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THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

by

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A professional paper submitted to the Graduate Faculty in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

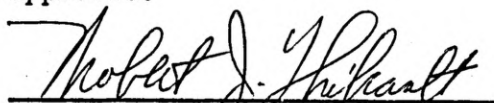
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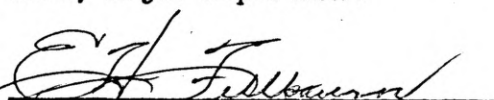
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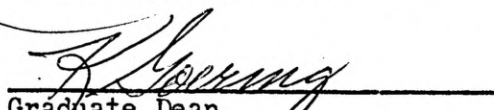
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the need for in-service education and to determine the principal's role in in-service education.

The need for professional growth was documented with an historical sketch of in-service education from the late 19th century to the present. The principal's role was determined through a research of the literature on public school administration and supervision.

Conclusions relative to the study revealed that there is a great need for in-service education within our secondary schools today. Secondly, it was apparent that the principal would be responsible for initiating, structuring, and maintaining such a program of professional growth. The program would be based on the needs of the staff, encouraged by a variety of activities, and organized by all concerned.

Recommendations that arose from the study were that the principal should have guidelines for organizing in-service education. Secondly, he should be aware that each teacher has different needs, capacities, and interests. Therefore, cooperation for organizing in-service education programs will have to be exemplified in him. Thirdly, the principal should channel the staff's natural desire for improvement into an effective, continuing in-service education program.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Today, education is faced with a unique challenge: preparing the youth of our nation to live effectively in a world that is impossible to predict and upholding high moral and intellectual values during a period of rapid change. The schools will meet this unprecedented challenge only to the extent that interaction in the classroom is based upon the latest information available from research in education.

Research indicates that one of the promising developments toward improving instruction is the rapidly increasing interest in and use of in-service education. Almost all schools now have an organized plan for professional growth.

The need for a continuing program of in-service education is due to a shortage of qualified teachers, the knowledge explosion, and the steady increase in school enrollments.

Today authorities estimate a shortage of qualified teachers numbering 171,300 (Fite, 12:96). This shortage of teachers means personnel will be recruited from the less qualified ranks to fill the vacancies. In-service education can be used to guide these less able teachers into a more effective job of teaching. In addition, it can be used to supplement the regular teachers' training.

Concerning the professionally prepared teacher, it was at one time assumed that once the academic requirements in college had been

completed one's education had terminated. This philosophy was shaken by the two frequently mentioned statistical trends that 90 percent of our inventions were developed in the last ten years, and that workers were retrained an average of three times during their years of employment. Regardless of the reason, educators must re-evaluate the old and make room for the new.

The continuing increase in population of the public schools has caused various crises to occur. Of particular importance to this investigation has been the fact that, though schools have usually been able to find themselves teachers for the classroom, these same districts have not improved or even maintained the teacher-supervisor ratio. In order to affect learning in the classroom, it becomes more necessary than ever for the principal to evaluate instruction and to implement a plan for continuous in-service growth.

Statement of the Problem

The major purpose of this study was to determine ways in which the principal can establish an effective in-service education program in the public schools. A secondary purpose was to survey the need for in-service education and the methods for conducting such a program in the educational system. Therefore, the investigation was conducted to find the answers to the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between the purpose of in-service education in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries?

2. What is the relationship between having guiding principles for organization and an effective program of in-service education?

3. What is the relationship between the principal's leadership and the establishment of an in-service program?

Procedure

A review of related literature available at the Montana State University Library was used as a basis for obtaining information needed for this investigation. An historical sketch of in-service education was made to determine the need for professional growth. An examination of educational principles was made to establish guidelines for organization of an in-service program, and a comparison of opinions in the literature was made to determine the principal's role in the total program.

Limitations

There were two limitations in this survey. First, the survey of related literature was limited to reference material available in the Montana State University Library. The second limitation was that no in-service education practices of particular school districts were considered as the basis of the problem.

Definition of Terms

In-service education referred to those activities on the part of employed teachers that contributed to their professional growth and

qualifications. These activities were utilized on a group or individual basis; and they were carried out during school hours, after school hours, on weekends, during summer months, or on official leave. In-service education was considered the means to professional growth. Professional growth was used throughout the study to mean the acquisition of subject matter knowledge, teaching skill and teaching efficiency.

