. It is the contention here that if principles of democratic behavior and cooperative participation are adhered to, aims and purposes of the informal organizations will tend to blend with those of the formal organization. If employees are encouraged to express themselves openly and freely within the framework of the formal organization, the conflicts that often arise informally will be more apt to be brought out in the open than to be allowed to fester in meetings and associations of the informal groups.

V. THE ORGANIZATIONAL SCHEME

The consideration of the operational organization for the improvement of instruction, within the framework of the definitions and qualified principles discussed in this chapter, is important to this discussion. A proposal regarding administrative organization for the improvement of instruction in the public schools will be made in this section. The organizational scheme will be divided into four major areas: (1) formulation of policy, (2) adoption of policy, (3) execution of policy, and (4) review of policy.

Formulation of policy. The policies of the school system should be formulated cooperatively by the total community to fit the needs and specific characteristics of

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Formulation of policy. The policies of the school system should be formulated cooperatively by the total community to fit the needs and specific characteristics of

the community. Because of the creative nature of teaching, the teaching staff should be allowed and encouraged to take an active part. Engelhardt recognizes the need for cooperative effort in policy formulation when he says:

> Cooperative effort is primarily necessary in the determination of the general school policies to be recommended to the school board for consideration and approval, in the preparation of the curriculum, and in the selection of textbooks and instructional supplies.[30]

The importance of involvement of school staff in policy formulation was observed by the Education Policies Commission, as is evident in the following quotation.

> The formulation of school policy should be a cooperative process capitalizing the intellectual resources of the whole school staff. . . . Some plan should be provided through which the constructive thinking of all the workers in a school system may be utilized.[31]

School policy, then, should be developed and formulated cooperatively by the teaching staff with the aid of the parents and pupils in the community. By the use of teacher aids and clerks to perform routine classroom operations and day-to-day management, the teacher will be relieved of details and will be able to apply time to policy formulation.

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[30]Fred Engelhardt, Public School Organization and Administration (New York: Ginn and Company, 1931), p. 158.

[31]Education Policies Commission, The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy (Washington: National Education Association of the United States, 1938), p. 67.

Adoption of policy. The adoption of school policy has been, and must remain, a function of the board of education. "That the board of education should adopt policies," in the words of Campbell, "is a principle seldom, if ever, questioned by those who believe in democratic administration."[32]

Thus, the staff formulates policy and submits it to the board of education for adoption. The board of education has the alternative of accepting staff-formulated policy and adopting it, or returning it to the staff for further consideration. If the board cannot accept proposed policy it should continue to work with the staff until such time that mutual agreement is reached and followed by board adoption.

Execution of policy. The role of the superintendent of schools and the rest of the administrative personnel should be to see to it that policy, as formulated by the total staff and community and adopted by the board of education, is properly executed. The responsibility of the administration of the school system is seeing that adopted policies are carried out, and that the school system runs smoothly within the framework of the adopted policies.

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[32]Campbell, "The Administrator Treads a Perilous Path," The Nation's Schools, XLIX, 50.

The execution of policy must be the ultimate responsibility of the superintendent of schools. Because of the limitations of span, he must employ and select others to assist him in these duties.

Within the confines of execution of policy, the traditional concept of line and staff may be in operation within the organization of the school.

Review of policy. The agency that formulates the policy--teachers and community--should also be the agency that reviews the functioning of the policy. In this capacity, the teachers and the community review the effectiveness of policies as their execution affects the operation of the educational program.

As policies are reviewed they will tend to be revised and new policies formulated. Such a process leads back to the beginning, and begins the cycle over again. This type of organization develops an ever-changing environment that will be able to facilitate the constantly fluctuating needs of the community and the society in which the schools function.

Superintendent of schools. The unique nature of the positions of superintendent of schools and other administrative personnel in this type of organization must receive special comment. Besides being an executor of policy, the superintendent must be the primary instructional leader of the school system. He must lead in all four phases of the operation. His motivation, along with the resources of the

rest of the administration, are keys to the success of any proposal. This, of course, does not mean to deny the leadership role of other employees who, under varying circumstances and situations, should be encouraged to assume leadership roles commensurate with their specific training and knowledge. This section, however, focuses attention on the superintendent of schools as in a leadership position.

In Educational Administration in a Changing World, the thirty-seventh yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, is the following quotation.

As executive officer of the board of education, according to the thirty-seventh yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, the superintendent

> . . . must serve as the key man in a team of educational leaders in developing and managing the educational program within broad guidelines of school district policy. His is the task of integrating a process of planning, managing, decision-making, research, and evaluation to the end that all resources of the district are brought to bear on the day-by-day educational influences effecting the boys and girls of the school district.[35]

A further statement by Campbell will help to crystallize the position of the school administrator;

> The public school administrator should be especially proficient in helping pupils, teachers,

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[35] American Association of School Administrators, Educational Administration in a Changing Community, Thirty-seventh Yearbook (Washington: The Association, 1958), p. 143.

> and citizens evolve programs for the furtherance of learning experience in the school and community. The primary task of the administrator should not be to put over his program, but to get people to think through their own programs.[36]

Thus the superintendent should operate at the execution position of the continuum through the total administrative staff. He must also be in the middle of the total organization in his leadership, motivation, and resource role. In this capacity the superintendent of schools becomes the most vital individual in the school system. When a leadership role of this nature is assumed in connection with the top executive position, the energies and creative potentials of hundreds of teachers and pupils are released. No other single position in any walk of life carries with it the opportunity for as worthwhile and far-reaching contribution to society and its members.

The following chart will serve as a graphic representation of this proposed organizational scheme.

VI. SUMMARY

This chapter has been concerned with the establishment of the democratic theory and philosophy of human relations as it relates to individual worth and dignity, the

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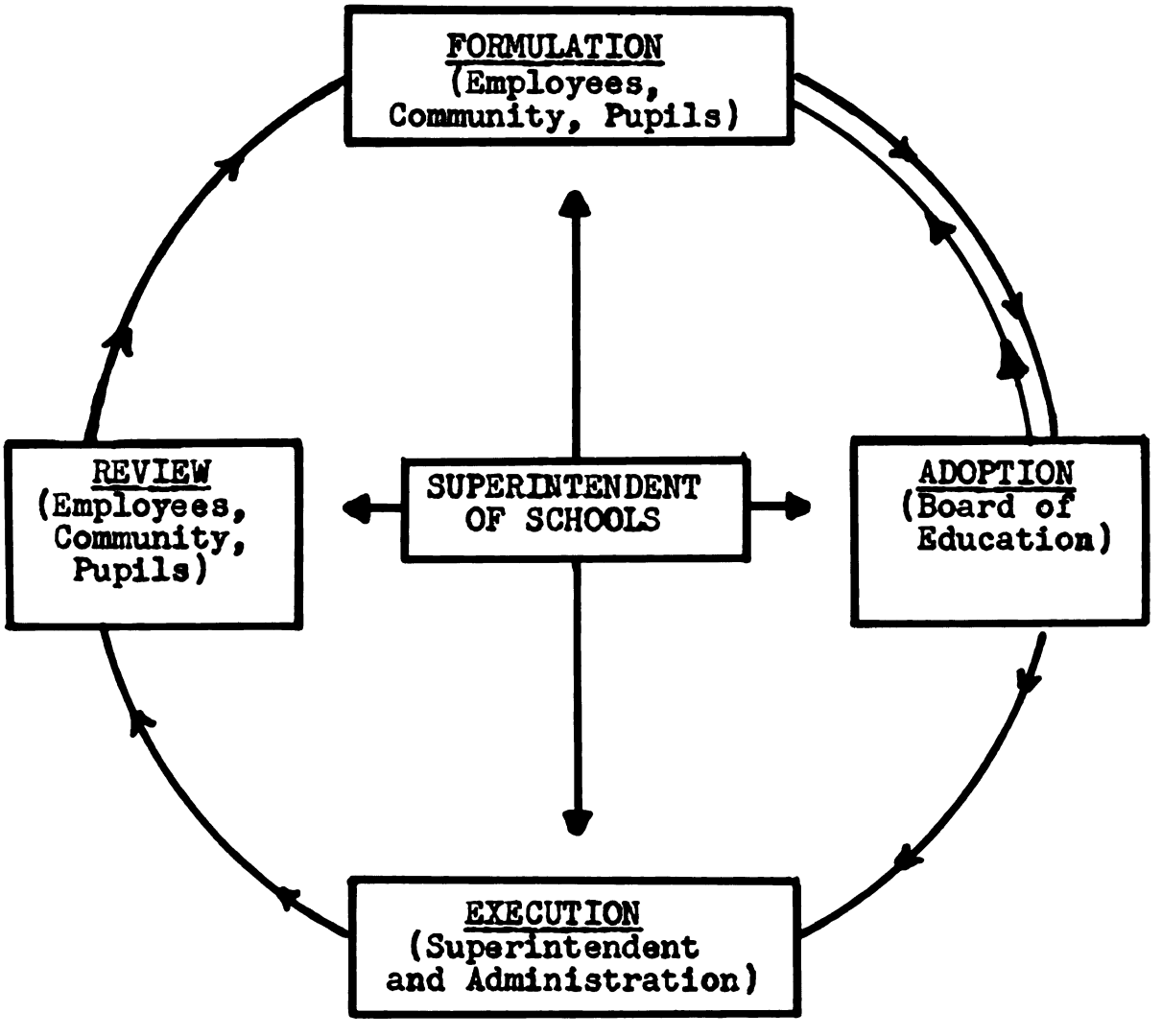
[36] Campbell, The American School Board Journal, CXXX (June, 1955), 32.

Chart I

THE EVOLUTION OF SCHOOL POLICY



The process is underlined while the agency with primary responsibility is in parenthesis. The superintendent appears in the center with leadership lines going to all phases.

development of the individual to the limit of his capacity, and cooperative participation as a mode of democratic decision making. The application of this philosophy to the general area of educational administration and to the principles of administrative organization selected in chapter III, was also covered.

The final concern of the chapter was to propose a specific scheme of organization for the public schools. This scheme was based upon the selected principles as they apply to the features of a democratic society, and more specifically, the institution of public education in such a society. The plan was based upon policy evolution with respect to (1) policy formulation, (2) policy adoption, (3) policy execution, and (4) policy review. It was suggested that (1) staff, with the aid of the community, formulate policy; (2) the board of education adopt policy; (3) the superintendent of schools, in conjunction with his administrative staff, execute policy; (4) the staff and community review policy; and (5) the superintendent act as leader and motivator of all phases of the operation.

It is within this mode of operation that the organizational procedures of the school districts in the state of Michigan, as determined by the questionnaire prepared for this study,[37] will be analyzed.

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[37]See Appendix.

CHAPTER V

PRESENTATION OF DATA

I. INTRODUCTION

To determine the existing patterns of administrative organization for instructional improvement, a questionnaire was developed and submitted to a disproportionate stratified random sample of public school districts in the state of Michigan. Disproportionate stratified random sample in this instance means that the total population was divided into five strata according to number of teachers employed and that different percentages of each stratum were selected at random to comprise the total sample. In each of the school districts included in the sample, the superintendent of schools was asked to complete the questionnaire in terms of school records and his personal opinion of his job and his school district operation.

This chapter will present the data obtained from the questionnaires that are pertinent to administrative organization for improved instruction. The chapter raises issues discovered from the responses that are relevant to specific data, presents the data in tabular form, and contains brief explanations of the tables developed.

Chapter VI will present an analysis of the issues raised. Chapter VII will further analyze the data presented herein in terms of the point of view developed earlier in chapter IV. Chapter VIII will discuss general findings of the dissertation.

II. ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Tables I, II, and III of chapter II presented the details of the original sampling technique. These tables, along with their descriptive information, verified the facts that (1) the total population for this study included public schools in the state of Michigan employing twenty-six or more teachers; (2) because of the size of the city of Detroit and the sparsity of schools in the Upper Peninsula of the state these areas were excluded; (3) the total sample contained 110 school districts from the total population; (4) questionnaires were submitted to the superintendents of schools of the districts included in the sample; and (5) the sample was divided into five strata, or groups, in terms of number of teachers employed.

Table IV presents data on the total population, the original sample, and number and per cent of usable questionnaires returned from each stratum. It can be seen from this table that the percentage of usable questionnaires returned in each group remained in the same relative ratio as the

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Table IV.--Analysis by Stratifications (Groups) of Total Population, Random Sample, and Useable Questionnaires Returned

Group	Total Population	Size of Sample	% of Group in Sample	No. of Useable Questionnaires Returned	% of Sample Returned	% of Total Population Returned
1	15	15	100.0	12	80.0	80.0
2	35	17	48.6	13	76.5	37.2
3	71	24	33.8	19	79.2	26.8
4	114	30	26.3	23	76.7	20.2
5	131	24	18.3	22	91.7	16.8
Total	366	110	30.1	89	80.9	24.4

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees

Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees

Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees

Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees

Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

original sampling percentage in each group. The original sample represented 30.1 per cent of the total population whereas the usable questionnaires represented 24.4 per cent of the total population. Thus, although the total sample dropped from 30.1 to 24.4 per cent, the relative proportion between groups remained constant.

The questionnaire was divided into three major areas: basic school district data, administrative personnel, and operational procedures. The data presentation, along with issues discovered, will follow the general make-up of these three broad areas. All data is presented with respect to the five groups (strata) so that comparisons can be made in terms of size of school districts.

III. BASIC SCHOOL DISTRICT DATA

The issues relating to basic school district data of school districts as they affect administrative organization are:

1. The relationship of geographic area of school districts and number and type of administrative personnel.
2. The relationship of size of school districts, as determined by number of teacher-certificated personnel, and number and type of administrative personnel.
3. The relationship between geographic area and size of school district as a combined factor effecting number and type of administrative personnel.

The number of buildings in, and area of, school districts in the sample are presented in Table V. This table presents information on number of elementary buildings,

Table V.--Analysis by Groups of Physical Features of School Districts

Group	Number of Buildings per District									Area of Districts in Square Miles		
	Elementary			Sr. High		Totals						
	Extremes	Means	Medians	Extremes	Means	Extremes	Means	Medians		Extremes	Means	Medians
1	14-37	25.0	25.0	1-4	2.00	16-40	27.0	27		13.0-112	40.5	30
2	5-22	11.3	10.0	1-2	1.08	6-23	12.4	11		4.0- 85	24.8	13
3	4-10	5.8	6.0	1-1	1.00	5-11	6.8	7		2.3-102	25.2	18
4	2-19	4.5	4.0	1-2	1.05	3-20	5.6	5		3.0-150	58.4	54
5	1- 4	1.6	1.0	1-2	1.05	2- 5	2.5	2		36.0-196	75.8	71

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees

Group 2 = 201 to 500 treacher certificated employees

Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees

Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees

Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extremes = minimum and maximum

number of senior high buildings, total number of buildings, and geographic area of school districts in square miles. By careful inspection of these data it can be seen that there are extreme variations in both number of buildings and geographic area within the school districts of any one group. For example, group 4 districts have between 2 and 19 elementary buildings, 1 and 2 senior high buildings: 3 and 20 total buildings, and have geographic areas varying from 3 to 150 square miles. Similar observations can be made in all groups. However, mean and median figures show that (1) there is a direct relationship between number of buildings and number of teachers employed, and (2) there is an inverse relationship between area of school districts and number of teachers employed.

IV. ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

The number and type of administrative personnel in school districts is fundamental to a study of administrative organization. Basic data of this nature is necessary before any analysis of the organizational procedures can be undertaken.

Teacher-administrator ratio. The issue with respect to teacher-administrator ratio is the relationship between number of teachers per administrator in various size school districts. Table VI reports the findings of the questionnaires with respect to this issue. An interesting observation

Table VI.--Analysis by Groups of Professional Personnel of School Districts

Group	Full-Time Administrators			Teacher Certificated Persons			Teacher-Administrator Ratio		
	Extremes	Means	Medians	Extremes	Means	Medians	Extremes	Means	Medians
1	7-126	54.0	50.0	491-1482	851	754	70-12	15.8	15.1
2	9-49	24.0	22.0	217- 540	375	376	24-11	15.6	17.1
3	5-15	9.5	9.5	103- 200	143	146	21-13	15.1	15.4
4	1- 7	4.0	4.0	51- 100	77	73	51-14	19.3	18.3
5	1- 3	2.0	2.0	25- 50	37	38	25-17	18.5	19.0

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees

Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees

Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees

Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees

Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extremes = minimum and maximum

that can be made from this table is the relative consistency of the mean and median teacher-administrator ratio. The mean ratio varies only from 15.1/1 to 18.5/1 while the median ratio varies only from 15.1/1 to 19.0/1. In contrast with these data, the extreme variation is actual teacher-administrator ratios shows a range from 11/1 to 70/1. Thus, it can be seen that there is a school district with one administrator for every 11 teacher-certificated employees while there is another school district with an administrator for every seventy teacher-certificated employees.

Teaching administrators. The issue here is that many school districts expect their administrators to teach along with the performance of their administrative duties. When an administrator is forced to devote part of his time to teaching, his administrative function is reduced. In the case of very small buildings, this situation may be a wise utilization of manpower, but whenever the administrator must devote part of his time to non-administrative tasks his leadership service and the effectiveness of his position is reduced.

Table VII analyzes the data collected on teaching administrators. It can be observed that both the number of teaching administrators and the per cent of their time devoted to teaching increases as the school districts get smaller.

Line and staff administrators. Data on teacher-administrator ratio and teaching administrators were

Table VII.--Analysis by Groups of Teaching Administrators

Group	No. of Dist. Employing	No. of Teaching Administrators				Mean Per Cent of Time Devoted to Administration			
		Ele. Prin.	Sr. High Prin.	Ele. Asst. Prin.	Sr. High Asst. Prin.	Ele. Prin.	Sr. High Prin.	Ele. Asst. Prin.	Sr. High Asst. Prin.
1	2	2	1			- - -	no data	- - -	
2	2	2	1			20		95	
3	4	1		5	3			85	25
4	17	26	4	1	3	49	66	83	39
5	11	9	7		1	50	61		

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees

Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees

Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees

Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees

Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

presented above. It now becomes necessary to discuss the kinds of administrative positions in existence in terms of their line or staff definition. The questionnaire defined line positions as being supervisory or authoritative in nature. Staff positions were defined as advisory or resource positions.

