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**The Principal
and Supervision**

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of the

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THE DEPARTMENT was born of a necessity. It met a real need, and that accounts for its immediate and continued success. It will continue to grow so long as it progressively meets that felt need.—W. T. Longshore, *President*, 1923-24.

In the clearness of professional technic and educational procedure, in scientific approach to all problems, in professional alertness and vision, and in practicability, the literature of the Department holds high place.—Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, *President*, 1924-25.

One of our editorial positions is no place for the political adventurer, a lover of ease, or the notoriety seeker. It requires a level head, a sense of the essential and of comparative values, a spirit of devotion, a love of research, a knowledge of who is who in the land, the currents in educational thought, and to cap it all, an indefatigable worker.—Ide G. Sargeant, *President*, 1925-26.

It is gratifying to note the use of these Department publications in the best schools of the land. No university or college reference library is considered complete without this up-to-date educational material.—E. Ruth Pyrtle, *President*, 1926-27.

PREFACE

THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE presents its second volume to the Department. The topic "The Principal and Supervision" is a vital one for us to consider. In 1930 the yearbook consisted of a notable array of articles on the *administration* of the elementary school. Without doubt these two volumes will be handbooks, not only for principals now in service, but for the training of future school leaders.

The Committee takes this opportunity to thank the principals, special supervisors, college teachers, and superintendents who have contributed articles. Well over one hundred manuscripts were considered by the Committee. Space limitations made it necessary to reduce this number about fifty percent.

The general arrangement of this 1931 volume follows closely the yearbook of 1930. First, there is the President's challenging message. Then follows the resumé which gives a thought-provoking summary of all the chapters. Toward the first of the yearbook are grouped the more or less philosophical chapters representing various viewpoints on supervision. The bulk of the chapters deal rather specifically with supervisory technics from the principal's strategic position. Chapters are followed by an annotated and selected bibliography. The index at the end puts a finishing touch upon the entire volume.

Under the plan adopted by the Executive Committee at Cleveland in 1929 one member of the Editorial Committee is replaced each year. At the Atlantic City meeting in 1930 Aaron Kline of Chicago replaced Arthur S. Gist of California. Miss Helen B. Shove of Minneapolis will succeed Earl R. Laing this year. Thus the yearbook work goes forward each year with renewed vision.

The Headquarters Staff at Washington, D. C. again deserves the praise and thanks of the Department. With good spirit and wise counsel S. D. Shankland has smoothed out the Committee's business difficulties. Lyle W. Ashby, Assistant Director of the Division of Publications, has managed the details of printing. Frank W. Hubbard, Assistant Director of the Research Division, has advised the Committee with its program and edited the final contents of the volume.

THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

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THE PRINCIPALS of the country are showing an increasing interest in their professional responsibilities, in scientifically prepared studies in general, and particularly in the publications of this Department. This interest, enthusiasm, and professional activity of a practical yet scientific type is most gratifying to all educators.—Arthur S. Gist, *President*, 1927-28.

We may expect the future to bring many benefits through the committees, yearbook, and meetings of our Department. But these advances must draw upon the ability and enthusiasm of individuals. Let each of us make a critical inventory of his talents and shape his efforts toward ever higher levels of functioning.—Eva G. Pinkston, *President*, 1928-29.

Our great hope lies in improving the technics and broadening the vision of each principal. Here is where our local, state, and national associations offer immeasurable hope. There are 25,000 or more of us. One in five of that number is a member of the national department. How long must the few carry the organized work of the many? Surely we are ready to enlist the united efforts of *all* elementary school principals in meeting the challenges of the next decade.—Herbert C. Hansen, *President*, 1929-30.

OUR OPPORTUNITY

IN A recent issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, the editor paid a splendid tribute to the members of the Department of Elementary School Principals—an inspiring tribute to the pioneers in one of the greatest educational movements of the last decade. This tribute is not only an inspiration but a challenge to all of us to keep alive these splendid fires of professional enthusiasm, many of which were kindled as far back as 1847.

If you will take time to browse in the early *Proceedings* of the National Education Association, you will find that John D. Philbrick, president of the National Education Association in 1863, was the forerunner of the principalship of today. In one of the pages of the *Proceedings* for 1863 is found this biographical note about Mr. Philbrick:

In 1847, he was selected to organize the "single headed system" as Principal of the new Quincy Grammar School. In this work he was eminently successful, and his success greatly facilitated the introduction of the same system of organization into all the Grammar Schools of Boston. While in this school, Mr. Philbrick took an active part in the organization and subsequent proceedings of Massachusetts Teachers' Association, in the American Institute of Education, and in the *Massachusetts Teacher*—keeping himself abreast of the educational movements and literature of the times.

Until 1848 Boston had a double headed system with both "reading" and "writing" schools. Mr. Philbrick was the first principal of a school "organized on the basis of a unified curriculum." In his school we have the first definite shaping of an educational unit resembling those over which the members of the national Department preside. Without a doubt it was in these earlier experiences that Mr. Philbrick realized the importance of supervision by principals. In 1857, as superintendent of schools, he wrote about the work of the principals as follows:

In some schools, a portion of each day, and in certain others, one or two half days in each week, are set apart for the inspection and examination of the lower classes. This, an excellent practice, should be encouraged. This is the only practical method of securing a uniform and harmonious progress in a large school, instructed by a number of teachers.

We owe much to John D. Philbrick. He, too, did professional pioneering as an elementary school principal, a superintendent of schools, and a president of the National Education Association. What is the secret of his prophetic vision and his professional enthusiasm? Your President believes that the answer lies in the above statement from the *Proceedings* as follows: (1) he took an active part in the

educational associations, and (2) he kept abreast of the educational movements and literature of the times. Are we, his successors, keeping ourselves abreast of the times so that we, too, can take our place in the educational world as leaders in a great profession?

CASSIE F. ROYS

President, Department of Elementary School Principals.

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RESUMÉ¹

This preliminary summary of the Tenth Yearbook gives some indication of the contribution of the volume to the principal's work. Readers should turn to each article before forming judgment on the author's viewpoint.

IN THE NINTH YEARBOOK the Editorial Committee stressed the viewpoint that good administration precedes good supervision. Now in this 1931 volume the Committee has brought together contributions to show that good supervisory practices should follow upon sound administration. It isn't enough for the principal simply to manage an efficient school—he must also pioneer in the field of instruction.

If we were to summarize this yearbook in a single sentence it would be: *supervision is a cooperative endeavor which calls for a high type of personal enthusiasm, mutual goodwill, and professional skill.* Foremost in importance in each school building are the relationships between the children, the teachers, and the principal. Next, the superintendents, the special supervisors, the research workers, miscellaneous specialists, and the parents, contribute their influences to the learning environment. All have a place to fill and a contribution to make. Unity of action comes when the welfare and the growth of children are the major goals.

*Development of the principalship*²—Morrison traces the growth of the principalship to a position of strategic supervisory importance. He presents some of the problems and duties of early principals. However, the real challenges of this first chapter are in these implications: Are present-day principals automatically made into *competent* supervisors merely by the widespread acceptance of the modern conception of the principalship? Do surveys show that principals are attacking their new supervisory problems? Will principals of the future possess the keen enthusiasm and the professional preparation necessary for the position?

*Viewpoints on supervision*³—Hillegas makes the point that children grow from self-activity. The school exists primarily to provide an environment in which the growth of pupils can take place. Many of the problems of administration and supervision are those of shaping, placing, and directing the factors in the learning environment. The Editorial Committee invites principals to consider such questions as these: What is my viewpoint on child growth? How

¹The resumé has been prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association and the Editorial Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals. Page numbers of the complete article can be found easily by looking for the author's name in the index at the back of the yearbook.

²See Chapter I.

³See Chapter II.

should my conception of child development modify my supervisory activities? Should I attempt to supervise until I have a sound philosophy of education?

Gerling says that supervision should be essential, economical, and efficient. It is "essential" when it magnifies the teacher and helps her to do better teaching. Supervision is "economical" when it eliminates duplications of effort and inadequacies in the instruction. It is "efficient" when it is alert to problems, active in action, and progressive in spirit. Is your supervisory program entitled to an "E" rating?

Thomas emphasizes the fact that supervision is a joint enterprise. He discusses the work of special supervisors in connection with the principal's activities. Thomas considers both the unifying and disintegrating tendencies of the common supervisory procedures of principals. Do rating scales center attention on relatively unimportant points in teaching? Does note-taking detract from the teacher's efficiency? How can teachers be helped to participate in supervision?

*Administrative phases of supervision*¹—Drawing lines between administrative and supervisory duties is often as unnecessary as it is futile. Yet fairly exact distinctions are useful tools in planning and evaluating supervisory programs. Principals should consult the 1930 Yearbook of the Department for a full treatment of administrative duties with their many supervisory implications.

Engelhardt takes the stand that much of our present-day supervision is built upon obsolete administrative schemes. In the past our administrative plans have "commanded" both teachers and pupils. Now we talk about "cooperation" and "participation" in school control. Can we build the new cooperative supervision on the old forms without sacrificing progress?

Brown touches briefly upon a number of administrative activities which influence the learning of pupils. His point is well-taken when he contends that wise administration contributes much to the learning environment. On the other hand, few principals can afford to stop with a high type of administrative work. If they are to direct instruction toward progressively higher levels they must use some of the most "spectacular" supervisory devices, such as class visits, testings, and teachers' meetings.

Curren shows how changes in school organization can improve the conditions under which learning takes place. In one case Curren describes how the inarticulations between the kindergarten and the first grade may be reduced. The second experiment discussed is an attempt to obtain the advantages of departmentalization without its weaknesses. The Editorial Committee raises these questions: Are principals seeking a "panacea" for all problems of school organization? Is any given scheme of organization a means or an end? Should

¹See Chapter III.

any plan be used indefinitely without evaluation in terms of the more progressive trends in education?

Pierce proposes a cabinet of teachers to aid in school management. Through this device he admits teachers to a part in the major professional problems. Certainly this is a forward step as compared with the common practice of delegating routine tasks to the faculty. Some questions should be raised: How can teachers participate in school management so as not to destroy their effectiveness as instructors? Are there certain responsibilities in school management which the health and safety of pupils require to be placed in the hands of a single executive? If committees of teachers relieve the principal of duties how can he use best the free time thus obtained?

Durgan emphasizes the participation of children in school management. He believes that "pupil participation" is the way in which the educational objectives will be attained. This article raises a number of familiar questions: Can pupil direction exist in a given learning act when teacher control is present? Should pupils be permitted to make the rules of conduct for the school? Should pupils pass formal judgments and impose penalties on their fellows? What mixture of teacher control and pupil self-direction provides for a high type of learning?

*Influencing the teacher*¹—Supervision of classroom activities has always placed considerable emphasis upon the classroom teacher. She has been observed, rated, scolded, inspired, and trained. Recently, the tendency has been to recognize that "learning" involves three primary factors—the child, the curriculum, and the teacher. Chapter IV treats a few of the devices designed to influence the "teacher-factor" in the learning environment.

Conner suggests the difficulties of teachers as a basis for the principal's supervisory program. In a survey 42 percent of the problems reported by the teachers were difficulties in pupil control. Help with all types of problems came in 60 percent of the cases from the principal. Conner's findings suggest several questions: Can "pupil control" problems be eliminated by the use of better teaching methods? What are the most frequent causes of "pupil control" difficulties? If principals are meeting 60 percent of the demands of teachers, who is taking care of the other teaching problems?

Ginsburg asked the teachers at his school to list the ten problems requiring immediate help. The first report at the beginning of the semester showed a preponderance of administrative problems. A second report later in the term indicated that the teachers wanted help with the technics of teaching. After the problems were located the teachers and the principal united in solving the difficulties.

¹See Chapter IV.

Stone emphasizes the individuality of the classroom teacher. How can we discover talents of each teacher? How can the interests and skills of teachers be used to give new impetus to the school's program? Can the personal traits of teachers be cultivated to benefit instruction?

Cramer and Longshore emphasize the importance of democracy in supervision. The principal needs to work with the teacher, capitalizing on her talents, and helping her to feel that instructional problems demand cooperative study. The examples cited will be recognized and appreciated by principals in the field.

Snyder found that a group of 300 teachers reported "conferences and criticisms following visits" as the most helpful supervisory activity. A survey of the practices of principals showed that classroom visits and follow-up conferences were irregular and poorly planned. Does this mean that principals do not recognize the value of the individual conference following classroom visits? Can principals hold the leadership of their teachers by ignoring the better practices? How can conferences be made most helpful to teachers?

Addicott suggests answers to some of the questions raised above. He insists that conferences must be regularly held, thoroughly planned, and conducted so as to capitalize upon the teacher's individuality. How can the principal prepare for the conference? What record should be made of the interview? How can the principal follow up and measure the effectiveness of the conference?

Mott proposes a chart or checklist for evaluating a class activity. While the chart centers attention on the learning conditions, the results of the observation should be of great value to the teacher. Mott's checklist is a step forward beyond the typical "teacher" rating scale.

Driggs offers a record form for class observations. The record is made in duplicate so as to provide the teacher with a copy. This type of record for classroom visits raises certain controversial problems: Should the principal take notes during the classroom visit? Is note-taking less disturbing to the teacher when she knows that she is to receive a copy of the record? Are classroom notes particularly helpful to teachers? When a teacher receives a copy of the principal's notes is a personal conference unnecessary?

Munn discusses the importance and use of the demonstration lesson. She points out that "demonstrations" as a device in improving teachers has received early and wide-spread acceptance. The description of the Detroit plan will be suggestive to other cities. The demonstration lesson raises certain questions: Should the demonstration present a "model" or an "illustrative" lesson? If demonstrations are "model" lessons will they tend to stifle the individual initiative of teachers? Can the principal train his staff to give helpful lessons to one another? How can the principal check upon the effectiveness and influence of the demonstration periods?

Schenk describes a Chicago experiment with demonstration lessons. Teachers, principals, and others visited a school where special lessons in reading were given. An inquiry among the observers indicated an overwhelming opinion that the lessons were very helpful. Principals may raise such questions as these: Is it necessary to organize a special school in order to have the best demonstrations? If a demonstration school is organized should teachers be released from teaching duties to attend? Should teachers visit the classes in which they are interested or the lessons recommended by their principals?

Williams tells of the use of stenographic notes in improving instruction. Principals will see in this procedure a means for analyzing the questions in the recitation, tracing the development of concepts, and providing material for conferences with teachers. The need for stenographic records is another sound argument for providing elementary schools with competent clerical help.

Bonner suggests three important problems: (1) helping the inexperienced teacher, (2) making school marks meaningful, and (3) correlating instruction. These are problems often neglected for more spectacular activities.

Richardson, Bowker, and McCommons have collaborated on an article which describes changes brought about by supervision. In a sense, this contribution summarizes the activities previously discussed in Chapter IV. Principals will welcome the suggestions on teachers' meetings, individual conferences, and classroom visits.

*Influencing the pupil*¹—The point has been made above that the three primary factors in the learning situation are the child, the curriculum, and the teacher. Chapter V centers attention upon the child.

Gunn outlines the guidance program of an elementary school. He points out the need for cumulative records, case studies, and personal interviews. Questions suggested by this article are as follows: Have we come to look upon "guidance" as a device for schools above the elementary level? If the elementary school principal neglects guidance can he be charged with a failure to recognize the individual differences of pupils? Can social and moral guidance improve the conditions of the learning environment?

Flemming discusses the benefits to pupils when the principal and the psychologist cooperate. The program and devices described in this article have met with marked success in a school in New York City. Although many schools are not fortunate enough to have trained psychologists the procedure suggested should be of keen interest to all principals.

Logue calls our attention to the fact that the extra-curriculum activities play an important role in pupil learnings. While in general the management of extra-curriculum activities is *administration*

¹See Chapter V.

there is value in considering the supervisory implications of the special program. Are "extra-curriculum" activities "extra" or really part of the total learning situation? Can we evaluate or isolate the learnings which take place in the special activities?

Robinson discusses the individual profile of percentile ranks as a device for improving instruction. He describes the system used in his school, illustrates it with sample charts, and explains its meaning in connection with classroom teaching. There is no question that the scheme does focus attention upon individual pupils and their differences.

Abbott reviews an experiment with reports to parents. In this case the teachers and the principal tried various types of reports. One constant aim of the experiment was to bring the child, the parents, and the school in closer cooperation. The development of "letter reports" to each family, as distinguished from the standard report card, is an effort worthy of further study.

Williams has developed a series of principles for constructing pupil reports. She insists that the "thing marked" is often taken by parents as the *ultimate* goal of education.

Holland tells about a Detroit study of pupil reports. The experimental card will be of interest to principals who are working on this problem. The discussion of pupil reports in Chapter V raises again certain questions: Is it necessary to send reports to parents? Is it necessary to give marks to pupils? Are report cards supposed to influence children or merely to inform parents? What type of report makes for a high level of home-school cooperation?

*Vitalizing the curriculum and methods*¹—Since the previous chapters have dealt with the teacher and the child it is proper for Chapter VI to discuss the third factor in the learning environment—the curriculum. Who should make it? How can it be made to function effectively in the classroom?

Gist stresses the importance of principals taking an active part in curriculum installation. No doubt in the past many excellent courses have failed to influence classroom instruction because the program did not enlist the enthusiasm of the teachers. In preventing this type of failure, the principal should have a leading role.

Sufinsky points out that the child may influence the curriculum if the curriculum builder is willing to *accept* the child as a competent contributor. Under this philosophy the child and the teacher could build the *immediate* course upon the preliminary outlines prepared by committees.

Irwin surveyed several newspapers to discover the important life activities of the social group. Omitting the strictly "news" content he found that "editorials" and "life problems" were among the most

¹See Chapter VI.

frequent items. Certainly the survey procedure suggestion will be worth trying in a number of communities.

Blatter reminds us that both children and curriculums change continuously. She illustrates the point by classes in nature study and the social studies. Parents too, exert an influence upon the curriculum. Principals may raise such questions as these: Is there a "social inheritance" to be passed on to all children? Can this fundamental knowledge be acquired through activities chosen by the pupils? How can parents inform the school as to their views on the curriculum?

Wasson explains how the pupils modify the curriculum through direct and indirect means. His examples are taken from classes in the social studies, geography, English, and extra-curriculum activities.

McGill tells principals how to help teachers to formulate units of work. The example given is concise, practical, and thought-provoking. Is the "unit of work" plan a revolt against the domination of a single textbook? Can units of work be developed without adequate library facilities? Does the unit of work give each pupil an opportunity to contribute to the class activity?

Brown has made a comparative study of the vocabularies of ten sixth grade textbooks. He found that there were more new and unfamiliar words in the histories than in the readers. Assuming that a child was familiar with the first 10,000 words in Thorndike's list he would meet about 1000 unfamiliar words in the typical history text. Questions for consideration by principals: Has there been adequate study of the vocabularies of texts before grade placement? What effect does unfamiliarity with words have upon a pupil's progress in the social studies?

Kyte summarizes the principles in teaching spelling as drawn from research. He has examined a number of studies, isolated the distinct contribution, and stated the principle in terms of teaching. Should principals review research in a similar manner so as to obtain suggestions for their teachers?

Cronan describes a supervisory program for the teaching of language in the upper grades. It should be noted in this article how teachers' meetings, tests, and curriculum materials are used as "tools" in supervising.

Stewart tells how the teachers in her school have differentiated assignments in the various subjects. Minimum, average, and maximum units of work have been set up to meet individual needs. A few questions which may be raised are: Is it necessary to form ability groups when differentiation is made in the assignments? Should minimum and maximum assignments be kept flexible and revised from time to time? Is it desirable to permit a pupil to do more than the "maximum" assignment? What technic should be set up to determine a "minimum" or an "average" assignment?

*Application of research technics*¹—When principals are asked to list their supervisory technics they often report “testing and measuring.” Somehow the idea has grown up that giving and scoring of standard tests is closely associated with instruction. Actually, this close connection may or may not exist. Tests and other research technics are “tools” whereby the principal may discover the status of, or measure the changes in, the factors under investigation. The important outcomes of research are not the *facts* themselves, but the *interpretation, use, and influence* of the facts.

Zyve discusses the possibility of fostering the scientific attitude in classroom teachers. In this way teachers become the students of their own problems. Some questions which may be raised are: How can the principal use teachers’ meetings and conferences to bring research before his teachers? Should each school have a professional library of standard texts and current professional magazines? How can the principal form and direct research committees among teachers? How can the outcomes of research be put into classroom practices?

Horral reports the study of the reading accomplishments of selected and unselected groups. In general the selected groups made more progress than the control classes. Many questions might be raised: How “homo” are homogeneous groups? Does mere segregation guarantee that selected classes will make more progress than heterogeneous groups? Is “ability grouping” a tool to be used under certain conditions or a panacea to be applied to all classes?

Chandler and Williams report a survey of fourth grade reading in Chicago. Teachers, principals, and superintendents cooperated in this study. The results show many instructional problems and inarticulations which should be eliminated in the interest of pupil progress. A few of the questions which should be raised are: How can the results of a testing program be made available to the teachers? Does it help a teacher merely to know the class median and the range of scores? How can testing programs be arranged so as not to diminish the physical strength which a teacher brings to her teaching duties?

Jacobs and Liveright describe an experiment in improving reading in several Philadelphia schools. It should be noted that research technics, facts, and supervisory devices are combined in an effective manner.

Clark and Shank present a program for discovering and eliminating failures in first-grade reading. Student-teachers used checklists and other devices in studying the individual pupil. The outcomes were not only worthwhile for the pupils but excellent preparation for the student-teachers. Principals will see in this study many “in-service” training helps for use with regular teachers.

¹See Chapter VII.

Rolker shows how standard tests may be used to improve the problem-solving abilities in arithmetic. The most suggestive parts of this article are the sections given to teaching methods and devices developed to meet the problems which the tests revealed.

Meyers describes a cooperative study of arithmetic. When one considers the informal tests developed, the content reviewed, and the graphs employed, there can be no doubt of the benefit of the study to both teachers and principals.

Herr tells how an examination by the principal of the themes of the pupils led to a faculty study of punctuation. The tests used, the test results, the teachers' meetings, the list of references, and the evidences of progress, all form a part of a complete supervisory activity. The amount of teacher enthusiasm and participation is a point worth noting.

Chenault tells how standard tests may be used to discover and to help the individual pupil. Here again teacher participation and cooperation are much in evidence.