In-service education and in-service training were used interchangeably as synonymous terms. In-service education did not include orientation of beginning teachers, however. Although the orientation of new teachers and other phases of in-service education of teachers in the employ of the school district operated with the same objective in view--the improvement of the teaching act--Elsbree and Reutter (10:111) contended that the orientation of new teachers was not generally considered a part of the in-service program. This point of view was not the consensus of all authorities in the field, but it was adhered to for the purposes of this particular study.

Chapter 2

THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

For the last half century, the professional literature in education had reflected a growing awareness of the relationship between the continued development of staff in-service and the improvement of instructional programs. A. J. Stoddard (41:336) summarized this awareness well in 1939:

It should be emphasized that progress is made in bringing together theory and practice, or the science of knowledge and its application, only through a continuous plan of growth in-service.

During the ensuing 25 years, much was learned about teacher in-service education. However, as professionals, we still have a long way to go. Ogletree (31:288) warned that too frequently in-service educational practices were characterized by an aggregate of incidental activities, lacking in purpose and unorganized in structure, and unsynchronized with the school district's total program. For these reasons, it was considered important to investigate the development of in-service education, the principles for organization, the devices available, the use of group processes, and the principal's role in the in-service education of teachers.

Development of In-Service Education

Reports by superintendents and principals during the latter part of the nineteenth century indicated that many teachers were poorly

educated for the job of teaching. Knight (21:294), in describing conditions in the South, noted that it was a number of years after the Civil War before teachers, as a class, showed much improvement over antebellum days. Reports had described antebellum teachers as being ignorant and incompetent. Some writers acknowledged the existence of a few good teachers in this period, but far too many had only common school training.

Thus, early in-service education programs assumed that teachers generally lacked proper command of subject matter and methods of teaching it. Also, those programs considered the needs of the inexperienced and entirely untrained teacher and sought to involve large numbers of these teachers. The teachers' institute was recognized as an important agency in early in-service education programs (Richey, 35:38).

The exact date of the first teachers' institute was not found, but a circular by Horace Mann (Richey, 35:39) in 1845 defined the nature and purpose of the institute and verified its use as an in-service method:

It is the design of a Teachers' Institute to bring together those who are actually engaged in teaching common schools, or who propose to become so, in order that they may be formed into classes and that these classes, under able instructors, may be exercised, questioned, and drilled in the same manner that the classes of a good common school are exercised, questioned, and drilled.

It was noted that the major purpose of the teachers' institute during the mid-1800's differed somewhat from its use during a later

period. Thayer's (43:44) circular published in 1888 said that it was not the purpose of the institute to give formal instruction, but rather to stimulate the general work of the teacher. His thought paralleled the thinking of others who also felt the pre-service program in the various institutions was being upgraded and should therefore necessitate in-service sessions that did not duplicate the pre-service education of teachers. Normal school principals were also of the opinion that the program of the teacher institute in areas near normal schools should not include review and should be made more stimulating (Richey, 35:37).

Near the turn of the century, the institute was under severe attack. Many teachers had outgrown a need for an institute which had become formalized, embedded in legislation, and resistant to change. Though minor changes had taken place, there was always a tendency toward organizing all institutes with the needs of the poorer teachers in mind (Richey, 35:41). Thus, it is noted that the rich life the teachers' institute experienced earlier was slowly waning. McManis (25:232) classified the institute as a fossil. He felt it had served its purpose when there was nothing better to take its place. It was just five years later when the institute was criticized again and labeled makeshift, not being intended to become a part of the school system. It was Seerly's (37:256) belief that the teachers' institute had and was dissuading teachers from pursuing a more formal program of continued preparation through summer normal school.

The increasing demand for broadly educated teachers made the teachers' institute inadequate. Early in this century, institutions of higher learning in Louisiana began to hold summer normal schools for teachers. By 1930, normal schools and the newly conceived teachers' colleges came to require high school graduation for admission and had begun to develop a content for professional education (Richey, 35:43). Those developments changed the purpose and form of in-service education activities.