The issues here are:

1. The relative number of line and staff positions in school district organization.
2. Types of positions that are considered line or staff.
3. The degree of confusion that exists over the line or staff definition of various positions.
4. The degree that certain administrative positions are defined as line when they clearly should be staff positions; i.e., business managers, administrative assistants, and subject matter or grade level curriculum coordinators.

Table VIII compares the number of line and staff positions by groups. As would be expected, the mean number of both line and staff administrators decreases as the schools become smaller. The fact that the median figures agree favorably with the mean figures indicates that the spread of numbers of positions within groups is evenly distributed. Careful inspection of the data in this table shows that there is at least one district that reported no line administrators while another reported 48. Similarly, at least one district reported no staff administrators while one reported 37.

Tables IX, X, and XI analyze the line and staff interpretation of various administrative positions in

Table VIII.--Analysis by Groups of the Number of Administrative Personnel per District

	Number of Administrators					
	Line Administrators			Staff Administrators		
Group	Extremes	Means	Medians	Extremes	Means	Medians
1	0-48	31.3	31.0	0-37	17.4	18.5
2	13-25	19.1	19.0	0-32	9.8	8.0
3	4-25	9.5	9.0	0-16	3.9	1.5
4	0-18	5.7	5.0	0- 6	1.3	0.0
5	0- 4	2.6	3.0	0- 3	0.4	0.0

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees

Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees

Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees

Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees

Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extremes = minimum and maximum

Table IX.--Analysis by Groups of the Staff and Line Relationship of Elementary Administrative Positions

	Number of Persons Occupying Various Positions													
	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	
Group	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L
1		249			2			4			26		3	1
2		138	7		5		4	2			20		2	1
3	9	83			4	1	5	1			7		2	
4	8	53		2		3		3						3
5	4	15				1								

S = Staff L = Line

Types of positions referred to above are:

1. Elementary principals
2. Elementary Department Heads
3. Elementary Grade-Level Coordinators
4. Elementary Vice or Assistant Principals
5. Elementary Building Curriculum Coordinators
6. Elementary Subject Matter Coordinators
7. Elementary Curriculum Coordinators

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table X.--Analysis By Groups of the Staff and Line Relationship of Senior High Administrative Positions

	Number of Persons Occupying Various Positions																			
	14		15		16		17		18		19		20		25		26	
Group	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L
1		29	43	18			9	25			31		2		6		3	
2		14	50	26	5		4	12							6		6	1
3	1	19	5	19			1	11	1		4	1	1	1	2	2	2	2
4	3	21	2	15	1		2	3				1		1		1		1
5	2	20						1										

S = Staff L = Line

Types of positions referred to above:

14. Senior High Principals
15. Senior High Department Heads
16. Senior High Cross-Department Coordinators
17. Senior High Vice or Assistant Principals
18. Senior High Building Curriculum Coordinators
19. Senior High Subject Matter Coordinators
20. Senior High Curriculum Coordinators
25. Dean of Boys
26. Dean of Girls

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table XI.--Analysis by Groups of the Staff and Line Relationship of Central Office Administrative Positions

	Number of Persons Occupying Various Positions																			
	8		9		10		11		12		13		21		22		23		24	
Group	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L
1	10		4	4	2	8	2	10		4	14	1	4	6	5	5		1		3
2	2	2	6	2	2	9		12		1	1	1	1	2		2		7		
3	17		3	8	2	6	3	15	1	2	1	2		1		1		3	1	1
4	1	2	1	1	1		3	18	1	2	1		2	2						
5							2	19				1		1						

S = Staff L = Line

Types of positions referred to above:

8. All-School Curriculum Coordinators
9. Administrative Assistants
10. Business Managers
11. Superintendent of Schools
12. Director of Elementary Education
13. Director of Curriculum
21. Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Instruction
22. Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Personnel
23. Combination of Numbers 21 and 22
24. Director of Secondary Education

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

elementary, senior high, and central office administration respectively. It is interesting to note from these tables that there is confusion over the interpretation of many of these positions as to whether they are line or staff. Positions having the least agreement are; administrative assistants, senior high department heads, assistant superintendents in charge of instruction, and assistant superintendents in charge of personnel. Less critical but still indicating some confusion over status are the positions of; elementary principals, elementary grade-level coordinators, business managers, superintendents of schools, directors of curriculum, senior high principals, senior high vice or assistant principals, deans of boys, and deans of girls.

V. OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

The data that will best show the administrative organization of a school system, in terms of educational leadership, are those that show the methods of operation of various instructional procedures within the school system. The questionnaire attempted to determine these operational procedures in many ways and the data collected is presented in this section.

Committee involvement. The issues connected with committee involvement are:

1. The degree that it decentralizes organization.
2. The degree that it recognizes individual worth within the school system.

3. The degree that various positions are involved in committee action.
4. The degree that committee functions overlap.
5. The degree that committee functions are misunderstood by the superintendent of schools.
6. The relationship between use of various committees and size of school district.
7. The relative use of various committees by the school districts studied.

The types of committees studied in this investigation were administrative councils, building-curriculum committees, subject-matter or grade-level curriculum committees, system-wide curriculum committees, and citizens curriculum-advisory councils. The tabulation of the physical data found on these committees is presented in Tables XII, XIII, XIV, XV, and XVI respectively.

Table XII shows that administrative councils are quite common in all school districts except those in group 5. Here only 22.7 per cent of the districts reported having administrative councils. Comparable data on districts in groups 1, 2, 3, and 4 are 83.3, 100.0, 94.4, and 74.0 respectively. Table XII also indicates that the size of the council is directly proportional to the size of the district. In the larger districts of groups 1 and 2, the data on number of persons comprising these councils show extreme variations of from 5 to 60 in group 1, to 6 to 34 in group 2.

Positions that are common to all administrative councils are: superintendents of schools, senior high principals, and elementary principals. Larger districts also include: administrative assistants, assistant superintendents, and curriculum coordinators.

Table XII.--Analysis by Groups of Use of Administrative Councils in School Districts

Group	No. of Districts	No. and % of Districts Having Committees		Number of Persons on		Per Cent of Committees with Positions							
		No.	Per Cent	Extremes	Means	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	12	10	83.3	5-60	30.0	100	60	70	60	90	80	60	50
2	13	13	100.0	6-34	16.0	92	39	77		85	39	85	54
3	19	17	94.4	5-16	9.6	100	65	100		35	41	94	29
4	23	17	74.0	3- 7	5.0	100	6	100		24	12	94	6
5	22	5	22.7	3- 5	3.6	100		100				100	

Types of positions referred to above:

1. Superintendent of Schools
2. Administrative Assistant
3. Senior High Principal
4. Department Heads
5. Assistant Superintendent
6. Business Manager
7. Elementary Principal
8. Curriculum Coordinator

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extremes = minimum and maximum

Table XIII.--Analysis by Groups of Use of Building Curriculum Committees in School Districts

Group	No. of Districts	No. and % of Districts Having Committees		Number of Persons on		Per Cent of Committees with Positions					
		No.	Per Cent	Extremes	Means	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	12	6	50	6-13	9.2	17	100	33	83	50	50
2	13	10	77	5-33	10.4	40	100	10	80	50	40
3	19	14	78	5- 7	5.8	21	100	21	79	43	43
4	23	18	78	3-10	6.3	22	94		94	17	22
5	22	12	55	3-36	8.8	8	100	8	92		

Type of positions referred to above:

1. Curriculum Coordinators
2. Teachers
3. Subject-Matter Coordinators
4. Building Principals
5. Department Heads
6. Assistant Principals

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extreme = minimum and maximum

Table XIV.--Analysis by Groups of Use of Subject Matter or Grade Level Curriculum Committees in School Districts

Group	No. of Districts	No. and % of Districts Having Committees		Number of Persons on		Per Cent of Commiteees with Positions					
		No.	Per Cent	Extremes	Means	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	12	9	75	8- 35	16.3	100	100	67	44	56	67
2	13	13	100	8- 17	9.8	85	92	38	15	8	46
3	19	17	94	5-150	8.0	71	94	35	12	41	12
4	23	19	83	3- 15	6.0	84	95	16	16	16	21
5	22	12	55	3- 40	7.3	83	100	8	8		8

Type of positions referred to above:

1. Building Principals
2. Teachers
3. Subject Matter Coordinators
4. Assistant Principals
5. Counselors
6. Department Heads

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extremes = minimum and maximum

Table XV.--Analysis by Groups of Use of System-Wide Curriculum Committees in School Districts

Group	No. of Districts	No. and % of Districts Having Committees		Number of Persons on		Per Cent of Committees with Positions						
		No.	Per Cent	Extremes	Means	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	12	10	83	8- 45	23.1	20	30	40	100	60	10	100
2	13	10	77	11- 40	20.9	40	30	20	100	60	20	90
3	19	13	72	7-200	57.3	77	31	23	100	15	31	69
4	23	9	39	2- 86	23.6	89		33	89	22	11	78
5	22	9	41	5 -52	22.9	67		11	89	11		100

Type of positions referred to above:

1. Superintendent of Schools
2. System-Wide Curriculum Coordinators
3. Subject Matter or Grade Level Curriculum Coordinators
4. Building Principals
5. Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Instruction or Curriculum
6. Building Curriculum Coordinators
7. Teachers

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extremes = minimum and maximum

Table XVI.--Analysis by Groups of Use of Citizens Curriculum Committees in School Districts

Group	Number of Districts	Number and Per Cent of Districts Having Committees	
		Number	Per Cent
1	12	2	17
2	13	1	8
3	19	5	28
4	23	2	9
5	22	4	18

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table XIII shows that about three quarters of the districts questioned have building curriculum committees and that the mean size of these committees is fairly constant regardless of size of district. The positions of persons most often found on these committees are teachers and building principals. In larger districts, department heads and assistant principals often are added.

The use and composition of subject-matter or grade-level curriculum committees is analyzed in Table XIV. These kinds of committees are used rather commonly in group 1, 2, 3, and 4 schools--from 100 to 75 per cent of the time--but by only 55 per cent of group 5 schools. The size of these committees varies from 3 to 150 persons with mean sizes being relatively constant in all but group 1 schools. These data indicate that building principals and teachers are the only persons on committees common to all sizes of school districts.

System-wide curriculum committees are reported often by large schools--72 to 83 per cent of the time--but less often by smaller schools, as shown in Table XV. The extremes of membership are from 2 to 200; but, except for group 3, the mean memberships are even. Positions on these committees most common to all groups are building principals and teachers. Large districts add assistant superintendents in charge of instruction, and small districts add the superintendent of schools.

Table XVI indicates that citizens curriculum advisory councils are not uniformly accepted by the districts in this sample. The percentages of districts reporting them is both small and inconsistent between groups.

Committee function. The questionnaire asked the superintendent to indicate, in open-ended questions, the primary function of the various committees discussed above. These data are tabulated in Table XVII. The table lists the functions reported by the superintendents in broad areas, and shows the number of groups of districts responding and number of individual responses for each function. As can be observed from this table, administrative councils have the widest variety of functions, while system-wide curriculum committees have more limited functions with considerable agreement among superintendents as to their functions.

Involvement of the superintendent. The issue discovered in relation to this set of data are:

1. The degree to which excessive personal contacts by the superintendent affect his leadership role.
2. The degree to which superintendents of schools are using acceptable span of supervision theory.
3. The extent of local leadership exerted by the superintendent, as indicated by kinds of positions he has contacts with most frequently and the frequency of these contacts.
4. The conflict between responsibility and accessability to the superintendent.

Table XVIII analyzes the number of different people the superintendent comes in contact with, in a professional

Table XVII.--Primary Functions of School Committees as Perceived by the Superintendent of Schools

Administrative Councils (5)	G	T
Coordination	5	26
Recommend policies	5	16
Advisory to the superintendent	4	14
Establish polcies	4	11
Planning	4	10
Communication	3	9
Review policies	3	8
Evaluation	2	7
Interpret policies	2	5
Curriculum	2	5
Execute policies	1	1
Instructional leadership	1	1
Social	1	1
Create and improve functional organization	1	1
Building Curriculum Committees (5)		
Improved instruction	5	38
Recommend improvements	5	25
Evaluation	5	16
Coordination	3	9
Select materials	5	8
Review research	2	7
Develop programs	2	5
Advisory	1	1
New buildings	1	1

G = Number of groups reporting.
T = Total number of times reported.
( ) = Number of groups having the committee.

TABLE XVII (Continued)

Subject Matter or Grade-Level Curriculum Committees (5)	G	T
Select materials	3	21
Evaluation	5	17
Develop curriculum	5	16
Study curriculum	4	12
Steering and coordination	4	10
Recommend policies	3	9
Planning	3	8
Instructional improvement	2	7
Review research	1	3
Advisory	1	2
Standardize curriculum	1	2
Improve teaching	1	1
System-Wide Curriculum Committees (5)		
Develop general curriculum	5	23
Coordination	5	11
Evaluation	4	9
Recommend policies	3	9
Develop specific curriculum	3	4
Citizens Curriculum Committees (5)		
Advisory to the board of education	5	8
Specific problems	5	8
General study	3	4
Communication	2	2
Advisory to the superintendent	1	1
Advisory to the staff	1	1
Evaluation	1	1

G = Number of groups reporting.
T = Total number of times reported.
( ) = Number of groups having the committee.

Table XVIII.--Analysis by Groups of Professional Contacts by the Superintendent per Week

Group	No. of Districts	Per Cent of Responses							
		0-15	15-30	13-50	51-75	76-100	101-200	201-500	Over 500
1	12		25	33	33	8			
2	13		38	15	15		15	8	
3	19	6	41	18	12	6	12	6	
4	23	9	23	27	14	23	5		
5	22	19	29	24	29				

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

way, during an average week. The responses show that the number falls between 15 and 75 persons. Fourteen per cent of the superintendents reported between 200 and 500 contacts per week, and 34 per cent reported between 0 and 15 contacts per week.

Tables XIX, XX, XXI, XXII, and XXIII report the data obtained from the question regarding how often the superintendent has contacts with specific persons in his school district weekly. These tables compare the superintendents' responses by group with the responses of all of the superintendents. The figures are reported in percentages so that comparisons can be made between groups and positions. For example, Table XIX shows that 83.4 per cent of the superintendents in group 1 have between 0 and 5 contacts with their high school principals per week, and 36.4 per cent of all of the superintendents have between 0 and 5 contacts with their high school principals per week. By reading other tables, it can be seen that comparable figures for groups 2, 3, 4, and 5 are 76.9, 27.8, 20.0, and 9.2. per cent respectively. Similar comparisons can be made for each interval of number of contacts and for each person listed.

When asked the number of employees directly responsible to them, superintendents responsed as shown in Table XXIV. When asked the question, "How many of the following persons have <u>direct access</u> to you concerning a professional matter

Table XIX.--Number of Contacts Per Week by Group One Superintendents with Various Persons in Comparison with all Superintendents

Persons	No. of Positions in Group 1	Total No. of Positions	Per Cent of Superintendents Reporting Various Numbers of Contacts Per Week							
			0-5		5-10		10-20		20-50	
			Gp. 1	Total	Gp. 1	Total	Gp. 1	Total	Gp. 1	Total
Assistant Superintendent	12	40	41.7	(22.5)	8.3	(17.5)	33.3	(40.0)	16.7	(20.0)
Adm. Assistant	12	34	50.0	(29.5)	16.7	(26.4)	16.7	(20.6)	16.6	(23.5)
High School Principal	12	85	83.4	(36.4)	8.3	(30.6)	8.3	(22.4)		(10.6)
Elementary Principal	12	78	75.0	(47.5)	25.0	(25.7)		(20.5)		(6.5)
High School Teachers	12	83	83.4	(60.3)	16.7	(14.5)		(15.6)		(9.6)
Elementary Teachers	12	83	91.7	(61.5)	8.3	(20.5)		(8.4)		(9.6)
Department Heads	11	34	100.0	(82.4)		(14.7)		(2.9)		
Program Directors	12	31	66.7	(64.5)	25.0	(25.8)	8.3	(9.7)		
Pupils	12	79	91.7	(63.4)		(16.4)		(10.1)	8.3	(10.1)
Parents	12	84	58.4	(55.9)	8.3	(26.2)	33.3	(15.5)		(2.4)
Business Manager	9	32	22.2	(18.7)	33.3	(37.5)	33.3	(37.5)	11.2	(6.3)
Citizens on Civic or School Affairs	12	83	16.7	(44.6)	66.7	(34.8)		(8.4)	16.6	(13.2)

Gp. 1 = Group 1 (12 returns). Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XX.--Number of Contacts Per Week by Group Two Superintendents with Various Persons in Comparison with All Superintendents

Persons	No. of Positions in Group 2	Total No. of Positions	Per Cent of Superintendents Reporting Various Numbers of Contacts Per Week							
			0-5		5-10		10-20		20-50	
			Gp. 2	Total	Gp. 2	Total	Gp. 2	Total	Gp. 2	Total
Asst. Superintendent	12	40		(22.5)	25.0	(17.5)	58.3	(40.0)	16.7	(20.0)
Adm. Assistant	8	34		(29.5)	37.5	(26.4)	37.5	(20.6)	25.0	(23.5)
High School Principal	13	85	76.9	(36.4)	23.1	(30.6)		(22.4)		(10.6)
Elementary Principal	12	78	75.1	(47.5)	8.3	(25.7)	8.3	(20.5)	8.3	(6.5)
High School Teachers	12	83	91.7	(60.3)		(14.5)	8.3	(15.6)		(9.6)
Elementary Teachers	12	83	91.7	(61.5)		(20.5)	8.3	(8.4)		(9.6)
Department Heads	10	34	90.0	(82.4)	10.0	(14.7)		(2.9)		
Program Directors	12	31	66.7	(64.5)	25.0	(25.8)	8.3	(9.7)		
Pupils	12	79	83.3	(63.4)	16.7	(16.4)		(10.1)		(10.1)
Parents	12	84	58.3	(55.9)	25.1	(26.2)	8.3	(15.5)	8.3	(2.4)
Business Manager	10	32		(18.7)	40.0	(37.5)	50.0	(37.5)	10.0	(6.3)
Citizens on Civic or School Affairs	13	83	53.8	(44.6)	30.8	(34.8)	7.7	(8.4)	7.7	(13.2)

Gp. 2 = Group 2 (13 returns). Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXI.--Number of Contacts Per Week by Group Three Superintendents with Various Persons in Comparison with All Superintendents