Mathis asked a number of principals in small school systems as to the use made of standard tests. The outcome was not encouraging. Evidently principals in small towns are handicapped by a lack of funds with which to buy tests. There is also some evidence that the principals replying in the study were not prepared either in attitude or skill to make the best use of tests. Are tests Frankensteins to crush teacher and pupil spontaneity or are they tools for skillful manipulation by *competent* principals?

*Training the principal for supervision*¹—One of the frequently cited purposes of supervision is that of teacher training. The point is made that teachers must be helped to discover their problems, to plan solutions, and to apply the new technics. Over and over again the contributors to this yearbook have emphasized *teacher growth through participation*. How about applying this same viewpoint to principals? Can principals learn how to supervise and to grow without constantly studying the problems of instruction?

Snively writes that principals learn by doing. He insists that one must keep reasonably clear of routine tasks and in the free time thus obtained give time to reflection on supervision. Members of the Department will want to refer to the 1930 Yearbook for suggestions on how to deal with petty, time-consuming tasks.

Miller describes the principal's conference in Oakland, California. Under the plan principals and subject supervisors study their mutual problems. The opportunities for *principal growth* are many.

Abbott and Addicott explain the functions and accomplishments of principals' group conferences in Fresno, California. The summary of a typical meeting shows that the members "think through" prob-

¹See Chapter VIII.

lems of teaching. Such conferences raise certain questions: How can each principal be encouraged to participate in the discussion? Should a conference consist of discussion, only, or should it eventuate in a number of experiments and researches? Would there be value in inviting teachers and special supervisors into the meetings?

Peeples suggests that principals should set down their supervisory program in writing. She presents a plan extending over several years. Obviously, a principal who takes the long-time view of supervision is bound to gain much in self-training.

Karst shows how a vice-principalship under a *competent* supervisor may be an apprenticeship for a future headmaster. Principals will want to compare this plan with the activities delegated to the typical vice-principal. Does the assistant principal learn how to supervise by checking supplies or handling disciplinary cases? What makes an apprenticeship an effective training period?

Laughlin points out the value of writing professional articles. Contributions to educational literature help to clarify the thinking of the author and suggest procedures to other principals. Well may principals consider these questions: Do I owe it to my professional group to publish my experiments? How can I describe my work in clean-cut and impersonal language?

Worcester, McGrath, and O'Neil have collaborated in describing a plan of visits by Spokane principals. The group visited several schools, observed classes, and discussed their findings. The plan has many possibilities for "in-service" training of principals.

Campbell tells about group visits by Toledo principals. As in the Spokane experiment the plan has several important phases, (1) developing a program, (2) observations, (3) note-taking, and (4) conferences on findings. Questions which may be raised are: Should groups of principals visit the same classes or observe only the activities in which each individual is interested? Should observations be made of typical or prepared lessons? Should class visits be made in terms of fixed checklists? Is discussion the only means of following up the findings of the group visits?

Tallman tells about an investigation of reading by several principals in Portland, Oregon. The group studied professional literature in reading, gave standard tests, developed materials for improving reading, and applied their conclusions to class work.

*Evaluating the principal's work*¹—There are at least three ways to evaluate the effectiveness of the principal's work: (1) to measure more or less objectively how well he organizes, directs, and checks a learning environment, (2) to take a "general impression" rating from his colleagues, and (3) self-rating. The contributions in Chapter IX are helpful primarily with types (2) and (3).

¹See Chapter IX.

Dondineau summarizes the basic criteria for judging the principal's supervisory program. Among other things, the competent principal budgets his time, plans a program, uses the technics of supervision skillfully, cooperates with other supervisors, and is critical of his own activities.

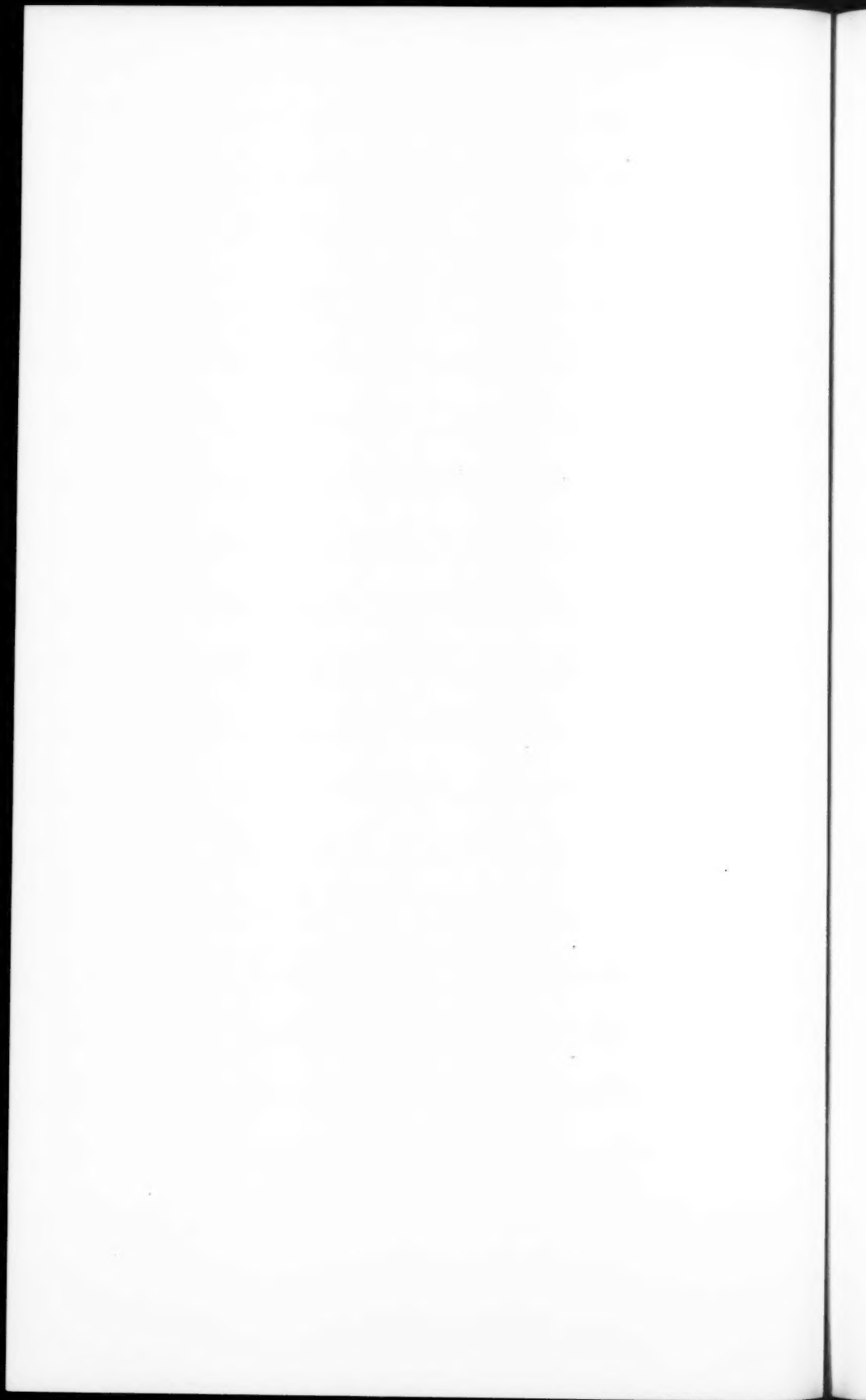
Taylor discusses the evaluation of the principal's work. Principals will appreciate the practical nature of the standards proposed.

Geer and Rankin have described a Detroit experiment for measuring the effectiveness of the principal's work. The rating scale included in this article represents careful study by a group of principals and specialists. Self-rating or rating of one's colleagues may be done with equal facility. Let us hope that principals everywhere will use the proposed scale so as to check and improve its effectiveness.

Lentz has described some of the Chicago activities in the development and evaluation of supervision. The rating form used in judging the principal's work may be useful in other cities.

Conclusion—It is obvious from the above resumé that supervision by principals has progressed far. *What of the future?* Will principals be content to imitate the procedures described in this yearbook? Can supervisors continue to use technics which have not been tested objectively? Does the acceptance of obsolete viewpoints of administration prevent the development of a progressive program of supervision? Is the present professional training of principals adequate to meet the demands for leadership? How can principals provide for themselves a forward-looking and a continuous "in-service" training?

OUR GOOD teachers must be made largely in our own schools; sooner, and better for the fitting preparation, but in the actual schoolroom, must she learn to interest, to instruct, to develop and, at the same time, to control with a quiet, discerning watchfulness, an easy grace, and an ever growing power, and by the aid and wise direction of the principal.—George Howland in an address before the Department of Superintendence, 1889.



CHAPTER I
THE PRINCIPALSHIP DEVELOPS SUPERVISORY
STATUS

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER I

The backward look has value in that it gives perspective to the present and implies developments of the future. Well may principals of today take courage from the work of the Philbricks and the McJiltons of the first part of the nineteenth century. As in the past, the recognition given the present-day principalship depends much upon the vision and the professional skill of each headmaster.

The Department has published several historical treatments of the principalship. Gist described the evolution of the principalship on pages 205-15 of the *Third Yearbook* in 1924. Crouch gave a brief history in the *Fifth Yearbook* in 1925, p. 207-14. The *Seventh Yearbook* in 1928 traces the development of the position of headmaster. Other sources are listed in the selected references of Chapter I.

At intervals since 1857 the *Proceedings* of the National Education Association have contained discussions of the principalship. The *Proceedings* of the Department of Superintendence include speeches on the principalship by George Howland, William T. Harris, and other leaders among the early superintendents.

Principals' clubs in cities should form historical research committees. These committees will want to examine the early records of boards of education, school board rules, and the annual reports of superintendents. In these old documents will be found the duties, salaries, and descriptions of early schoolmasters. A compilation of a number of these local reports would form a helpful source book on the history of the principalship.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER I

THE PRINCIPALSHIP DEVELOPS SUPERVISORY STATUS

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BEFORE me are manuscripts relating the historical development of the elementary school principalship in Albany, Buffalo, Elmira, Rochester and Syracuse, New York.¹ In these reports one sees the panorama of the entire development of the free public school system of the state of New York. It is a picture closely paralleled in most of the older states; and so far as later developments of the elementary school principalship are concerned has its counterpart in all its states.

Early history of the principalship—The historical documents show: the one-teacher, one-district school; a city's educational needs served by a number of such schools; the growth of this one-room, one-teacher school into a number of schools under one roof, and the appointment of a head or principal teacher; experimentation with the Lancastrian System; the struggle for free public schools; the gradual evolution of the superintendency; the development of the graded system; the rise of the high school; the beginning and development of central office supervision; and more recently the rise of the elementary school principal as a professional leader. In fact, one catches glimpses of the beginnings of all those movements we now accept as a part of public education: free textbooks, manual training, domestic science, physical education, kindergarten, teachers pensions, vocational schools, teacher training schools, and compulsory attendance. All of these forward steps contribute to the story of the rise of the elementary school principalship into a commanding position in the realm of supervision. /

Referring again to these papers, in the year 1650 in the city of Albany, we can see Andrass Jansen presiding over his school of little children, receiving for his labor a munificent salary equivalent to \$20 a year. One sees the log houses, erected in the latter part of the eighteenth century, used not only for school but as places for public worship and for social meetings in Syracuse, Elmira and Buffalo. / Gradually these schools grow until one teacher ministers to 75, 90,

¹For the preparation of the manuscripts on the historical development of the elementary school principalship in the cities named, the writer is indebted to: John H. Kingsley and Miss Ethel A. Brewer, Bureau of Research, City Public Schools, Albany; Ford R. Park, Principal, Public School No. 70, Buffalo; Orval T. Butler, Principal, George M. Diven School, Elmira; George D. Taylor, Principal, Public School No. 27, Rochester; and S. C. Sumner, Principal, Seymour School, Syracuse.

100, 125 pupils; then the patrons realize that new rooms should be added and that the teacher should be given an assistant. In 1846, Buffalo boasted an experiment with a three-room school in a three-story building, one room on each floor.

Multiplication of rooms and addition of assistants laid the foundation for the grading of the school work. First, there were the primary and advanced departments, then, the primary, intermediate and advanced. Invariably the head teacher or principal taught the upper grades, a fact which bears mute testimony, no doubt, to the necessity of having a strong right arm in control of the older pupils. This earlier period witnessed an interesting development in the gradation of elementary schools. Different cities experimented with elementary schools ranging from six to ten grades; and if one judges by the situation in various sections of the United States the experimentation is not yet ended.

In many communities the interest of the public in the employment of a superintendent fluctuated from period to period and during those times when a community fared without a superintendent, more administrative responsibility was placed upon principals. First use of the title "principal" is difficult to trace. An annual report for the city of Albany, 1858, refers to the opening of a new building "under the charge of John F. Prentice as principal aided by seven female teachers." The same report infers that the title of "principal" had been used since the organization of the school system in 1844. But perhaps the use of the title is less significant than the earlier attempts to define the duties of the position. The following quotations are taken from the 1867 by-laws, rules and regulations or minutes of the city of Albany.

In all schools in which assistants are associated with a principal, the principal shall be recognized as the head of the school, and all his directions, which do not conflict with the regulations, shall be obeyed by the assistants.

Resolved, that the several principals of the public schools of the city under the charge of the Board, be and are hereby requested to report to this Board within five days from this date, their opinion of the qualifications and efficiency of their several assistants, with such facts and suggestions, in regard to their modes of teaching and general fitness for their positions, as may tend to the information of this Board.

In the foregoing resolutions the principal is definitely recognized as the administrative head of the school and while they do not refer to supervision as we know it today, the embryonic phases of responsibility for supervision are definitely indicated.¹

¹While the following item has no direct bearing upon the development of the supervisory functions of the elementary school principalship, it is a significant item in the picture of the development of the elementary school principalship. Minutes of the meeting of the Board of Education of Albany on May 1, 1867, resolved "that the several principals be allowed compensation for making fires in their respective schools during the cold season of the year, regarding the season to be six months in duration."

We are indebted to Buffalo for a very unique picture of the regard in which the principal was held by the Common Council of that city. Following is a digest of ordinances of the Common Council of Buffalo for the year 1853 covering the work of elementary school principals.

1. The principal teacher of the highest department is designated as principal of the school and given power to make and enforce rules and regulations for its government, subject to the approval of the superintendent.
2. Requires him to keep a record of attendance (absence and tardiness) of all teachers and report same to superintendent.
3. Directs giving of examinations as the basis of promotion.
4. Requires rigid classification of pupils and forbids teachers to trespass on work of other grades except in reviews.
5. Gives him power to divide the labors of the school among the teachers and govern, direct and control the departments.
6. Empowers him to delegate duties to children.
7. Requires him to guard city property and render notices of needs for repairs and replacements.
8. Empowers him to suspend and expel children. (Two cases of tardiness a week or four a month furnished sufficient grounds for suspension.)
9. Empowers him to employ and supervise janitors.
10. Requires him to keep yards, sheds and outbuildings clean and orderly.
11. Makes him librarian in charge of cataloging and keeping records of books loans to pupils and patrons.
12. Requires him to make reports to the superintendent as required.
13. Authorizes principal to expend the appropriation for his school, and render accounts of such expenditures, duly audited, to the common council.

In addition to the foregoing administrative responsibilities the principal in Buffalo was expected to teach a class of 60 to 75 pupils.¹ From the same 1863 report the following reference gives an indication of the supervisory responsibility vested in the school principalship.

It is a two-story building of plain but imposing design in the form of an L with slate roof and substantial outbuildings. It has five rooms on each floor, and each room is designed to accommodate about seventy pupils, to be under the care of a single teacher. The principal's room on each floor will occupy that portion of the building represented by the lower left hand corner of the L and is expected to seat from sixty to seventy-five pupils. The rooms are separated by sliding partitions so that all the rooms on each floor can be thrown into one, when occasion shall require it. These sliding partitions also are to be made mostly of glass in the form of window sash, so as to give freer access to the light and equalize its distribution and to enable the principal while engaged in his own room to inspect the management of all the others. As a measure of economy and convenience this plan is believed to be superior to any other hitherto devised and put in practice for school purposes.

New influences on the principalship about 1890—Historically speaking, toward the close of the last century we see the development of special and general supervisors working from the central office.

¹See Superintendent J. B. Sacket's *Report to the School Committee of the Common Council of Buffalo* under date of 1863.

The superintendency had become a fairly established office that could begin to exert some influence over the principals of the city. The growth of academies and high schools had transferred the public allegiance and interest in organization, character and professional leadership from the local elementary school to the high school or academy.

With the growth of the academies and high schools, the elementary school continued to attract less and less interest among the better educated groups of the community. Invariably it became a ward school. The ward leader was too often interested in filling the principalship and even when there was not such an interest so expressed it became quite the custom for the superintendent and the board to fill the position from the ranks of elementary classroom teachers. Usually the candidate had proved his ability as a classroom teacher and had demonstrated capacity to make a large circle of friends. Both these qualities were and still are essential to filling a principalship successfully; but in the earlier period and even as late as 1920 it was not generally recognized that the principal should be equipped to exercise powers of leadership and advisory direction of the assistant teachers in the building.

Witnessing the above conditions the new superintendent, ambitious, interested in the welfare of children, none too certain of the length of his tenure, realizing that principals were entrenched in their positions, resorted to supplying supervisory leadership through the appointment of supervisors in his office. At once we have the development of general and special supervision, with principals left largely to themselves in the control of discipline, the performance of clerical duties, the exercise of petty executive detail, and their own classroom teaching.

The development of central office supervision through trial and error soon demonstrated the need for having time free from classroom duties in order to carry out supervisory responsibility. Principals caught the vision expounded by the general supervisors. One may well imagine that the principal of Buffalo referred to above might easily have found that in teaching his class of 60 or 70 pupils he had little time or energy to perform any of the thirteen specific responsibilities placed upon him. Surely he could have built up a good case for being relieved from a teaching assignment.

Freedom from teaching duties—Ultimately, principals generally succeeded in securing certain freedom from classroom teaching duties; but such freedom came infrequently and in many cases was won with difficulty. For instance, in the city of Elmira in the year 1912 many of the elementary principals were not teaching. A new board member feeling that their time was ill-spent secured the passage of a resolution requiring the principal to teach at least one class a day. This reaction was a typical experience the country over. In a study of elementary school principals in Ohio cities the average

principal spent 52 percent of the average day in classroom teaching.¹ Coxe's study of the elementary school principalship in cities and villages employing superintendents in New York disclosed that 66 percent of the principals did no teaching whatsoever.² The *Seventh Yearbook*³ Committee found a little more than 4 percent of the average working day of the average supervising principal was given to teaching. The several studies that have been made indicate a range from 0 to 52 percent of the working day of elementary school principals devoted to classroom teaching. The probabilities are that the differences in these studies depend very largely upon the selection of cases studied.

Does freedom from teaching make principals into supervisors?—Apparently, in the larger schools, the struggle for freedom from teaching obligations is fairly won, but can we say that the principal thereby has gained the right to be classed as a supervisor? In Coxe's study it was found that 16 percent of the 705 principals had had no training above high school. Thirty-three percent had never studied any professional course whatsoever. Only 36 percent had studied any course in supervision. Only 51 percent had pursued any course in administration and only 65 percent reported courses in general methods or educational psychology. Fifty percent had taken no summer or extension course in the seven years preceding the survey. With these facts in mind one wonders how many of the 66 percent who had their time free for teaching duties were really qualified to render teachers any supervisory assistance.

Let me illustrate the foregoing with a specific case. In one of the city school surveys on which the writer worked a few years ago the principals of the several elementary schools were entirely free from classroom teaching assignments. Of the seven principals concerned only one was a normal school graduate and only two others had studied in normal school or college; four had had no professional training other than a one-year training course in the high school of that city; and none of the seven had had any teaching experience outside the city except in a one-teacher school in years gone by. Not in a single principal's office was there a bookcase, a professional book or a magazine. Not a single principal knew how to make out an age-grade table.

Yet the survey committee observed that certain of these principals were very diligent in spending a considerable portion of their time

¹Morrison, J. Cayce. *The School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages*, Ohio State University Contributions to School Administration, No. 2, May 15, 1926.

²Coxe, W. W. *Study of the Elementary School Principal in New York State*. University of the State of New York Bulletin, No. 926, June 15, 1929.

³The *Seventh Yearbook* of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928, p. 204.

visiting classroom teachers. What service could such visitation render? What purpose could it have? Perhaps, the contention is wrong but the writer believes that these principals were merely occupying classroom space to the annoyance of teachers.

The elementary principalship in the past ten years—A small group of principals, under the inspiration of the University of Chicago in 1920, took the first step toward organizing a Department of Elementary Principals in the National Education Association. On that date, throughout the United States, the elementary principal was considered primarily as a head teacher. For the supervision of classroom instruction, the superintendent looked to his central office staff. The state educational associations prepared their programs on the assumption that the elementary principal was a classroom teacher in the upper grades. Salary schedules in force throughout the United States included a relatively small increment to cover the elementary principal's investment of energy and overtime in clerical and administrative duties. Practically no attention had been given to the study of the elementary school principal's job. In all the educational literature accumulated to that date, 1920, there was literally nothing from the pens of elementary school principals; or, if there were, the authors were careful to withhold any reference to their position.

As every principal and every superintendent knows, the past ten years have witnessed a tremendous change. Today, elementary school principals in city, state and nation are organizing for the professional improvement of their own work. At least they have taken the first steps toward making the elementary school principalship a position of leadership. College professors of education have found the function of the elementary school principalship a fit subject for educational research. Principals are writing for publication now from the richness of their experience and the multiplicity of their research. The importance of the position is becoming understood but the goal is not yet won.

In the *Third Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction¹ there is a tabulation of problems presented by classroom teachers to 42 principals during a period of one week. Table 1 shows the first five types of these 389 problems.

TABLE 1—PROBLEMS SUBMITTED BY TEACHERS TO PRINCIPALS¹

Problem	Frequency
Helpful advice concerning individual learning needs and difficulties.....	101
Administrative features of supervision.....	68
Suggestions concerning the nature or use of desirable methods.....	42
Provision of instructional materials, supplies and equipment.....	25
Diagnosis of teaching difficulties	17

¹See *The Problems of Supervisors*, Third Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1930, p. 224-227.