Though started in the last century, summer schools, evening and weekend classes, extension courses, and correspondence work for teachers really began to influence teacher education in this century. At about the same time, school supervision passed through a training and guidance stage, and an important part of the supervisor's job came to be the improvement of teaching (Burton, 5:7).

As requirements for pre-service education of teachers became higher and the status of teachers advanced, ideas about in-service education changed. The promotion of professional growth of all teachers became the central idea. Correcting deficiencies in pre-service education of teachers became a secondary aim (Richey, 35:37). Cooperative planning and work on problems faced by a school staff became the new concept of improving the teaching-learning situation. Thus, such in-service education activities as the small and large-group conference, the workshop, the faculty study group, and action research became fairly common.

In summary, the preceding historical sketch explained two important changes in in-service education from the nineteenth to the twentieth century. First, the purpose of in-service education moved from the original concept of preparation of teachers toward the central aim of providing stimulating experiences beyond pre-service education in order to attain quality teaching. Secondly, the method for in-service training has progressed away from a single activity approach (the institute) under the auspices of an external institution, to a multi-methods approach under the guidance of a particular school district with external assistance as supplementary to the in-service program.

Guidelines for Organization

In planning a program of in-service teacher education, the principal was advised to be cognizant of some fundamental guidelines. More than ever before he was to seek creative means for coordinating staff efforts and providing stimuli for professional growth (Goulet, 14:66). Whether positive teacher growth resulted from the in-service education opportunities provided depended upon what the teacher experienced in the process (Alan, 1:15).

It was generally agreed that the features of a continuing education program that would bring about positive results should possess the following characteristics: first, the program must develop from the needs of the participants; secondly, there must be a variety of in-service activities; and thirdly, there must be cooperation by all involved.

Develop from participants needs. It was noted that greater impetus was evidenced when the participants could see that their own felt needs were being considered in the formulation of an in-service activity. Foster (13:48) suggested the following basic premise regarding identification of needs:

A basic premise of in-service education is that it will result in professional growth of teachers which will, in turn, result in increased learning for pupils. This involves change in people--change in their way of thinking, change in their way of acting--and desire for change has to come from within the individual as a result of recognized need. Merely telling teachers certain improvements are needed, or telling them how improvements can be made, will not suffice, for teachers may be able to verbalize what they have been told, but may not be motivated or able to put verbal acquisitions into practice.

Brandon (4:341) concurred that the most satisfying in-service program was one planned on the expressed needs of the individual teachers. In a survey by Foster (13:50) of teachers' opinions on in-service education the following four factors were said to deserve utmost attention when seeking to upgrade instruction through in-service education:

- (1) teacher planning and preparation, (2) teacher-pupil planning,
- (3) grouping pupils for instruction, and (4) individualizing instruction.

There was general consensus in the literature that all faculty members needed to be involved in facing the school issues realistically and in seeking ways of finding more time for planning, of reducing class size, of organizing supplies and instructional resources, and of lessening the demands of non-teaching duties (Foster, 13:50). In essence,

effective in-service education cannot be divorced from a planned, continuous program of curriculum study. As Moffit (27:39) stated, "Only under those circumstances in which teachers find their own problems and want to do something about them can effective in-service education programs exist."

Leep (23:116) also believed that problems must originate with the teacher:

Only if each individual works within the framework of the basic philosophy of the whole program of self-study can in-service programs be stimulating to faculty, viewed as a means of professional growth by policymaker, and realize consistent lasting benefits to boys and girls.

It appeared, therefore, that professional growth must be interactive with the daily demands of the instructional program; and that if the principal believed professional growth was needed, then efforts to determine the teachers' professional practices and needs were warranted.

Once the concerns of the faculty have been identified, however, then certain questions must be asked and answered by the principal:

1. How directly do existing in-service education efforts focus on the instructional methods teachers want to improve and on the changes in conditions of work they want to make?
2. What modifications can be made in the existing program?
3. What major changes seem necessary?
4. How many of the improvements and changes recommended by the staff can be accomplished with the existing framework of the school?

5. How many changes can be made within the present budget?

6. How many changes are of sufficient importance to the teachers to justify attempts to get more financing?

7. Which changes should receive top priority? (Foster, 13:51)

These were questions, based on needs of the participants, that involved the entire faculty and should be answered by them. As the answers were sought and decisions were made through direct teacher participation, goals that were significant to the teachers would be established and the teachers would assume responsibility for their attainment.