Persons	No. of Positions in Group 3	Total No. of Positions	Per Cent of Superintendents Reporting Various Numbers of Contacts Per Week							
			0-5		5-10		10-20		20-50	
			Gp. 3	Total	Gp. 3	Total	Gp. 3	Total	Gp. 3	Total
Asst. Superintendent	9	40	22.2	(22.5)	22.2	(17.5)	33.4	(40.0)	22.2	(20.0)
Adm. Assistant	11	34	18.2	(29.5)	36.3	(26.4)	18.2	(20.6)	27.3	(23.5)
High School Principal	18	85	27.8	(36.4)	33.3	(30.6)	27.8	(22.4)	11.1	(10.6)
Elementary Principal	18	78	50.0	(47.5)	27.8	(25.7)	16.7	(20.5)	5.5	(6.5)
High School Teachers	17	83	76.5	(60.3)	5.9	(14.5)	17.6	(15.6)		(9.6)
Elementary Teachers	17	83	76.5	(61.5)	17.6	(20.5)	5.9	(8.4)		(9.6)
Department Heads	7	34	71.5	(82.4)	28.5	(14.7)		(2.9)		
Program Directors	4	31	50.0	(64.5)	25.0	(25.8)	25.0	(9.7)		
Pupils	16	79	75.0	(63.4)	12.5	(16.4)	12.5	(10.1)		(10.1)
Parents	21	84	76.3	(55.9)	19.0	(26.2)	4.7	(15.5)		(2.4)
Business Manager	7	32	14.4	(18.7)	42.8	(37.5)	42.8	(37.5)		(6.3)
Citizens on Civic or School Affairs	19	83	58.0	(44.6)	26.3	(34.8)		(8.4)	15.7	(13.2)

Gp. 3 = Group 3 (19 returns). Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXII.--Number of Contacts Per Week by Group Four Superintendents with Various Persons in Comparison with All Superintendents

Persons	No. of Positions in Group 4	Total No. of Positions	Per Cent of Superintendents Reporting Various Numbers of Contacts Per Week							
			0-5		5-10		10-20		20-50	
			Gp. 4	Total	Gp. 4	Total	Gp. 4	Total	Gp. 4	Total
Asst. Superintendent	6	40	16.7	(22.5)	16.7	(17.5)	33.3	(40.0)	33.3	(20.0)
Adm. Assistant	2	34	50.0	(29.5)		(26.4)		(20.6)	50.0	(23.5)
High School Principal	20	85	20.0	(36.4)	35.0	(30.6)	35.0	(22.4)	10.0	(10.6)
Elementary Principal	21	78	38.1	(47.5)	19.0	(25.7)	38.1	(20.5)	4.8	(6.5)
High School Teachers	21	83	57.2	(60.3)	19.0	(14.5)	9.5	(15.6)	14.3	(9.6)
Elementary Teachers	21	83	57.2	(61.5)	23.8	(20.5)	9.5	(8.4)	9.5	(9.6)
Department Heads	4	34	50.0	(82.4)	25.0	(14.7)	25.0	(2.9)		
Program Directors	1	31	100.0	(64.5)		(25.8)		(9.7)		
Pupils	20	79	75.0	(63.4)	10.0	(16.4)	10.0	(10.1)	5.0	(10.1)
Parents	20	84	45.0	(55.8)	35.0	(26.2)	15.0	(15.5)	5.0	(2.4)
Business Manager	4	32	50.0	(18.7)	25.0	(37.5)	25.0	(37.5)		(6.3)
Citizens on Civic or School Affairs	19	83	47.4	(44.6)	31.6	(34.8)	10.5	(8.4)	10.5	(13.2)

Gp. 4 = Group 4 (23 returns). Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXII.--Number of Contacts Per Week by Group Four Superintendents with Various Persons in Comparison with All Superintendents

Persons	No. of Positions in Group 4	Total No. of Positions	Per Cent of Superintendents Reporting Various Numbers of Contacts Per Week							
			0-5		5-10		10-20		20-50	
			Gp. 4	Total	Gp. 4	Total	Gp. 4	Total	Gp. 4	Total
Asst. Superintendent	6	40	16.7	(22.5)	16.7	(17.5)	33.3	(40.0)	33.3	(20.0)
Adm. Assistant	2	34	50.0	(29.5)		(26.4)		(20.6)	50.0	(23.5)
High School Principal	20	85	20.0	(36.4)	35.0	(30.6)	35.0	(22.4)	10.0	(10.6)
Elementary Principal	21	78	38.1	(47.5)	19.0	(25.7)	38.1	(20.5)	4.8	(6.5)
High School Teachers	21	83	57.2	(60.3)	19.0	(14.5)	9.5	(15.6)	14.3	(9.6)
Elementary Teachers	21	83	57.2	(61.5)	23.8	(20.5)	9.5	(8.4)	9.5	(9.6)
Department Heads	4	34	50.0	(82.4)	25.0	(14.7)	25.0	(2.9)		
Program Directors	1	31	100.0	(64.5)		(25.8)		(9.7)		
Pupils	20	79	75.0	(63.4)	10.0	(16.4)	10.0	(10.1)	5.0	(10.1)
Parents	20	84	45.0	(55.8)	35.0	(26.2)	15.0	(15.5)	5.0	(2.4)
Business Manager	4	32	50.0	(18.7)	25.0	(37.5)	25.0	(37.5)		(6.3)
Citizens on Civic or School Affairs	19	83	47.4	(44.6)	31.6	(34.8)	10.5	(8.4)	10.5	(13.2)

Gp. 4 = Group 4 (23 returns). Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXIII.--Number of Contacts Per Week by Group Five Superintendents with Various Persons in Comparison with All Superintendents

Persons	No. of Positions in Group 5	Total No. of Positions	Per Cent of Superintendents Reporting Various Numbers of Contacts Per Week							
			0-5		5-10		10-20		20-50	
			Gp. 5	Total	Gp. 5	Total	Gp. 5	Total	Gp. 5	Total
Asst. Superintendent	1	40	100.0	(22.5)		(17.5)		(40.0)		(20.0)
Adm. Assistant	1	34	100.0	(29.5)		(26.4)		(20.6)		(23.5)
High School Principal	22	85	9.2	(36.4)	40.8	(30.6)	27.3	(22.4)	22.7	(10.6)
Elementary Principal	15	78	13.3	(47.5)	46.7	(25.7)	26.7	(20.5)	13.3	(6.5)
High School Teachers	21	83	19.1	(60.3)	23.8	(14.5)	33.3	(15.6)	23.8	(9.6)
Elementary Teachers	21	83	19.1	(61.5)	38.1	(20.5)	14.3	(8.4)	28.5	(9.6)
Department Heads	2	34	50.0	(82.4)	50.0	(14.7)		(2.9)		
Program Directors	2	31	50.0	(64.5)	50.0	(25.8)		(9.7)		
Pupils	19	79	10.5	(63.4)	36.8	(16.4)	21.1	(10.1)	31.6	(10.1)
Parents	19	84	42.1	(55.9)	36.8	(26.2)	21.1	(15.5)		(2.4)
Business Manager	2	32	50.0	(18.7)	50.0	(37.5)		(37.5)		(6.3)
Citizens on Civic or School Affairs	20	83	40.0	(44.6)	25.0	(34.8)	20.0	(8.4)	15.0	(13.2)

Gp. 5 = Group 5 (22 returns). Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXIV.--Analysis by Groups of Persons Directly Responsible to the Superintendent

	Number of Persons		
Group	Extremes	Means	Medians
1	4- 28	8.7	5.5
2	2-400	41.4	10.0
3	2-136	38.0	11.0
4	2-140	26.7	8.0
5	3- 80	25.9	19.5

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extremes = minimum and maximum

without permission or previous discussion with one of your subordinate administrators? (Please ignore whatever open-door policy you may have regarding your employees.)," they responded with the data tabulated in Tables XXV and XXVI. The data presented in Tables XXIV and XXV are contradictory in that one set of data reports persons with direct access to the superintendent at a mean of between 7.9 and 5.8 and the other reports the number of persons directly responsible to the superintendent at a widely varying mean of between 41.4 and 8.7.

Table XXVI presents the percentage figures on specific positions with direct access to the superintendent. For example, all assistant superintendents, administrative assistants, curriculum coordinators, and business managers reported in this study have direct access to the superintendent. As school districts become larger, the number of persons with direct access to the superintendent becomes smaller.

Duties of administrators. The issues connected with this section of the questionnaire are:

1. The degree to which the superintendents perform tasks and spend time in activities of a local, educational-leadership nature.
2. The determination of who the instructional leader of the school system is.
3. The conflict between the declared or perceived educational leader and the actual, in practice, educational leader.
4. The degree that centralized or decentralized organization is in operation in the public schools.
5. The degree that shared responsibility is being practiced in public school administrative organization.

Table XXV.--Number of Positions by Groups with Direct Access to the Superintendent

	Number of Positions		
Group	Extremes	Means	Medians
1	3-14	7.9	7.5
2	3-14	7.9	7.0
3	3-14	6.3	5.5
4	3- 9	5.8	6.0
5	3- 9	5.8	6.0

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Extremes = minimum and maximum

Table XXVI.--Analysis by Groups of Existing Positions Which Have Direct Access to the Superintendent

Gp.	No. of Dist.	A No.	A %	B No.	B %	C No.	C %	D No.	D %	E No.	E %	F No.	F %	G No.	G %	H No.	H %	I No.	I %	J No.	J %	K No.	K %	L No.	L %	M No.	M %	N No.	N %
		Number of Districts Having Position and Per Cent with Direct Access																											
1	12	11	100	9	100	12	83	12	83	12	17	12	17	6	33	7	71	10	100	12	25	12	58	10	100	12	50	12	67
2	13	12	100	9	100	13	85	12	69	13	31	13	31	8	38	4	100	7	100	13	23	13	85	11	100	13	54	13	62
3	19	10	100	10	100	18	89	18	89	18	22	18	28	5	60	6	50	9	100	18	17	18	61	8	100	18	33	18	50
4	23	6	100	2	100	23	91	23	96	23	61	23	57	4	25	3	33	3	100	23	26	23	91	5	100	23	26	23	35
5	22	1	100			22	100	18	94	22	82	22	82	1	100	1	100	2	100	22	41	22	96	1	100	22	37	22	41

A. Asst. Supt.
B. Adm. Asst.
C. High School Prin.
D. Ele. Principal
E. High School Teacher
F. Ele. Teacher
G. Dept. Head
H. Program Director
I. Curriculum Coordinator
J. Pupils
K. Parents
L. Business Manager
M. Ad Hoc Staff Committee
N. Ad Hoc Citizens Committees

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 - 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table XXVII.--Time Devoted to Various Activities by Group One Superintendents in Comparison with All Superintendets

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp. 1	Total	Gp.1	Total	Gp. 1	Total	Gp.1	Total	Gp. 1	Total
Professional meetings and organizations	30	(44.6)	50	(38.6)	10	(8.4)	10	(9.6)		
Professional reading	40	(72.3)	60	(26.5)		(7.2)				
Working on budget	60	(50.6)	40	(33.5)		(10.8)		(2.4)		(1.2)
Supervising transportation	100	(89.2)		(9.6)		(1.2)				
Supervising cafeteria	100	(95.2)		(1.2)		(1.2)				
Supervising maintainence	100	(83.1)		(12.0)		(3.6)				
Planning for board meetings	20	(31.3)	30	(51.8)	30	(18.1)	20	(2.4)		(1.2)
Planning for new facilities	30	(51.8)	50	(30.1)	20	(9.6)		(4.8)		(2.4)
Meeting with administrative council	60	(79.5)	30	(14.5)	10	(3.6)				
Meeting with committees	30	(53.0)	50	(33.7)	20	(8.4)		(2.4)		
Details of office mgt.	70	(61.4)	20	(26.5)	10	(9.6)		(3.6)		(1.2)

Table XXVII - Continued

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-50%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp. 1	Total	Gp. 1	Total	Gp. 1	Total	Gp. 1	Total	Gp. 1	Total
Meeting with parents	50	(72.3)	40	(21.7)		(2.4)				
Discussing curriculum:										
With principals	30	(33.7)	40	(44.6)	20	(12.0)	10	(8.4)		(2.4)
With teachers	60	(65.1)	50	(20.5)		(9.6)		(2.4)		(1.2)
With citizens	70	(74.7)	10	(13.3)	10	(7.2)		(1.2)		(1.2)
Community activities	20	(28.9)	30	(41.0)	30	(25.3)	20	(4.8)		
Correspondence and reports		(8.4)	30	(48.2)	60	(31.3)	10	(8.4)		(1.2)

Gp. 1 = Group 1 superintendents (12 returns).

Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

In an attempt to determine the actual duties or functions of various administrative positions, as perceived by the superintendent, three different questions were asked. The first question asked the per cent of the superintendents' time devoted to seventeen activities. The data collected regarding this question is presented as the per cent of superintendents in each group answering in each percentage time band. Similar data were compiled for the total sample so that the individual group figures may be compared with the over-all figures. Tables XXVII, XXVIII, XXIX, XXX, and XXXI present this information for groups 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively. Thus, it can be seen that 60 per cent of group 1 superintendents spend between 5 and 10 per cent of their time at professional reading, while 26.5 per cent of all superintendents spend a similar amount of their time at this activity. Comparable figures for groups 2, 3, 4, and 5 are 8.3, 22.2, 13.6, and 28.6 per cent respectively.

The second question asked which person or persons actually perform a variety of tasks the majority of the time. These tasks were tabulated in terms of the broad areas of supervision and discipline, committees and meetings, and management and administrative details. Tables XXXII, XXXIII, and XXXIV show the person or persons receiving the greatest percentage of responses for each group and for the total sample. It can been seen from these data that, except for the area of management and administrative details, the

Table XXVIII.--Time Devoted to Various Activities by Group Two Superintendents in Comparison with All Superintendents

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp.2	Total	Gp.2	Total	Gp.2	Total	Gp.2	Total	Gp.2	Total
Professional meetings and organizations	41.7	(44.6)	50.0	(38.6)	8.3	(8.4)		(9.6)		
Professional reading	83.3	(72.3)	8.3	(26.5)	8.3	(7.2)				
Working of budget	66.7	(50.6)	33.3	(33.5)	8.3	(10.8)		(2.4)		(1.2)
Supervising transportation	100.0	(89.2)		(9.6)		(1.2)				
Supervising cafeteria	100.0	(95.2)		(1.2)		(1.2)				
Supervising maintainence	83.3	(83.1)	16.7	(12.0)		(3.6)				
Planning for board meetings	33.3	(31.3)	58.3	(51.8)	25.0	(18.1)		(2.4)		(1.2)
Planning for new facilities	41.7	(51.8)	41.7	(30.1)	16.7	(9.6)	8.3	(4.8)		(2.4)
Meeting with administrative council	83.3	(79.5)	16.7	(14.5)		(3.6)				
Meeting with committees	33.3	(53.0)	66.7	(33.7)		(8.4)		(2.4)		
Details of office mgt.	66.7	(61.4)	25.0	(26.5)		(9.6)	8.3	(3.6)		(1.2)

Table XXVIII - Continued

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp.2	Total	Gp.2	Total	Gp.2	Total	Gp.2	Total	Gp.2	Total
Meeting with parents	83.3	(72.3)	16.7	(21.7)		(2.4)				
Discussing curriculum: With principals	33.3	(33.7)	58.3	(44.6)	8.3	(12.0)		(8.4)		(2.4)
With teachers	91.7	(65.1)		(20.5)	8.3	(9.6)		(2.4)		(1.2)
With citizens	83.3	(74.7)	8.3	(13.3)	8.3	(7.2)		(1.2)		(1.2)
Community activities	33.3	(28.9)	25.0	(41.0)	33.3	(25.3)	8.3	(4.8)		
Correspondence and reports	16.7	(8.4)	41.7	(48.2)	25.0	(31.3)	16.7	(8.4)		(1.2)

Gp. 2 = Group 2 superintendents (13 returns).

Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXIX.--Time Devoted to Various Activities by Group Three Superintendents in Comparison with All Superintendents

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp.3	Total	Gp.3	Total	Gp.3	Total	Gp.3	Total	Gp.3	Total
Professional meetings and organizations	38.9	(44.6)	22.2	(38.6)	16.7	(8.4)	22.2	(9.6)		
Professional reading	72.2	(72.3)	5.6	(26.5)	22.2	(7.2)				
Working on budget	38.9	(50.6)	38.9	(33.5)	11.1	(10.8)	5.6	(2.4)		(1.2)
Supervising transportation	100.0	(89.2)		(9.6)		(1.2)				
Superivising cafeteria	100.0	(95.2)		(1.2)		(1.2)				
Supervising maintainence	94.4	(83.1)		(12.0)	5.6	(3.6)				
Planning for board meetings	16.7	(31.3)	55.6	(51.8)	27.8	(18.1)		(2.4)		(1.2)
Planning for new facilities	38.9	(51.8)	27.8	(30.1)	11.1	(9.6)	11.1	(4.8)	5.6	(2.4)
Meeting with administrative council	55.6	(79.5)	33.3	(14.5)	11.1	(3.6)				
Meeting with committees	33.3	(53.0)	38.9	(33.7)	11.1	(8.4)	11.1	(2.4)		
Details of office management	61.1	(61.4)	27.8	(26.5)	5.6	(9.6)	5.6	(3.6)		(1.2)

Table XXIX - Continued

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp.3	Total	Gp.3	Total	Gp.3	Total	Gp.3	Total	Gp.3	Total
Meeting with parents	66.7	(72.3)	33.3	(21.7)		(2.4)				
Discussing curriculum: With principals	16.7	(33.7)	44.4	(44.6)	16.7	(12.0)	22.2	(8.4)		(2.4)
With teachers	50.0	(65.1)	16.7	(20.5)	22.2	(9.6)	11.1	(2.4)		(1.2)
With citizens	55.6	(74.7)	33.3	(13.3)	5.6	(7.2)	5.6	(1.2)		(1.2)
Community activities	27.8	(28.9)	33.3	(41.0)	38.9	(25.3)		(4.8)		
Correspondence and reports	11.1	(8.4)	55.6	(48.2)	16.7	(31.3)	16.7	(8.4)		(1.2)

Gp. 3 = Group 3 superintendents (19 returns).

Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXX.--Time Devoted to Various Activities by Group Four Superintendents in Comparison with All Superintendents

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp.4	Total	Gp.4	Total	Gp.4	Total	Gp.4	Total	Gp.4	Total
Professional meetings and organizations	50.0	(44.6)	36.4	(38.6)	4.5	(8.4)	13.6	(9.6)		
Professional reading	81.8	(72.3)	13.6	(26.5)		(7.2)				
Working on budget	45.5	(50.6)	31.8	(33.5)	22.7	(10.8)		(2.4)		(1.2)
Supervising transportation	86.4	(89.2)	4.5	(9.6)	4.5	(1.2)				
Supervising cafeteria	90.9	(95.2)		(1.2)	4.5	(1.2)				
Supervising maintainence	72.7	(83.1)	18.2	(12.0)	4.5	(3.6)				
Planning for board meetings	40.9	(31.3)	59.1	(51.8)	9.1	(18.1)		(2.4)		(1.2)
Planning for new facilities	63.6	(51.8)	27.3	(30.1)	4.5	(9.6)		(4.8)	4.5	(2.4)
Meeting with administrative council	95.5	(79.5)	4.5	(14.5)		(3.6)				
Meeting with committees	81.8	(53.0)	13.6	(33.7)	4.5	(8.4)		(2.4)		
Details of office management	72.7	(61.4)	18.2	(26.5)	4.5	(9.6)		(3.6)	4.5	(1.2)

Table XXX - Continued

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp.4	Total	Gp.4	Total	Gp.4	Total	Gp.4	Total	Gp. 4	Total
Meeting with parents	90.9	(72.3)	4.5	(21.4)	4.5	(2.4)				
Discussing curriculum: With principals	45.5	(33.7)	31.8	(44.6)	9.1	(12.0)	4.5	(8.4)	9.1	(2.4)
With teachers	77.3	(65.1)	9.1	(20.5)	9.1	(9.6)		(2.4)	4.5	(1.2)
With citizens	86.4	(74.7)	4.5	(13.3)	4.5	(7.2)		(1.2)	4.5	(1.2)
Community activities	27.3	(28.9)	50.0	(41.0)	18.2	(25.3)	4.5	(4.8)		
Correspondence and reports	13.6	(8.4)	63.6	(48.2)	13.6	(31.3)	4.5	(8.4)	4.5	(1.2)

Gp. 4 = Group 4 superintendents (23 returns).

Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXXI.--Time Devoted to Various Activities by Group Five Superintendnets in Comparison with All Superintendents

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp.5	Total	Gp.5	Total	Gp.5	Total	Gp.5	Total	Gp.5	Total
Professional meetings and organizations	52.4	(44.6)	42.9	(38.6)	4.7	(8.4)		(9.6)		
Professional reading	71.4	(72.3)	28.6	(26.5)	4.7	(7.2)				
Working on budget	52.4	(50.6)	23.8	(33.5)	9.5	(10.8)	4.7	(2.4)	4.7	(1.2)
Supervising transportation	71.4	(89.2)	28.6	(9.6)		(1.2)				
Supervising cafeteria	90.5	(95.2)	4.7	(1.2)		(1.2)				
Supervising maintainence	76.2	(83.1)	19.0	(12.0)	4.7	(3.6)				
Planning for board meetings	38.1	(31.3)	47.6	(51.8)	9.5	(18.1)		(2.4)	4.7	(1.2)
Planning for new facilities	66.7	(51.8)	19.0	(30.1)	4.7	(9.6)	4.7	(4.8)		(2.4)
Meeting with administrative council	90.5	(79.5)		(14.5)		(3.6)				
Meeting with committees	61.9	(53.0)	23.8	(33.7)	9.5	(8.4)		(2.4)		
Details of office mgt.	42.9	(61.4)	38.1	(26.5)	23.8	(9.6)	4.7	(3.6)		(1.2)

Table XXXI - Continued

Activity	Per Cent of Superintendents Devoting Various Percentages of Their Time to the Activity									
	0-5%		5-10%		10-20%		20-30%		30-50%	
	Gp.5	Total	Gp.5	Total	Gp.5	Total	Gp.5	Total	Gp.5	Total
Meeting with parents	61.9	(72.3)	23.8	(21.7)	4.7	(2.4)				
Discussing curriculum: With principals	38.1	(33.7)	52.4	(44.6)	9.5	(12.0)	4.7	(8.4)		(2.4)
With teachers	52.4	(65.1)	33.3	(20.5)	4.7	(9.6)		(2.4)		(1.2)
With citizens	76.2	(74.7)	9.5	(13.3)	9.5	(7.2)		(1.2)		(1.2)
Community Activities	33.3	(28.9)	52.4	(41.0)	14.3	(25.3)		(4.8)		
Correspondence and reports		(8.4)	38.1	(48.2)	52.4	(31.3)		(8.4)		(1.2)

Gp. 5 = Group 5 superintendents (22 returns).

Total = Total superintendents (89 returns).

Table XXXII.--Person or Persons Actually Performing Various Tasks the Majority of the Time (Supervision and Discipline)

Persons	Task By Groups of Districts and By Total Districts																													
	Supervise Curriculum Study						Visit Classrooms						Supervise and Coordinate Elementary Teachers						Supervise and Co-ordinate H.S. teachers						Supervise Pupils						Discipline Pupils					
	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T
Supt.																																				
Asst. Supt.		x																																		
Bldg. Prin.				x		x(x)	x	x	x	x		x(x)	x	x	x	x		x(x)	x	x	x	x		x(x)	x	x	x	x		x(x)	x	x	x	x		x(x)
Asst. Prin.																																				
Teacher																																				
Subject matter coordinator																																				
Committees																																				
Dept. head																																				
Curriculum Coordinator			x																																	
Director of curriculum	x	x																																		

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 - 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table XXXIII.--Person or Persons Actually Performing Various Tasks the Majority of the Time (Committees and Meetings)

	Tasks By Groups of Districts and By Total Districts																													
	Chair. Bldg. Curriculum Committee						Chair Grade Level or Sub. Matter Curriculum Com.						Chair. Dist.-Wide Curriculum Com.						Hold Bldg. Faculty Meetings						Hold Dist.-Wide Faculty Meetings						Hold Grade Level Faculty Meetings						Hold Subject Matter Faculty Meetings					
Person	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T
Supt.																x									x	x	x	x	x(x)												
Asst. Supt.													x		x																											
Bldg. Prin.	x		x	x	x(x)				x	x				x			x(x)		x	x	x	x	x(x)								x	x	x	x(x)		x		x	x	x(x)	
Asst. Prin.																																										
Teacher	x	x					x	x				(x)																														
Subject matter coordinator																																										
Committees																																					x					
Dept. Heads																																										
Curriculum coordinator							x								x																x											
Director of curriculum													x																													

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table XXXIII.--Person or Persons Actually Performing Various Tasks the Majority of the Time (Committees and Meetings)

	Tasks By Groups of Districts and By Total Districts																																									
	Chair. Bldg. Curriculum Committee						Chair Grade Level or Sub. Matter Curriculum Com.						Chair. Dist.-Wide Curriculum Com.						Hold Bldg. Faculty Meetings						Hold Dist.-Wide Faculty Meetings						Hold Grade Level Faculty Meetings						Hold Subject Matter Faculty Meetings					
Person	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T
Supt.																x										x	x	x	x	x(x)												
Asst. Supt.														x		x																										
Bldg. Prin.	x		x	x	x(x)				x	x					x			x(x)	x	x	x	x	x(x)									x	x	x	x(x)	x		x	x	x(x)	
Asst. Prin.																																										
Teacher	x	x						x	x				(x)																													
Subject matter coordinator																																										
Committees																																						x				
Dept. Heads																																										
Curriculum coordinator								x								x																x										
Director of curriculum														x																												

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table XXXIV.--Person or Persons Actually Performing Various Tasks the Majority of the Time (Management and Administrative Detail)

	Tasks By Groups of Districts and By Total Districts																																									
	Introduce Curriculum Study						Interview Prospective Teachers						Employ Teachers						Recommend Textbook Revision						Adopt Textbooks						Order Textbooks						Build Schedules					
Persons	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T	1	2	3	4	5	T
Supt.				x		(x)			x	x	x	(x)		x	x	x	x	(x)								x	x	x	x	(x)				x	x							
Asst.Supt.	x	x					x	x						x																	x	x	x			(x)						
Bldg.Prin.				x		x(x)																x	x																	x	x	x	x	x(x)
Asst.Prin.																																										
Teacher	x																																									
Subject matter Coordinator																																										
Committees																				x	x	x		(x)																		
Dept.Heads																																										
Curriculum coordinator																																										
Director of curriculum	x																																									

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

building principal is the key person in the tasks listed. Table XXXV analyses the data from this question with respect only to the superintendent of schools. Here a comparison of the duties of superintendents in schools of different sizes can be made. As an example, superintendents in group 1 schools report being involved in only 10 of the listed tasks, with not more than 66.7 per cent of them performing any one task. This task is the adoption of textbooks. Group 5 superintendents report being involved in all 20 of the listed tasks. They have sole responsibility for interviewing prospective teachers and employing teachers.

The third and final question was concerned with the duties or functions of selected administrative positions. This question was open-ended and asked the primary function of the superintendent of schools, assistant superintendents of schools, curriculum coordinators, and building principals. The results obtained from this question were categorized and tabulated into areas of responses, and are so presented in Table XXXVI. The superintendent of schools has the greatest variety of functions with "carry out policies" and "instructional leadership" receiving the most responses. The function of the building principal was to "administer the building" and be the "instructional leader of the building." The assistant superintendent's functions were equally divided among "business," "instruction," and "plant and transportation." To supervise instruction is the most

Table XXXV.--Per Cent of Superintendents Performing Various Tasks the Majority of the Time

Tasks	Per Cent of Superintendents by Groups and By Total Districts					
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Total
Chair bldg. curriculum committee				8.7	9.1	4.5
Chair grade-level or subject matter curriculum committee					18.2	4.5
Chair district-wide curriculum committee		16.7	5.3	34.8	13.6	15.9
Introduce curriculum study	25.0	25.0	31.6	34.8	45.5	34.1
Supervise curriculum study	8.3		21.1	26.1	22.7	18.2
Interview prospective teachers	16.7	33.3	84.2	82.6	100.0	71.6
Employ teachers	25.0	75.0	89.5	95.7	100.0	83.0
Recommend textbook revision	16.7	25.0	26.3	8.7	31.8	22.0
Adopt textbooks	66.7	58.3	63.2	60.9	59.1	61.4
Order textbooks			21.1	47.8	81.8	37.5
Visit classrooms	16.7	41.7	47.4	39.1	50.0	40.9
Supervise and coordinate elementary teachers		25.0	15.6	4.3	27.3	14.8
Supervise and coordinate high school teachers	8.3	25.0	15.6	4.3	9.1	11.4

Table XXXV - Continued

Tasks	Per Cent of Superintendents By Groups and By Total Districts					
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Total
Supervise pupils			5.3		27.3	8.0
Hold building faculty meetings			15.6	4.3	31.8	12.5
Hold district-wide faculty meetings	50.0	66.7	89.5	87.0	68.2	75.0
Hold grade-level faculty meetings			15.6		22.7	9.1
Hold subject matter faculty meetings	8.3		5.3	4.3	22.7	9.1
Discipline pupils			10.5		22.7	8.0
Build schedules			5.3	8.7	27.3	10.2

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table XXXV - Continued

Tasks	Per Cent of Superintendents By Groups and By Total Districts					
	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Total
Supervise pupils			5.3		27.3	8.0
Hold building faculty meetings			15.6	4.3	31.8	12.5
Hold district-wide faculty meetings	50.0	66.7	89.5	87.0	68.2	75.0
Hold grade-level faculty meetings			15.6		22.7	9.1
Hold subject matter faculty meetings	8.3		5.3	4.3	22.7	9.1
Discipline pupils			10.5		22.7	8.0
Build schedules			5.3	8.7	27.3	10.2

Group 1 = 501 and above teacher certificated employees
Group 2 = 201 to 500 teacher certificated employees
Group 3 = 101 to 200 teacher certificated employees
Group 4 = 51 to 100 teacher certificated employees
Group 5 = 26 to 50 teacher certificated employees

Table XXXVI.--Functions of Administrative Positions as Perceived by the Superintendent of Schools

Superintendent of Schools (5)	G	T
Carry out policies	5	23
Instructional leadership	5	22
Coordination	5	13
Executive officer	3	10
Recommend policies	3	9
Business	3	9
Supervision	3	8
Resource for the entire school	1	7
Direct	3	6
Improve instruction	2	6
General administration	2	6
Evaluate policies	3	5
Develop policies	2	4
Public relations	1	4
Interpret policies	2	2
Hire	1	2
Communication	1	1
Create climate	1	1
Planning	1	1
Materials	1	1
Make everyone happy	1	1
Curriculum Coordinators (4)		
Supervise instruction	4	11
Develop curriculum	2	9
Study and evaluate curriculum	2	7
Coordination	4	6
Leadership	1	2
Meet faculty and lay people	1	2
Delegated by the superintendent	1	1
Improved instruction	1	1

G = Number of groups reporting.
T = Total number of times reported.
( ) = Number of groups having the position.

Table XXXVI - Continued

Assistant Superintendent of Schools (4)	G	T
Business	4	18
Instruction	4	17
Plant and transportation	4	16
Personnel	3	8
Carry out policies	2	6
Assist the superintendent	3	5
Delegated by the superintendent	2	3
Public relations	1	1
Building Principals (5)		
Administer the building	5	56
Instructional leader of the building	5	30
Supervision	4	17
Curriculum improvement	2	8
Coordination	2	6
Carry out policies	1	4
Discipline	1	2
Hire teachers	1	1
Delegated by the superintendent	1	1
Communication	1	1
Provide optimum conditions for teachers to teach	1	1

G = Number of groups reporting.
T = Total number of times reported.
( ) = Number of groups having the position.

commonly reported function of the curriculum coordinator. Variety of responses and less frequently reported responses will be analyzed in a later chapter.

VI. SUMMARY

This chapter has raised issues and presented a tabulation and brief description of data obtained from the questionnaires developed for this study and mailed to the school districts appearing in the original sample. The chapter contains a comparative analysis of the total population, sample size, and usable questionnaires returned, plus a descriptive tabulation of the responses to the questions of the questionnaire. The issues raised were an outgrowth of the content of chapters III and IV, and the information collected in the questionnaires.

The chapter was divided into the general categories of basic school district data, administrative personnel, and operational procedures. All data were presented and tabulated with reference to the original stratification of the population. Thus, it is possible to compare responses between strata, or groups, and responses between any single stratum and total sample responses.

Because of the variety and complexity of the data, and the fact that the issues raised revolve around more than one section of the data, no attempt at detailed analyses or implications was attempted in this chapter. Analyses

will be made in the following chapters. The data will be applied to specific issues of administrative organization and to the point of view toward administrative leadership organization for improved instruction developed in this study.

CHAPTER VI

ANALYSIS OF DATA WITH RESPECT TO SELECTED ISSUES OF PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

I. INTRODUCTION

As the data was presented chapter V many issues were perceived and listed. These specific issues may be combined to form broader issues, the solutions of which are fundamental to good administrative organization for improved instruction in public education. For the purpose of this discussion the individual issues will be categorized under the following headings: (1) the degree to which physical characteristics of school districts have an effect on administrative organization; (2) the breadth of administrative positions in public schools and its effect on administrative organization; (3) the degree to which principles of line and staff are misunderstood and/or improperly used, and the effect that this misunderstanding has on administrative organization; (4) the degree to which span theory is misunderstood and/or improperly used, and the effect that this misunderstanding has on administrative organization; (5) the degree to which school systems are utilizing centralized or decentralized organization, and the effect that this utilization has on administrative organization; and (6) the

degree to which school systems utilize departmentation, the kinds of departmentation being practiced, and the effect of these variables on administrative organization.

This chapter will analyze the data presented and tabulated in chapter V with respect to important issues as categorized above. Other issues will receive attention in chapter VI, where the data will be analyzed with respect to the point of view toward public school administrative organization that was developed in chapter IV.

II. THE DEGREE TO WHICH PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS HAVE AN EFFECT ON ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

Information was collected regarding size of school districts as determined by number of teacher-certificated employees, geographic area of school districts in square miles, and number of buildings in individual districts. All three of these sets of data have an effect on administrative organization.

Size of districts. All of the data is presented with reference to number of teacher-certificated personnel. Throughout the entire analysis reference will be made to this point. It should be clear to the reader that the number of employees in any enterprise is a key factor in determining such organizational procedures as number and type of administrators employed, problems of communication, span of supervision, and problems of centralization-decentralization.

degree to which school systems utilize departmentation, the kinds of departmentation being practiced, and the effect of these variables on administrative organization.

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The number of buildings and area of the school districts in the sample are presented in Table V. This table shows that (1) there is a direct relationship between number of buildings and number of teachers employed, and (2) there is an inverse relationship between area of school districts and number of teachers employed.

Geographic area. School districts with large geographic areas are more difficult to administer than districts with small areas. The problems of communication and integration grow more complex as the area increases. In school districts with large geographic areas it is difficult for teachers in one section of the district to be familiar with the activities in other sections of the district. The factor of distance is an organizational hurdle. Thus, the organization must be such that lines of communication are made available throughout the various sections of the district. Committee involvement, news letters, and interaction among areas of the district will all contribute to better organization in large geographic-area districts.

Table V shows that school systems in group 5 have the largest mean area; and the data in Tables XII, XIV, and XV indicate that these school systems have fewer administrative councils, subject matter or grade level curriculum committees, and system-wide curriculum committees. Therefore, it can be concluded that large geographic-area districts are not involving people to the degree that they could

for competent administrative organization.

Number of buildings. The number of buildings in a district is an important variable when considering organization. Few buildings suggest either a small district or one that is concentrated into a small area. If the districts are small they will need fewer administrators than large districts. If districts are the same size but concentrated, however, they probably will need the same number of administrators as large districts, but with different functions and emphasis. For example, a building that houses 1000 pupils will have only one principal but will probably also have an assistant principal. A district with two buildings, each housing 500 pupils, will have two principals but no assistant principals.

Therefore, the type of administrative positions needed in an organization should be practically determined by the physical characteristics of the district.

III. THE BREADTH OF ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND ITS EFFECT ON ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

The number and type of administrative personnel in school districts is fundamental to a study of administrative organization. Basic data of this nature is necessary before any analysis of the organizational procedures can be undertaken.

Number of administrators. Table VI reports the data regarding the number of full-time administrators in the school districts studied. These data show that there are more administrators in larger schools than there are in small schools. More important, they show that the mean and median teacher-administrator ratios are similar among groups; schools in group 4 and 5 have slightly higher means than do the others. Thus, it would appear that the ratio between number of administrators and number of teachers does not change appreciably among school systems of different size.