These same 42 principals reported 165 problems attacked on their own initiative. Table 2 shows the first five types of problems in order of frequency.

TABLE 2—PROBLEMS OF TEACHERS WHICH PRINCIPALS ATTEMPTED TO SOLVE

Problem	Frequency
Helpful advice concerning individual learning needs and difficulties-----	19
Administrative features of supervision -----	40
Suggestions concerning the nature or use of desirable methods-----	18
Diagnosis of teaching difficulties-----	11
Teacher and pupil responsibility for classroom organization-----	10

Table 2 does not disclose a single principal attacking any problem on the preparation or interpretation of materials, on the economical use of time and effort, on cooperative curriculum revision or experimentation. Yet as shown in Table 1, these were the phases of supervision on which teachers most wanted help.

What of the future?—The use of the word “principal” should be stricted to the administrative head of a school or schools who is primarily responsible for the supervisory direction of the instructional activities of the teachers in said school or schools. Where it is necessary to retain small buildings, they should be in charge of a head teacher or assistant principal who works with the principal. Only through such an arrangement can most communities afford a salary schedule commensurate with the talent required, the clerical help and other expense necessary for the most effective supervisory functioning, and provide a work large enough to challenge the best effort of men and women of large abilities. To be considered for appointment to a principalship a candidate should have (1) ability as a superior teacher, (2) capacity for leadership among teachers, patrons and pupils, and (3) special preparation for the work of supervisory and administrative leadership.

The elementary school principalship of the future will be the key position in the supervision of elementary schools. To adequately fill the position, the principal must know elementary education. He must be a student imbued with the spirit of scientific inquiry in the continuous study of the problems of his schools. In the words of President Butler, “the important thing is not the magnitude or the weight of the task upon which he is engaged, but the fact that engagement upon it keeps him looking constantly out toward the horizon of knowledge. Much that is petty, much that is insignificant, not a little that is misleading will often result from these inquiries. But, on the other hand, the spirit of inquiry itself will keep alive and awake all those whom it animates, and will from time to time result in very considerable additions to man’s knowledge of himself and of the world in which he lives.”¹

¹See the *Report of the President of Columbia University*, 1929, p. 59.

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9. STULLKEN, E. H. "The School Principal as Revealed by School Surveys." *Eighth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1929. p. 151-61.
What the school principalship is like according to 94 city school surveys.

THE IDEAL school-master is not a recluse, not a pillar saint, not a hermit, not a morose man, nor one solemnly weighed down by either a sense of his own dignity or of the grave responsibilities of his office—but a man living among men, practical, full of common sense, tact and worldly wisdom.—General Thomas J. Morgan in an address before the National Education Association, 1885.

CHAPTER II
VIEWPOINTS ON SUPERVISION
SUPERVISION AND THE PRINCIPAL
A SUPERINTENDENT'S VIEWPOINT
SUPERVISION IS A JOINT ENTERPRISE

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER II

Some professional courses and books center attention solely upon the "devices" or "technics" of teaching. Other sources of help concentrate upon the "why" or the viewpoints back of educational procedures. Since actual conditions in the school demand action there is a tendency for educators to seize upon the device which is immediately at hand. While the expedient thing may be justifiable *temporarily* it should be evaluated ultimately in terms of the philosophical and long-time view.

Supervision still retains the marks of expediency which have characterized its development. For example, early superintendents aimed to visit many classes. At first, special supervisors spent much of their energy in racing from room to room. Today principals often give much time to aimless and useless visits to classes. Under these conditions supervision is doing the easy and the expedient thing.

Classroom visiting is one of the principal's most useful supervisory technics, but visiting is a "tool" or means and not an end in itself. Principals have lost perspective when they pile up a large number of visits without reference to the *purposes* and outcomes of a complete supervisory program.

Chapter II contains several viewpoints on supervision. Readers will note that the "why" is emphasized more than the specific details as to how to supervise. Selected references at the end of this chapter suggest additional thought-provoking reading.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER II

VIEWPOINTS ON SUPERVISION

SUPERVISION AND THE PRINCIPAL

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THE PURPOSE of education is growth. This the school undertakes to bring about through learning. However, learning, like the growth that results from it, is a self-active process. The learner must act for himself. No one can learn for him. The school can do no more than arrange conditions so that learning takes place. The best school, therefore, is the one that makes such provisions as will make learning most efficient.

The place of supervision—All school problems arise from the single requirement that the learner be provided with the most effective opportunities for learning. The financing of education represents one phase of this problem. Better and more adequate school buildings and equipment is another. Likewise more adequately trained teachers are demanded because it is believed that they will be better able to arrange conditions so that learning may take place. Every part of the school system is maintained for the single purpose of making growth possible and more effective.

Experience has shown that the conduct of an efficient school system demands that attention be given to the administrative factors. There are, therefore, boards of education, superintendents, and principals of schools upon whom the responsibilities for the administration of the schools rest. Their relationship to the learning that takes place in the individual classroom while remote is yet positive. Whenever it is shown that the results in the system are not as satisfactory as they might be, there is a demand that the officers who are responsible shall be replaced by those who will be able to obtain better results.

The chief responsibility for results in individual classrooms is placed upon the teacher. She works directly with the learners, while every other officer must reach the learners through her. The teacher, therefore, holds the most strategic position in the entire school system. If she fails all others who have responsibility for the results in her room also fail.

Supervision is one of the means that is employed to help achieve the purpose of education. Its effectiveness, like the effectiveness of administration and teaching, must be judged by the contribution that it makes to effective learning. Like administration and teaching it must have its own particular fields in which to operate. If the supervisor duplicates the services of others it is a sure indication that conflicts and dissatisfaction will result and that those who are respon-

sible for organization have failed to develop an efficient scheme. Such conflicts have been prominent and serious difficulties have resulted.

It is important that the place of supervision shall be defined. To reach such a definition there must be a consideration of the needs that may best be met by one who is not required to act in the capacity of an administrator or as a teacher. Provisions have been made for both of these fields. If there is a lack of efficiency in either, the road to improvement leads through better training for the services required and not through the employment of others who will divide responsibilities. In the past it has not been uncommon for systems to employ special supervisors to do that which the principal was or should have been required to do. Inevitably confusion has resulted.

The most common definition of supervision is: "Supervision is for the purpose of improving instruction." If this is interpreted somewhat literally it identifies the functions of the supervisor with those of the teacher. Yet the teacher is the only one who can *directly* improve instruction. The moment the supervisor attempts to assume the responsibilities that belong to the teacher confusion and inefficiency are certain to arise.

When the definition is construed broadly, it tends to bring the supervisors into conflict with every officer in the system from the janitor to the members of the board of education, because it would be equally correct to define the duties of all school officers as that of improving instruction.

All of the problems that are found in education may be placed in one or the other of two categories. One of these may be labeled "what is learned," and the other, "how learning takes place." Within these two fields the supervisor like every other officer must find his responsibilities. Stated in general terms, the supervisor must assume responsibility for providing more suitable materials for learning. He may also be expected to put forth the effort to discover and propose more efficient ways of providing for learning.

The nature of supervision—The responsibilities that may rightfully be assumed by the supervisor take three different forms. First, he may be expected to contribute to the making and revision of courses of study. Here he deals directly with the development and organization of the materials that the pupils are expected to learn.

Second, he may be expected to investigate and experiment with ways of learning. If he is properly qualified he will not be willing to accept newer ways of dealing with instruction without first satisfying himself and the others concerned that the newer ways are effective. This statement implies that a supervisor must have reasonable skill in research and experimental methods. Otherwise he is wholly dependent upon others for the newer plans that may be adopted in his school or in the system in which he works. One of the most prolific sources of complaint against the schools has been connected with

the way in which they have been willing to blindly adopt procedures which later prove to be ineffective. The loss occasioned by such mistakes could have been prevented if a supervisor who was capable had investigated the newer plan and tested it experimentally before its final adoption.

The third aspect of the supervisor's duties is connected with the diagnosing and improvement of learning in the classroom itself. There is at present no better name for this service than "classroom supervision." In every class there are difficulties that arise from the varying abilities of pupils and the peculiar conditions under which the school operates. Also the materials that are to be learned are constantly changing. The teacher often finds himself unable to meet all of the difficulties that he must face. He is in need of help such as can be rendered only by one who can visit his room and diagnose or help to diagnose the troubles and propose the remedies.

In some cases the testing of schools will reveal defects that teachers are not aware exist. They will require assistance in bringing about the desired changes. Such services classroom supervision may be expected to render.

The duties that fall upon supervisors will vary from school system to school system. This difference is due to the more adequate provisions that some systems make for one or more aspects of work. Recently some states and cities have employed specialists to make or to revise courses of study. Naturally this arrangement has an effect upon the duties of principals and supervisors. In many places there are research departments equipped to investigate and experiment with materials and methods. This plan relieves the principal and supervisor from some responsibilities that they would otherwise assume. Improvement of the teaching body will certainly change the character of the services required of classroom supervisors.

Determining what shall be learned—The things that should be learned are constantly changing. In some years the changes are rapid while at other times they are relatively slow. The subjectmatter which should be learned has frequently been regarded as the fixed feature of school work. For twenty-five years prior to 1920 there had been comparatively little change in the curriculum. The subjectmatter was so well established that many schools had no course of study. The teachers and other officers were so familiar with what had been offered that they felt no need to have it in printed form. During this same period the attention of educators was turned toward the learning process. There developed a greater number of general and special methods than existed before. Yet as far as is known, the learning process does not change from generation to generation. Education seemed content to ignore the changing elements in the case and treat the fixed one as though it were the variable.

The fact that subjectmatter does change accounts for the difficulty of determining what shall be learned. Courses of study when put in

printed form have a tendency to persist for considerable time. Text-books are written with the expectation that they will be used for a number of years. They are usually adopted for a period of not less than five years. Some of the most commonly used standardized tests have been used over a period of fifteen years. Thus it happens that three of the factors that are important in determining the materials that are to be learned, have a decided tendency toward keeping subjectmatter unchanged. The public, moreover, is extremely critical of any change in the content that children learn. They have found the use of the slogan "fads and frills" extremely effective in preventing changes.

The supervisor is subject to all of the limitations that surround the teacher. It is important, therefore, that proposals for changes in subjectmatter shall be based upon all of the facts that are available. Teachers must meet the requirements of course of study, texts and tests. The same requirements must enter into the supervisor's thinking concerning the materials that are to be learned. In addition, the teacher is subject to the demands of the community in which she works. The supervisor cannot ignore these demands. If they are unwise, the responsibility for changing them should not be delegated to the teacher. There has been a decided tendency to criticize the teachers. They have been called conservative, unprogressive and lacking in professional spirit because they have not made the changes that reformers have suggested. At the same time teachers have regarded supervisors as impractical, vague theorists because they have advised or demanded changes that the teachers cannot make. This whole conflict may be avoided if both the supervisor and the teachers take into consideration all of the factors involved.

Apart from the requirements that must be met in subjectmatter, there is always a margin in which supervisor and teacher are free to choose. This choice is the most important as well as the most perplexing feature that is present in the problem of what to learn. The opinions of those who are regarded as specialists in curriculum developments are so varied as to afford little assurance to the practitioner. Different teachers receiving their training at different institutions are sure to hold very different views. Each is able to muster reputable educators who will sincerely back his views. The supervisor must treat this matter as one in which conclusions, even his own, are tentative.

When there is uncertainty on the part of teachers or supervisors, the use of experimentation is called for. This criterion applies with peculiar force to changes in the courses of study. There have been noteworthy failures in curriculum revisions due to the absence of efficient experimentation to test the validity of the changes proposed. This test experiment does not exclude the use of the experiences of others, but such experiences need to be verified before they are applied in new situations.

The learning process—It is one of the anomalies in education that the learning process remains a matter of uncertainty. The psychologists who might be expected to settle the question are divided into groups that often assume the character of hostile camps. Teachers or supervisors who receive their training in one institution will hold ideas that are directly contradicted by those who have attended some other institution.

In all of this uncertainty regarding the way in which learning takes place, teachers and supervisors are compelled to act. Learning cannot be delayed until there is agreement as to the exact way in which provision for learning should be made. There grows out of this situation a demand for help such as the supervisor can render.

In matters relating to the learning process as in those connected with the subjectmatter, it is essential that the supervisor recognize the fact that there are different views even among the teachers, and that all who deal with learning must hold tentative conclusions.

In all cases where there are legitimate differences of opinions the supervisor must make a choice between two methods of procedure. He may employ the authority that directly or indirectly is associated with his office and compel the adoption of his own opinions, or he may make such compromises as may be necessary in order to start procedure in the direction that he has reason to believe is right.

Supervision by authority has seldom been effective. The nature of the supervisory process is such that results are achieved most effectively through cooperation. Only in extreme cases where the welfare of the learners is clearly jeopardized is the use of authority clearly justified. Even then it must be regarded as a last resort and not a commendable method.

With the passing of time various methods have been considered effective in providing for learning. These have been formalized as special methods. The number of these have reached a large total. Often these methods have not been consciously based upon any recognized psychology of learning. Some one has found that a given procedure produces results. This procedure has then been organized and described so that others will be able to follow it. Often texts and manuals have been made for use with the method. Thus it happens that the work in many schools is largely controlled by such special methods.

The supervisor is more than a guardian of some special method. If there are more economical ways of providing for learning he is responsible for the attempt to bring them to pass.

In every school there are various factors that may be peculiar. In some respects a group of young children who are not familiar with the English language present quite different problems from those who are familiar with the language of the school. Children who by virtue of age have had a variety of experiences outside of school re-

quire a different treatment from those who are younger and who have not had such experiences. In a real sense each classroom may have peculiar factors that effect the teacher's problem of providing for learning.

Often teachers who have been remarkably capable in one school or in one grade are failures in a different school or grade. They do not recognize the new elements in the situation or they do not know how to deal with them. Competent supervisors will recognize and take into consideration all of the conditions that surround the individual teacher and whenever possible help her to deal effectively with such problems.

As schools are usually organized, a large part of the provision for learning will be in accordance with some special method. It is desirable that these methods be employed until it can be demonstrated that more effective learning can be secured in some other way. This again requires the use of experimentation and research. Such tasks naturally fall in the field of supervision.

In providing for learning both teacher and supervisor must be open to new conclusions. At the same time they must insist that the new shall be sufficiently verified by scientific treatment to merit consideration. The scientific method employed outside of education requires that conclusions be verified by different investigators. This same procedure is essential in educational affairs.

Classroom supervision—The supervisor's activities within the classroom do not of necessity constitute the most important part of his duties. They are, however, the basis upon which his efficiency is most often judged. It is essential, therefore, that he develop suitable methods for visiting, observing and diagnosing classroom activities.

The teacher occupies a position that must be regarded as fundamental in the school. The supervisor should never attempt to assume the functions that rightfully belong to the teacher. Any conduct on his part that tends to interfere with the teacher's control of the class is a direct injury to the classroom work.

There is no possibility of stating in definite terms just how supervisors should behave when they visit the teacher at work. Proper conduct is always a series of correct adjustments to many conditions. Any act that disturbs either class or teacher is to be deplored, if by any reasonable means it can be avoided. The common practice of trying to make due allowances for the adverse influence of the supervisor's presence is a direct admission that the methods employed by the supervisor are faulty.

The method that the supervisor employs in observing the work that is in progress during his visit needs to be simple. He cannot make use of all of the technical methods that are applied in research and experimentation unless he has made special provisions for such efforts. Even then the application of such methods is outside the field of classroom supervision.

The most obvious aspects in any classroom are connected with the relationships that exist: (1) the relationship between the teacher and the children, (2) between the children and the teacher, and (3) between the children themselves. These three significant symptoms assist the supervisor in understanding conditions. These symptoms are not themselves subject to treatment, but the conditions that they reveal are. These relationships cannot be changed quickly. There is, therefore, small chance for a teacher to deceive a supervisor in respect to them.

The teacher's procedure must be judged in accordance with his own purposes. The failure of supervisors to take the teacher's *purpose* into consideration has been a prolific source of dissatisfaction. Naturally a procedure that is adapted to realize one purpose may not be suitable for the realization of a different one. There is the danger of criticising the procedure when the purpose itself is at fault.

The teacher's purpose has been subject to various interpretations. Even the *means* that have been employed to achieve the purpose have been treated as purposes. This viewpoint has the effect of making every class period consist of such a large number of purposes that supervisors cannot profitably deal with them. As a consequence matters of inferior importance often receive undue importance.

Another tendency has been to connect the teacher's purpose with the teaching of a given unit of subjectmatter. The statement of such purposes begins with the prepositional phrase "to teach" which is changed to "to have" "to make" and the like. Such phrases are then followed by a statement of the subjectmatter that is to be taught. The test for the achievement of such purposes consists of an examination of the pupils to determine their control of the subjectmatter. This practice forces attention toward subjectmatter rather than learning and a means is made an end.

Teachers' purposes are of necessity connected with the provisions that are made for learning. Such purposes, therefore, include at least the provisions that must be made for study, drill and for the development of appreciations both social and aesthetic. In each case there are well-defined steps that must be followed if the learning is to take place economically. It is easily possible for the supervisor to recognize the teachers purposes when they are sought in the provisions that she has made for learning. It is also possible for both teacher and supervisor to know exactly what has led to success or failure in the learning that was expected.

The sources of supervisory problems—Supervisors are required to deal with the problems and difficulties connected with the learning that is expected in schools. The efficiency of supervision will in large measure depend upon the provisions that are made for obtaining such problems. In the past it has not been uncommon for the supervisor to go on a round of visitations to discover the difficulties

by observation. Unquestionably such visits have disclosed difficulties, but teachers tend to resent the application of this method. As far as possible they conceal such problems as they are aware exist, because they fear that if they frankly reveal true conditions they will be rated low and thereby suffer in salary or promotion. Inspection often establishes cross purposes between teacher and supervisor and greatly interferes with the efficiency of supervision.

Common sense would indicate that the source of problems should be kept open and as free from complications as conditions will permit. The supervisor should not be required to discover all of the problems with which he must deal. His best efforts are exerted when he deals with difficulties with which the teacher consciously desires assistance. There arises the demand that at least part of the supervisor's visiting be done in response to requests for assistance.

The use of tests and measurements should disclose to principals and supervisors points at which provisions for learning are not as effective as may reasonably be expected. Test results should disclose a series of problems.

The supervisor needs to be cautious regarding the inferences that he draws from the results of testing. The tendency has been in the direction of regarding the tests as giving a *true* representation of achievements. The school has accordingly attempted to secure the results that the tests require. The character of many tests, however, bears little resemblance to the conceptions that are supposed to control the work of the teacher. Moreover, tests are not found in some of the most important parts of the educational field.

Tests cannot be considered as the fixed feature in education and practice as the variable that must change to meet the requirements set by them. There is as great need to examine the tests themselves as there is to consider the results that they disclose.

Every competent supervisor will need to make use of philosophy. Possibly a more significant term is philosophize. He needs to philosophize. This statement means that he must be in reasonable command of the basic sciences upon which education rests. These will disclose problems with which he will need to deal.

It is not out of place here to call attention to the practice which is common of confining the supervisor's duties to those connected with the attempt to save the incompetent teachers. It certainly is true that this is an important matter, but it is by no means the most important function of supervision.

At best such practice can only succeed in bringing poor teachers to a somewhat higher level. The net improvement in the school or system will not be great. The same energy used in helping *competent* teachers to meet their problems will always result in marked improvement in the total work of the school or system. An efficient organization of supervisors will provide for the best teachers as well as for

the poorer. The supervisor needs to be in possession of the problems from all types of teachers.

The sources of the supervisor's suggestions for improvements—The supervisor deals with problems and difficulties. It is essential, therefore, that he make use of reliable data in order to reach valid conclusions. The sources from which such data may be secured must be recognized.

There are three sources from which the supervising principal may obtain assistance in solving his problems. He may draw upon the known experiences of the teacher. If he is thoroughly acquainted with the teacher's practices, he may be able to find in this body of experience the needed remedy. Whenever the supervisor's familiarity with the teacher's work makes it possible, he finds this practice a most effective method of reaching suggestions for the desired improvement. Of course this source cannot be utilized unless there is adequate knowledge of the teacher's procedure.

The supervisor may be able to derive suggestions for improvements by referring to the experiences of others in the profession. One who uses this source cannot be charged with being a mere theorist. His suggestions have at least the merit of practicability.

The supervisor is in a peculiarly strategic position in regard to understanding what other teachers are doing. If he is a principal he may visit all of the classrooms in his building, and to a limited extent, rooms in other schools or even in other cities. If he is a special supervisor he observes the practice of many different teachers in various parts of the system. The teacher is seldom able to obtain such a broad view of the others. Her visiting is confined to one or at most several days in the year.

Special supervisor and principal as well as the teachers may profit by the recorded experience of others. Such printed descriptions usually have one shortcoming. They customarily present the newer or more unusual ways of accomplishing results, because there is not the same demand for means and methods that are more common. The supervisor and principal are justified in making a large use of the experience within the profession.

The third source of suggestion upon which the supervisor is expected to draw is contained in the field of principles. The character of this source needs to be carefully considered. It is not a mere quibbling over terms to hold that the nature of educational or teaching principles is very uncertain. It certainly is true that no supervisor can place his reliance upon the statements of principles that are commonly presented.

An inspection of the table of contents of two or more treatments each labelled "principles of education" will disclose little or no agreement as to the fields covered, to say nothing of more particular aspects.

There is a constant complaint that in their practice teachers, even those who are most insistent upon the significance of principles, fail absolutely to act in accordance with the principles, that they expect others to accept. This failure cannot be charged to a willingness on their part to be inconsistent. The fact is the conditions for which provision was made in the stated principles do not exist or exist in different combinations in the situations that they actually face. They find it imperative to act in accordance with peculiar requirements of the case.

Supervisors must derive the solution to each problem that they face. If the experience of the teacher concerned, or the experiences of others within the profession, does not supply the answer, the solution must be reached by the use of all of the available data. Such data are derived from the sciences upon which the educational process rests, chiefly psychology, sociology and biology. The contributions of philosophy may also be drawn upon, but one of the chief sources of data is found in the conditions which gave rise to the problem. This last element is the element that tends to make the problems that the supervisor faces particular rather than general.

A conclusion based upon adequate data has the nature of a principle as applied to the particular case for which it was derived. To the extent that other cases may involve the same elements the same solution may be applied. The possibility of using a solution or principle in two or more situations does not free the supervisor from examining with care the elements contained in each.