Need for a variety of activities. The second characteristic of a positive in-service program employed the concept of many activities for professional growth and experience (Hicks, 18:158). The emphasis in the literature was on the use of in-service education as a means for adaptation and change (Bishop, 3:11). It was evident that one would not assume all teachers would experience growth through the same means, but would require a differentiated program in which people worked individually and in groups (Hicks, 18:158).

When Reid (34:54) discussed freed time for in-service education, he also stressed a variety in content and methods:

Variety of form and content keeps the in-service program interesting. Typical meetings deal with such topics as lesson planning, the readiness program in kindergarten, or motivation of accelerated students. . . new departures in art, developments in science, or new ideas in language instruction. Sometimes a scheduled session will take the form of a field trip to the

curriculum center to see how it functions or to work there. Other times, the agenda may involve demonstration of classroom procedures followed by discussion periods, or introduction of new music series in the primary grades.

Ogletree (31:288) expanded on the topic of a variety of activities and stated that they must be planned most carefully in terms of directional purposes, organizational structure and operational processes which were synchronized and complementary. Knezevich (20:372) concluded that stimulation of professional improvement called for a variety of approaches and differentiated content unified into a total in-service program. The philosophy that a variety in form and content of activities should be a basic principle upon which an in-service program should be constructed was definitely substantiated by the literature cited.

Cooperation by the participants. The third fundamental guideline for the organization of an in-service education program suggested that there should be cooperation by all participants involved. Goulet (14:67) supported this suggestion for cooperation when he stated that, "The simple key is 'teacher involvement.' If teacher education is to be an ongoing process, the teacher must assume the initial role, becoming involved at the very beginning." Herman (17:480) believed all that was needed initially was the desire to solve a felt problem and the realization that consultants were available if special skills were needed. However, if the teachers were involved at the outset, the question raised was, "Who should be involved eventually?"

Hodges (19:331) showed proper insight concerning the need for involvement when he stated, "In order for democratic procedures to function best in the classroom, they must be used in planning and implementing an in-service program." He also pointed out that there could be no pretense in the matter of participation. All levels of personnel needed a part so that the democratic process would be consistently applied. Herman (17:480) found that total participation in his action research project in Michigan resulted in higher morale, maintenance of interest, and a willingness to change. Hodges (19:331) presented a more complete view of the democratic process and degree of involvement in an editorial, "About Continuing Education":

How can groups deal realistically with the principle that procedures rendering the greatest benefit are frequently slow and require the most effort from the learners. In the democratic effort, the public, too, is involved. In-service education that will produce a sound curriculum acceptable to the community is dependent upon public participation. All socioeconomic groups should be represented in such planning. Cooperative efforts results in better understanding between parents and teachers and between schools and community. A well-balanced program is possible only as the public endorses and supports it, participates in its activities and undergirds its long-range aims.

The involvement of the community went beyond the initial participation of the teachers, but it guaranteed a more acceptable curriculum as a result of total involvement. According to Herman (17:480), action research, the problematic approach to change, was used to implement a general curriculum developed by school lay personnel in Flint, Michigan. In assessing the action research approach, he concluded:

(1) In-service education is of real value if carried on in a sensible manner that will not discourage staff participation; and (2) any staff can approach the solution of a felt problem if common sense and a great deal of energy and cooperation are used in the planning of the solution.

Concerning the guideline of cooperation, the consensus of opinion was generalized by Hick's (18:158) statement that productivity of a program will be commensurate with the involvement of all and at all levels of planning, operation, and evaluation.

In summary, there were three principles stressed in the literature as guidelines for the successful organization of an in-service program. The program should: (1) originate because of the needs of the participants, (2) provide differentiated activities for growth, and (3) promote cooperation of the individuals involved.

Leadership for Professional Growth

The principal was charged with the responsibility of playing a dual role as seen by the various members of his staff. In the one role, he was the administrator of his building, the authoritative figure, the disciplinarian, and the evaluator (Griffiths, 15:47-53). In the other role, he was charged with providing inspiration, encouraging development of good organization, and facilitating the work of the individuals and groups (Bishop, 3:28-29).