Kinds of administrative positions. Table XXXVII shows the per cent of school districts in each group having specific administrative positions. Of the 26 positions listed, group 1 schools report having 22; group 2 schools, 21; group 3 schools, 23; group 4 schools, 20; and group 5 schools, 7. Thus, except for group 3 schools, as the size of the district decreases the variety of administrative positions decreases.

When less than 50 per cent of the schools in a group report having a given position it can be said that there is little common agreement as to the importance of the position. Table XXXVII shows that there are 10 positions in group 1, 6 in group 2, 5 in group 3, 3 in group 4, and 3 in group 5 having more than 50 per cent accord among school districts as to the occupancy of a given position. The only positions with more than 50 per cent agreement among all districts are

Table XXXVII.--Per Cent of School Districts, by Groups, Having Various Administrative Positions in Their Organization

Position	Per Cent of Districts Having Positions				
	1	2	3	4	5
Elem. Principals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Elem. Dept. Heads		7.7		4.3	
Elem. Grade Level Coordinators	8.3	7.7	10.5	13.0	4.3
Elem. Vice or Asst. Principals	16.7	30.8	10.5	8.7	
Elem. Sub. Matter Coordinators	50.0	30.8	10.5		
Elem. Curriculum Coordinators	33.3	23.1	10.5	13.0	
All-School Curriculum Coordinators	16.7	30.8	21.1	13.0	
Administrative Asst.	50.0	38.5	57.9	8.7	
Business Managers	91.7	84.6	42.1	4.3	
Superintendents of Schools	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Directors of Elem. Education	33.3	7.7	15.8	13.0	
Directors of Curriculum	25.0	15.4	21.1	4.3	4.3
Sr. High Principals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sr. High Dept. Heads	41.7	69.2	26.3	13.0	
Sr. High Cross-Dept. Coordinators		7.7		4.3	
Sr. High Vice or Asst. Principals	83.3	92.3	57.9	17.4	4.3

Table XXXVII - Continued

Position	Per Cent of Districts Having Positions				
	1	2	3	4	5
Sr. High Bldg. Curriculum Coordinators			5.3		
Sr. High Sub. Matter Coordinators	50.0		10.5	17.4	
Sr. High Curriculum Coordinators	16.7		10.5	4.3	
Asst. Supt. in Charge of Instruction	58.3	23.1	5.3	17.4	4.3
Asst. Supt. in Charge of Personnel	66.7	15.4	5.3		
Combination of two above	8.3	38.5	15.8		
Directors of Secondary Education	25.0		5.3		
Deans of Boys	25.0	23.1	26.3	4.3	
Deans of Girls	8.3	30.8	21.1	4.3	
Total Number of Districts	12	13	19	23	22

elementary principals, superintendents of schools, and senior high principals. These positions have 100 per cent agreement in all groups. The only other positions having any agreement between groups are administrative assistants, groups 1 and 3; business managers, groups 1 and 2; and senior high school vice- or assistant principals, groups 1, 2, and 3.

Thus, it can be seen that there is little unanimity among school districts of any size even in terms of the types of administrative positions they have in their organization. The process of administrative organization is complicated enough without having to debate kinds of positions necessary for its effective operation.

Teaching administrators. Table VII presents another set of data that further verifies the lack of agreement among school districts with reference to administrative positions. This table shows that both the amount and per cent of time applied to teaching by teaching administrators increases as the school districts get smaller. Thus, although the previous discussion indicated that there is 100 per cent agreement with respect to elementary and senior high school principals, the data in Table VII refutes this statement. When administrators teach, they cannot apply full time to administration or be considered full-time administrators; and their effectiveness is reduced.

These data on breadth of administrative positions indicate that, although the teacher-administator ratio is nearly constant in schools of all sizes, teachers in small schools are not receiving the administrative assistance that teachers in large schools receive. The data also point up a serious lack of consistency in terms of type of administrative positions used in public schools. Over-all, these data verify the contention that there is no common organizational patterns in the public schools of the state.

IV. THE DEGREE THAT PRINCIPALS OF LINE AND STAFF ARE MISUNDERSTOOD AND/OR IMPROPERLY USED AND THE EFFECT THAT THIS HAS ON ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

The discussion under section III of this chapter deals with the lack of consistency among school districts as to the kinds of administrative positions in their organization. It now becomes necessary to analyze these positions in terms of their line or staff function. An over-all view of the data suggests that the principle of line and staff and its various ramifications is one of the most confusing, misunderstood, and misinterpreted aspects of administrative organization uncovered in this study.

Number of line and staff positions. The number of line and staff positions per school district is tabulated in Table VIII. There are consistently fewer staff persons per district than there are line positions. The number of

staff positions in districts employing less than 101 teachers (groups 4 and 5) is small. This information indicates that a majority of administrators in the public schools hold supervisory or authority positions with few in advisory or resource roles. These data indicate that public schools are top-heavy with line administrators. They also suggest that superintendnets of schools see the main job of administrators as one of controlling and directing teachers rather than one of freeing teachers from details and motivating them to competently perform their chief purpose--teaching. This point of view is in direct opposition to the one developed in this study. That point of view will be analyzed in detail in Chapter VII.

Confusion over line and staff definition of administrative positions. When superintendents of schools were asked to indicate whether a position was line (supervisory or authoritative) or staff (advisory or resource), their responses were inconsistent. Of the twenty-six administrative positions listed in Tables IX, X, and XI, only elementary subject-matter coordinators, senior high school cross-department coordinators, senior high school building-curriculum coordinators, and assistant superintendents in charge of instruction and personnel are in complete agreement as to their line or staff function. These data indicate an inconsistency in the definition of administrative functions and thus, a tendency toward a breakdown in the lines of

communication. One may argue that functions may be well defined within individual districts; and this may be true. That school systems of similar characteristics define specific positions differently, however, indicates definite confusion with respect to organization.

Table XXXIX presents a summary of the definition of positions data and points up the fact that there is considerable confusion among superintendents as to the definition of many of these positions. When 80 per cent or more of a given position are reported as either line or staff, it may be said that those positions have a high level of agreement among superintendents. Those positions with less than 80 per cent agreement represent an area of confusion or broad disagreement. The breakdown of positions at 80 per cent is presented below.

LINE POSITIONS	STAFF POSITIONS
Elementary Principals	*Elementary Subject-matter Coordinators
Supts. of Schools	All School Curriculum Coord.
Directors of Elem. Education	*Sr. High Cross-department Coordinators
Senior High Principals	*Sr. High Building-curriculum Coordinators
*Asst. Supts. in Charge of Curriculum and Instruction	Sr. High Subject-matter Coordinators
Directors of Secondary Edu.	Deans of Boys

*Positions that have 100 per cent agreement.

POSITIONS OF CONFUSION
(Less than 80% agreement)

Elem. Department Heads	Directors of Curriculum
Elem. Grade-level Coordinators	Senior High Vice- or Asst. Principals
Elem. Vice- or Asst. Principals	Senior High Department Heads
Elem. Curriculum Coordinators	Senior High Curriculum Coordinators
Administrative Assistants	Asst. Supts. in Charge of Instruction
Asst. Supts. in Charge of Personnel	Deans of Girls

Business Managers

When 60 per cent or more of a given position are reported as either line or staff, instead of 80 per cent, as listed above, it may be said that those positions lack uniformity of agreement among superintendents while the remaining positions represent a high level of confusion of disagreement. The breakdown of positions at the 60 per cent cut-off point is presented below.

LINE POSITIONS	STAFF POSITIONS
Elementary Principals	Elementary Departments Heads
Business Managers	Elem. Grade-level Coordinators
Supts. of Schools	Elem. Subject-Matter Coordinators
Directors of Elem. Education	All-school Curriculum Coordinators
Senior High Principals	Directors of Curriculum
Senior High Vice- or Asst. Principals	Senior High Cross-department Coordinators
Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Instruction	Senior High Building-curriculum Coordinators

LINE POSITIONS	STAFF POSITIONS
Assistant Supts. in Charge of Personnel	Senior High Subject-matter Coordinators
Asst. Supts. in Charge of Instruction and Personnel	Senior High Curriculum Coordinators
Directors of Secondary Education	Deans of Boys
	Dean of Girls

POSITIONS OF CONFUSION
(Less than 60% agreement)

Elementary Vice- or Asst. Principals	Administrative Assistants
Elementary Curriculum Co-ordinators	Senior High Department Heads

It can be seen from the above data that there are four positions that no common definition of line or staff function. The reader may choose between the thirteen positions listed previously and the four positions listed above as to the areas of confusion. In any case this information verifies the contention that there is confusion over the line and staff status of many administrative positions in the public schools of the state.

The data in Table VIII also points up the lack of understanding of line and staff organizational principals on the part of superintendents of schools. Five districts report no line administrators in their organization, while 42 districts report no staff administrators. The tabulation of this information appears in Table XXXVIII.

From the analysis of these data it can be seen that there is considerable confusion about definitions of line

Table XXXVIII.--Number of School Districts, by Groups, Reporting No Line or Staff Positions

Group	Total No. of Districts	Number With no Line	Number With no Staff
1	12	1	2
2	13		3
3	19		5
4	22	2	14
5	22	2	18

and staff functions of various administrative positions. When superintendents declare that there are no line or no staff positions in their administrative organization, as indicated above, it seems probable that they are not giving serious consideration to the terms, and that a weakness in their training and orientation is strongly suggested.

It can be seen from Table XXXIX that there are twenty-two different administrative positions that are considered "supervisory or authority" positions, to some degree, by the superintendents responding to the questionnaire. The percentages vary from 5.3 for senior high school subject-matter coordinators to 100 for assistant superintendents in charge of instruction and personnel. The average of these twenty-two positions that are defined as line is 53.9 per cent. Thus, more than half of these positions are defined as

Table XXXIX.--Number and Per Cent of Various Positions That Are Defined as Line or Staff Positions

Positions	Total No. of Positions	Defined as Line		Defined as Staff	
		No.	%	No.	%
Elem. Principals	559	538	96.2	21	3.8
Elem. Dept. Heads	9	2	22.2	7	77.8
Elem. Grade-Level Coordinators	16	5	31.3	11	68.7
Elem. Vice- or Asst. Principals	19	10	52.6	9	47.4
Elem. Bldg. Curriculum Coordinators					
Elem. Sub. Matter Coordinators	53			53	100.0
Elem. Curriculum Coordinators	12	5	41.7	7	58.3
All-School Curriculum Coordinators	34	4	11.8	30	88.2
Administrative Asst.	29	15	51.7	14	48.3
Business Managers	30	23	76.7	7	23.3
Superintendents of Schools	84	74	88.1	10	11.9
Directors of Elem. Education	11	9	81.8	2	18.2
Directors of Curriculum	22	5	22.7	17	77.3
Sr. High Principals	109	103	94.5	6	5.5
Sr. High Dept. Heads	178	78	43.8	100	56.2
Sr. High Cross-Dept. Coordinators	6			6	100.0

Table XXXIX - Continued

Positions	Total No. of Positions	Defined as Line		Defined as Staff	
		No.	%	No.	%
Sr. High Vice- or Asst. Principals	68	52	76.5	16	23.5
Sr. High Bldg. Curriculum Coordinators	1			1	100.0
Sr. High Subject Matter Coordinators	37	2	5.3	35	94.6
Sr. High Curriculum Coordinators	5	2	40.0	3	60.0
Asst. Supt. in Charge of Instruction	19	12	63.2	7	36.8
Asst. Supt. in Charge of Personnel	13	8	61.5	5	38.5
Combination of two above	11	11	100.0		
Directors of Secondary Education	5	4	80.0	1	20.0
Deans of Boys	17	3	17.6	14	82.3
Deans of Girls	15	4	26.7	11	73.3

supervisory or authoriative by the superintendents of schools. Such an abundance of line positions is bound to lead into overlapping directions and confusion about reporting procedures. For example, 76.7 per cent of the business managers, between 11.8 and 22.7 per cent of the curriculum coordinators, 51.7 per cent of the administrative assistants, and between 5.3 and 41.7 per cent of the subject-matter or grade-level curriculum coordinators are defined as line positions in this survey. When these kinds of positions are defined as line, the teacher is often placed in the unfortunate situation of reporting to, and taking directions from, more than one person on similar matters.

Authorities on administrative organization agree that even when positions of this nature are defined as staff serious operational problems arise in that persons occupying the positions tend to carry their function over into the area of line responsibilities. School districts that define such positions as line create an organizational monstrosity that is not only overloaded with line administrators but also has little unity of direction. Such a procedure places principals and teachers in the impossible situation of not knowing who to consult or to take directions from, or of being faced with conflicting opinions and directions on like problems.

Another set of data that supports the contention that administrative organization in the public schools of

Michigan is confused and poorly conceived can be found in Tables XXIV and XXV. These tables show respectively the number of persons directly responsible to the superintendent and the number with direct access to the superintendent. The data indicates that as many as 386 persons are directly responsible to the superintendent but do not have direct access to him. It is difficult to imagine how there can be unity of direction, common purpose, or any semblance of a smooth-running organization when a person who is responsible to another person cannot consult with him unless he works through a third person.

It may be concluded from these data that there are serious organizational problems in Michigan's public schools with respect to line and staff definition and function regarding many administrative positions. Also, there appears to be like problems with respect to persons who are directly responsible to the superintendent but do not have direct access to him.

V. THE DEGREE THAT SPAN THEORY IS MISUNDERSTOOD AND/OR IMPROPERLY USED AND THE EFFECT THAT THIS HAS ON ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

That there is a limit to the number of persons or tasks one individual can direct or supervise effectively at one time, has been established. Data collected from the questionnaires relate directly to this point.

Teacher-administrator ratios in Table VI show that mean and median figures agree closely with recommended span figures, assuming that there is equal distribution of personnel among all administrators. Many authorities agree that a span of between fifteen and nineteen to one is not unreasonable. However, extreme figures in this table show definite irregularities in teacher-administrator ratio. When there is an administrator for every eleven, twelve, thirteen or fourteen teachers it can be concluded that the system is overstaffed with administrators. On the other hand, when there are seventy teachers for every administrator the opposite is true.

When a person is directly responsible to an administrator the administrator has responsibilities for supervising that person. Numbers of people directly responsible to the superintendent are tabulated in Table XXIV. These data show highly varied figures with little agreement between means and medians or between groups. Superintendents who have only two, three, or four persons directly responsible to them have a limited span and are probably over staffed or over organized. Yet, superintendents who have four hundred or, for that matter, more than fifty persons directly responsible to them are violating all principles of span theory. Perhaps these persons did not understand the questionnaire. If they did, they do not understand span theory and their system is improperly staffed.

Similar data were compiled for other line administrative positions. These data appear in Table XL. Inspection of the figures leads to similar conclusions for all administrative positions, and shows that there is not equal distribution of personnel among administrators. The mean number of persons directly responsible to administrators other than the superintendent varies from 18.1/1 for elementary school principals to 273.8/1 for assistant superintendents in charge of personnel. The average of the means for all of these positions is 85.2.

An interesting related issue to this discussion is that of the number of persons with direct access to the superintendent (Table XXV). By comparing the data in this table with that in Table XXIV, it would appear that there are from 1 to 386 persons who are responsible to the superintendent but have no direct access to him. The data in Table XXVI show the positions with direct access to the superintendent. Regardless of size of district, all assistant superintendents, administrative assistants, curriculum coordinators, and business managers have direct access to the superintendent. The variety of positions with direct access increases as the districts become smaller. Group 5 districts show 6 positions with 100 per cent agreement regarding direct access and 4 positions with more than 80 per cent agreement. Group 1 districts show 4 positions with 100 per cent agreement on direct access and only 2 with more

Table XL.--Number of Persons, by Total Sample, Directly Responsible to Various Line Administrative Positions

Position	No. of Dist. Having Positions	Number of Positions Per District	
		Extremes	Means
Elementary Principals	72	7- 47	18.1
Elem. Grade-Level Coordinators	33	4- 55	27.3
Elem. Vice- or Asst. Principals	4	7- 35	17.0
Elem. Curriculum Coordinators	3	5- 300	115.0
All-School Curriculum Coordinators	2	10- 408	209.0
Administrative Assistants	11	1- 300	73.3
Business Managers	17	1- 300	48.5
Superintendents of Schools	59	1-1000	81.6
Directors of Elem. Education	7	1- 165	32.9
Directors of Curriculum	4	1- 250	94.3
Senior High Principals	70	1- 140	38.8
Senior High Department Heads	7	6- 40	19.3
Senior High Vice- or Assistant Principals	14	1- 90	44.2
Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Instruction	9	1- 750	104.3
Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Personnel	4	1- 750	273.8
Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Instruction and Personnel	5	10- 408	165.4

Table XL.--Number of Persons, by Total Sample, Directly Responsible to Various Line Administrative Positions

Position	No. of Dist. Having Positions	Number of Positions Per District	
		Extremes	Means
Elementary Principals	72	7- 47	18.1
Elem. Grade-Level Coordinators	33	4- 55	27.3
Elem. Vice- or Asst. Principals	4	7- 35	17.0
Elem. Curriculum Coordinators	3	5- 300	115.0
All-School Curriculum Coordinators	2	10- 408	209.0
Administrative Assistants	11	1- 300	73.3
Business Managers	17	1- 300	48.5
Superintendents of Schools	59	1-1000	81.6
Directors of Elem. Education	7	1- 165	32.9
Directors of Curriculum	4	1- 250	94.3
Senior High Principals	70	1- 140	38.8
Senior High Department Heads	7	6- 40	19.3
Senior High Vice- or Assistant Principals	14	1- 90	44.2
Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Instruction	9	1- 750	104.3
Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Personnel	4	1- 750	273.8
Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Instruction and Personnel	5	10- 408	165.4

than 80 per cent agreement. Thus, these data uncover another area of poor organization and confusion within the administrative organizational scheme.

The final bit of information that relates to span of supervision is in terms of the number and kinds of personal contacts that superintendents have in relation to their job. It has been established that instructional leadership is a primary function of the superintendency. To lead, one must meet people and communicate with them. But, if the superintendent attempts personally to lead all members of his staff and the community, he may well forfeit his leadership role for one of a glad hand and pleasant word. To be effective as a leader he must work through other administrators who have been hired to assist with specific functions and/or groups of people.