The use of research and experimentation in supervision—In previous sections, mention has been made of the need for research and experimentation. In some essential particulars the person best qualified to undertake such work is the supervisor. Among these qualifications may be mentioned the professional training that they are generally required to possess. They may be expected to be sensitive to normal classroom conditions and thus able to avoid many of the pitfalls that endanger the work of those who do not possess such sensitiveness. They are in position to make use of different schools in different parts of the system and thus fulfill a requirement for legitimate experimentation.

The methods of research and educational experimentation are so clearly described and defined that there can be no excuse for the use of faulty arrangements. The person who is not capable of conducting a valid research or experiment is lacking one of the most essential qualifications of a supervisor.

The adoption of new methods should follow the successful trial of such methods under experimental conditions in the system in which they are to be adopted. If this had been done more generally there would have been fewer mistakes in the schools.

A SUPERINTENDENT'S VIEWPOINT

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FROM THE viewpoint of the superintendent the supervision of teaching is an essential part of his responsibility. Legislative enactment ordinarily specifies supervision as one of the duties of the superintendent. In the larger school systems this duty is necessarily delegated almost in its entirety; but, whether exercised in person or through delegated authority, the supervision of teaching constitutes an essential function. Usually a course of study adopted for the system sets forth objectives that are to be realized. Only through competent supervision can the realization of these objectives be furthered and ascertained. Frequently new activities enter the school curriculum. Only through supervision can the most effective reaction of teachers be assured. School systems are confronted with the task of inducing new teachers into their service. Only through supervision can competent aid be given to new teachers in this process of adaptation.

In the exercise of the supervisory function it is important that the activity be restricted to essentials. The superintendent to discharge his function properly should not only keep himself informed as to the extent to which the purposes of the curriculum are put into effect, but should also exercise a formative classroom influence either through personal contact or indirectly through a staff of competent supervisors. He should assist actively in the establishment of new types of instruction; new teachers beginning their work should receive his assistance. Supervision of this essential type should not, however, trespass upon the right of the teacher to exercise initiative and to assure personal responsibility in the discharge of duties assigned to her. Teachers do their best work under conditions that enable them freely to adapt current methods of procedure to the individual and varying needs of their pupils. Without the existence and exercise of such freedom teaching degenerates into a mechanical operation.

Those who supervise need constantly to bear in mind that the professional standards of teacher training are undergoing constant improvement. Many school systems today are requiring a standard four-year college course as preliminary preparation to teach in the kindergarten and primary grades, as well as in the upper grades. Teaching is thus becoming more truly one of the learned professions endowed with their privileges and charged with responsibilities. Supervision, if it is to retain its place, must adapt itself to this advanced type of preparation in the teachers. It means that the supervision, in order to be effective, must be inspiring, must exhibit a spirit of co-operation, and must be characterized by an unmistakable recognition of the important position that the teacher occupies.

Supervisors who offer advisory services without inspectional implications recognize that the teacher possesses in all cases a more intimate knowledge of the children and their problems than any supervisor can have, and that on this basis she seeks, in most cases, to discharge her duties honorably and well. Help so offered engenders an interplay of functions appropriate to the relative responsibilities of supervisor and teacher. Nevertheless, after full allowance is made for the teacher's professional position and her intimate knowledge of the local situation, there still remains the need for supervision with reference to those matters which, from the superintendent's viewpoint, are essential. To know how well the objectives of education are being realized, to improve the methods of teaching where improvement is needed, and to assist in the introduction of new activities are the purposes of any supervision which is entitled to be called essential.

Supervision should be economical. Continually mounting costs of public education make it incumbent upon the superintendent to secure the best kind of supervision at the least possible expenditure. The tax-paying public places upon the superintendent the double problem of securing a high quality of educational service, and at the same time an economical use of the public funds. To deal with this double problem efficiently requires the reduction to a minimum of duplication of effort and the application of a well developed remedial technic wherever deficiencies are observed.

Reference to a remedial technic suggests that supervision must be active. Discovering and recording deficiencies or opportunities for improvement of the service divorced from the opportunity and the authority to improve the conditions observed involves a loss both of money and of effort. Supervision unauthorized to apply remedies is at best mere professional consultation and at worst a futilitarian pursuit.

If the supervision established in any school system can be characterized as *Essential*, *Economical*, and *Efficient*, it should at least be given an "E" rating. A supervision which has in it these characteristics, as outlined, of necessity brings the principal of the school into the foreground. He stands in the line of authority between the superintendent and the classroom teacher. In this position he may exercise such authority as is necessary to remedy any weakness discovered. He has at his command the administrative agencies and services of the school system to aid him in the process. The principal spending full time in the school building necessarily becomes more acquainted in detail with the inter-relation of various problems in the school than any occasional supervisor can become. He knows better than any other supervisory agent the limitations under which the teacher is working and the facilities which may be placed at her command. One cannot escape the conclusion, therefore, that the principal constitutes the central figure in any supervisory scheme.

When subject specialists, grade specialists, or other special supervisors are supplied by a school system, responsibility for utilizing these agencies without conflicts, without duplication of effort, and without waste of time and energy, rests on the principal. It is he who exercises first of all the authority which is needed to remedy any situation discovered or reported by a special visitor. A centralization that unifies the application of remedies equates program differences, fortifies the teachers, and provides for orderly progress to a definite end.

A multiplicity of special agencies and school aids from the central office may impair rather than improve the service. The feeling of over-supervision, sometimes entertained by a teacher, often, however, reflects upon the efficiency of the school principal in utilizing special aids that the school system provides for them. The administrative and supervisory head of the institution is assumed to be endowed with the necessary authority to use without duplication of effort and without trespassing upon the teacher's time, as much expert aid and counsel as any school system is likely to furnish. A principal without adequate realization of the implications of his position can scarcely be regarded as equipped for his position.

A tendency for supervision to become automatic with reference to certain activities which no longer need to be supervised is sometimes observable. It may be a reasonable assumption that any new activity which is being established in an educational program requires more careful supervision at the outset than it does after most of the problems of securing results from such an activity have been solved. The school principal should be in a position to know where supervisory intervention is needed and where it is superfluous. Failure upon the principal's part to apply supervision accordingly is to fail in making supervision either essential, economical, or efficient.

In the larger school systems it is sometimes necessary to have between the principal and the superintendent the office of district or assistant superintendent. This fact does not change vitally, however, the status of the school principal. The authority vested in the superintendent by the board of education is still delegated through the district or assistant superintendent to the principal, who thus becomes the chief supervisor as well as the administrator of the local school. All of the grade and subject specialists afforded by a school system are in the position of aids to the principal who stands in the line of authority assisting him to discover needs and to apply remedies in their respective fields of instruction.

Concluding this brief characterization of supervision from the viewpoint of the superintendent, it may be said that supervision can assure to itself its proper place as an educational aid only when it is actuated by an interest in childhood and practiced with a sympathetic understanding of the teacher's problems and professional position.

SUPERVISION IS A JOINT ENTERPRISE

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GUIDANCE—THE FUNCTION OF THE PRINCIPAL

RECENT developments in the field of the elementary school principalship charge the principal with the direction of instruction in his school. In addition to the many plans developed and put into practice by supervisors and others concerned with instruction, principals have tried and described innumerable methods for supervision. cursory investigation of all these plans points toward a wide divergence of opinion with resultant confusion of the ends to be served. However, there appears to have evolved from, and to be inherent in, the whole development this basic consistency: Supervision, or the guidance of the instructional program, is a combined undertaking in which the principal acts as a guide or leader in his school, but which to be successful, must be based upon a close interrelationship among all those whom the activity concerns, the child, the teacher, the parent, the social group, and the curriculum builder. The principal holds the key position for providing instruction in the school; he is the integrator of all the instructional agents and agencies. Supervision in the school is a joint enterprise guided by the principal.

It is rather difficult to know what supervision should encompass, and to determine how it shall proceed. An attempt is made at present to meet needs that are cognizant and to provide a situation in which those who work with the child during his growth may participate with the assurance that contributions are desired and will be incorporated in the procedure. Major attention is focused on the continuous growth of the child and his response to teaching which provides at every step an added capacity for growth, rather than on the merits or demerits of the teacher's procedure. Teaching technics are not ends in themselves. Supervisory methods are also not a final product to be achieved except as they unite the conditions provided for the child's growth. The principal guides this process.

CURRENT PRINCIPLES PROVIDE UNITY IN SUPERVISION

Since any sound program of supervision must be based on an even more sound philosophy of education, a statement of the principles governing the learning of the child should be of considerable value in determining that activity which primarily concerns the teacher. Fundamentally, in terms of philosophy, there seems to be this underlying principle common to all progressive views: Education provides opportunities to every child to grow continuously and to add capacity for future growth into the most socially efficient

person he is capable of becoming. Three phrases of continuous learning experiences should be distinguished: (1) the acquisition of essential knowledge; (2) the development of fundamental habits and skills; and, (3) the establishment of desirable attitudes and ideals. A supervisory program built on this broad foundation of growth opportunities will of necessity help to make teaching better.

The place of the principal—The *Eighth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association classifies the functions of supervision under four captions: (1) inspection, (2) research, (3) training, and (4) guidance. Guidance is considered largely as the special prerogative of the principal. In the performance of his function, the principal is expected to supplement the previous training of the teacher by helping with immediate problems, providing materials, by helping to measure achievement, by supplying standards for judging efficiency, by diagnosing failures, by suggesting remedial measures, and by appraising final success or failure. Throughout all of his guidance of these phases he must provide a unifying medium to insure that the work will be carried on as a joint activity with which the teacher is in whole-hearted accord.

There can be no distinct line of demarcation between the fields of those who are studying the problems of supervision. The principal through his daily contacts with the teachers in the school frequently sees some of their problems in a different light than that which appears to the infrequent visitor. For this reason he holds an important place in the development of the new teacher, since he makes most frequent contacts with the teacher during the early stages of her experience. To a large extent, the training that the teacher has received is likely to form into definite habits and attitudes during the first semester that will persist for years. If the inexperienced teacher does not receive the guidance that is necessary to bring to fruition her greatest abilities, the principal fails to justify his position in the supervisory program. In a truly cooperative method which the principal is evolving, he relies upon supervisors, research experts, and others in carrying out his function of guidance.

Principal responsible for supervision in his building—The development of the principal's position during the past two decades has arrived at the point where the principal is recognized to have supreme administrative powers in his own building. He is responsible directly to the superintendent in a line organization. He is also accountable to the same office for the effective conduct of the instructional program. In a sense, the principal administers the instructional phases of school activity. The superintendent correlates the work of principals, supervisors, and other expert advisers. If the principal neglects or refuses to accept the advice and suggestions of these other experts for the improvement of instruction in his school, he does not accept his responsibility for supervision.

The tendency seems to be, in those systems sufficiently large to have subject supervisors, and in schools where the principal devotes only a small portion of his time to teaching, for him to assume responsibility for putting into effect the course of study, measuring the effectiveness of the teaching act, and so directing the work of teachers that children attain an ever widening ability.

The supervisor is recognized as an expert who contributes the results of his creative effort for the benefit of the entire system. He conducts a program of teacher-training through the cooperation of principals by setting up general and specific standards to be used for developing and evaluating work done in the classroom. The supervisor has an intimate and expert knowledge of content and technic which cannot be generally expected of the principal. In this program, the principal directs the teachers, using as his guide, the expert contributions of the supervisor.

Contacts with supervisors—A frequent contact between principal and supervisor comes during periods of introduction of new methods and materials. The supervisor demonstrates innumerable points of technic which he has developed in his role of specialist in a particular subject or method. During this time, the principal is learning and developing a broader understanding of the problem. The situation is similar in many respects to that encountered when the principal attends summer school or studies during the year. He works with the expert with the express idea of improving his own powers for directing learning.

The principal also finds frequent need to call upon the supervisors and other expert advisers for assistance with special problems that require more specific knowledge of particular subjects than he can well retain. A teacher may request assistance from the principal requiring adjustments in the course of study to fit an unusual situation in her classes. While the principal is familiar with this unusual condition as it exists in his school, the supervisor, on the other hand, has probably encountered similar situations in several schools.

Frequently, teachers evolve variations of the accepted procedures which appear superficially to provide better conditions for the children. If the conclusions which the principal and teacher have drawn are false, the subject or research expert is the one who logically can discover the errors, since he is trained in this phase of teaching to a higher degree than the principal. On the other hand, the supervisor may be able to give assistance in the refinement of the method. The supervisor who makes frequent and varied contacts with many different schools and classrooms may carry from place to place ideas that have proved especially effective.

There is a vital necessity for the principal to draw upon the various subject and educational specialists, since he cannot himself be a specialist. The principal's activities must be spread over a

wide field. Economy of time and energy demand that the principal make use of all existing agencies for providing progressive instructional conditions in his school.

Present understanding of supervision—Many supervisory methods have been devised and put into practice by principals, generally recognizing that supervision is a process of working with the teacher in an attempt to improve her teaching. Unfortunately, too frequently, little attention was given to the children in the class, since supervision was made the end itself. The current tendency is to define supervision in terms of purposes, such as, the coordination, stimulation, and direction of instruction. This policy when followed by the principal insures that he will use all existing agencies and agents and will attempt to bring them all into harmonious working relationship within his school to the end that children are given the opportunity to grow continuously. Here again, the function of the principal is guidance.

The problem which confronts the principal is to devise some simple plan to make his guidance program most effective and continuing in unity. Without doubt, the principal who attempts to attain a perfect subject mastery, and to direct the every move of the teacher in presentation of subjectmatter is out of step with progressive theory and practice.

Methods advocated for supervising—One type of classroom measuring device may be termed "checklists." In general, it consists of a list of questions or statements numbering from fifteen to fifty or a hundred. Most of the questions in such checklists are of definite value in that they focus the observer's attention positively upon desirable features of teaching technic, pupil response, or pupil activity. But unfortunately, such lists do not offer specific and proven corrections for those items that may be marked low on the scale. If such a device as this is used by the principal, and if it is not a checklist of his own devising, there is likely to be little real stimulation or guidance given the teacher. The use of the device, if a copy of the list is furnished the teacher as many proponents advocate, rather tends to unexplained criticism of the teaching act with a resultant lowering of the teacher's confidence.

Other objective technics to fill a similar purpose are largely described by the names which are given to them: activity analyses, or forms for recording both pupil and teacher activity; class period analyses; time diagrams, or an attempt at measuring the amount of time devoted to a number of activities during the class; attention profiles, methods used to observe the attention of individual children as well as groups; and various other forms of semi-scientific measuring plans.

There exists a real danger in the use of these methods in that basically the results obtained are usually subjectively measured since they

are the result of the efficiency or inefficiency of the observer. Again, in nearly every question or statement contained in most checklists, the relative score is determined largely by the personal beliefs or background of training and experience of the person checking the question. Especially where the devices are used by other than the originator of the particular plan, is there a probability that the final result achieved may be totally different than was intended, since debatable items are frequent. Checklists or lists of items to observe are desirable in the training of the new principal or during a training period at the introduction of new material. They make him aware of a multiplicity of classroom conditions, but they must be interpreted by the principal for his own use.

In the development of his technic, the principal more than any other person dealing with instruction should have a constant realization that supervision deals primarily and finally with human beings. It demands an understanding sympathy with the problems of people. Since supervision of the teacher is only for the purpose of helping her work with the children in her classes, someone must be responsible for the coordination of all those activities that directly, or indirectly, influence the responses of the children to the teaching procedures. The principal is the only one within a building to bring together these various endeavors into a unified plan.

DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN APPLICATION

Duties classified under separate headings—There have been many studies which classified the duties of the elementary school principal under separate and distinct divisions, such as: supervision, administration, teaching, clerical, and miscellaneous. Summaries of these studies indicate that the supervising principal should give at least fifty percent of his time to supervision and thirty percent to administration. In connection with these time allotments there have appeared long lists of activities in which the many things done by the principal came under several or all of the headings.

If a principal can think of his position as one in which there is need for improving constantly those features of the school which provide directly for a continuous growth of the children, he is likely to devote the greater part of his time to activities that are generally considered as supervision. In solving an instructional problem, the principal cannot dictate any best method for the teacher to use. Even though the method may improve the teacher's procedure, better results may be secured if the principal and teacher work out a solution which is the joint product of their careful considerations. Success in creating desirable progress in any school is probably determined by the judicial balance which the principal maintains between the exercise of his executive and guidance functions. The extent to which the determination of policies within the school is the product

of combined thought and contributions from all those who have any contact with the children depends largely upon the attitude of the principal. The choice is between dictating or directing on one hand and guidance or leadership on the other.

Classroom observations and teacher ratings—The importance frequently attached to the rating of teachers constitutes a real deterrent to normal relationships between the teacher and principal during supervisory contacts. Unfortunately, many classroom observations coming under the guise of supervision are primarily made for the purpose of rating or marking the teacher. As long as the principal is required to rate the teacher at stated intervals, he must constantly seek means to make the teacher feel that rating is necessary but that it is not the chief reason for making visits to the room.

The use of checklists and other lists of items to observe is inclined to destroy a friendly relationship. Such lists are likely to be rather standardized. The teacher may feel that they are impressed largely to make her conform to the same pattern that has been determined as standard for the building. There is little doubt but that some types of checklists are of high value when all teachers in the school know their contents and understand that they serve as a guide to bring children to a higher level in some particular traits. Some of these plans may be directed more toward the technic of the teacher if she is in sympathy with the ideals which their use tries to set up.

In the same way, the practice of making notes or records during class visits must be considered carefully. Most teachers are naturally curious to know what is being written. The resultant reaction is toward self-consciousness and confusion. If the teacher knows that the written record is made for the purpose of later use with other similar data to be analyzed for correction of a general situation throughout the school, she is more likely to be in accord with the practice.

Conferring with the teacher—Preparation for observation of classes might well be included in a general plan which has for its purpose the coordination of all school activities. Random observations are likely to be made with little or no planning for future growth, but rather to satisfy demands for "supervision." After observing lessons, the principal must also spend some time in preparing for the conference with the teacher. This preparation is an important part of the supervisory program. Ideally, the conference should be held away from the distractions of the classroom. But this means that some teachers must be kept waiting after school while the principal is conferring with another. Or if the conferences are not held at the close of school, to talk with a teacher during school hours ordinarily requires some disorganization of regular schedule. To hold a separate conference following every class ob-

servation seems rather impossible if all the ideas that have been advanced are followed.

To build up the finest conditions possible in the school would seem to demand a conference with a teacher or group of teachers previous to observing how children react. Here it is possible to prepare the teacher and to work out with her what the observation aims to accomplish. Under such conditions as these, there is likely to be planning in which the teacher contributes a vital part of the plan rather than criticism for which no remedy is offered if the conference follows the observation.

Emphasis on the technic of supervision—What we are doing is to place an overemphasis on the technics of supervision and thus neglect to direct our attention to the child. Supervisory methods approach the point where the learning process is largely a subsidiary phase of activity. So many plans have been described, each of which attacks only one small part of the general problem, that most principals are at a loss to know what to use. So far, there is a rather indistinct picture of how the principal should go about his problem because many times there is a complete lack of unanimity in the various ideas expressed.

Ordinarily, supervision is conceived to consist of a rather restricted cycle of visits to the classroom, teachers' meetings, and conferences for the purpose of criticism and inspection. This program is conducted in the light of standards determined by someone who never saw the class and the defects observed.

There are many other parts of the supervisory procedure. It is probable that classroom visits form the basis for all the rest, but the other parts may consume more of the time of the principal than the actual visits. A wise distribution of all the various parts which are essential in a well-balanced program requires the principal to keep constantly informed on recent developments. He must select those features which will contribute most to his school and combine them with his general procedure. The principal should avoid the fallacy of specialization since he is working with numbers of people, to no two of whom will the same methods apply. He serves as a guide in the joint enterprise that provides opportunities for all to contribute some part to the situation in which they live and grow.

THE PRINCIPAL COORDINATES SCHOOL ACTIVITIES.

Plans form the basis—Before the beginning of a new school year, it is wise to select some major objective for the attention of the whole school, into which may fit the various types of supervisory procedures which have been accepted as productive of better instruction. The last teachers' meeting of the year is a good time to discuss plans for the next year. The major objective that is selected

should be of a type which may fit the regular work of the course of study, or which may give a better interpretation and adaptation of the specified materials and methods.

Just as the opening day of school which has been carefully planned so that everything of an administrative nature in the way of organization proceeds with no confusion, so will a well prepared plan for the guidance of instruction facilitate constructive activity by the children. Marking time at the beginning of the semester until real instruction is under way is largely eliminated. Teachers and children know with the principal what they want to accomplish during the year and are eager to begin. The preparation of plans with individuals and groups of teachers gives the principal an intimate contact with his school at the start of the year. He has here an opportunity to build into all of the school's activity a unity of purpose.

Several types of objectives—One method of tying together all instructional work in the entire school is to select some topic as the major subject for study during the year. This plan may be carried out as a modified form of the project method. The culmination of the project may be in the nature of a play or pageant which is developed and presented by the children working with the teacher under the guidance of the principal. The project may be to study all of the features of the city in which the children live with the purpose of collecting and consolidating information. Another form might be to make a study of all the readers and books used in the school with the aim of classifying stories that deal with character traits. There are innumerable topics which may be used as the basis for directed project work.

If at the beginning of the year, the school determines to prepare an exhibit of all the work that will be done, a definite purpose is given to study and activity over the course of the year. The exhibit should be more than a presentation of regular school work. It should be built around a definite idea and the regular work that is ordinarily done in the school may then be interpreted in such ways that the exhibit is constructed about a central idea.

Another type of objective around which most of the instruction of the school may revolve is the school newspaper to which all classes contribute. It offers another tangible means of interpretation and expression for the rather abstract work of the classroom. It ties together many rather separated units of instruction in such a way that a consistently better product results.

There are many other definite objectives that a school may select, such as making a survey of the school community, or improving health conditions. The principal acts as a guide in the selection of the objective for the year. As the work progresses, he coordinates

the ideas and activities in every class throughout the school. Children and teachers know the objective that is set and work together to accomplish it. There is unlimited opportunity for the principal to visit classrooms for observation and inspection; he works out plans with teachers; he holds teachers' meetings, group and individual conferences; he conducts research; he appraises progress; and, during all of the activity, he consults with supervisors, administrative superiors, parents, and the community. The principal interprets the requirements of the course of study as to the needs of the major objective, and brings together into a harmonious unity of purpose the suggestions and needs of all those who are concerned with the continuous growth of the child. In this program, classroom observation is not an end in itself; it serves rather to give a basis for the developmental work during the progress of the activity.