This investigation analyzed his role as an evaluator and its effect on the improvement of instruction first. According to Rose (36:48-53), it was rather ridiculous to expect and urge teachers to improve

until they knew specifically what it was that was in need of improvement and what ways of improving were available. He also contended that teachers were not good observers of their own performance, which, therefore, necessitated proper evaluation of teaching by a supervisor so instruction could be improved and reach its potential through proper feedback.

Reeder (33:183-193) stated that the evaluation of teaching efficiency had generally been accomplished through one of the following methods:

1. General Impression Method
2. Stenographic Reports of Lessons
3. Voice Recording Techniques
4. Score Cards and Scales
5. The Comparison Method
6. Pupil Results
7. Pupil Judgment

Reeder (33:183-193) cautioned, however, that each of the preceding forms, used for evaluation, had limitations. Their use, as a vehicle to accomplish certain goals, made it imperative that the person charged with evaluation of the teaching act continue using them in varying degrees.

One of the best ways to make an objective evaluation of the teaching act was to evaluate through personal observation and to use the

following criteria accumulated from several sources.

1. Teaching ability
2. Teacher attitude
3. Knowledge and use of communication skills
4. Ability to plan and organize
5. Knowledge of subject matter
6. Understanding of human relationships
7. Understanding of how children learn
8. Understanding and ability to use various skills and methods

in the development of basic concepts

9. Verbal interchange between teacher and pupils

Except for the last criterion in which Flander's Interaction Analysis can scientifically evaluate performance, the teacher rating movement does not rest on a scientific foundation, so no rating of a teacher should be considered infallible and should be treated as such. Reeder (33:183-193) offered the following principles to be foremost in the mind of the person making the evaluation of teacher efficiency:

1. The rating plan must have as its main purpose the guiding of teachers into better service.
2. The plan for rating should be transmitted to the person rated.
3. Results of the rating should be transmitted to the person rated.

4. Rating systems should be arrived at through mutual agreement by teachers and administrators.

5. Teachers should be in possession of the rating plan so self-analysis may take place frequently.

6. Emphasis should be on teaching results rather than on teacher.

7. Rating should take place often.

8. More than one person should make the rating if possible.

9. Folders should be kept on all faculty members so as to retain all cumulative materials.

Most authors were in agreement on one tenet; and that was, if the evaluation was to be worthwhile and have a purpose, there should be immediate feedback to the teacher so the instruction may improve. The major principles involved in evaluation were as applicable to the group as to the individual if more than one teacher was desirous of the same assistance.

Following the leadership of the principal in bringing his staff to cooperatively diagnose some school problems through evaluation, he must then assume his duties in regard to the second part of his dual role. Rose (36:48-53) maintained that this was actually the central role of the administrator in the building:

There is undoubtedly a role for the organized profession of teachers and administrators to play in this total uplifting process. But the administrator has an additional responsibility. This is to be a leader and to help that particular group in its

day-to-day work to come closer to attaining its goals. Thus, the administrator's responsibility to help teachers improve is a truly personal one in which he is in a unique position to fill.

The principal was to attain this leadership role by being prepared to: (a) provide inspiration, (b) encourage good organization, and (c) facilitate work of individuals and groups.

Provide inspiration. The principal was to inspire the in-service growth of faculty members by being cognizant of the fact that he must do so primarily through example. First, he must carry on his own program of in-service growth and secondly, he must be an initiator (Griffiths, 15:244).

Mason (24:21) suggested that the principal's in-service education would easily be attained through reading of professional literature and observing in schools other than the one assigned to. Further interest in his self-improvement could be expressed through performance evaluations made by staff members. For the latter, an unsigned questionnaire would be completed by the teachers and the results would help to determine areas in which added effort on his part would be needed.

In addition to inspiring the staff through his own in-service growth, the effective principal would inspire through innovation. Griffiths (15:245) found in his study of superintendents in New York and Connecticut that the two groups of administrators, successful and unsuccessful, differed most significantly in the area that was called

the area of initiative. Teachers' ratings indicated that they placed most stress on three items of the check list which was used:

1. He displays initiative.
2. He presents well-organized plans.
3. He is a very hard worker.

Sternloff (39:245) found many of the same behavior characteristics. In fact, five of the twenty-seven basic general behaviors of the effective school administration in his study fell into the initiator category. The leadership studies summarized the inspirational leader as a hard worker and a great initiator (Griffiths, 15:246).