As an example, principals should work closely with teachers, business managers with salesmen, and public relations specialists with the public and mass communications agencies. In this manner, the superintendent can exert his leadership through other administrators and be freer to give leadership at selected times and places at all levels of the school system.

Table XVIII shows that the majority (between 12 and 41 per cent) of the superintendents report between 15 and 75 professional contacts per week. These are not unreasonable figures and, although 75 represents an average of 15

As the data relating to span of supervision is analyzed it can be seen that there are glaring inconsistencies, instances of misunderstanding, and/or improper use of the principle at every turn. There are many examples of proper use and apparent understanding of span theory. The data points up, however, that in the public schools, in entirely too many cases, there is unfamiliarity with the theory.

VI. THE DEGREE THAT SCHOOL SYSTEMS ARE UTILIZING CENTRALIZED OR DECENTRALIZED ORGANIZATION AND THE EFFECT THIS HAS ON ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

In an attempt to determine the degree of centralization or decentralization in Michigan's public schools, the questionnaires gathered information on kinds of committees, and persons performing selected tasks during the majority of their time. The analysis of these data sheds light on a fundamental issue of administrative organization in public education and gives some insights into the extent that schools are centralized or decentralized.

Committee activity and membership. Administration becomes decentralized when teachers and building principles are given an opportunity to participate in the process of decision making. Committee involvement is one way to accomplish the goal of teacher and principal participation in decision making.

contacts per day, personal observation and experience would tend to verify these figures. Fifteen per cent of group 2, 12 per cent of group 3, and 5 per cent of group 4 superintendents report between 101 and 200 contacts per week. These figures represent a maximum of 40 persons a day--an average of twelve minutes per person, based upon a 40-hour week. Eight per cent of group 2 and 6 per cent of group 3 superintendents reported between 200 and 500 contacts per week. This represents a maximum of 100 persons per day--4.8 minutes per person. These figures indicate that a small percentage of superintendents are obviously bogged down by mere numbers of persons they come in contact with professionally.

In an attempt to determine the kinds of professional contacts superintendents have, Tables XIX, XX, XXI, XXII, and XXIII were developed. Examination of the data in these tables shows that as the size of the district decreases the superintendent's contacts with professional staff and pupils increase. The reverse is true regarding the superintendent's contacts with citizens about civic or school affairs. From these data it would appear that the superintendent in a small school system is more involved in working with his professional staff and the superintendent in a large system apparently devotes more time to contacts with citizens. This conclusion agrees with the data about direct access reported on page 153.

According to Table XII, administrative councils are common in districts of all sizes except those in group 5 (26-50 teachers). There, only 22.7 per cent of the districts reported having administrative councils. The size of these councils varies from 3 to 60 members. It would seem that a 60-member council would serve as little more than an information group according to span theory and mere size in numbers. Group 1 districts have the widest variety of positions on their councils (8 in number) with variety decreasing by size of district to only 3 positions in group 5 schools. Positions common to all councils are superintendents of schools and senior high school principals. Elementary school principals are common to all but group 1 districts.

The decrease in numbers of positions on councils with respect to size of districts is probably due to the lack of variety of administrative positions in smaller districts. In any case, the practice of using administrative councils is a form of decentralization and is well established in all but the small school districts.

System-wide, subject-matter or grade-level, and building-curriculum committees are being used by between 55 and 100 per cent of the schools in this study, in all districts except those in group 5. In group 5 the figures are between 41 and 55 per cent. Positions common to all of these committees in districts of all sizes are building

principals and teachers. Thus, in terms of committee membership, school districts are decentralized.

Administrative positions. A second way to analyze the degree of centralization or decentralization is to study the type of administrative positions used by school districts. By defining centralized positions as elementary school curriculum coordinators, all-school curriculum coordinators, directors of elementary education, directors of curriculum, assistant superintendents in charge of instruction, directors of secondary education; and decentralized positions as elementary school department heads, elementary school grade-level coordinators, elementary school building-curriculum coordinators, elementary school subject-matter coordinators, senior high school department heads, senior high school cross-department coordinators, senior high school building-curriculum coordinators, senior high school subject-matter coordinators, and senior high school curriculum coordinators, one achieves some insights into the degree of centralization or decentralization that can be obtained.

Table XLI presents this information. The table shows considerable overlapping, a definite trend toward centralization in group 4 schools, and no appreciable trend in any other group or in the total sample.

Task performance. A final indication of centralization-decentralization can be found by noting which persons perform certain tasks in the school system. If the tasks are

Table XLI.--Number of School Districts, by Groups, that Have Centralized and Decentralized Organization

Groups	No. of Districts	Centralized		Decentralized		Both
		Total	Only	Total	Only	
1	12	12	3	9		9
2	13	9	1	11	3	8
3	19	11	4	10	3	7
4	22	10	7	5	3	2
5	22	2	2	1	1	
Total	88	44	17	36	10	26

performed by central office personnel, the system can be said to be centralized. If, however, the tasks are performed by teachers or administrators working at various levels throughout the system, a decentralized organization is indicated. The latter case is shown by Tables XXXI, XXXII, and XXXIII. The only tasks that are performed in the central office regularly have to do with management and administrative details (Tables XXXIV and XXXV). Principals, teachers, and committees, usually perform other tasks.

Analysis shows conflicting data regarding the degree of centralization-decentralization in the school districts in this sample. With committee involvement, decentralization is indicated, types of administrative positions show considerable overlapping, and performance of tasks suggests decentralization.

Public education must operate within the context of a decentralized administrative organization if the talents of its professionally trained staff are to be recognized and utilized, and if the philosophy of cooperative participation, individual freedom of expression, and individual worth and dignity is to be realized. When decisions, policies, and procedures are determined in the central office, as is the case in centralized organization, none of the above listed goals is practiced. Certainly the schools cannot hope to teach the democratic way of life if they do not practice it in their own operation.

VII. THE DEGREE THAT SCHOOL SYSTEMS UTILIZE DEPARTMENTATION AND THE KINDS OF DEPARTMENTATION BEING PRACTICED AND THE EFFECT OF THESE VARIABLES ON ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

The degree to which public school systems in Michigan are departmentalized can be seen by studying the frequency of numbers of department heads in these systems. Table XLII lists those positions that are associated with some form of departmentation. The data shows that 22 school districts have senior high school department heads and 2 districts have elementary school department heads. Thus, only about one quarter of the districts studied have traditional departmentation.

Table XLII.--Kinds of Positions and Number of Districts Having Positions in Subject Matter and General Education Departmentalized Organization

Position	No. of Districts
SUBJECT MATTER DEPARTMENTATION	
Elementary Department Heads	2
Elementary Grade-Level Coordinators	9
Elementary Subject Matter Coordinators	12
Senior High Department Heads	22
Senior High Subject Matter Coordinators	9
GENERAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENTATION	
Elementary Curriculum Coordinators	12
All-School Curriculum Coordinators	13
Directors of Elementary Education	12
Directors of Curriculum	11
Senior High Cross-Department Coordinators	7
Senior High Building Curriculum Coordinators	1
Senior High Curriculum Coordinators	6
Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Instruction	16
Directors of Secondary Education	5

Table XLIII indicates that more than half of the districts questioned have some form of departmentalized organization. This table also shows that departmentation is much more common in large districts than it is in small districts.

Table XLIII.--Number of School Districts, by Groups, Having Subject Matter and General Education Departmentalized Organization

Groups	No. of Districts	Subject Matter		General Education		Both
		Total	Only	Total	Only	
1	12	9	2	12	3	7
2	13	11	4	8	1	7
3	19	9	4	10	5	5
4	22	4	2	10	8	2
5	22	1	1	2	2	
Total	88	35	13	42	20	21

Tables XLII and XLIII also present data on the kind of departmentation in existance in public schools. The tables are divided into "subject matter" and "general education" columns. Subject-matter departmentation provides for positions with major concern in subject areas, such as English and science. General-education departmentation provides for positions with major concern in the over-all educational program, rather than in one segment of it. It can be seen from these tables that there are only five "subject

matter" positions and that there are ten "general education" positions. In spite of this, there is only a slight difference in the number of districts having general-education over subject-matter departmentation.

As was the case with centralization-decentralization, these data show no trend except in the districts in group 4 where a definite leaning toward general-education departmentation may be observed. There is an indication here that if school districts do not departmentalize their organizations they tend to have a centralized organization. On the other hand, when they decentralize through departmentation the departments formed are apt to be subject-matter oriented; and the entire system leans toward subject-matter preparation as the basis of a good education. This type of school system often produces people who know many facts but who are not truly educated because they cannot integrate the facts into useful and purposeful wholes.

It would seem that a system of departmentation that emphasized the grade level or total building rather than specific subjects would not only serve the needs of a decentralized organization and the general education of today's youth, but also would make available avenues for teachers to broaden their outlooks by working and sharing ideas with fellow teachers who have different interests and academic preparation. Such department groups would be able to bring a cross section of interests, ideas, training, and

specialization to bear on problems facing the school district.

VIII. SUMMARY

This chapter was concerned with analysis of the data presented in chapter V with respect to selected issues confronting administrative organization in the public schools. The issues that were analyzed were concerned with physical characteristics, breadth of administrative positions, line and staff, span theory, centralization-decentralization, and departmentation in public schools.

The data uncovered many problem areas in the field of administrative organization, such as an overemphasis on line administrators, misunderstandings of line and staff, and too large or too small spans of supervision. The most significant single conclusion that can be drawn from the analysis is that there is no common system of administrative organization among the school districts included in the sample. One can find examples of districts that seem to be practicing all of the principles of good organization, through the continuum, to districts that seem to be practicing none of the principles.

Chapter VII will continue the analysis of data with respect to the point of view toward administrative organization developed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER VII

ANALYSIS OF DATA WITH RESPECT TO A POINT OF VIEW TOWARD ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

I. INTRODUCTION

In chapter IV, a point of view was developed toward administrative organization that is based upon fundamental principles of a democratic society and the unique characteristics of education in such a society. The point of view is based upon the concept of shared responsibility and proposes an approach to administrative organization in public schools which should implement sound principles of organization in a framework of democratic freedom and cooperative participation. The core of this point of view can be called the "policy circle organization" (page 74).

This policy circle includes formulation, adoption, execution, and review. This chapter will present an analysis of the degree to which this point of view is being used in the administrative organization of the public schools of Michigan.

This approach suggests that employees, lay citizens, and pupils should cooperatively formulate policies for board of education adoption; superintendents and other administrators should be responsible for the execution of the adopted

CHAPTER VII

ANALYSIS OF DATA WITH RESPECT TO A POINT OF VIEW TOWARD ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

I. INTRODUCTION

In chapter IV, a point of view was developed toward administrative organization that is based upon fundamental principles of a democratic society and the unique characteristics of education in such a society. The point of view is based upon the concept of shared responsibility and proposes an approach to administrative organization in public schools which should implement sound principles of organization in a framework of democratic freedom and cooperative participation. The core of this point of view can be called the "policy circle organization" (page 74).

This policy circle includes formulation, adoption, execution, and review. This chapter will present an analysis of the degree to which this point of view is being used in the administrative organization of the public schools of Michigan.

This approach suggests that employees, lay citizens, and pupils should cooperatively formulate policies for board of education adoption; superintendents and other administrators should be responsible for the execution of the adopted

policies; and the employees, in turn, should review and reformulate policies in light of their effectiveness in an ever-changing society. It was further suggested that for this system to function properly, the superintendent of schools has to lead in all phases of the operation. Therefore, the key features of such an approach toward administrative organization are (1) shared responsibility throughout the entire system, (2) proper definition of function within the organization, and (3) leadership on the part of the superintendent.

II. SHARED RESPONSIBILITY

The degree to which responsibilities are assigned and shared at various levels of the organization is important to this discussion. If responsibilities are jealously guarded by any one person or group within the system, the entire operation loses its effectiveness. Data collected on task performance (Tablex XXXI, XXXII, XXXIII, and XXXIV) will shed some light on this topic.

Along with information about who performs certain tasks the majority of the time, careful inspection of these data shows that all twenty tasks are shared among various persons in all five groups of districts. As a matter of fact, the tasks are shared to such a degree that one begins to question whether the principle of shared responsibility is overemphasized to the detriment of smooth organizational

operation. When three or four different positions perform a task the majority of the time, there is reason to question the placement of responsibility for that task.

Kinds of responsibilities assigned to administrators and to committees also will give insight into the degree to which responsibility is being shared in public school organization. This facet of the analysis will be presented under the section on primary functions.

Formal systems for involving citizens in the principle of shared responsibility, as indicated by the number of citizens' advisory curriculum councils, are few in number. Table XVI shows that these kinds of committees are used by between 8 and 28 per cent of the school districts studied. Size of district seems to have no connection with the use of such committees as their percentage of use from largest to smallest group is 17, 8, 28, 9, and 18, respectively.

Data were not available regarding the extent of citizen and pupil involvement in school curriculum committees except through an "other" space under each committee question. Only two superintendents listed either of these groups on any of their curriculum committees. This lack is unfortunate and limits the principle of shared responsibility by eliminating two important groups of people from the sharing procedure.

Shared responsibility means that the various tasks, responsibilities, and operational functions of the district

should be assigned at various levels throughout the district. It does not mean that many people perform the same task at the same time. The data on task performance, committee function, and administrative function indicate the existance of shared responsibility at various levels of the organization. They also suggest that many specific tasks and functions are shared by many people at the same time. For example, superintendents in group 1 reported that superintendents, assistant principals, building principals, subject-matter directors, department heads, curriculum coordinators, and directors of curriculum all visit classrooms.

It can be concluded that the principle of shared responsibility is being used among school employees in public school organization. There are indications, however that the principle is misinterpreted by many superintendents.

III. PRIMARY FUNCTIONS

The questionnaire asked the superintendent to list the primary functions of administrative councils, building-curriculum committees, subject-matter or grade-level curriculum committees, system-wide curriculum committees, and citizens' curriculum advisory councils. He also was asked to list the primary function of the superintendent of schools, assistant superintendents of schools, curriculum coordinators, and building principals. This information was requested in open-ended questions so that freedom of expression could be

allowed. The responses were tabulated in Tables XVII and XXXV.

Committees. Table XVII contains the data on primary functions of committees. These data indicate that committees often formulate policies in the form of recommendations to various other committees, the superintendent of schools, the board of education, and other administrators. The variety and overlapping of answers in the table suggests confusion of function and duplication of effort between committees.

Many of the answers also indicate a lack of understanding of organization theory. For example, 11 superintendents, representing all 5 groups, said that administrative councils "establish policy." This is a function of the board of education. It is difficult to see how a committee or council can execute, lead, or interpret policies; these are duties that must be performed by individuals. Groups become ineffective when they attempt these functions.

Coordination is one of the most common functions listed between committees and within individual committees. The term "coordination" suggests a felt need for harmony and perhaps even standardization between the parts and levels of the school system. Two superintendents said that the primary function of subject-matter or grade-level curriculum committees was to standardize curriculum. There is no question that coordination in terms of unity, reduced duplication

of effort, and mutual understanding is vitally important to the successful operation of a school system; but when coordination becomes standardization, the whole concept of individual freedom and development is stifled.

Advisement to the board is listed as the primary function of citizens' curriculum-advisory committees by 8 superintendents representing all groups of districts. This is as it should be, for the board of education is an agent of the people and is charged with adoption of policies that will best meet the needs of its school district. Citizens' committees that are advisory to the superintendent or the staff have questionable legal status and may cause a community split between the board, the teachers, and the community.

Thus, it can be seen that committees are perceived by many superintendents to have the function necessary for them to be the policy formulating agencies of the schools. They are composed of teachers and principals, but lack citizens and pupils for truly effective community involvement. There is a wide variance in the superintendents' conceptions of functions of committees; an additional fact to support lack of an organizational pattern.

Committees should be the primary instrument for policy formulation in school systems. They need to be composed of a cross section of the faculty and should have well defined aims and objectives that coordinate with other

committees. In such a manner they may utilize the thinking of many persons, hear all sides of an issue, and be less apt to conflict with the function of other committees in the system.

Administrators. The functions of selected administrative positions is presented in Table XXXV. The three functions common to all groups of school districts, and receiving the highest number of total responses were: (1) to carry out policies, (2) to provide instructional leadership, and (3) to coordinate. The table lists eighteen other functions from "make everyone happy" to "direct." It can be seen from these data that superintendents see policy execution as their primary job with instructional leadership running a close second. The superintendents also list a wide variety of other functions as primary to their position.

Curriculum coordinators and assistant superintendents have primary functions that tend to be quite specific and specialized in nature. The curriculum coordinator is expected to supervise, develop, study, and evaluate curriculum. Assistant superintendents are specialists in business, instruction, plant and transportation, and personnel.

The building principal's most common function is to administer his building. Instructional leadership and supervision occupy second and third positions respectively. The list includes eight other functions that are perceived by the superintendents to be primary for the position.

Superintendents who define the primary function of other administrators as "delegated by the superintendent"--as is the case with each of the positions studied here--appear to have loose organizations with no apparent, specifically defined duties or responsibilities. Those superintendents seem to consider their position to be one of absolute authority. It is not difficult to imagine these men as despotic administrators operating autocratic school systems.

It can be concluded from these data that a large number of superintendents perceive their position, and the positions of other administrators, as leadership positions with a specific responsibility for execution of policies. These functions agree with the point of view developed in this thesis.

IV. SUPERINTENDENT LEADERSHIP

The questionnaire asked two other questions that were designed to find out the real duties of the superintendent and other administrators in the schools. One question asked how much time the superintendent gave to various activities. The data from this question appears in Tables XXVI, XXVII, XXVIII, XXIX, and XXX. The other question asked who performs selected tasks the majority of the time. The data from this question appears in Tables XXXI, XXXII, XXXIII, and XXXIV.

These data are analyzed in chapter VI. They indicate that, in practice, the superintendent is not the instructional leader. Rather, he is tied down with administrative and management details such as interviewing prospective teachers, employing teachers, adopting textbooks, and ordering textbooks.