Teacher participation in the developmental program—Since the primary purpose of supervision is to guide the work of the teacher toward a better product, it is essential that the program of development incorporate ideas and abilities of the teacher. In the same way that individualization of instruction has provided wider opportunities for every child than under those conditions where he is required to conform to mass standards, so is it desirable for every teacher to share in the direction of her own activity. Any procedure that is the combined product of a number of people, all of whom are vitally concerned in its success, must accomplish more than one which is autocratic and makes no provision for modification on the basis of actual need.

A council of five or six more able teachers in a school to work out plans with the principal gives him a representation of ideas from the school as a whole. These teachers are frequently far more familiar with actual conditions in the classroom than the principal can possibly be. Their participation in the selection and guidance of policies for the school secures a confidence from the whole school.

Division of all the teachers in the school into various committees, each of which works on a particular problem that confronts the school, again provides for group participation that engenders confidence in the conclusions and recommendations that are given to the teachers. The principal should meet with each committee from time to time. He should confer with the chairman of each committee previous to a meeting, and should receive a copy of the minutes or record of the proceedings. Results of the work of the committees should be presented to all of the teachers at general teachers' meetings for open discussion. In this form of teacher participation, the success or failure of the plan depends upon the teachers who are selected as chairmen and upon the leadership that the principal displays.

Teachers' meetings that are for the purpose of considering problems of an instructional nature offer another place for all teachers to take part. If the meetings are based on a topic of interest to all teachers, and are not concerned with details of administration, it is possible to build up a situation where there is a genuine expression of ideas from the whole group. The principal may introduce the topic, open it for discussion, and then summarize the ideas contributed with a view toward incorporating them into the solution of the problem.

Sometimes, a questionnaire may be presented to teachers which has been prepared by the principal to give each teacher an opportunity to express her ideas. The use made of the results will depend upon the purpose of the questionnaire.

No matter what the specific type of method used to give teachers a voice in the solution of their own problems, it does seem that the whole tendency in recent years is toward a democratic or cooperative form of supervision. The principal is in a strategic position to make this ideal a reality. The degree of skill of which he is capable in bringing together the ideas of various people who are responsible for instructional progress determines the extent to which supervision becomes a joint enterprise. Many plans have been presented to the principal, some of which he will find useful. The method that he finally takes to make his supervision a joint enterprise depends upon himself, the children and teachers with whom he works, and the actual conditions to which adaptation must be made.

Building ideals and attitudes—Throughout all of his work the principal should be guided by the thought that he, more than any other person in the school, is largely responsible for the growth of ideals and attitudes. His every action, his whole philosophy, determines to a large extent the response of children and teachers. If he is democratic and human, if he tries to provide for expression from all in the school, and consistently seeks better opportunities from all sources, there is every reason to expect a continuous growth toward those aims which are the hope of our social institution.

If the regard for personalities is a paramount consideration of the principal, he will so devise his plans that they are at one and the same time a consolidation of the efforts of those with whom he works and an application to the particular needs of those for whom they are designed to assist. There may be no differentiation of aims. The principal will consider his chief function in the school to be that of a unifying agent, bringing together all of the best ideas, adjusting them to his school, and guiding teachers and children in their use.

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TO PERFORM routine duties perfunctorily, make out dry reports and then hide in a shell, and call it "super-vising a ward school," is to add insult to injury, and to trifle with a sacred trust. A principal should be a true *educator* in every sense of the term. His scholarship, his general accomplishments should be such as to create respect for his ability wherever he goes—J. M. Greenwood in an address before the Department of Superintendence, 1889.

CHAPTER III
SUPERVISORY PHASES OF ADMINISTRATION
ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION
SOME ADMINISTRATIVE AIDS
BETTER TEACHING THROUGH REORGANIZATION
PUPIL COOPERATION AND THE SCHOOL'S OBJECTIVES

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER III

Chapter III presents a discussion of several of the administrative problems in supervision. Treatment of many phases of school organization and administration have been omitted deliberately, because the Editorial Committee sees no good reason for duplicating excellent treatises already in print.

For discussions as to the relationships which should exist between the principal and other supervisors see pages 228-48 of the *Seventh Yearbook* (1928) and pages 169-86 of the *Eighth Yearbook* (1929) of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

The administrative technic preceding good supervision has been treated in detail in the *Ninth Yearbook* (1930). The theoretical aspects of foresighted administration are to be found on pages 161-90 of the 1930 volume. Office practices, the use of assistants, and the principal's time budget are discussed on pages 193-272. In fact, the *1930 Yearbook* is a supplementary and companion handbook for this 1931 number.

For information as to the organization and administration of supervision in school systems principals are referred to the selected references at the end of Chapter III of this volume.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER III

SUPERVISORY PHASES OF ADMINISTRATION¹

ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION

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IT MAY seem trite to preface a discussion of this sort with a statement that an organization consistent with sound principles is fundamental to the development of any efficiently operated enterprise. Yet a study of public school systems reveals many plans in which the supervision of instruction is provided for in ways that disregard practically all those elements that contribute to economy and efficiency. The ultimate consequence of practices now followed is that much of the administrative machinery in the public schools has not been designed for ready adjustment to the ever changing and improving order which is taking place within the classrooms.

In general it may be said that the success of any enterprise is dependent largely upon the skill with which management is able to mold those associated in the work, in spite of the variations in interests and personality traits, into a progressively developing, systematic, and coordinated union. While securing the best efforts of everyone, and while having each employee working at the task for which he is best fitted, foresighted management plans that the welfare of each individual is consciously protected in order that progress within the enterprise is matched by a corresponding growth and happiness on the part of each person associated in the work.²

Classification essential to organization—One does note in the discussions of supervision an increasing concern regarding the nomenclature and definition of terms used to describe activities of this function. The supervisor of lunchrooms, the supervisor of school gardens, the director of evening schools, and the director of attendance are less frequently included in lists of staff officers having to do directly with the improvement of instruction. There remains a need for a more critical differentiation in function and at the same time a more precise allocation of activities in order that management may be made more effective. The confusion which continues through the failure to properly distinguish among the administrative duties, those of supervision and those of method, is not always on account of the fact that these

¹Readers are reminded that the Department has treated the principal's administrative functions in the 1930 Yearbook.—*Editorial Committee.*

²Engelhardt, Fred. *Public School Organization and Administration.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1931. Chapter XII.

fields of effort are so closely allied, and hence difficult of differentiation, but because students of supervision are neither fully aware of the importance of an exact functional classification, nor wholly cognizant of the advantages which may accrue from a proper cataloguing of the activities for which they and their colleagues are held responsible.

The public school system is ever seeking to render the services demanded of it in the most efficient and economical manner. If this is to be done, then measures must be devised, in so far as it is possible, to evaluate the efforts of every person employed in the system and to appraise the activities, the work done, and the methods of performance in terms of the values which are received in return. Appraising and evaluating educational effort is no easy task, yet until ways and means are discovered for doing these things, public education will always find it difficult to defend the increasing budgetary demands which are constantly being made in the face of the public insistence that taxes be decreased.

A review of the literature in the field suggests a vivid picture of a lack of agreement in regard to the specific activities which should be assigned to the function designated supervision.¹ The work assigned and assumed by supervisors may be placed on a scale which ranges from the simplest clerical duties to those services which demand the most outstanding talent and creative ability.

Analyses of budgets show that all salaries and other expenses of supervisors are charged to the function supervision, yet the studies that have been published of the working day of these staff members indicate that the usual situation permits supervisors to devote approximately 20 percent of their time with the teacher in the classroom.² A similar condition is shown in investigations of the work of elementary school principals. Expert judgment has been solicited and as a result an ideal distribution of time of the elementary school principal has been proposed and expressed. The report suggests that about 40 percent of the day of the elementary school principal should be devoted to supervision. It is indeed of interest to contrast budgetary practices and consequential cost analyses which might be made of supervisory services with the studies that have been reported as to the manner in which these staff officers occupy their working days. It is this failure to differentiate more specifically in the duties performed by staff members that superintendents, principals, supervisors, and research directors are swamped in office routine. The pic-

¹Ayer, F. C., and Barr, A. S. *The Organization of Supervision*. D. Appleton and Company, 1928, Chapter III; Brink, W. G. *Direction and Coordination of Supervision*, Public School Publishing Co., 1930; Melby, E. O. *Organization and Administration of Supervision*, Public School Publishing Co., 1929, Chapter V; Department of Superintendence, "The Superintendent Surveys Supervision," *Eighth Yearbook*. 1930, Chapter III.

²Ayer, F. C., and Barr, A. S. *The Organization of Supervision*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1928, p. 155.

ture portrayed above is in fact the defence presented by school boards when they register little enthusiasm for requests for increased allowances for clerical hire. If outlays for materials and salaries were adequately allocated one would find in many school systems a surprisingly high expenditure and unit cost for clerical service and a relatively low unit cost for supervision. Those who are interested in the improvement of instruction will accomplish much when they are in a position to define functions and allocate activities and through such an analysis point out the actual cost of the services which are being rendered by supervisors, and the extravagant unit cost of clerical services when paid at a rate corresponding to salaries of staff members.

Plan of organization must be considered along with service allocation—These investigative efforts which have sought to determine an equitable distribution of the time of supervisory offices have little value since the philosophies of administration which determined the plans of organization in the systems in which the persons studied operate are not considered.¹ There may be some value for a principal to know what experts consider as a desirable optimum part of the day that should be devoted to a given activity if he is likewise presented with the facts concerning the size of school, the plan of organization, and the details of administrative procedure followed. Otherwise, what profit is it to an elementary principal to know how his confreres in neighboring cities devote their working day unless he is familiar with the relationship which exists among the office of the principal, the teachers, and the central offices. One of the basic weaknesses in the carry-over from industry of the job analysis technic is the failure to consider these aspects of the problem. Underlying any attempt at job analysis of as complex a position as that of the elementary school principal requires a clear and exact understanding of the organization and coordinated relationship of individuals within the system associated in doing the work. Any classification which overlooks this salient characteristic of administration is prone to result in an analysis of little avail to those anxious to improve the situation.

An elementary principal in school system A gains but little consolation in knowing that the principals in system B spend but X percent of their time in clerical activities unless he knows the organization and administrative relationship existing in that school system. It may be profitable to have portrayed the range of responsibilities that are placed upon members of the teaching and supervisory staff of a school system. Yet since there are so many basic differences in the philosophies of administration, and since the applications of these to school management have resulted in diversified types of supervisory organization, a picture of practices in their administrative setting

¹National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. "The Superintendent Surveys Supervision." *Eighth Yearbook*. 1930. p. 25.

would be even more useful. It may be of interest at this point to contrast two plans of operation which might be conceived as the outcome of extreme differences in administrative philosophies.

For example: School system X is so organized that the teacher in the grades of the elementary school is held responsible for all the educational activities carried on in his classroom. He is relieved of all clerical routine, of all reporting, and of all record keeping; in fact all detail which is not specifically associated with the instructional procedure is delegated to clerks. The central office of the system assumes full responsibility for all the clerical and routine duties associated with building operation and maintenance, and such other administrative responsibilities as are connected with payroll procedure, budgetary matters, attendance, and the handling of materials and supplies. In other words the principal is relieved of all duties which can be better performed in the central office. An expert in office management has organized in a manner satisfactory to principals and teachers all the clerical service and associated activities in this system.

On the other hand school system Y is so organized that the teacher in the elementary grades is held responsible for only such instructional activities as relate to the teaching of the academic subjects. He is freed of the responsibilities for all the other activities by special teachers. The regular teacher keeps all records, makes summary reports, and performs all the administrative routine duties which arise in the control of the assigned class group.

The central office places on each organization or building unit full responsibility for the operation of the school plant, for the efficient management of clerical and administrative routine, for payroll preparation, for attendance, for budgetary procedure, for handling all materials, and for supply management. In fact, the central office performs no duties which pertain to the administration of the several units of the system. Each principal is allowed to organize his clerical and office procedure as he deems best.

Which of these plans of administration is the better? The principals in each of these systems may indeed speculate on the advantage of their situation and on the manner in which their working day may be allocated, but there is no way to evaluate the time distribution except as one measures the effectiveness of either plan of organization. Yet each of these plans basically establishes the status of the principals, and provides the skeleton which must be studied if a time analysis is to be of any value.

Organization must be dynamic to permit of creative work—Supervision can hardly be creative in a static school organization. Unless every other phase of school work is progressively developing as a result of a scientific attack of problems there is little use in ascribing in a school system the term creative to supervision. Supervision may be

creative to the extent that the whole public school staff is fully aware and qualified to appreciate the advantages which result in using the modern technics of the craft in the performance of duty. The only way in which supervision may be truly creative is to provide an environment for staff members which inspires creative effort.

Little progress in the improvement of instruction will be forthcoming unless progressive modifications in administrative practices are reflected in improved supervisory organizations. For example when a school system replaces the old plan of salary payment by the single salary schedule which provides equal pay for teachers of equal training in all grades of the school system one would obviously expect the change to be reflected in a modification of the supervisory organization. One would expect that a change made in the school organization from the 8-4 plan to the 6-3-3 plan would require a most thorough-going revaluation of the organization in operation for the improvement of instruction. One might likewise have presumed that more specific modification in supervisory organizations would have paralleled the changes which resulted when individualized instructional methods superseded mass instruction in the classrooms and when the atypical children were separated from the general student body into special classes for teaching purposes.

School organization is dynamic—In the past school executives have permitted the supervisory organization to grow and develop apart from the changes which have been made in the administration of various phases of work in the school systems. This failure to consider inter-staff relationships when any important change is to be made in the schools results in inefficiency, duplication of effort, and waste. Each aspect of school work must be viewed as dynamic and each significant modification in practice must be thought through in view of the possible effect it may have on each and every other phase of school work.

The school organization of today will probably not be the organization a quarter of a century hence. Changes will be brought about in the future as in the past. The nursery school, the junior college, and the variations in internal practice which are now taking place are all prophetic indications that a new organization must be evolved to properly meet the new demands. Will not these innovations affect marked modifications in the organization for supervision?

Obviously a school system which fixes the responsibility for all activities which are carried on with pupils assigned to a class group to a single teacher will require a supervisory organization very different from that operated in schools in which the teacher shares instructional responsibilities in one of a number of ways with other members of the teaching corps. Scientific study will some day throw light on these problems which face every executive as he devises the organization of the schools for instructional purposes. The princi-

ples which are to govern the nature of teacher responsibility determine the foundation upon which supervision is to be constructed. Naturally the supervision of teachers who are highly trained specialists will be developed in a manner different from the assistance and guidance provided for those teachers who are delegated broad and general responsibilities. Likewise the school system which conceives of the school as a place in which children learn to choose their work, and to direct and evaluate their own efforts requires a supervisory organization unlike that planned for the schools built upon a different philosophy.

It requires but little imagination to appreciate the fact that the elementary schools are bound to undergo somewhat revolutionary changes in organization if obvious weaknesses are overcome. That day is not so far distant when the school organization must provide conditions in which the superior teacher is not forced to compete with the mediocre. As the economic weaknesses of the single salary schedule are more clearly understood, schools will be ready to attack in a more fundamental way the issues which this plan of salary payment was instituted to cure. One can find little justification for the wide range in costs which results from assigning to the same type of work teachers with such extreme variations in native ability, training, and competence to perform the tasks. With the evident limited number of persons with unusual ability available for classrooms it is believed that present practices which permit such wide variations in the competence of teachers performing similar duties will frustrate any attempt to provide equal instructional opportunity for children in schools organized as they are today.

The development of a supervisory organization cannot be separated from the study of the problems which have to do with the organization of schools for more efficient teaching. No organization can be efficient in which activities are not classified to the degree that individuals may be assigned tasks on levels at which they may perform most effectively and at their best, and in terms of their economic worth. The schools today are not planned to be operated in a manner in which the superior teachers may engage their time in services which demand their best talents and on a basis which provides compensation commensurate with worth.

The continued improvement of instructional materials, along with the talking pictures presents possibilities for instructional improvement which must be faced by those responsible for the supervision of instruction. The time has arrived when the educational profession fully appreciates the extent to which mechanical devices may render certain services more effectively than they are being carried on at present. It will be of interest to see how these new devices modify supervisory organization.

Organization varies with teacher employed—The functioning of a supervisory staff in a school system in which the rank and file of teachers are employed will be very different from that in which teachers are selected with great care. The less able the teachers, the more inspectorial will be the supervisory efforts, and the more precise the directions as to method and procedure must become. Schools which have a staff of unusually well-qualified teachers demand leadership on the part of supervisors that likewise must function on a high level. The degree to which general inspection is needed in the latter situation is of interest. The level of the teaching staff determines in no small way the extent to which the directing staff may consider their efforts creative or administrative. One needs to discuss this problem no further to appreciate the importance which personnel selection has upon the nature of the supervisory organization.

The supervisory organization in many school systems is constructed on the assumption that teachers cannot be adequately educated before they are appointed. One finds this to be the case in certain cities in which from two to three years of experience are demanded of all new entrants into the schools. The fact that a difference of opinion does exist in reference to the teaching competence of graduates of the professional schools at the time of graduation leads one to believe that more cooperation between the schools and the training institution might profitably be made in the formulating of the teacher-education curricula.

One must admit that better educated teachers are increasingly available each year and that those school systems with the better salary schedules are in a position to recruit new teachers from among those who are well able to fit into positions in the schools with the least need of attention during the period of adjustment. Observation of supervisory activities leads one to assume that much time is lost in helping new teachers to adapt themselves to their new positions, a condition which may be alleviated through a more carefully devised method of selecting teachers.

Supervisory organizations might be improved by a more thorough-going classification of teacher activities and by selecting personnel in terms of their competence to perform them. To illustrate, the activities referred to are of two general classes. First, each school system creates and develops certain routine practices which are peculiar to it and some teachers adjust themselves to these more easily than others. The other group of activities are those which comprise the standard practices and preferred procedures which have been accepted by the local authorities for specific grades, subject or activity. Other things being equal, teachers selected because they are well-qualified to perform the duties of the school according to the standards prescribed will save much supervisory time and energy.

No organization of supervisors can be expected to progressively improve their services if the same round of routine activities is to be performed year after year, and if the year's work is to be initiated on the same level each September. Progress is possible only as the staff officers are able to function on increasingly higher levels, a condition which can be brought about only as the routinized services are rendered in a manner that consumes less and less time of the highly paid professional employees.

Supervision and research—Research is not a peculiar function of supervision, but the scientific approach to the solution of problems should permeate every branch of public school work. For this reason the service cost of research as conducted by supervisors should not be charged in the budget to supervision but to research. This proposal is projected in order that a clearer picture of service and costs may be had by the school officials and likewise in order that the direct supervisory services may be required to carry its proportionate share of expenditures.

In some school systems there is a tendency to charge against research the time of supervisors and principals expended in general surveys of instruction. Such work is in reality the application of modern professional technics and represents only the use of new tools by the trained principal or supervisor. Likewise a study of many of the research projects reported by the various supervisory staffs leads one to believe that in large measure these could be more economically performed by the research bureau and the time of the supervisors might be more profitably engaged.

It is believed that more detailed study of the research efforts of members of the staff and those of the research bureau of a school system might indeed be profitable, resulting in a better development of research bureau activities and contributing to the improvement of the organization for supervision.

The real need at the present time is more money for extended research which has for its aim the solution of the many problems which have to do with public school organization and administration and the allied fields of supervision. Those school systems which will extend their budgets for research and which will attack at their foundation the issues that have to do with the improvement of instruction will find themselves in the position of leadership and will be prepared to organize a supervisory staff which may operate efficiently and economically. Every dollar spent on extended research of problems having to do with the improvement of instruction will pay large dividends. In the meantime schools will drift as in the past from one makeshift supervisory organization plan to another and as expediency and contingency may dictate.

The studies made of the educational and professional qualifications of the members of the supervisory staffs in public school systems in-

dedicate that training in service is indeed a needed activity for supervisors to engage in. The educational programs in most of the higher institutions responsible for the education of supervisors of art, music, and physical education leave much to be desired in the way of adequate preparation for supervisory responsibilities. The problems of educating persons qualified to assume leadership must receive the serious attention of those interested in providing efficient supervisory services in the public schools if the school systems are to select supervisory staff members of high calibre.

THE SPECTACLE of a program of supervision, which claims it facilitates the realization of the democratic ideal, yet uses technics unaffected by that ideal presents a strange anomaly. Existing technics are for the most part prescriptive. They seem, to the supervised, to imply a belief in the concentration of all the 'super' vision in the supervisor. Under such a regime suggestions take on the force of directions; teacher-cooperation is merely a euphemism for teacher subordination. We have been on the defensive because even the results which supervision admittedly gets have not been deemed sufficient justification for the disharmony it causes.—Morris B. Ginsburg, Chapter IV.

SOME ADMINISTRATIVE AIDS

E. A. BROWN

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THE chief aim of the principal of any school should be to encourage his teachers to put forth their best efforts to have realized in the lives of their pupils the highest ideals of education. He can do this only through a good type of leadership. He must protect, with extreme care, the "professional spirit" of the teacher. Inspiration, or spirit, is the force that impels teachers to strive successfully for desired results. Without that emotional force no teacher can do her best. She must feel that her principal is her supporter in a common cause, vital to the lives of her pupils. She must be confident of his sincerity of purpose and of his professional skill. She must be able to rely on his judgment. He is her leader and his leadership fails if he becomes a hindrance to her instead of a helper.

The purpose of this article is to show that foresight in administration prevents many supervisory problems. The writer makes no serious attempt to distinguish administrative and supervisory devices for in guiding the learning process such distinctions are more or less artificial.