Executing and encouraging good organization. The organization of the in-service programs seemed to be the basic determinant of its success or failure. In Sternig's (38:18) article, it was pointed out that unless the programs had a visible purpose through expressed need and were cooperatively planned, they would meet an agonizing death. He continued by pointing out that leadership in group dynamics with teachers actually can operate within the same guidelines as those used in a regular classroom situation. Factors in evidence might include the following, in part or in entirety:

1. Cooperative planning--good human relations
2. Provisions for action between and among the learners
3. Evidence of problem-solving techniques
4. Accessibility to many resources and authoritative data

5. Testing ideas
6. Adaptation to individual needs and capacities
7. Continuous appraisal, cooperatively done
8. Continuous attention to appropriate setting and atmosphere
9. Relationship to other pervasive goals of the group
10. Time for the job

Ovard (32:42) stressed the need for a working knowledge of group dynamics and noted that answers to the following questions would help the principal plan for effective organization:

1. Why are group decisions effective?
2. What are the functions of the status leader?
3. What is the sequence in group participation?
4. Why do groups sometimes malfunction?

In answer to the first question above, Ovard (32:42) said that group decisions were effective for the following reasons:

1. They improved the morale of those involved.
2. They created greater acceptance to whatever decisions were reached.
3. They improved the quality of the decisions.
4. They placed maximum responsibility to carry out the decision at the operational level.

Ovard's (32:42) implication that the morale of a group increased the effectiveness of group decisions was clarified by Moffit (27:73).

The morale of a group increased: (a) when the individual was recognized for contributions to the group, (b) when he was given responsibility for better ways of developing the school program, and (c) when responsibility was shared among several members rather than lodged in a single person. Thus, it was accepted that morale developed proportionately to the extent that the group participated in decisions regarding policies that affected the group. It was also true that some teachers desired more participation than others (Cornell, 8:223). The N.E.A. study of 1945 (30:126) indicated that men teachers more than women teachers, and secondary teachers more than elementary teachers, seemed to wish for greater responsibility in policy function.

Research showed that when participatory processes were employed, there were benefits that accrued to the institution and to the individual. Some of the benefits were:

1. A greater general effort and attention on the part of employees
2. A better understanding of organizational goals
3. An improvement in creativity
4. Better communication
5. A reduction in turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness
6. A reduction in number of grievances
7. A greater readiness to accept change
8. An improved quality of decisions made by those in responsible positions (Castetter, 7:69)

Van Zwoll (45:172) believed as Ovard that greater acceptance of a decision took place when the group participated in decision making. "As members participate, they have an opportunity to get rid of aggressiveness, tensions, and fears. The major consideration is acceptance; one should give people the right to accept their own ideas. They become committed to the decision because it is their decision." Ovard (32:44) cautioned, however, that increased satisfaction within the group and the general acceptance of a decision did not necessarily bring about a better decision as an end result. In fact, the decision could be a mediocre one; but, if the basic premise of organizing a group because of their knowledge and skills was used, then the decision could be one of superior quality.

Psychologists and sociologists demonstrated that not all authority comes from status and that what a respected old-timer thought might have had more real force than what the boss ordered (Fisher, 11:44). A principal cannot evolve all the ideas needed to operate a school efficiently. If ideas were welcomed from the group, then credit should be given to those who made the contributions. If the ideas suggested by another were put into practice, there would never be an end to the ideas available to the principal (Ovard, 32:44). However, the administrator should exercise wisdom in receiving and evaluating the ideas from the group. "When the leader uses the proper techniques, he can be assured that accepted group decisions are decisions of quality" (Fisher, 11:47).

Ovard (32:44) continued to caution about group results. "In the end result, putting the decision into operation is the ultimate objective in either individual or group decision making." Van Miller (26:35) also injected that the administrator was not deprived of authority by sharing the right to make the decision. He ceased to be either a rubber stamp or an autocrat and became at once a participant and a leader in the formulation of educational policies. He simply used his authority in the most effective way--he shared it with the staff. Stinnett (40:377) summarized that this decentralization through group participation placed maximum responsibility for carrying out the decision at the operational level.