These data suggest that the building principal is the real instructional leader of the public schools of the state. Such a conclusion is drawn from the fact that they perform the following tasks the majority of the time:

Introduce Curriculum Study	Build Schedules
Supervise Curriculum Study	Visit Classrooms
Supervise and Coordinate Elementary Teachers	Supervise and Coordinate High School Teachers
Supervise Pupils	Discipline Pupils
Chair Building-Curriculum Committees	Chair District-Wide Curriculum Committees
Hold Building Faculty Meetings	Hold Grade-Level Faculty Meetings
Hold Subject-Matter Faculty Meetings	

The data in Tables XXVI, XXVII, XXVIII, XXIX, and XXX attempt to find out the kinds of activities that occupy most of the superintendents' time. This information should serve as another indication of the extent to which they are truly instructional leaders in their school systems. These data reveal that all group 1, 2, and 3 superintendents spend between 0 and 5 per cent of their time supervising transportation, and cafeterias. A broad analysis of these tables

uncovers a group of activities that most superintendents spend a majority of time on, and another group of activities that most superintendents spend little time on. These activities are listed below.

Activities Consuming More Time

Working on Budget

Planning New Facilities

Office Management

Discussing Curriculum with Principals

Working on Correspondence and Reports

Professional Meetings and Organizations

Meeting with Committees

Activities Consuming Little Time

Professional Reading

Supervising Transportation

Supervising Cafeterias

Supervising Maintainence

Meeting with Administrative Councils

Meeting with Parents

Discussing Curriculum with Parents

Discussing Curriculum with Citizens

These lists suggest that superintendents spend a disproportionate amount of their time on management and operational details, while the activities related directly to improved

instruction within the district are left unattended or assigned to others.

Again, there is reason to question the degree to which the superintendent is an instructional leader in his school district. It may be argued that he functions at a very high level in the areas of finance, facilities, and state and national programs, which may well be the case. It does not appear that the instructional leadership at the local level is being assumed by the superintendent.

For the superintendent to become a real instructional leader in his school system, he must be freed of managerial details so that he will have time for the instructional program. One way to accomplish this is to assign these tasks and details to specialists in the system. The last responsibility that the superintendent should give up is leadership of and direct concern for the instructional program.

V. SUMMARY

As the data was analyzed in this chapter with respect to a point of view toward administrative organization, it could be seen that the point of view developed in this study is not entirely foreign to public school administrative organization. Many superintendents see their role, and the role of other administrators and committees, as agreeing with the approach taken in chapter IV of this study.

The point of view was analyzed in terms of shared responsibility, primary functions of curriculum committees and selected administrative positions, and superintendent leadership. It should be pointed out that the data did not uncover any significant trends. They did uncover indications of widely varied organizational patterns. Some were in agreement with, and others in opposition to, the point of view toward administrative organization presented herein.

These data definitely support the hypothesis that there are no common organizational patterns for the improvement of instruction in the public schools of the state.

Chapter VIII will conclude the analysis of data by presenting findings as they relate to general statements and purposes of this dissertation.

CHAPTER VIII

GENERAL FINDINGS

I. INTRODUCTION

The two previous chapters have been concerned with the analysis of data with respect to specialized aspects of the dissertation. There remains certain general areas, which were presented early in the thesis, that must receive attention. These areas are; (1) returns from interviewed sample versus mailed sample, (2) original purposes of the questionnaire as presented in chapter II, and (3) hypotheses of the study as presented in chapter I.

This chapter will present the findings of the data collected from the questionnaires as these data relate to the three areas listed above.

II. INTERVIEWED VERSUS MAILED RESPONSES

The superintendents of schools in fifteen of the school districts included in the sampling received questionnaires in interview situations. The remaining ninety-five school superintendents received the questionnaires by mail. The sample interview was used as a method of verifying the validity of the results from the mailed questionnaires.

Careful study of the tabulated data, with a view toward comparing the results from the mailed questionnaires with the results from the questionnaires completed in interview situations, uncovered only two areas of possible confusion or misunderstanding. All other parts of the questionnaire showed no noticeable difference in responses from the two techniques.

The first area of possible misunderstanding appeared in the definition of line and staff positions; question 1, part II. Of all superintendents sampled, only five reported no line administrators in their districts: or 5.6 per cent of the total sampling. One is in group 1, 2 are in group 4, and 2 are in group 5. Of the superintendents who received their questionnaires in interview situations, only one reported no line administrators in his district: or 6.7 per cent of the interviewed superintendents. His district is in group 1.

Of all superintendents sampled, forty-two reported no staff administrators in their districts: or 47.2 per cent of the total sampling. Two are in group 1, 3 are in group 2, 5 are in group 3, 14 are in group 4, and 18 are in group 5. Of the superintendents who received their questionnaires in interview situations, five reported no staff administrators in their districts: or 33.3 per cent of the interviewed superintendents. One is in group 1, 2 are in group 4, and 2 are in group 5.

These data may be significant enough to indicate an area of misunderstanding; however, it appears to the investigator that the comparative figures are not enough different to indicate a major discrepancy.

The second area of possible misunderstanding is with respect to the number of persons directly responsible to the superintendent: question number 6, part III. In spite of the fact that the superintendents were asked to ignore whatever open-door policies they might have, the data from the mailed questionnaires shows isolated cases where the "directly responsible" figures are extremely high--they probably include all the employees in the districts. There are no such cases among the responses of the interviewed superintendents. The largest number of persons reported as "directly responsible" by the interviewed superintendents is 29. That superintendent's school district lists 540 teacher-certificated employees. Among the mailed questionnaires, similar figures are 400 "directly responsible" in a district listing 376 teacher-certificated employees.

Thus, there is a real indication of misunderstanding on the part of some superintendents who received the questionnaires by mail regarding the question asking the number of persons directly responsible to them. There is, therefore, some basis for questioning the validity of the answers to this question. Misunderstanding may account for the wide variation in data obtained from the answers to the "directly responsible" question.

III. ORIGINAL PURPOSES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Determine the existing patterns of organization in the public schools that pertain to the instructional program. According to the data collected, the school districts in Michigan have no common organizational patterns for improved instruction. Some broad trends gathered from the data would suggest that: (1) teacher-administrator ratios are constant among different size districts (there is a slight increase in small districts); (2) there are appreciably more line administrative positions in the public schools than there are staff administrative positions; (3) large school districts employ a higher percentage of administrators than do small districts; (4) span of supervision figures show no consistency, either between or among positions; (5) all school districts, except those employing between 26 and 50 teachers, use teacher committees to a great extent in their instructional improvement organization; (6) unity of direction is both varied and confused in most districts; (7) the data are not sufficiently different to show any trend in subject-matter versus general-education oriented organization; (8) features of both centralized and decentralized organizations are evident from the data (small districts tend toward decentralization, and large districts tend toward centralization).

Determine what position or positions perform certain selected functions common to most public schools. Superintendents of schools tend to perform administrative and managerial tasks. Their task performance would suggest leadership at an over-all level rather than instructional leadership within the local school district. As the school districts become smaller, the superintendents become more involved in local problems of an instructional nature.

Data on time given to selected activities verifies the conclusion that superintendents do not perform nor spend sufficient time at tasks that are directly related to instructional improvement in the local district.

Committees recommend textbook revisions, and teachers chair grade-level or subject-matter curriculum committees.

In terms of task performance, the building principal is the instructional leader of the school system. He is expected to perform all of the tasks that are directly related to the local instructional program.

Determine the degree that the superintendent is free to exert instructional leadership. According to the data collected on responsibility, professional contacts, number of contacts with selected persons per week, and direct access, it is strongly indicated that superintendents of schools are not free to exert the kinds of leadership that will result in improved instruction at the local level. They are bogged down by numbers of people, technical details

of finance, purchasing, building construction, procurement of teachers, and community and civic activities to the extent that they do not have time left to exert local leadership specifically oriented to improved instruction.

Determine the degree of involvement of citizens and staff in the development and execution of the instructional program. School employees are involved to a considerable degree in the development and execution of the instructional program. Their role as committee members and chairmen, along with their involvement in task performance, places them in an excellent position to assist in the development and execution of policies related to the instructional program.

The opposite is true of citizen involvement. Only two school districts out of eighty-nine reported citizens as members of school curriculum committees. These are in system-wide curriculum committees. The use of citizens' curriculum-advisory committees is limited in the school districts studied.

Determine the degree that the principles discussed in chapters III and IV are being implemented in the public schools of Michigan. Chapters VI and VII presented a detailed analysis of the degree to which the principles discussed in chapters III and IV are being implemented in Michigan's public schools.

It should be noted here that examples were uncovered of districts that are following the selected principles

in their organizational framework, and that some examples of utilization of the point of view developed in this study toward administrative organization were found. The data, nevertheless, shows a wide variety of practices with no commonality or uniformity of organizational patterns apparent.

IV. HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1. The public schools of Michigan have no common organizational pattern to facilitate instruction.

This hypothesis is verified by the data and analysis dealt with in chapters V, VI, VII; and in section II of this chapter. At every turn, the questionnaires uncovered data that support this hypothesis. School districts in the study display organizational patterns that have no line positions; others that have no staff positions. In some districts, all employees are directly responsible to the superintendent; in others, as few as four or five are directly responsible to the superintendent. Some districts have autocratic organizations; others have democratic practices and procedures. Similar examples can be given in almost all cases as supporting evidence for the acceptance of this hypothesis.

Therefore, hypothesis number one is accepted. It represents the strongest conclusion made from this study.

Hypothesis 2. An appreciable number of school districts that were considered in this study show a lack of

instructional leadership organization.

This hypothesis is more difficult to verify than the previously stated hypothesis. The data strongly suggest that the statement relates more closely to small districts than it does to large districts. The absence of staff positions and administrative councils, along with fewer curriculum committees in smaller districts, helps to support this conclusion.

Therefore, hypothesis number two is only partially accepted. The definition of the term "appreciable number" gives rise to some reservation. Certainly, there are some districts in this study with no instructional organization, but they are few and the exact number is difficult to ascertain.

Hypothesis 3. An appreciable number of school districts that were considered in this study and that have an organizational structure for instructional leadership, do not have the superintendent of schools as the instructional leader.

This hypothesis is definitely proved by the analysis of task performance and time devoted to various activities by superintendents. It was found that principals usually spend their time performing those tasks that are connected with local instructional leadership. Teachers, through committee membership and chairmanship, also contribute much to instructional leadership at the local level.

Superintendents are heavily involved in managerial, financial, and operational facets of the school system.

Therefore, hypothesis number three is accepted. It, along with hypothesis number one, represents a major conclusion of the study.

Hypothesis 4. The selected principles of organization will serve as guidelines for determining when certain types of administrative positions should be added to the personnel of a school system.

The selected principles referred to in this hypothesis were presented and briefly developed in chapter III. This hypothesis is the basis for the presentation made in chapter IV, in which a point of view toward administrative organization for improved instruction was developed. Chapter IV set forth an approach toward administrative organization that recognizes a need for a modification of traditional concepts of line and staff; rejects the autocratic implications of power, control, and authority in a democratic society; recognizes shared responsibility as an important concept to successful, school administrative organization; and describes an organizational framework that should allow for better instruction in the public schools.

In a general way, all of these points support this hypothesis. Further analysis of and comment about this hypothesis will be made in the final chapter.

V. SUMMARY

This chapter has brought together the general statements, expectations, and hypotheses of the dissertation and presented an over-all analysis of them in terms of the data collected by the questionnaires.

It was concluded in this chapter that (1) except for the question of direct responsibility, there is no appreciable difference between responses that were completed during interviews and through the mails; (2) the five original purposes of the questionnaire were satisfied; and (3) all hypotheses were accepted without reservation except hypothesis number two. That an appreciable number of school districts examined show a lack of instructional leadership organization was only partially accepted.

It remains to draw general conclusions and make recommendations based upon the entire dissertation. This will be the purpose of the next and final chapter.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

I. INTRODUCTION

This dissertation is concerned with a study of administrative organization for improved instruction in the public schools of Michigan. It combines theory and applied research to develop an approach toward public school administrative organization and compares this approach with current practices in the field.

The approach was developed by selection of a set of seven organizational principles from public administration, business administration, and church administration. The principles selected are (1) common purpose, (2) unity of direction, (3) line and staff, (4) span of supervision, (5) centralization-decentralization, (6) departmentation, and (7) informal organization.

These principles then were expanded within the context of a democratic society and the unique features of education in such a society.

It was argued that to insure a democratic way of life that insures individual freedom, recognizes the worth and dignity of every person, and attempts to develop each

individual to the limit of his capacity, there must be an evaluation and reinterpretation of principles of administrative organization. Thus, the approach developed in chapter IV attempts to place the selected principles in proper context for effective administrative organization of public education in a democratic society. This point of view suggests that employees, lay citizens, and pupils should formulate policies; boards of education should adopt policies; the superintendent of schools and other administrators should execute policies; and employees, lay citizens, and pupils should review policies and recommend necessary changes in light of practical application. The point of view further suggests that the superintendent of schools should be a leader in all four facets of the system.

The next phase of the dissertation was to determine how the public schools in Michigan are organized to facilitate improved instruction. A questionnaire was submitted to the superintendents in 110 public school districts selected in a representative random sampling of the state.

The questionnaire was designed in such a way as to attempt to find out how the superintendents of schools see various organizational, administrative, and operational aspects of their school systems. The data from the completed questionnaires were then used to analyze existing administrative organizational patterns of Michigan public schools.

This study determines how Michigan school systems are organized to facilitate improved instruction. It also develops an approach toward organization--an approach that serves as a basis to draw conclusions regarding the effectiveness of administrative organization for instructional improvement in the public schools of a free society. Further, the approach serves as a basis to make recommendations for improving public school administrative organization.

This chapter deals with the conclusions and recommendations mentioned above. They are drawn from the approach toward administrative organization developed in chapter IV, as compared with current practices determined by the responses to the questionnaire.

The chapter brings the dissertation to an end with a section on suggestions for further study. These suggestions arise from the many facets of this general problem that were discovered throughout the entire study.

II. CONCLUSIONS

A study of this type leads to many conclusions of differing nature. Within the body of the dissertation, conclusions are often implied and sometimes spelled out in the text. These varied conclusions, both implicit and explicit, may be grouped into the broad areas of conclusions drawn from the point of view, and conclusions drawn from the questionnaire data. The former will be classified as

"theory conclusions" and the latter as "data conclusions."

Theory conclusions. As the principles of administrative organization were selected and briefly developed, and as the approach toward administrative organization for improved instruction unfolded, certain conclusions seemed to appear which are important to the topic studied. These conclusions follow.

1. The administrative organization of an enterprise should be determined by its goals and purposes, and should operate within the context of the basic tenets of the societal complex in which it functions.

Whether these basic tenets are democratic, autocratic, laissez-faire, or otherwise, the administrative organization that will best serve the purposes of the society will assume characteristics which agree with the operational theories that it fosters.

A laissez-faire organization would have real difficulty succeeding in an autocratic or dictatorial society. A laissez-faire structure does not encourage or sanction the way of life of these associations. Autocratic governments are not interested in social experimentation and, therefore, would not tolerate an administrative organization that is contrary to their beliefs.

True democracy not only allows but also encourages experimentation within its structure. Many types of administrative organizations may exist, experimentally, in a

democratic society. If democracy is to prosper, however, its administrative organizations must operate in such a way that they agree with and encourage the democratic way of life.

2. Administrative organization in a democratic society should be based upon freedom for the individual to develop to the limit of his capacity, recognition of the dignity and worth of every person, and the development of policies and methods of operation by all of the people for the good of all of the people.

To maximize creativity on the part of all people, and to be equipped to cope with a society that should have dynamic change and growth as a basis of its existence, administration in a democratic society must be so organized that it leads, motivates, and involves people. Traditional, autocratic concepts of authority, direction, power, and superiority should have no place in this type of administrative organization. Its primary purpose should be to help people to help themselves.

3. The function and purpose of an enterprise should be a determining factor in the type of administrator for that enterprise.

One may argue with considerable logic that administrative organization in business, industry, and the military needs to exercise a degree of direction in its operation. This may be due to the standardized nature of the product

being produced by these operations. Conformity to assembly-line procedures, profit-and-loss figures, and military discipline and logistics are basic to the success of these institutions.

In education, however, the product is individual development of human beings to the limits of their capacity. Thus, the educational enterprise is concerned with the direct opposite of a standardized product. Creativity, individual development, and inquiry are fundamental goals of education. Therefore, administrative organization in public education should have an emphasis more oriented to the principles of democratic living than industry, business, or the military.

This conclusion is not meant to be in opposition to the preceding conclusion; it is meant to be a refinement and to point up degrees of relative emphasis. The intent of this conclusion is to point up the premise that if democratic principles ought to be applied to administrative organization in business, industry, and the military, certainly they are vital to the successful operation of the administrative organization of public education.

4. The primary purpose of an enterprise should be the chief concern of the top executive officer of the enterprise.

The top executive of an automotive corporation is primarily concerned with building cars that will sell; a military general, with winning battles. Similarly, a

superintendent of schools should be primarily concerned with instruction. Top executives that are not familiar with, and deeply involved in the primary purposes of their enterprises will find that their enterprises lack the top-level leadership and guidance needed to reach maximum effectiveness.

These statements imply that there is no one executive who can successfully administer all types of operations. The contention here accepts the view that there is a common core of administrative knowledge useful and basic to all situations, but qualifies this view by adding that the truly successful executive must also possess specific knowledge of the undertaking that he is administrating. Thus, educational, business, industrial, public, and military administrators should have much in common with respect to their preparation and point of view toward their function; but, to be truly effective, each must possess talents and preparation uniquely suited to the specialized goals in his institution.

Data conclusions. As the data collected from the questionnaires were tabulated and analyzed, they gave insights into the administrative organization of public schools in Michigan. These insights, in turn, led to the following conclusions:

1. There are no administrative organizational procedures common to all the public schools of Michigan.

This conclusion is drawn from the many incidents of variation in organizational patterns reported in the data. Personnel employed, definition of function of administrators and committees, span of supervision, and task performance are some of the areas that showed extreme variations between school systems.

Some degree of individuality is healthy in democratic institutions. The lack of common patterns found in this study, however, are so extreme that they can only lead to inefficient and slip-shod operational procedures.

2. There is a definite indication of lack of understanding of principles of administrative organization on the part of superintendents of schools in Michigan.

This conclusion is based on data analysis that indicates some school systems have no line administrators; others, no staff administrators; some, with spans of supervision as high as 1000 to 1; and some school districts with as many as 386 persons directly responsible to the superintendent, but without direct access to him.

3. In many cases the superintendent of schools is not the instructional leader of his school system.

The data collected in this study strongly suggests that the building principals are, in fact, the instructional leaders in many school districts in Michigan. The superintendent of schools is so involved in details of management, finance, new buildings, public relations, and state and national

affairs that he cannot devote time and energy to the direct leadership of the instructional program in the local community.