Assignments of teachers—The platoon organization has been selected for discussion because it offers superior opportunities to the principal to arouse and maintain to the highest possible degree the interest of his teachers. He has the privilege of assigning each one to the particular type of work for which she possesses the highest degree of skill and the keenest interest. Consider the play program for example. No one questions its educational importance but comparatively few teachers are in sympathy with it. It demands a special type of dress. It requires a special type of mind. It calls for an athletic physique. The ordinary classroom teacher often thinks of it as a nuisance and considers that it is out of harmony with her other duties. If she conducts play classes at all, she does so begrudgingly. Such an unpedagogical state of mind cannot be expected to secure the results for which our schools exist. The average faculty of twenty or more teachers usually has one or two members who are especially qualified by physical and mental constitution to enter into and direct the play exercises, and to assume the broader duties included in the health program. They are supremely happy in that work and, by assuming it, they relieve from it teachers who find it irksome and monotonous. By proper assignment, the principal can simplify the direction of instruction. His director of health readily becomes an expert on the job and frequently develops skill superior to his own. Many problems in supervision are solved before the opening of the school session. His chief function as a supervisor in this case is to

maintain the proper relation of the health program to the other departments of the school.

Other subjects of the curriculum of a platoon school, one of which the writer is principal, which require teachers of special aptitudes, bear the following titles: agriculture, library, art, auditorium activities, literature, music, nature study, and social science. Each of these subjects deserves special consideration quite as much as the play activity treated above. A teacher of agriculture who is afraid to get her hands dirty is out of place. To place in charge of a library, a teacher who is not a lover of books and who is not interested in caring for them and in repairing them is ridiculous. To assign to teach art, one who knows nothing about art and cares less is unthinkable. To make a teacher, who is unqualified, responsible for directing auditorium activities is nonsensical. To give literature to a teacher who is devoid of the emotional nature necessary to instil in children the love of that subject is precluding all possibility of any effective supervision. To ask a teacher, who does not know one note from another, to teach music, would be funny if it were not so pedagogically tragic. To require a teacher, who is not interested in nature, to direct investigations in nature study has made that activity almost useless. The social sciences also demand a director who sees in them principles of great value.

Pupils are severe critics. If they were free to voice their criticisms and make themselves understood, the teacher, ignorant of her subject or unskilled in its presentation, could not endure. It is evident that the principal can do much before the day school is convened to minimize his supervisory responsibilities and to have his teachers invite supervision. Such an opportunity is open to the principal who assigns teachers in terms of their interests.

Inspection visits to classrooms—If the ideals above expressed are made effective the technic for classroom supervision will be reduced to a minimum. Frequent visitations and the helpful character of his comments will give assurance that the principal is awake to his responsibilities and his criticisms will be received with the best of good will. The time "dishonored" practice of taking the class to show the teacher "how it's done" is no longer tenable. Teachers have increased their ability during the past few years to such an extent that a principal cannot expect to conduct a class that he does not know intimately with the skill of the regular teacher. He is in danger of belittling himself and the teacher when he undertakes it.

One or two minutes in the classroom at frequent intervals will enable him to inspect the work and to conclude whether or not further supervisory steps should be taken. Unless he is confident that he can lead the teacher to increase her effectiveness, she should be permitted to continue her procedure without interference. In any case her ardor

should not be dulled. A disheartened teacher is useless. Her virtues should be emphasized and constructive criticism tendered diplomatically. The principal should ever be aware of the fact that the classroom teacher is the most potent factor in our school system. We might be deprived of supervisors and administrators but the loss of the classroom teacher would cause the immediate collapse of the whole organization. The interest of the system makes imperative her support by its other officials. The sensible principal will treat her with kindly regard as a means of vitalizing the instruction.

Teachers meetings—Many supervisors use the teachers' meeting to aid them in the realization of their aims. The teachers' meeting immediately before the opening of school, after the summer vacation, can be made of inestimable value to the principal in saving hours of monotonous supervision after school has been convened. At this time each teacher should receive her assignment and the delivery of her equipment. Her duties should be made so plain to her that she will not require the attention of the principal during the first few days of school. In so far as possible these directions should be in writing. During the first school day of the year the principal should be free to receive and classify new pupils coming to his school for the first time. Pupils who were in the school the previous year should be classified by the teachers according to lists and instructions received from the principal during the preschool meeting. They should be in their respective rooms engaged in the regular work of the year within thirty to sixty minutes after the convening of school.

The preschool meeting, skilfully conducted, will relieve the school head of hundreds of little duties that would otherwise occupy his entire time. By having planned for the opening day in detail he will soon have his pupils in their proper places and he will be free to make a survey of his entire plant making adjustments here and there as he finds advisable. It is difficult to surmise how he could be more serviceable in improving instruction than in the proper management of the organization of his school for the first day of the school year.

Any value to be derived from teachers' meetings in the course of the school year depends on their importance and the careful preparation that is made for them. A meeting should seldom be called unless its importance warrants it and not then unless adequate preparation is made to expedite its proceedings. In matters of opinion, teachers should be encouraged to express their sincere convictions freely. They should be trained to respect the position of the principal in his relation to the community group to which the school is responsible and, having voiced their opinions, they should bow to the inevitable with good grace if the outcome is not to their satisfaction.

Opinions of teachers are affected by the late hour at which meetings are often held. They are tired from the day's labor. This fatigue

should be taken into account. Luncheon meetings at the noon hour may frequently be substituted for after school meetings. They are not so much of a hardship on teachers and they are less unpopular. They can be called readily when needed. Regular after school meetings, monthly or otherwise, that are held simply because the "rules require them" should be abolished by abolishing the rules. The necessity for the meeting should be the controlling factor in calling the meeting. Circumstances may require meetings to be held on succeeding days. There may be no occasion for a meeting during an entire month. It may be necessary at times to call a meeting on very short notice. If the meetings are held in accordance with the above suggestions, they will aid in vitalizing the curriculum by intensifying professional interest and eliminating some of the requirements for supervision.

Bulletin boards—The bulletin board is a distinct aid to supervision. Teachers read its contents in the morning when they enter and in the afternoon when they depart. It can be made interesting by carefully selecting the material that is placed on it. It should carry suggestions from the principal, mandates from higher authorities, notices of meetings of teachers' associations, and other matters of interest. A special bulletin board can be provided for a departmentalized school on which each teacher is assigned an allotted space to post each week a notice of the general subjectmatter that she plans to teach the following week. This simple device serves to unify the various departments of the school and to establish the desired correlation that is so much of a question in a departmentalized organization.

Conclusion—Administration and supervision should be coordinated so as to set up and to maintain conditions favorable to learning. In this way the teacher will know what is expected of her and will be encouraged to do her work joyfully. Then will the principal be relieved of much concern. From the standpoint of supervision, he will occupy a position in the background. The teacher will vitalize the curriculum because she is placed in an environment that thrills her with ambition. The principal will have played his part in creating the environment and thereby securing the desired ends. Though not the most spectacular, this is a most effective supervisory program.

HAVE you read the message by President Cassie F. Roys? See page 135 of this yearbook.

BETTER TEACHING THROUGH REORGANIZATION

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IT IS agreed that the greatest responsibility of the principal is the improvement of instruction. While the supervision of classroom teaching is the most direct means of bringing about better teaching, certain administrative activities also seriously affect instruction. Attention to pupil adjustments, study of class organization, and consideration of teacher abilities contribute very definitely to the improvement of instruction. As the responsibilities of the principal increase, it becomes more and more necessary to rely on administrative measures to achieve results.

The purpose of this article is to show how class reorganization can improve working conditions for children and use certain teacher abilities to greater advantage.

THE REORGANIZATION OF THE FIRST GRADE

Instructional difficulties—The change from kindergarten to first grade is an abrupt one for the child. In kindergarten there has been freedom and informality. The child is accustomed to moving about freely. It has not been necessary for him to keep quiet for long periods of time. When he has needed attention and direction he has had it. When he goes into the first grade, much of the freedom of the kindergarten is gone. Instruction in subjectmatter begins. Now the teacher has definite teaching to do, and the child must work quietly in his specified place without much direction. As one thinks of it, this change from kindergarten to first grade is as drastic a one as the child meets anywhere in his school experience.

Besides this problem of abrupt change from kindergarten to first grade there are several others that face every first grade teacher. There is the problem of working out an activity program. Many teachers find this difficult, particularly teachers who have not been trained recently. Physical conditions, such as the number of children to be handled and the size of the classroom, limit the program. There is also the problem of seat-work. In the ordinary first grade a great deal of seat-work has to be provided for the children in order to keep them quiet and occupied while small group instruction is going on.

The new plan—In an attempt to answer these problems we decided to reorganize our first grades, using the kindergarten organization as our guide. There were enough first grade children in the building to make four classes. Instead of dividing them into four separate classes they were kept in two large groups, the beginners in one and the advanced firsts in the other. Two teachers were placed in charge

of each unit and two adjoining rooms were arranged for each unit. The work was divided so that one teacher in each unit taught reading and writing and the other taught the music and directed the activity and play program.

The assignment of the teachers was made on the basis of training, congeniality, and natural interests. In the one unit a kindergarten teacher took over the activity program. In the other unit a second grade teacher with a natural skill in handling children informally, and with special training in music, was prevailed upon to try out the activity program. The other two teachers, selected to handle the reading, were teachers trained for first grade who had shown considerable promise as teachers of reading.

The rooms used for these units were arranged, one as a reading room and the other as an activity room. The reading room was fitted with movable table desks and chairs, bookcases, and reading tables. The activity room was kept as clear of furniture as possible. Several long kindergarten work tables were placed along the sides of the room; building blocks, carpenter's bench, painting easels, and piano were provided for each. Since each classroom had a coatroom, the one connected with the activity room was turned into a supply room. Cupboards with individual compartments for the children were built in. Large supplies such as cardboard, beaver board, lumber, rolls of paper, paint, clay and the like were kept there.

REVISED FIRST GRADE PROGRAM

Before school to 9:40-----	Activity	
9:40 to 9:50-----	Discussion-----	{ Plans for work Roll call Criticism
9:50 to 10:00-----	Recess	
10:00 to 10:45-----	{ Music—Group II Games Reading—Group I	
10:45 to 11:30-----	{ Reading—Group II Music & Games—Group I	
11:30 to 1:30-----	Noon recess	
1:30 to 2:20-----	{ Reading—Group II Activity—based on Social Studies—Group I	
2:20 to 2:30-----	Recess	
2:30 to 3:20-----	{ Reading—Group I Activity—Group II	
3:20 to 3:30-----	{ Criticism—Discussion Housekeeping	

A schedule, blocking out reading time and activity time for the groups, was worked out, but the teachers were free to make adjustments. Each unit was divided into two groups to facilitate handling. While one group worked in the reading room, the other group worked in the activity room. The reading groups were divided into several smaller groups for recitation.

At the beginning of the morning session a general activity period has been developed. This period is the direct outgrowth of studying the children's actions when they came in the morning. The activities undertaken at this period do not necessarily contribute to group projects. For some children this is a free reading period; for others it is the time for free painting, modelling, or crayoning.

Results—The reorganized first grade plan has been in use two terms and so far we observe that:

(1) The children have more opportunity to move about freely. There are no long periods of inactivity. There is about one-half hour of seat work related to reading in each session.

(2) The separate activity room has made possible a greater variety of large activities than is possible in the regular classroom.

(3) The children's accomplishments in their activity work receive more recognition. So often the estimate of a child's success in first grade is determined by his reading power. In our plan the estimate of the child's work along a given line is not colored by what he does or does not do in another line because different persons are judging him. This arrangement has been the source of great satisfaction to many of the children.

(4) The seat work that is done is done in connection with reading. There is less of it and what is used is more carefully planned and more worthwhile.

(5) Reading is carried on under more satisfactory conditions. The teacher's attention is not divided. The effect of carrying on reading in a room where the surroundings emphasize reading is conducive to better reading attention. All the reading materials for the grade are concentrated in one place. It has been possible, therefore, to have a wider variety of materials on hand.

(6) Since the teachers of reading have opportunity to concentrate on one kind of work, there has been decided increase in teaching technic. The variety of reading activities has increased. More time and thought has been spent on preparing reading seat work.

(7) The groups within the unit are not fixed. Children are easily changed from one working group to another as their needs are apparent. This plan means that the first grade provides a longer tryout period before ability groups are made. It has been the case many times that grouping on the basis of kindergarten readiness tests has not been reliable and that regrouping has been necessary

during the first year. Adjustments are not easy to achieve when it means changing from one room to another. One group has gone into second grade since this organization has been developed and we find the grouping made at the end of the first year has been much more reliable.

(8) There has been increased professional interest on the part of the teachers doing this work.

Two questions have been asked concerning this type of organization:

First. Do the children find two teachers confusing?

Second. Does this type of organization provide for correlation?

The answer to the first question is that in kindergarten the children are accustomed to two teachers, therefore, having two in the first grade is not a new experience.

The answer to the second question is not quite so definite. We feel that the advantages in other ways outweigh any loss in correlation, and we are not sure that there is a loss. We are not so sure that all work should be correlated. Where effort is made to relate all the work of the grade, that relationship is apt to be forced and unnatural. Where a basal text is used in reading it is never possible to have complete correlation. The teachers work very closely together. The reading teacher utilizes materials developed in the activity periods and many reading activities go on in connection with the activity program.

While this program has not been in effect long enough to draw any sweeping conclusions, results so far make us feel that it is worth continuing further.

CORRELATION IN A DEPARTMENTAL PROGRAM

Advantages and disadvantages of departmentalization—For a number of years the fifth and sixth grades have been conducted on the departmental plan where different teachers teach different subjects. This plan has been accepted for so long that the teachers of the special subjects such as art, music, physical education and writing are specially trained people hired for the purpose of teaching these various special subjects, and the room arrangement and equipment have been planned to meet the needs of such a program. Now the plan of departmentalization is being questioned as not being consistent with ideas of modern education and it is urged that it be done away with in favor of typical grade teaching.

One criticism against the departmental program is, that in such a program the subjectmatter lines are too closely drawn. Another is, that the teaching time, divided as it is into periods, limits the subject being taught; and very often the end of the period means breaking off the subject at a point of high interest. Still another

criticism is, that the children have to make adjustments to too many different personalities.

While all of these criticisms are true of the strictly departmentalized program, there are certain advantages to such a program. A departmental teacher is usually a specialist in her own subject. She is teaching a particular subject by virtue of special talents and training, or by virtue of special interest which has led to considerable study of the subject. Therefore, she has more to contribute to that subject. Besides this feature, a departmental program provides a certain amount of rest through the changing from one room to

CHART I—GENERAL DEPARTMENTAL SCHEDULE

Time	6A Miss B.	6B1 Miss G.	6B2 Miss N.	5A Miss H.	5B1 Miss S.	5B2 Miss B.	Miss R.
	Open. Ex.	Open. Ex.	Open. Ex.	Open. Ex.	Open. Ex.	Open. Ex.	
9 :00 to 9 :50	6A Social Studies	6B1 Arith.	6B2	5A	5B1 Music & Writing	5B2	Audi- torium
9 :50 to 10 :25	Reading Geog. History	5B1 Arith.	Social Studies	Social Studies	6B1 Music & Writing	Social Studies	Special Schedule
10 :25 to 10 :35		Recess					
10 :35 to 11 :15	6A English	6B2 Arith.	Library	5B1	5B2 Music & Writing	6B1 & 5A Phys. Ed. Boys and Alternating	6B1 & 5A Art and Girls Alternating
11 :15 to 11 :55	6B1 English	5B2 Arith.	Special Schedule	Social Studies	5A Music & Writing	6A & 6B2 Phys. Ed. Boys and Alternating	6A & 6B2 Phys. Ed. and Girls Alternating
11 :55		Dismissal					
1 :30 to 2 :10	6B1 Social	6A Arith.	Library	5A English	6B2 Music & Writing	5B1 & 5B2 Phys. Ed. Boys and Alternating	5B1 & 5B2 Art and Girls Alternating
2 :10 to 2 :50	Studies	5A Arith.	6B2 English	5B1 English	6A Music & Writing	5B2 English	Audi- torium
2 :50 to 3 :25	Service Period	Service Period	Service Period	Service Period	Service Period	Service Period	
3 :25		Dismissal					

another and from one teacher to another. It also prepares for the experience of junior high school.

Our plan of semi-departmentalization—Faced with the problem of either going back to the one teacher per grade or devising a program which could preserve the values of departmentalization and also answer the criticisms against it, a semi-departmentalized program was finally worked out.

The program provides that arithmetic, music, writing, physical education, and art should be taught as single subjects, and the other subjects, reading, geography, history, and language are taught by one teacher. This plan decreases the number of teachers that the children meet daily. This time is so arranged that the teachers of reading, geography, and so forth, have their groups two successive periods during the day as shown in Chart I.

In planning this program, a service period at the end of the day for remedial work, conference and extra curriculum has been provided. The service period makes it unnecessary to keep children after school. We have found that after-school-work for children is never satisfactory. The school day is quite long enough for most

CHART II—SERVICE PERIOD PROGRAM

	6A1 Remedial Arith. Social Studies Chorus	6A2 Remedial Arith. Social Studies Chorus	6B Social Studies Chorus	5A1 Social Studies Library Chorus	5A2 Social Studies Library Chorus	5A & 5B Social Studies Library Chorus	
Mon.							6th Grade Games
Tues.		Auditorium		Social Studies Writing Practice Library	Remedial Arith. Writing Practice Social Studies	Social Studies Writing Practice Library	
Wed. 1:30 to 2:10	Orch. Art Social Studies Library	Orch. Art Social Studies Library	Orch. Art Social Studies Library	Orch. Art Social Studies Arith.	Orch. Art Social Studies	Orch. Art Social Studies Arith.	5th Grade Games
Thur.	Social Studies Writing Practice	Social Studies Writing Practice	Arith. Writing Practice Social Studies		Auditorium		
Fri.		Home Room	Activities				Safety Council

children, and many of them have home activities which make it impossible to keep them after school hours.

A schedule for the service period (Chart II) has been worked out which provides stated times during the week for different groups to receive extra help in academic subjects and remedial work in writing. Those children who do not need special help have choice of several different activities. They may use the time on work they may be interested in, participate in organized games, have special singing, or read in the library.

This type of departmental program has been in use for three terms. It has its weaknesses and it is quite possible that it will give way to a straight grade program. It does, however, provide for correlation of the subjects which should be correlated. It provides longer work periods for the content subjects than formerly.

The child has fewer changes from room to room and the number of different teachers he meets has been cut from seven to four.

CONCLUSION

Pupil adjustment should not confine itself wholly to grade placement. It should go farther and become a study of conditions under which children are working, and should provide a change in class organization if working conditions for children can be improved by so doing.

We give considerable time now to studying the individual differences of children and attempt to make provision for them. Too little, however, do we recognize these differences in teachers. We expect them to do a piece of teaching that requires ability to do a great many different things, and their success depends on how well they are able to do all of them. Teachers' abilities are not alike. Attention paid to their special talents and to providing opportunity for their use is often the means of developing skillful professionally alert teachers out of indifferent discouraged ones.

IF THE regard for personalities is a paramount consideration of the principal, he will so devise his plans that they are at one and the same time a consolidation of the efforts of those with whom he works and an application to the particular needs of those for whom they are designed to assist. There may be no differentiation of aims. The principal will consider his chief function in the school to be that of a unifying agent, bringing together all of the best ideas, adjusting them to his school, and guiding teachers and children in their use.—John S. Thomas, Chapter II.

THE PRINCIPAL'S PROFESSIONAL CABINET¹

PAUL R. PIERCE

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NUMEROUS devices are employed by elementary school principals for influencing the professional growth of members of the teaching staff. Outstanding examples of such devices are provision for professional reading by the members of the staff, formation of teacher committees to study special school problems, delegation of administrative duties to teachers, granting of recognition for exceptional services through teacher ratings, and encouragement of the publication of professional articles by teachers. However, the principal must systematically direct and follow up procedures of this nature if effective professional growth is to result. An instrument which the principal may economically utilize for the organization, coordination, and direction of the chief devices for stimulating professional growth is the professional cabinet. It is the purpose of this article to describe the organization and functioning of the principal's professional cabinet in a six-year elementary school.

Basis of membership—The establishment of the principal's professional cabinet at the Gladstone School had its origin in the system employed in the delegation of extra-class duties to teachers. Here the professional, in contrast to the administrative, aspect of the assignment was emphasized from the first. It was felt that administrative work owing to its routine characteristics, would be less likely to challenge the educational interests of the teacher than work of a professional nature. Accordingly, such administrative tasks as were deemed appropriate for delegation were confined to the head-assistant and clerk, and only duties which affected the educational program of the school were assigned to the teachers. The advantages of this plan are two-fold. First, it keeps administrative routine which in a large school involves a multiplicity of details, economically concentrated and articulated in the principal's office; second, it permits the participation of the staff in the larger professional aspects of the educational program of the school. Too often the phrase "democracy in school control" is interpreted by teachers and principals to mean participation in administrative details. Real democracy is attained when teachers share in shaping the professional program of the school. The plan of delegation of duties at the Gladstone school aimed, therefore, at both economic centralization of administrative detail and wide participation by teachers in the professional policies of the school.

¹Readers will want to consider the proposal of this article in connection with the supervisory devices discussed in Chapter IV.—*Editorial Committee.*

In the delegation of duties, teachers were assigned to three types of activity: advisers on special phases of school work, chairmen of committees, and sponsors of extra-class activities. The activities scheduled under these classifications are:

1. *Advisors*

- (a) Course of study
- (b) Office methods and records
- (c) Official professional organizations
- (d) Primary methods and materials
- (e) Tests and measurements
- (f) Visual methods and aids

2. *Chairmen*

- (a) Committee on civic outline
- (b) Committee on health instruction
- (c) Committee on individual methods and materials
- (d) Committee on professional library

3. *Sponsors*

- (a) Civic clubs
- (b) Harmonica club
- (c) Safety patrol
- (d) School library
- (e) School newspaper

When the formation of a cabinet was contemplated, the basis for selection of the members was given careful consideration. The type of advisory committee utilized by many high-school principals wherein the heads of various departments make up the personnel of the cabinet was examined with respect to its adaptability for elementary school use. The plan of having the teachers of each grade elect a grade chairman to represent them in the counsel received serious attention. Again, the merits of Dr. Hoscic's¹ plan whereby the chairmen of groups of teachers in charge of pupils at the various levels of the elementary school, such as the primary and grammar levels, would constitute the personnel of the principal's cabinet, were carefully weighed. Most of these plans, however, appeared to emphasize the structural, rather than the functional aspects of school activities, that is, they tended to limit teacher chairmen to a given cross-section of the school activity in contrast to a vertical section of the school's work as a whole. Such limitation of outlook, it was considered, might nullify to an appreciable extent, the value of the teacher's contribution in the professional cabinet.