The function of the status leader (principal) seemed to be a major question when the execution of group organization was discussed. Ovard (32:45) considered the question of group influence.

If the principal allows the group to make a decision, what is his relationship with the group? Will his presence create an influence for better or worse decisions? The answer lies basically in what the status leader does in the group process. If he attempts to dictate or tip his hand in a certain direction, groups that are status oriented will follow the leader. If the leader stays away and exercises no influence, the group process can deteriorate from one democratically conceived to one autocratically controlled.

Koopman (22:110) indicated that dependence on the thinking of the politician on a teaching staff or on the thinking of one or two cutthroat ringleaders among a teaching group was far from the course recommended. One of the major functions of the status leader was to protect the

rights of the minority so they could freely express themselves. Cartwright (6:492) also concluded that when minority rights were protected in this manner, studies showed that a leader could upgrade the end result of a discussion without running the risk of downgrading the end product.

A second major function of the principal at the initial stage was to structure the problem, to point out the implications of the problem, to define the responsibilities of the group and the limits of their authority and responsibility, and to indicate procedures that might be used to solve the problem (Ovard, 32:45). Thelen (44:209) pointed out that in the face of a principal's withdrawal, the situation was unstructured, it was difficult to get any sense of a real problem, and there was no guidance in developing the procedure to be followed in finding the problem.

A third function of the principal, defined by Ovvard (32:46), was to determine which group should be involved in the solution of the problem. Should the problem be turned over to a standing committee or be presented to the total faculty or should a new structure be created for handling the problem? Initiating structure was not regarded as non-democratic; it was regarded as a fundamental characteristic of effective leadership (Moore, 29:52). Concerning the size of the group, it was concluded by Benne and Muntyan (2:132-133) that the group should be the smallest it was possible to have represented at the functional level

all of the socialization and achievement skills required for the particular problem at hand. The group should include individuals who could make a contribution in the various roles needed for group effectiveness. Some of those roles were the encourager, observer and commentator, information giver, initiator, evaluator, and recorder.

Assuming any of those roles as the need arose was considered the fourth function of the principal, and the fifth function was to put his status on the line in favor of the decision and to see that the decision was carried out (Ovard, 32:46).

Cartwright and Zander (6:624) emphasized that a knowledge of the sequence of group participation would let the principal know the progress that was being made toward the solution of a problem. An analysis of the interaction of a group indicated that groups tended to move from a relative emphasis on orientation to problems of evaluation. The following sequence in group participation was outlined by Moore and Walters (28:69):

1. Help the group identify the problem to be considered.
2. Determine the facts necessary to a solution of the problem or a modification in present practice.
3. Locate the source of the facts and set up means of obtaining them.
4. Study the conditions that surround the solution, such as people's feelings, precedent, and legal aspects.

5. Determine objectives and goals and secure necessary consensus to permit concerted action.

6. Consider the alternatives involved so that solution of one problem does not create others of equal magnitude.

7. Provide for evaluation of the process and keep lines open for the next step.

According to Ovard (32:47), groups do not always function as idealized; and, if so, the problem may be more than the internal interaction of the group. Miller (26:70) indicated that malfunctioning in cooperative policy formulation could be expected if:

1. The administrator exercises line leadership instead of earned leadership.

2. The process is used without an understanding of the techniques involved.

3. Group members are not instructed in, or do not know, the boundaries of their responsibilities and authority.

4. Teacher participation is confined to matters of minor importance.

5. Too many committees are elected or appointed.

6. No procedures are established to implement the policies formulated.

Generally, the literature indicated that, in executing good organization, the effective leader understood people and desired to use

groups in reaching decisions on problems which affected the group (Moore, 29:52).

Facilitating growth of individuals and groups. To facilitate professional growth in-service, the principal was found to have several responsibilities. First, he had to make sure he kept himself professionally alive. As Rose (36:53) stated in his article, "The modern school administrator, more than ever before, needs to be a student of his profession and all that underlies it." Secondly, he had to develop and practice good human relations.

Real professional growth is so dependent on cooperative group action and participation that it is difficult to see how it can be expected to abound in a situation dominated by rugged and ruthless individualism, devoid of common courtesy and mutual consideration among staff members. A congenial atmosphere is one of the greatest guarantees of efficient working relations (Hicks, 18:161).