4. There is positive evidence of overlapping and vaguely defined functions of administrators and committees in Michigan public schools.

When superintendents were asked to list the primary function of specific administrative positions and specific committees, they often listed the same or similar functions for different positions and/or committees.

5. The approach toward administrative organization for improved instruction developed in chapter IV of this dissertation is not entirely new to public education.

There were encouraging indications of practices being followed in isolated public schools that closely parallel the point of view developed in this study. The principle of group involvement is being used by many school systems through committee action. Familiarity with and proper use of line and staff, span of supervision, decentralization, unity of purpose, and unity of direction were found to varying degrees among the schools studied. The concept of policy formulation, adoption, execution, and review proposed in chapter IV is being implemented with slight variations in a few school districts.

6. As long as school systems continue to lack a uniform plan of administrative organization, and as long as

these systems continue to expect their superintendents of schools to be anything but the instructional leaders of the school districts, the superintendents will not be able to fulfill their roles in a democratic society as described throughout this study.

Administrative organization is the key to establishing an educational system that promotes the democratic way of life, frees teachers and pupils to be creative, and insures a dynamic, growing institution.

7. If the public schools of the United States are to continue to serve the needs of a democratic society that is dedicated to the recognition of the worth and dignity of every individual and is based upon the fundamental premise of constant evaluation and dynamic change, the administration of these schools must be so organized that it is oriented to, and focused on the public schools as an institution recognizing and nurturing the promotion of creativity, freedom of thought and inquiry, individual worth and dignity, and individual development to capacity.

A firm implication of this study is that the goals mentioned above can best be realized when the superintendent of schools is truly an educational leader in his school system, and when the entire administrative organization is based upon a philosophy of freeing teachers and pupils to be creative and productive in an over-all framework of cooperative participation of all employees, lay citizens, and pupils.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has led to the conclusions that were enumerated above. These conclusions, in turn, suggest certain modifications, changes, and specific procedures in public school administrative organization. The recommendations that follow will suggest ways that weaknesses in educational administrative organization, as revealed in this study, may be corrected in the future.

1. Public schools, through their state and national organizations, should develop a framework of administrative organization. This framework should be general enough to allow for unique features of individual districts but, at the same time, it should be sufficiently particular to help bring some degree of reason to the chaos of present-day public school administrative organization.

2. The framework recommended above should be built upon instructional leadership as the only real function of public education. Therefore, the entire administrative organization should be focused on instructional improvement with the superintendent of schools as the key leader in this program.

3. Boards of education should be made aware of the importance of the leadership nature of the position of superintendent of schools. They should be educated to the realization that instructional leadership--not finance,

discipline, and details of management--is the most important contribution that their executive officer can make.

4. School administrators need to be trained in the technical field of administrative organization by the introduction of courses at the graduate level that are specifically concerned with principles of administrative organization and their implications in a democratic society.

5. The superintendent of schools should be relieved of much of the time-consuming detailed tasks traditionally associated with the position. There should be sufficient line administrators so that the span of supervision and channels of communication throughout the system can operate smoothly at all levels. There should also be the proper number and type of staff positions to give the line personnel freedom to exert educational leadership.

A proposal for implementing this recommendation will be made under suggestions for further study.

6. The above recommended line and staff administrative positions in public schools suggest that there should be more staff and fewer line positions in the administrative organization of public schools. With such an arrangement, lines of communication are less complicated and easier to follow, and the teacher has more freedom to be creative and to give his aid to developing the purposes of the system.

7. There should be considerable group involvement in the administrative organization of the schools. This should

be accomplished through the planned utilization of committees and councils in which free and open exchange of opinions, points of view, and facts can be brought to bear on school problems. These committees should act as the nucleus for policy formulation and evaluation in the school system.

There should be more lay citizen involvement in school policy formulation and evaluation. If schools are to reflect the communities in which they operate, they must involve the people of that community in their deliberations.

8. Teachers should be freed from clerical duties and management details by specialists in the nature of clerks, lay readers, counselors, secretaries, and the like. When they are freed, teachers gain time to teach, and to be concerned with and involved in improved instruction in the school system.

9. An attempt should be made, through state and national organizations, to reach some standardization of administrative position titles in the public schools. The proliferation of such titles is a major hurdle to the study of and ultimate recommendations for improved administrative organization in public education.

IV. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

As was indicated early in this dissertation, the study of administrative organization in public education has received little attention in the past. It is suggested,

therefore, that many more studies related to this topic be undertaken.

Some specific suggestions that might serve well as supplements to the present study are:

1. To make a similar study with a scope that would include more than one state so that a clear picture of public school administrative organization throughout more of the United States could be obtained.
2. To perform a study in depth of selected school systems for the purpose of determining the validity of the data collected in this study.
3. To make a study in an attempt to determine the effects of informal organization on the instructional program.
4. To implement the approach toward administrative organization developed in this study in an attempt to see if it actually produces creative growth in children.

A need for improved communication that will lead to improved creative production in public schools is closely related to the principles of span of supervision and decentralized administrative structure, which were discussed throughout this dissertation. The need for simplified channels of communication through the reduction of the number of line administrators, the necessity of recognizing the limitations of the principle of span of supervision, and the need to release teachers to exercise their creative abilities, all point to the need for further study concerning the process of adding administrative positions to public school organization.

The following list of positions, with descriptive phrases, represents a possible approach to this problem. These positions are stated by authorities to be important

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to successful public school administrative organization. They represent a synthesis of administrative structure in many cities today.

This outline is not intended to be the only solution for good public school administrative organization. It merely represents a possible method for arriving at improved administrative structure and should serve as a basis for further study and evaluation.

A. Line administrators. In each case authorities state that these positions should have well defined line responsibilities.

a. Superintendent of schools. There should be one full-time superintendent for every school district. He should be the instructional leader of the district with primary concern and responsibility for the coordination of the entire instructional program throughout the system. He should work in the areas of stimulating the entire staff and motivating it toward constant instructional improvement. He should be the prime mover among the administrators and staff in freeing teachers so that they may be dynamic and creative.

b. Area superintendents. They should be added in school systems of 1,000 or more teachers in such a manner that they are directly under the superintendent of schools. Their duties and responsibilities should be the same as a superintendent of schools within the confines of their areas, but with limitations imposed upon them by the entire system. School systems like Detroit, Flint, Dearborn, Lansing, and Grand Rapids could profit by introducing this position into their administrative organization.

c. Director of auxillary services. They should be responsible for non-teaching employees and the proper accomplishment of their function in the school system. In the case of small districts, these responsibilities can be assigned to specific building principals. In larger districts (one hundred or more teachers), this position should be a central-office line person responsible to the superintendent.

d. Building principals. There should be one full-time principal for every twenty-five to thirty teachers. They should be the instructional leaders of their buildings and should assume responsibilities within their buildings similar to those described above for the superintendents of schools.

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e. Assistant principals. They should be added when a building staff exceeds thirty teachers. They should be responsible to the principal for a specific phase of the program within the building.

B. Staff administrators. In each case authorities state that these positions should have specialized training and ability commensurate with their duties. These duties should be specific and technical in nature with no line responsibilities. Staff persons should be authorities in their areas so they can give sound counsel and act as resource and consultant persons to line administrators and teachers with reference to their specialties.

Also, staff administrators will often act as clearing agents for the line administrators in matters directly related to their duties. For example, the business manager should collect and make recommendations on all purchase requests made by teachers and principals.

a. Business managers. They should be responsible for budget, bookkeeping, purchasing, and financial records. They should have total responsibility for the financial records and purchasing for the school districts, but not have responsibility for decisions on what should be purchased

or how money should be spent. They should be consultants in these latter areas, but final decisions must lie with line administrators.

In small districts, part-time persons or clerk-bookkeepers can handle many of these duties, with major decisions resting with the superintendent. In large districts(fifty or more teachers), full-time persons should be employed who are familiar with public school operation.

b. Subject matter coordinators. They should be responsible for technical competency in specific areas such as art, music, reading, and science. These positions should be added when the district becomes sufficiently large with respect to number of teachers to warrant their service. In general, when there are fifteen or more teachers directly involved in a specialized area, a coordinator for that area should be added.

These positions should serve to stimulate academic excellence within the framework of a pupil-centered school system by helping administrators and teachers keep abreast of current developments in subject-matter areas through conferences, meetings, research, and other in-service programs.

c. Deans of boys and girls. They should be responsible for pupil-personnel services and/or counseling services. They should report to building principals and act as resources for teachers and principals with respect to their areas of specialization. They should be added when school buildings house five hundred or more pupils.

d. Coordinators of instruction. They should be responsible for leadership and consultant roles with respect to the entire school curriculum. This position should replace the line position of assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, and should exist in school systems employing one hundred or more teachers.

e. Coordinators of personnel. They should be responsible for procurement of staff and personnel problems in the district. They should be educators who are specifically trained in personnel management. They should be added to large school systems (seven hundred fifty teachers and above).

The last two positions (d and e above) can assist the superintendent in his coordinating function. Acting as authorities in their respective fields, they can recommend, organize,

and carry out activities that help to strengthen and improve the overall educational program. They also can act as clearing agents for the superintendent on matters pertaining to their fields.

At this point in the development of public school administrative organization any study that sheds light on theory and/or practice leading to sound procedures and techniques will be a real contribution to public education in general and to administrative organization of public education in particular.

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APPENDIX

Letter of Transmittal

Questionnaire

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MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY EAST LANSING

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

January 8, 1962

Dear ,

The attached questionnaire is part of my doctoral dissertation. The dissertation is concerned with public school organization for the improvement of instruction. The purpose of this questionnaire is to determine the existing organizational patterns for instructional leadership in the public schools of the lower peninsula of the State of Michigan.

A random sample of 110 schools was taken from the total number of schools in the area chosen. Your school is one of the 110 in the sample. Because a sampling procedure was used it is very important that your questionnaire be returned.

I feel, as I am sure you will, that the information requested herein is important and will be of value to the school administrators of Michigan. Pre-testing of the questionnaire has shown that 30 to 45 minutes of your time is needed to fill it out.

May I take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your co-operation.

Sincerely,

Gerald R. Rasmussen

Gerald R. Rasmussen

May I express my personal appreciation for your time and energy in filling out this questionnaire for Mr. Rasmussen.

Sincerely,

Clyde M. Campbell

Dr. Clyde M. Campbell

POSITION
Elem. Prin
Elem. Dept
Elem. Grad Coordina
Elem. Vice Principa
Elem. Bldg. Coordin
Elem. Subj Coordin
An Elem. C Coordin
An All-Sch Coordi
Administr Assist
Business
Supt. of
Dir. of
Dir. of
Others
)Please

PUBLIC SCHOOL ORGANIZATION QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to determine how your school district is organized to carry out its function of instruction.

I. BASIC SCHOOL DISTRICT DATA

1. Number of elementary buildings in district _____.

2. Number of senior high school buildings in district _____.

3. Area of school district in square miles _____.

II. ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

1. In the following table please indicate:
   a. Number of persons occupying the listed positions as an advisory or resource position. (STAFF)
   b. Number of persons occupying the listed position as a supervisory or authority position. (LINE)
   c. Average number of persons who are directly responsible to each of those you have indicated as line persons.

POSITION	STAFF (a)	LINE (b)	NO. OF PERS. (c)	POSITION	STAFF (a)	LINE (b)	NO. OF PERS. (c)
Elem. Principals				Sr. High Principals			
Elem. Dept. Heads				Sr. High Dept. Heads			
Elem. Grade-Level Coordinators				Sr. High Cross-Dept. Coordinators			
Elem. Vice or Asst. Principals				Sr. High Vice or Asst. Principals			
Elem. Bldg. Curric. Coordinators				Sr. High Bldg. Curric. Coordinators			
Elem. Subject Matter Coordinators				Sr. High Subject Matter Coordinators			
An Elem. Curric. Coordinator				A Sr. High Curriculum Coordinator			
An All-School Curric. Coordinator				Asst. Supt. in Charge of Instruction			
Administrative Assistant				Asst. Supt. in Charge of Personnel			
Business Manager				Combination of the two above			
Supt. of Schools				Dir. of Secondary Education			
Dir. of Elem. Educ.				Dean of Boys			
Dir. of Curriculum				Dean of Girls			
Others _____							
)Please List)							

2. How many of your principals also teach? ____Elementary,____Sr. High.

3. How many of your Asst. principals also teach? ____Elementary, ____Sr. High.

4. What percent of your teaching administrator's time is devoted to Administration? (Non-Teaching).
   a. ____Elementary Principals. c. ____Sr. High Principals.
   b. ____Elementary Asst. Principals. d. ____Sr. High Asst. Principals

5. How many full-time administrators are in your school system? ____

6. How many teacher certificated persons are employed by your school district? ____

III. OPERATIONAL PROCEEDURES

Please scan this section before proceding.

1. Do you have an administrative council? (Regular meetings with your Administrative staff.) ____Yes, ____No. If yes:
   a. How many people are on it? ____
   b. Which of the following positions are represented on it?

      ____Supt. of Schools ____Asst. Supt.
      ____Admin. Asst. ____Business Manager
      ____Sr. High Principals ____Elem. Principals
      ____Dept. Heads ____Curriculum Coordinators
      ____ _____ ____ _____
      ____ _____ ____ _____
      (Others-Please List)

   c. What is its primary function? _____
      _____
      _____
      _____.

2. Do you have building curriculum committees? ____Yes, ____No. If yes:
   a. What is the average number of persons on each of the them? ____
   b. Which of the following positions are represented on any of them?

      ____Curriculum Coordinators ____Building Principals
      ____Teachers ____Dept. Heads
      ____Subject Matter Coordinators ____Asst. Principals
      ____ _____ ____ _____
      ____ _____ ____ _____
      (Others-Please List)

   c. What is the primary function of these committees? _____
      _____
      _____
      _____.

3. Do you have either subject matter or grade level curriculum committees? ____Yes, ____No. If yes:
   a. What is the average number of persons on each of them? ____
   b. Which of the following positions are represented on any of them?
      ____Building Principal ____Asst. Principal
      ____Teachers ____Counselors
      ____Subject Matter Coordinators ____Dept. Heads
      ____ _____ ____ _____
      ____ _____ ____ _____
      (Others-Please List)

   c. What is the primary function of these committees? _____
      _____
      _____
      _____.

4. Do you have a system-wide curriculum committee? ____Yes, ____No. If yes:
   a. How many people are on it? ____
   b. Which of the following positions are represented on it?
      ____Supt. of Schools ____Asst. Supt. in Charge of Curric. or Inst.
      ____System-Wide Curric. Coordinator ____Building Curriculum Coordinators
      ____Subject Matter or Grade Level Curric. Coordin. ____Teachers
      ____Building Principals
      ____ _____ ____ _____
      ____ _____ ____ _____
      (Others-Please List)

   c. What is its primary function? _____
      _____
      _____
      _____.

5. Do you have a citizens curriculum advisory council? ___Yes, ___No. If yes: What is its primary function? _____
   _____
   _____
   _____.

6. How many people, employed by your school district, are directly responsible to you? ____ What positions do these persons occupy? (See, II-1)
   _____ _____ _____
   _____ _____ _____
   _____ _____ _____
   _____ _____ _____
   _____ _____ _____

7. How many different people do you come in personal contact with, in a professional way, on the job, during an average week? (Consider groups as one contact)
   a. ___0-15, b. ___16-30, c. ___31-50, d. ___51-75,
   e. ___76-100, f. ___101-200, g. ___200-500, h. ___over 500.

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Citizen or Sc

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8. In your opinion, what percent of your time is devoted to the following activities?

ACTIVITY	PERCENT OF TIME				
	0-5%	5-10%	10-20%	20-30%	30-50%
Professional meetings and Organizations					
Professional Reading					
Working on Budget					
Supervising Transportation					
Supervising cafeteria					
Supervising maintainence					
Planning for board meetings					
Planning for new facilities					
Meeting with administrative council					
Meeting with committees					
Details of office management					
Meeting with parents					
Discussing curriculum problems:					
with principals					
with teachers					
with citizens					
Community Activities					
Correspondence and reports					

9. How often do you have contacts with the following persons in an average week?

PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTACTS							
	0-3	3-5	5-7	7-10	10-15	15-20	20-30	30-50
Asst. Supt.								
Admins. Asst.								
H.S. Principals								
Elem. Principals								
H.S. Teachers								
Elem. Teachers								
Dept. Heads								
Program Directors								
Pupils								
Parents								
Business Manager								
Citizens on Civic or School affairs								

10. How many of the following persons have direct access to you concerning a professional matter without permission or previous discussion with one of your subordinate administrators? (Please ignore whatever open-door policy you may have regarding your employees.)

a. ___Asst. Supt. b. ___Admin. Asst. c. ___H.S. Principal
d. ___Elem. Principal e. ___H.S. Teacher f. ___Elem. Teacher
g. ___Dept. Head h. ___Program Director i. ___Curric. Coord.
j. ___Pupils k. ___Parents l. ___Business Manager
m. ___Ad Hoc Staff Committees n. ___Ad Hoc Citizen Committees

11. Please indicate the person or persons who actually perform the following tasks in your school system the majority of the time.

TASK	PERSON									
	Yourself	Asst. Principal	One of Your Assistants	A Bldg. Principal	A Teacher	Subject Matter Directors	Committees	Dept. Heads	Curriculum Coordinators	Director of Curriculum
Chair Bldg. Curriculum Committees										
Chair grade-level or Subject-Matter Curriculum Committees.										
Chair District Wide Curriculum Committees										
Introduce Curriculum Study										
Supervise Curriculum Study										
Interview Prospective Teachers										
Employ Teachers										
Recommend Textbook Revision										
Adopt Textbooks										
Order Textbooks										
Visit Classrooms										
Supervise and Coordinate Elem. Teachers										
Supervise and Coordinate H. S. Teachers										
Supervise Pupils										
Hold Building Faculty Meetings										
Hold District-Wide Faculty Meetings										
Hold Grade-Level Faculty Meetings										
Hold Subject-Matter Faculty Meetings										
Discipline Pupils										
Build Schedules										

12. What is the primary function of the following positions in your school system?

a. Superintendent of Schools _____

_____

_____

_____.

b. Asst. Superintendent of Schools _____

_____

_____

_____.

c. Curriculum Coordinators _____

_____

_____

_____.

d. Building Principals _____

_____

_____

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