The plan of delegation employed at the Gladstone School, on the other hand, possessed two factors which particularly marked its functional character. First, the activity usually brought the teacher in charge in contact, not only with the administrative office and the other teachers, but with the work of the classrooms and the extra-

¹Hoscic, James F. "Organization of the Elementary School." *Journal of Educational Method*, 8:147-50, 199-202; December, 1928, and January, 1929.

class activities as well. For example, the sponsor of the school library was required to submit a schedule of library periods for all classes. This plan not only brought her to the office to articulate the schedule with the school program, but also required study on her part of the needs and problems of library activity for the teachers of all grades. Moreover, scheduling the library activities caused the sponsor to study the schedules for other extra-class activities in order that conflicting schedules might be avoided. In this way the sponsor gained a broad, sympathetic point of view respecting the problems of principal and fellow teachers. In the second place the sponsor's contact with the functions of the school is vertical rather than horizontal, affording insight into the work at all grade levels. Thus the functional nature of the delegated duties appeared well established.

Organization of cabinet effected—It was decided, therefore, to form a professional cabinet of the advisers, chairmen, and sponsors of special activities, the head-assistant, and the head teachers of the branches. Since the head-assistant has charge of the school marshals and is director of assemblies, her presence in the cabinet further widens the viewpoints represented.

Individual conferences with members—In order to articulate work in the various fields of activity represented in the cabinet thus formed, the principal conducts a systematically scheduled series of conferences during the semester with each member. These conferences receive advance preparation and are held in the administrative office during the school session. The teacher is usually notified in advance concerning the time, and usually concerning the subjects of the conference, thus assuring economy of time and procedure in the conference. During the conference the principal may check on progress in the special field, ask for reports on special phases by the sponsor, or discuss plans for future progress. The conference is very informal and the teacher is made to feel that she is an effective participant in the policies of the school.

General meetings—The general meetings of the cabinet are not held according to a schedule but are called as the principal senses the need for advice along some contemplated line of activity, or wishes to secure the reaction of the teaching body on a policy already inaugurated. Topics of discussion may also be introduced by members of the cabinet. In general, the topics of discussion are directed to channels concerning educational procedures and methods rather than to administrative policies of the central office or the principal's office. The teachers are invited to state views frankly; they are assured that what is said in council will in no way affect their status outside of the meeting. The principal does not feel constrained to submit policies which are discussed to a vote, but if he

does submit a policy to a vote, he abides by the result.¹ The meetings of the cabinet are announced as much in advance as possible, the topic of discussion is usually stated, and it is made clear that any teacher who wishes may attend and participate in the discussions.

Factors influencing professional growth—The chief factor to influence the professional growth of a member of the cabinet is the study which she is encouraged to make in her special field. For example, the chairman of the civic outline committee makes an extensive study of civic programs in other cities, studies trends in character education, and possibly experiments on a limited scale in her own room before submitting a program of action for the principal's approval. Such a program may be submitted to the cabinet for discussion and suggestions before being made the basis of procedure for the civic committee. Again, the adviser on office records and methods, who has had considerable clerical experience in school offices, studies the literature in the field to discover trends in office procedure and advances in office equipment. Her work serves to establish a sympathetic, intelligent appreciation in the staff of the problems of the administrative office and the purpose of regulations governing administrative procedure. As the teacher increases her knowledge in a given field, she sees, and leads her fellow to see, the activities in the light of the school as a whole, rather than as they affect the teacher as an individual. Her horizon is broadened; her vision is extended beyond the walls of her room—too often the limits of vision for the teacher lacking professional incentive. The teacher attains a scientific attitude; she senses, and sympathizes with, the import of professional policies which previously implied only meaningless, burdensome tasks.

An additional professional asset acquired by the adviser or sponsor is the widened sphere of her activities with other teachers and with the principal. The teacher has new responsibilities; she must learn to work with others, to influence them, to lead them. Here the teacher realizes anew the value of continued self-development and professional growth.

The most effective device, perhaps, for stimulating professional attitudes on the part of the teacher is provision for her participation in research work in her given field. After the teacher sponsor has made a general survey of the field, and under the guidance of the principal has inaugurated a functioning program for the given activity, she may be encouraged to write the results of her work for a professional magazine. At this point, however, the leadership of the principal will receive a vital test. If the teacher is to make a contribution of value to workers in the field and is to acquire adequate professional knowledge and skill, the article must be prepared in ac-

¹The writer is indebted to Dr. W. C. Reavis of the University of Chicago for many helpful suggestions regarding the functions of the professional cabinet.

cordance with standards acceptable to leading professional journals. For example, the teacher who lacks experience in creative professional work may simply describe a program of activity without reference to the literature on the topic, or without knowledge of other programs in the same field. Her article may be poorly organized; and her ideas may not be expressed clearly enough to permit readers to grasp the meaning. The principal, on the other hand, may act as her adviser, or in case it is her first attempt, collaborate with her in the preparation of the article. In this way he may impart valuable training by requiring the teacher to read extensively in the field before outlining the article, by showing her how to assemble and organize data, by teaching her the importance of documenting important statements, and by demonstrating the value of basing statements on factual evidence rather than on opinion.

During the past year, the writer collaborated with the sponsor of the school paper in a study of the type described. The purpose of the study was to discover important trends in the publication of elementary school papers, and to compare the results with trends in the publication of the home school paper. Accordingly, three available investigations on school papers were studied, and the form and content of thirty-five elementary school papers were analyzed. These data were compared with the data secured by an analysis of a year's issue of the home school paper, and the outstanding trends noted. Through this project, the sponsor gained a wide knowledge of the administration of the elementary school paper and valuable training in the collection and organization of data. The article prepared has been accepted for publication by a professional magazine.¹ The data acquired is being utilized in the preparation of a second article setting forth simple standards for guidance in the publication of newspapers in elementary schools.

The procedure employed when the principal collaborates with the chairman of a committee in conducting research, results in professional training for all members of the committee. In order that the principal may keep in close contact with, and direct the research activities of, the chairman and members of the committee, he assumes the chairmanship during the period of research and the teacher chairman becomes the executive secretary of the committee, attending to the details of gathering data, assembling the committee for meetings, and caring for correspondence and records. This arrangement has proved very effective during two research projects carried on by teacher committees in the home school.² It has the twofold advan-

¹See "The Elementary School Newspaper," by Paul R. Pierce and Tobey M. Rosenblum, to appear in *The Elementary School Journal*.

²See "An Evaluation of Free and Inexpensive Health Materials," Fifth Yearbook, Chicago Principals Club, and "Gladstone Brainard Citizenship Program," *Chicago Principals Club Reporter*, April, 1929.

tage of providing economical, effective organization of an elementary school faculty for research, and establishing the status of the principal as the professional leader of his teaching staff.

Forms of recognition for cabinet members—Various forms of recognition are given as rewards for the special services of the cabinet members. If the adviser on visual aids, for example, has learned of new materials valuable for the work of a given grade or subject, she prepares a paragraph for the school bulletin and is credited with the preparation of the paragraph when the bulletin is issued. Again, teachers rendering special services of a high degree of merit are cited in letters to the superintendent and other superior line officers. Recognition which comes through the publication of articles in magazines has already been discussed. Finally, special services to the pupils, teachers, and principal of the school are given appropriate consideration in the official ratings of teachers.

Influence on other teachers—It must not be supposed that the influence of the professional cabinet is limited to the teachers having current membership. The cabinet influences directly or indirectly all members of the staff. As previously noted, any teacher may attend, and participate in, any meeting. The principal may invite teachers to discuss some phase of school work before given meetings of the cabinet. Then, too, membership in special committees may be so distributed that contact with the cabinet activities results for all members of the staff. The scientific attitude of the members of the cabinet influences the discussions and activities of all members of the staff. The professional library is used more widely since reading is now purposeful. The courses in education taken by teachers during the summer and after school hours are more selective. In short, the incentive for professional improvement affects the entire staff.

Conclusion—The principal's professional cabinet described in the foregoing paragraphs facilitates the development of a scientific attitude toward the professional problems under the leadership of the principal, secures democratic participation by the staff in shaping the educational policies of the school, provides for tangible recognition of special services of teachers, and centers the attention of the teachers on the problems of the school, that is, thinking of their work in terms of the school.

A multiplicity of problems in supervision are constantly vying with each other for the time and attention of the principal. A device, therefore, which organizes and coordinates the various factors involved in a given phase of supervisory activity constitutes an invaluable aid to supervision. In the case of stimulation of the professional growth of the teaching staff, this service is effectively rendered by the principal's professional cabinet.

PUPIL COOPERATION AND THE SCHOOL'S OBJECTIVES¹

GUY A. DURGAN

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THE purpose of this article is to give you an idea of how one school has attempted through the organization of its pupils, to put into practice the ideas contained in the following quotation from John Dewey: "Children in school must be allowed freedom to develop active qualities of initiative, independence, and resourcefulness before the abuses and failures of democracy will disappear."

The school as a community has a great many of the problems which confront any other group of people. Children are in school as part of the social order. It is generally recognized that as members of the social group, children participate in life experiences to the extent to which these experiences occur in a school environment. A curriculum is established to provide life experiences. Through the curriculum children should be able to see the problems in their own lives and the social life; should be able to solve these problems successfully; and finally, they must will and desire to take the necessary steps to achieve the solution.

In the six major fields of problems in Detroit; health, character, citizenship, vocational activity, home membership, and recreation, children are given experience in the solution of problems: and in these six major fields are expected to obtain the ideals of worthy individual and social purposes—powers of self-direction, self-control, and self-appraisal.

In appraising supervisory efforts, we keep the following question before us: "Is every available resource used to the extent of its value?" No matter whether the situation is in the classroom, in the halls or on the playground; if it has educational value, that is, if it contributes to the development of established objectives, then supervisors should make use of it. In the Boynton School, such an attempt is in progress.

In making such an appraisal the writer (the principal) discovered himself faced with this problem: He had a school with thirteen hundred children ranging in age from 5 years to 16 years, and including all grades from the kindergarten through the eighth. The school is organized on the platoon plan. The pupils are grouped into 24 sections of approximately 40 pupils each. Twelve of these sections are in the home room where they are taught the so-called tool subjects. The remaining 12 sections are then in special subject classes such as art, music, science, etc. These sections change from home room to

¹In connection with this contribution see Chapters VII, VIII, IX, X, and XI of the 1930 Yearbook of the Department.—*Editorial Committee.*

special subjects and vice versa at 10:24 A. M. and 1:36 P. M. This plan gives all sections and pupils half their time in the home room and half in the special classes.

Most of the children arrive about 15 minutes before school begins in the morning. During this time they should play together peacefully or should go into the building if the weather is inclement. In either case, they should respect the rights of others and move about the building in a manner similar to that of any social group. About 500 pupils remain at school for lunch. They are responsible for their own conduct in the lunchroom and about the building. This is really an excellent situation for the development of citizenship.

The Boynton teachers believe that teacher-direction, control, and appraisal cannot be present at the same time in pupil-direction, control, and appraisal. They also believe that pupil-effort should be used if the child is to make the greatest growth toward the desired objectives.

In an attempt to provide this child-development, an organization known as the student council was placed in operation three years ago. Every six weeks each section of 40 pupils elects a boy and a girl to represent it in this council. The council meets for one-half hour once a week. Representatives elect their own student officers and teacher adviser. They discuss and make some solution of the problems presented. Preceding the council meeting a short period is taken in each section for the discussion of problems which are to be presented in council meeting.

An illustration of a problem and its solution is presented below: A child in Section 17 believed that any child, when passing to and from classes should be permitted to get a drink, go to the lavatory, or consult with a teacher if he so desired, and that formal lines in the passing of classes be abolished. The representative then presented the problem in council meeting. The discussion in which all sides of the problem were presented lasted for three meetings and the council made the following recommendations:

1. That 10 minutes be allowed between the classes at 10:24 A. M. and 1:36 P. M.
2. That compositions be written by all pupils defining their responsibilities and their ideas for using this time.
3. That the plan be tried for one day to be followed by a 10 minute discussion with suggestions for improvement.
4. That if free class changes met with the approval of the pupils and teachers, the plan be placed in effect permanently.

The representatives presented these recommendations before their groups for further discussion and consideration. At the next council meeting a day was set aside for a trial of the plan. After several council meetings and considerable modification the plan was adopted.

To develop individual pupil responsibility a short period of time is set aside for self-appraisal. Each pupil states the mark to which

he believes himself entitled in citizenship for that day. If this mark is not acceptable to his classmates he must change it until the class agrees with him. An average of the individual marks is taken as the mark for the section. On the basis of these marks, awards in citizenship are given to the section receiving the most desirable marks.

Through the use of this plan we have been able to abolish entirely all teacher-duty and direction in the halls before and after our regular session. During the noon hour, children move about the building as they please. Many of them go to the auditorium and put on entertainments extemporaneously for their own amusement, while others choose the playground. Between classes, there is of course, considerable talking and pupils moving in every direction. There is however, no disorder. Although this order of things would not please the military eye, we believe that we have succeeded to some degree, in making children responsible for their part in school activities, and that we have shifted from teacher-control to the social-control of the pupils themselves.

An appraisal of a plan is of course necessary before one has any basis for judging its value. The following statements are based upon teacher and pupil judgement:

1. Children will assume responsibility for their conduct.
2. Children are able to set up acceptable standards of conduct.
3. Children will enforce these standards.
4. Children are quick to recognize problems and are able to bring about solutions.
5. Boynton children have shown marked growth in ability to meet and solve citizenship problems.

It is realized fully that we have not achieved the answer to the statement of John Dewey, but we do think that we have made some progress toward that goal. Constant modification is necessary in the use of any plan, and we pass this one on to you with the hope that it may be useful to some or that we may receive suggestions from those who have progressed farther in this field.

THE ELEMENTARY school principalship of the future will be the key position in the supervision of elementary schools. To adequately fill the position, the principal must know elementary education. He must be a student imbued with the spirit of scientific inquiry in the continuous study of the problems of his schools.—J. Cayce Morrison, Chapter I.

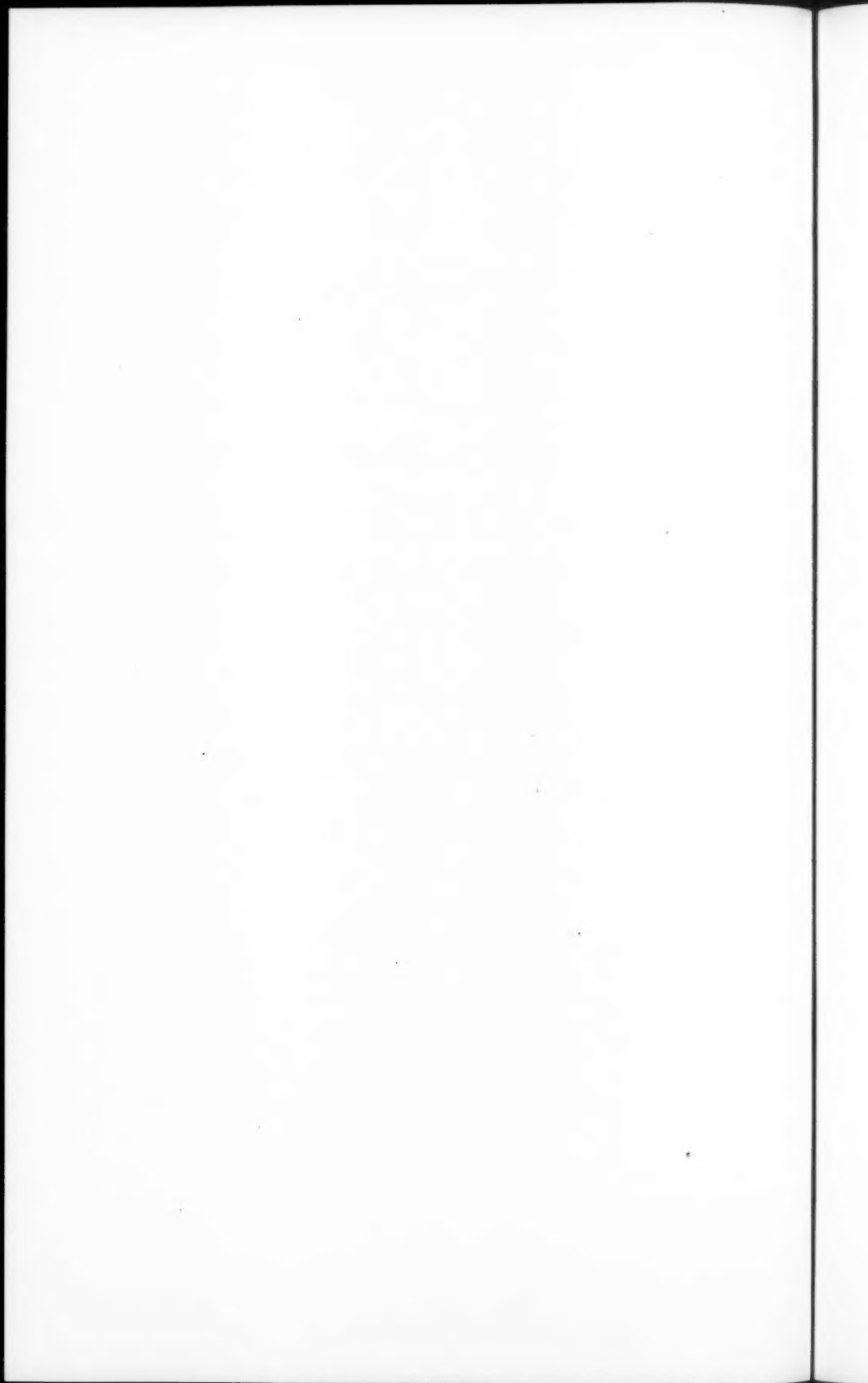
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Several chapters on the functions and coordinations of supervisory officers in small and large city school systems.
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IN ONE of the city school surveys on which the writer worked a few years ago the principals of the several elementary schools were entirely free from classroom teaching assignments. Of the seven principals concerned only one was a normal school graduate and only two others had studied in normal school or college; four had had no professional training other than a one-year training course in the high school of that city; and none of the seven had had any teaching experience outside the city except in a one-teacher school in years gone by. Not in a single principal's office was there a bookcase, a professional book or a magazine. Not a single principal knew how to make out an age-grade table.—J. Cayce Morrison, Chapter I.

All school problems arise from the single requirement that the learner be provided with the most effective opportunities for learning. The financing of education represents the phase of this problem. Better and more adequate school buildings and equipment is another. Likewise more adequately trained teachers are demanded because it is believed that they will be better able to arrange conditions so that learning may take place. Every part of the school system is maintained for the single purpose of making growth possible and more effective.—Milo B. Hillegas, Chapter II.



CHAPTER IV
INFLUENCING THE TEACHER

TEACHER'S DIFFICULTIES AS A BASIS FOR SUPERVISION
A COOPERATIVE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM
THE INDIVIDUALITY OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER
DEMOCRATIC AND COOPERATIVE SUPERVISION
CLASSROOM VISITS AND THE INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE
PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE TEACHER CONFERENCES
A CHART FOR USE IN EVALUATING AN ACTIVITY
THE PRINCIPAL'S OBSERVATION RECORD FORM
DEMONSTRATION LESSONS
A DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL IN READING
STENOGRAPHIC REPORTS OF LESSONS
PRACTICAL AND SPECIFIC TEACHER AID
CHANGES RESULTING FROM SUPERVISION

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER IV

Upon the teacher in the classroom falls the ultimate responsibility for improving instruction. She puts the curriculum into practice, adjusts the conditions of learning to each child, and manipulates the method to bring about learning. Or, she ignores the modern trends and maintains teaching procedures at less effective levels. How can the teacher be enlisted in supervision?

Chapter IV discusses some of the technics used in influencing the teacher. The most remarkable change in articles of this type, as compared with a few years ago, is that much is made of "democracy" in supervision. The teacher is encouraged on every possible occasion to help in discovering and solving instructional problems. In fact, the present viewpoint is that unless the teacher becomes interested in supervision the improvements are likely to be more or less arbitrary and ineffective.

The Department showed an early interest in supervision by devoting the *First Yearbook* to the subject. Other yearbooks devoting space to technics to be used with teachers are as follows: *First Yearbook*, p. 7-18; *Third Yearbook*, p. 245-383; *Fourth Yearbook*, p. 205-37; *Fifth Yearbook*, p. 279-86, 316-22, 344-60; *Sixth Yearbook*, p. 162-96; *Seventh Yearbook*, p. 182-209; and the *Eighth Yearbook*, p. 141-50, 162-206.

Immediately following Chapter IV will be found selected references of special interest to supervising principals.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER IV
INFLUENCING THE TEACHER
*TEACHERS' DIFFICULTIES AS A BASIS FOR
SUPERVISION*

JAY D. CONNER

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THE SUPERVISING principal is faced with both the necessity and the difficulty of evaluating the various activities which he is carrying on in the name of supervision. The suspicion arises in his own mind that many of these activities are of little value as he is performing them, and he often wonders if he is meeting the real needs of his teachers in a practical and helpful manner.

He has been given large responsibilities in the matter of supervision, sometimes without a proper appreciation of his ability to live up to the responsibility. Supervision has been handed over to him, as it were, as a highly specialized service which has been developed by school officers who have been specialists in this field. He has tried to carry out his responsibility by imitating the activities which these specialists have been carrying on. He finds himself sometimes in the position of the carpenter who is using the electrician's tools to do a job of plumbing. He wonders if his results would pass inspection.

The need for supervision by the principal is thoroughly established. The question of how the principal shall function in supervision is still unsettled. He is occupied today with the task of working out a re-definition of supervision which will capitalize upon his strategic position in the educational organization through emphasizing procedures which he is capable of using to give real help to his teachers.

Purposes and technics of the study—The above viewpoint led the writer to seek the cooperation of four fellow principals in making a study which would show problems of supervision in relation to teaching needs. The purposes of this study, were: first, to find the problems teachers actually encountered from day to day; second, to ascertain the problems offering the greatest difficulty; third, to locate the sources of help given to teachers with their problems; fourth, to discover the types of supervisory devices used with teachers during the period of this study; and fifth, to obtain from teachers some evaluation of the supervisory activities used by the principal and others.