Thirdly, he had to guide the staff to perceive him in his assisting role as opposed to the boss role. Dunworth (9:28) pointed out that all persons perceived as they were taught to perceive and therefore saw the principal as an authoritarian figure and often experienced fear. Also, the principal operated in many roles, so it became necessary that the principal did not try to change the perception of the teacher but did try to help them see that he functioned in a capacity other than boss.

In addition to the three general areas of responsibility for facilitating in-service growth, the literature specified techniques for

in-service education. Gwynn (16:327) listed alphabetically those supervisory devices available to the principal:

Group Devices

1. Committees
2. Course work
3. Curriculum laboratory
4. Directed reading
5. Demonstration teaching
6. Field trips for staff
7. Institutes and lectures
8. Panel discussions
9. Professional libraries
10. Professional organizations
11. Supervisory bulletins
12. Teachers' meetings
13. Workshops or group conferences

Individual Devices

1. Classroom observation
2. Classroom experimentation
3. Conference (interview)
4. Intervisitation
5. Selection of materials for teaching
6. Self-evaluation

The division of the in-service devices into group and individual techniques showed the apparent dual responsibility for in-service education. Knezevich (26:372) emphasized this significant point when he noted that continuing professional development was, indeed, a personal obligation, as well as an institutional responsibility under the direction of the school administrator.

Chapter 3

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

It was generally agreed by the sources read that in-service education should provide for stimulating experiences that were guided by the capable leadership of the principal. Most sources also mentioned that the principal should use three basic guidelines for organizing a continuous program of growth in-service. First, it was deemed essential that the program originate out of the needs of the participants. It was noted that greater impetus was evidenced when the participants could see that their own felt needs were being considered in the formulation of the activity. The second principle employed the concept of having many varied activities for professional growth and experience. Within the general concept of in-service growth, it was evident that one would not assume all teachers would experience growth through the same means, but would require a differentiated program working individually and in groups. The third principle involved the cooperative effort on the part of all concerned. Productivity of a program will be commensurate with the involvement of all and at all levels of planning, operation and evaluation (Hicks, 18:158).

The role of the principal in in-service education was seen as that of an evaluator, innovator, organizer, and facilitator. The evaluation role was considered necessary to judge and determine the problems

present. The innovator role provided impetus for group action and individual enthusiasm, and the organizer role was considered paramount for success when using group processes. As facilitator, the principal was thought of as helper, friend and servant to the staff, thus insuring the process of change to be continuous and effective.

Conclusions

As a result of the investigation on the role of the principal and in-service education, the following conclusions have been synthesized from the various sources:

1. There is a definite need for a well-planned program of in-service education, if schools want to keep pace in a rapidly changing world.
2. Guidelines for in-service action are necessary in order for the principal to effectuate a successful program of in-service training.
3. The degree to which the principal takes responsibility and action is largely the degree to which the job will be done.
4. It is not the purpose of the in-service program to impart specific methods or approaches that turn a teacher into a robot. Rather in-service education programs discover ways in which the teacher can release untried abilities which have not been tapped.
5. In-service education is the means to professional growth.
6. The principal is responsible for initiating, organizing, and continuing an in-service education program in his building.

7. The in-service programs must meet the needs of the teachers in order to be considered worthwhile.

8. Continuing professional development is an obligation of the principal, as well as the teachers.

Recommendations

It is recommended that secondary principals be cognizant of the following principles gleaned from the literature when conducting a program to facilitate teacher growth:

1. Knowledge of progress is an important condition for effective learning.

2. Staying abreast of progress in the various fields by teachers and principals is necessary for a more receptive attitude toward programs of growth in-service.

3. The learning experience must grow out of a common felt need.

4. Interest must be present if learning is to be effective.

5. Evaluation is necessary if learning is to take place.

6. Learning in group activities is a beneficial supplement to individual learning.

7. For learning to be rewarding, satisfaction and success must attend the process.

8. Teachers differ in interest, needs, and capacities; and provisions must be made for these differences in the learning activities of in-service growth.

9. Cooperation must be learned.
10. Teachers are desirous of improvement.
11. Guidelines are basic to good organization.

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