Data for the study were obtained by means of a day to day record kept by teachers upon forms provided for this purpose. The first form was a "Record of Teaching Difficulties and Sources of Help." It provided three columns, one for a description of each problem encountered, one for an estimate of its seriousness in terms of its effect upon teaching, and one for a record of help in meeting the difficulty

reported. The second form provided for a record of all supervisory agencies which had affected the class during the period of the investigation. This form provided places to indicate the school officer responsible for the service, the value of the service to the teacher, the length of time involved (for such services as could be recorded in terms of time), and a checklist of forty-five specific supervisory services.

The five schools which participated in this study were selected on the basis of the interest of the principals in the purposes of the study. These schools enrolled from 600 to 1000 children. Each school had a full-time supervising principal, with a full-time secretary to handle the clerical work of the school. Participation in the study by teachers was on a voluntary basis. The principals presented the proposed study to the teachers in regular faculty meetings in accordance with a uniform plan. Sixty-eight of the 88 teachers in the five schools returned usable records. The teachers participating in the study represent an unselected group of city elementary school teachers. The staffs of the five schools were presumably about equal in ability, and equal to those of the other elementary schools of this city.

Within the natural limitations of this method of study, which are so excellently stated by Waples,¹ the validity of the results of this study is undoubtedly satisfactory except for the ratings which the teachers gave to the supervisory services which affected them. It would be too much to expect teachers to rate the activities of their supervisory officers as either 4 or 5 on a five-point scale when the results were to be studied by the principals involved. In effect the five-point scale proved to be really a three-point scale. This difficulty is not important, however, when it is remembered that the purpose of the study was not to discover the supervisory efficiency of the principal, but to discover the most valuable supervisory activities.

The data contained in these completed reports revealed a total of 517 specific teaching difficulties. These difficulties were classified under twelve main heads as shown in Table 1, and were further subdivided into 118 separate items for the purpose of detailed analysis.

There was no attempt to influence the type of teaching difficulties which teachers should report, other than that they should be significant as to the efficiency of the teaching and that they should be problems in which the teacher would have appreciated direction or help. There is therefore in the results a picture of specific needs of all sorts in terms of difficulties encountered in the everyday classroom activities of these teachers. It is interesting to note that these needs group themselves somewhat differently from generally reported estimates

¹See: Douglas Waples, "Teachers' Difficulties as a Basis for Supervision," *Second Yearbook*, National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. p. 77-105. Also references at the end of this chapter.

TABLE 1—TYPES AND DIFFICULTY OF TEACHING PROBLEMS REPORTED
BY SIXTY-EIGHT TEACHERS

TYPES OF TEACHING PROBLEMS	DEGREE OF DIFFICULTY ¹			TOTAL	
	1	2	3	Number	Percent
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1 Pupil control:					
a. Individual pupils.....	54	65	74	216	41.8
b. Group difficulties.....	4	16	3		
2. Teaching technic:					
a. Specific subjects.....	10	23	23	96	18.6
b. General method.....	42	22	14		
3. Classroom organization.....	20	17	20	57	11.0
4. Interruptions from outside of classroom:					
a. By school officials, pupils, etc.....	13	15	14	55	10.6
b. By non-school agencies, (i. e. parents).....	7	5	2		
5. Supplies and materials.....	3	10	5	18	3.5
6. Textbooks and supplementary materials.....	13	4	0	17	3.3
7. Grading and promoting pupils.....	3	3	8	14	2.7
8. Attendance.....	4	4	5	13	2.5
9. Building, rooms, and equipment.....	0	10	2	12	2.3
10. Cooperation with parents.....	4	3	3	10	1.9
11. Teachers' personality difficulties.....	1	1	1	3	.6
12. Miscellaneous.....	1	2	3	6	1.2
Total.....	159	192	167	517	100.0

¹The most difficult problems were rated 1. Hence, 58 of the 216 pupil control problems were rated as very difficult.

of the relative importance of various supervisory activities.¹ The question is at once precipitated as to whether these previous studies have considered the total problem of the teacher and whether these recommended supervisory procedures have been developed out of these total needs. Supervision for the principal is not limited to one type of teacher difficulty, but must rather be prepared to meet adequately all the difficulties which she may encounter.

Types and difficulty of teaching problems—It is not possible within the limits of the present article to give a detailed report of the teaching difficulties although these details are necessary to the principal who would give specific and adequate help to teachers. It is our purpose here to indicate only the main fields of these difficulties as the foundation upon which the principal's program of supervision should be based.

¹See "Teachers' Evaluation of Types and Sources of Supervisory Aid," *Third Yearbook*, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. Chapter IX.

Table 1 shows the twelve items used for classification of the problems reported by teachers. The bulk of the problems are found under the first four classifications as follows: pupil control, 42 percent; teaching technic, 19 percent; classroom organization, 11 percent; and interruptions from outside the classroom, 10 percent. The remaining 18 percent of the problems are divided among the other eight items, and may be considered as the minor group so far as frequency is concerned.

Problems of pupil control constitute 42 percent of all teaching problems in the opinion of teachers. Individual cases of pupil behaviour are reported eight times more frequently than group problems. Careful analysis of the original data reveals that the majority of teachers reported these cases in terms of the immediate manifestations or effects of pupil behaviour rather than in terms of underlying causes. Apparently teachers have little appreciation of the real causes of pupil misconduct or of the methods of analyzing and solving these problems in terms of mental hygiene.

Problems of teaching technic total 19 percent of the total problems in Table 1. In point of seriousness these problems are rated slightly "more difficult" than problems of pupil control. Difficulties of procedure in specific subjects are reported more frequently than general methods, but the latter are rated as more difficult. The replies indicate that teachers prefer specific rather than general or theoretical suggestions of method.

Problems of classroom organization form 11 percent of the total. The major difficulties occur in classifying children correctly, in planning and preparing the work for these groups, and in giving adequate attention to the needs of individual pupils. Since these more serious problems are all interdependent it may be assumed, that supervision which contributes to individual instruction in a practical way will be most acceptable to teachers.

Interruptions from sources outside the classroom form an unexpectedly large portion or 10.6 percent of the difficulties reported. Seventy-five percent of these interruptions are from sources within the school system. Most of these interruptions could have been avoided by careful organization and administration by the principal, or the principal in connection with other school agencies. Most of the remaining interruptions are caused by parents visiting the school and taking the teacher's time during class hours to discuss problems of individual children. This condition suggests a tactful and patient program of parent education.

Problems classified in Table 1 under types 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 constitute the minor group of difficulties. These problems are more definite or specific than the first four types. The minor group of problems is vital to the success of the teaching program. The

fact that these problems are less numerous is probably due to their definite nature which has made it possible for administration and supervision to evolve adequate solutions.

Where do teachers obtain help with teaching problems?—Table 2 shows the sources of help which teachers consulted in meeting the problems listed in Table 1. The type and amount of help available to teachers give some conception of the adequacy of the supervisory program. According to (Table 2, Column 3) teachers found help within the school system in 41.1 percent of the cases. Does this percent mean that more than fifty percent of the teaching difficulties received no attention from supervisory sources?

Sixty-nine percent of the supervisory help from within the system came from the principal.¹ He gave help three and one-half times as frequently as other teachers, over nine times as frequently as supervisors, and over three times as often as all remaining sources combined. He gave help in all types of problems, and is the only person who renders this general service.

Teachers formed a significant source of assistance. Seventeen percent of all the help received by teachers was given by other teachers, an amount greater than from any other source except the principal. It is well for the principal to realize the importance of this teacher-help in order to give proper direction to its wise use with young and inexperienced teachers.

Supervisors furnished but seven percent of the help received by teachers in connection with solving specific difficulties. This help (Table 2, Column 7) was given in the fields of teaching method, supplies, and pupil control. These data seem to substantiate the need for supervision by the principal due to the impossibility of covering the field adequately by special supervision.

Several other school agencies contribute occasionally to the solution of teaching difficulties. The visiting teacher is an important source of help in dealing with problems of pupil control. Column 9 of Table 2 is particularly significant as the visiting teacher was giving only part-time service to three of the five schools included in the study.

Type and value of the regular supervisory technics—The data thus far reported were taken entirely from the teachers' records of teaching difficulties and sources of help. The second record form provided for an analysis and evaluation of the procedures which the principals were using at the time the study was made. Obviously, this second portion of the study includes those supervisory activities which arose upon the *initiative* of the supervisory officers as well as those technics required by requests for help.

¹Sixty percent of all types of help also came from the principal.

TABLE 2—TYPES OF TEACHING PROBLEMS AND SOURCES OF HELP GIVEN TO TEACHERS

TYPES OF TEACHING PROBLEMS	Total Number of Problems Reported by Teachers	No Help Given	PERSONS HELPING TEACHERS ¹									Percent of the help from within school system which was given by principal
			Principal	Teachers	Parents	Supervisors	Service Depts.	Visiting Teachers	Nurse	Superintendents	Janitor	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Pupil control:												
a. Individual pupils	193	79	60	15	43	3		8	2			69.2
b. Group difficulties	23	18	3									
2. Teaching technic:												
a. Specific subjects . . .	54	25	8	5		7	4	1		1		38.3
b. General method	42	21	10	2	3	3	3		3			
3. Classroom organization .	57	30	13	4	5			1	5		1	54.0
4. Interruptions from outside of classroom												
a. By school officials, pupils, etc.	41	34	5	2					2			60.0
b. By non-school agencies (i. e. parents)	14	12	1		1							
5. Supplies and materials . . .	18	6	4	6	1	1					1	33.3
6. Textbooks and supplementary materials	17	15	1	1								50.0
7. Grading and promoting pupils	14	0	13		1			1				93.0
8. Attendance	13	8	2	2	1							50.0
9. Building, rooms, and equipment	12	11	1									100.0
10. Cooperation with parents .	10	4	5	1			2					71.0
11. Teachers' personality difficulties	3	1	1							1		50.0
12. Miscellaneous	6	3	2		1							100.0
Total number	517	267										63.2
Percent of total	100	51.6										(average)

¹Sources of help to teachers were of two types: (1) from within the school system, and (2) from parents. Columns 3 to 12 inclusive do not total to the figure given in Column 2 for each type because aid to teacher often came from several sources. Column 13 for pupil control problems should be read: "Of all aid given by school agencies 69.2 percent was provided by the principal."

Table 3 shows how these total supervisory services were distributed among the various supervisory officers of the school system. Once again the principal ranks as the officer most active in the work of supervision within the individual building. Almost 69 percent of

TABLE 3—SOURCES OF ALL SUPERVISORY SERVICES AFFECTING CLASSROOMS DURING THE INVESTIGATION

OFFICERS RENDERING SERVICE	Number of Services	Percent of Total
(1)	(2)	(3)
1. Principal.....	210	68.7
2. Supervisors.....	78	25.5
3. Superintendent.....	6	2.0
4. Visiting teacher.....	5	1.6
5. Test and measurement department.....	3	1.0
6. Assistant superintendent.....	2	.6
7. Service departments.....	2	.6
Total.....	306	100.0

the total supervisory services reported came from the principal. Supervisors contributed 25.5 percent, and the remaining 5.8 percent were scattered among the various offices of superintendent, assistant superintendents, visiting teachers, test and measurement department, and the service departments.¹

Four hundred and eighty-six specific activities were reported under the heading of supervisory services performed by principals. These procedures covered 44 out of the 45 items of the record form. However, 75 percent of the activities were included in the first 17 items in order of frequency, and are given herewith as Table 4. The classroom visit proved to be the most frequently employed activity of the principal, followed closely by the items of short informal conferences, and teachers' meetings. Columns (3) to (7) show how teachers rate the various services.

How a survey of teaching difficulties guides supervision—The teaching problems reported above directed the principal's attention to the major fields of teacher-difficulty within his own building. The principal developed more inclusive conception of supervision in terms

¹Including the library and visual education departments.

of teacher-difficulty. For example, the importance of pupil control was an unexpected outcome of this study. The principal began to plan his own activities and to use all the facilities of the school system, as they operated in his building, to contribute to a better understanding of pupil behavior and pupil control.

Teacher attitude toward pupil behaviour and pupil personality was the first problem attacked. The visiting teacher was invited to lead a discussion in one of the teachers' meetings on classroom applications of the principles of mental hygiene. In order to obtain as much "carry-over" as possible of the mental hygiene approach to individual

TABLE 4—SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES OF PRINCIPALS MOST FREQUENTLY REPORTED BY TEACHERS

SPECIFIC SERVICE	Total Number Reported	NUMBER OF TECHNIQS RATED ON FIVE-POINT SCALE					Number not Rated
		1	2	3	4	5	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1. Classroom visit and observation.....	49	18	9	7	1	1	13
2. Short, informal, or chance conference.....	40	17	8	5			10
3. Teachers' meeting.....	39	11	13	5			10
4. Grading and promotion rules or suggestions.....	26	19	2	2			3
5. Conference with group of teachers.....	25	8	5	5	1		6
6. Individual conference at teacher's request.....	24	16	4	2			2
7. Suggested means of improving teaching.....	23	16	3	1			3
8. How to secure better discipline.....	19	13	3	1			2
9. Classification or adjustment of pupils.....	17	16	1				0
10. Criticism or analysis of teaching weakness.....	16	12	2				2
11. Inspiration to professional growth.....	16	12	1				3
12. Inspirational talk or discussion...	15	12					3
13. Suggestions for specific projects...	13	7	4				2
14. Recognition of strong points observed.....	13	8	1	1			3
15. Suggestion of teaching devices...	12	4	3	2			3
16. Planning together for teachers work.....	11	7	3				1
17. Talks and advice on personal matters.....	10	5	2	1			2

Note: Four hundred eighty-six specific supervisory activities were reported for the principal. The 17 items above contain 75 percent of the total services reported. Columns (3) to (7) inclusive show the number of each supervisory procedure rated under the five-point scale. A rating of 1 means "most valuable."

cases of pupil control a pupil case-conference method was used. Once a week this conference met to consider the more difficult pupil problems of the school and to devise means of dealing with each case. This conference was made up of the visiting teacher, the school nurse, the principal, and the teachers involved. The school secretary kept a record of the problems considered and the procedures which were decided upon. Conferences were supplemented by daily informal conferences between visiting teacher, principal, classroom teacher, and the others involved. These discussions unified the work that various agencies were doing with these children and definitely pointed the efforts of each person toward a definite objective. Incidentally, the meeting helped teachers to develop a more constructive attitude toward pupil behavior.

The specific conferences were accompanied by a study of classroom methods as a means toward better control by teachers, and a high level of interest on the part of pupils. The study of class management was taken up in the regular teachers' meeting. Portions of Morrison's *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* were used as a basis for discussion in these conferences.¹

School organization was also studied from the standpoint of its contribution to pupil control. The school cafeteria proved to be a fruitful place for better organization. A plan of pupil "hosts" and "hostesses" worked wonders toward improving the discipline in the cafeteria and transformed this feature of the school into a real training ground for good habits of table etiquette and practical application of the rules of courtesy. The high sixth grade supplied the hosts and hostesses for one period and the low sixth grade for the other. Each table in the cafeteria had its host, who was responsible for seeing that the table was decorated with some flowers or a table motto or some other device, that paper napkins and water were available, and that the younger children were assisted with their trays. Each host became the guardian of a group of younger children and the leader in courtesy and helpfulness. Teachers and pupil hosts met to devise definite objectives which could be set up as standards of table manners for the school. These standards covered the proper use of silverware, and napkins, the courteous treatment of others, the traffic rules for the cafeteria, the procedure for buying food, and the other details of cafeteria management. At the end of the year a good citizenship certificate was given to each child who had served creditably as a host.

The problem of interruptions from sources outside the classroom was studied and definite steps taken to eliminate as many as possible of these when due to the administration of the school. The school bank was reorganized and the number of messengers going from room

¹Morrison, H. C. *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1926. Chapters VI-IX, p. 79-150.

to room was reduced. Definite and appreciable results were obtained in diminishing the number of class interruptions. In fact, in many cases careful thought brought a decided improvement in the efficiency of various administrative procedures.

In giving assistance to teachers in their more difficult problems of teaching procedure, the principal found it necessary to give greater emphasis to the individual conferences. In addition to the already existing practice of granting conferences whenever possible, and holding short informal teacher conferences during recess periods, noon periods, before and after school, the principal set Wednesday afternoon as a regular teacher conference day. This day was chosen because there were no meetings of teachers or principals called by the administrative staff of the central office. A definite schedule of Wednesday afternoons, divided into half-hour periods, was posted on the bulletin board. Any teacher desiring a conference could place a check mark opposite as many half-hour periods as she felt necessary on this schedule. She dropped a slip of paper with her name and the date and hour into the principal's box, and this hour was reserved for her. The popularity of this practice was evident from the very first, and it never waned. Practically every available period for conference during the entire semester was used, and every Wednesday found teachers waiting until 4:00 o'clock and often until 4:30 to obtain a conference which would be unhurried and uninterrupted. The above practice practically doubled the number of conferences which the principal held, and incidentally forced him to study along the lines of the problems in order to be able to give the teachers constructive and definite help.

General conclusions—The above paragraphs illustrate how a few typical results of this study guided the principal in connection with supervision. To make an inclusive list of specific supervisory activities would be practically to review the work of an entire semester. It would be unfortunate, however, to fail to consider some of the more intangible outcomes of this study.

For the principal and most of the teachers involved the investigation was their first opportunity for definite and accurate study of daily problems. An important outcome was the exposition of the belief that supervision is an unwelcomed something which is imposed upon teachers. Our cooperative study of teaching problems brought out the fact that supervision is an assisting, helpful service rather than a prescribing, dictating service. Writing down the problems of teaching on paper, and then considering ways of solving the difficulties made supervision a *mutual* problem at once. Teachers quickly realize that the principal is interested in the things which teachers also think are important.

Another intangible outcome may be described as the "student attitude" toward teaching problems. It is encouraging to know that

the difficulties which are bothering one person are bothering another. Mutual problems offer opportunities for cooperative study. The fact that the problems of the individual have been considered in an orderly and more or less scientific way encourages less subjective attitudes on the part of the teacher toward her work. The habit of considering problems impersonally is one of the first steps in bringing about changes in teaching methods.

Finally, the outcomes for the principal are many and important. The completion of a piece of research and the application of results to specific situations brings supervisory self-confidence. This outcome is a natural result of specific information regarding teaching difficulties and situations within the building. There is also that more or less intangible return to the principal of the respect of his teachers and their confidence in him as a real educational leader. The teacher appreciates his sincere efforts to study and to improve the quality of child-opportunities of the school.

WHEN subject specialists, grade specialists, or other special supervisors are supplied by a school system, responsibility for utilizing these agencies without conflicts, without duplication of effort, and without waste of time and energy, rests on the principal. It is he who exercises first of all the authority which is needed to remedy any situation discovered or reported by a special visitor. A centralization that unifies the application of remedies equates program differences, fortifies the teachers, and provides for orderly progress to a definite end.—Henry J. Gerling, Chapter II.

A COOPERATIVE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM

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THE SPECTACLE of a program of supervision, which claims it facilitates the realization of the democratic ideal, yet uses technics unaffected by that ideal presents a strange anomaly. Existing technics are for the most part prescriptive. They seem, to the supervised, to imply a belief in the concentration of all the 'super' vision in the supervisor. Under such a regime suggestions take on the force of directions; teacher-cooperation is merely a euphemism for teacher subordination. We have been on the defensive because even the results which supervision admittedly gets have not been deemed sufficient justification for the disharmony it causes.

The writer had the idea that enlisting the cooperative effort of the entire faculty in drawing up the supervisory program would do much to free supervision from the suspicions and disadvantages under which it had labored hitherto. The following is an attempt to describe, as succinctly as possible, the steps in actualizing this idea.

Interesting the teachers in the program—The subject was broached for the first time at the initial faculty meeting in September. The principal advanced the opinion that we might, through cooperative effort, build up a supervisory program that would be more effective because of its broader base. During the discussion ensuing we gradually came to feel that it was essential to know what we meant by supervision—its necessity, aims, and devices. We agreed, accordingly, to organize our thinking for further discussion about these topics:

- a. Supervision—Is it necessary? Why?
- b. Supervision—What we expect of it.
- c. Supervision—How it operates.

Just before the next faculty meeting teachers were asked to put their thoughts on the above topics into written form. A summary for discussion was placed in each teacher's hands at the opening of the meeting.

The final outcome of this meeting was agreement upon the following steps in constructing a supervision program:

- a. Determine the problems and list them.
- b. Select those whose solution is to be attempted and state them as objectives.
- c. Outline for each objective the procedures to be used.
- d. Designate criteria and tests to check success or failure to achieve the objectives.

Constructing the program—Each teacher was asked to list ten problems whose solution would be helpful to her. These problems are summarized in Column 2 of Table 1. Column 2 shows a pre-

ponderance of emphasis on mechanical and control factors. Through discussion it was brought out that there would be a natural tendency to overemphasize such factors in September, when children were re-learning habits forgotten during the summer. Teachers were therefore asked to assume they had been granted the power to eliminate not more than ten problems which had confronted them and would probably confront them again this year. Lists were then resubmitted. These new problems are summarized in Column 4 of Table 1.

TABLE 1—PROBLEMS REQUIRING SOLUTION WHICH WERE REPORTED BY TEACHERS

GENERAL TYPE OF PROBLEM	FIRST REPORT		SECOND REPORT	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Administrative (i. e. supplies, program, etc.)	32	36	15	16
2. Discipline (i. e. lines, etc.)	17	19	0	0
3. Home contacts (i. e. health, homework, etc.)	13	14	16	17
4. Promotion standards	12	13	0	0
5. General teaching technic (i. e. group instruction, etc.)	0	0	27	30
6. Specific teaching technic (i. e. reading, etc.)	9	10	19	21
7. Miscellaneous or not classified	0	0	15	16
	90	100	92	100

A comparison between columns 3 and 5 of Table 1 shows that the teachers dropped out "discipline" as such in their second reports. It should be noted too that the discussion at the teachers' meetings had focussed attention upon problems in teaching technic.

After a discussion of the results shown in Table 1, the group selected four major fields for detailed study: (1) community relationships, (2) classroom technic, (3) class spirit, and (4) carry-over from drill to use. Teachers took a compilation of the actual problems which they had submitted and restated the difficulties as objectives. The "objectives" in question form are as follows:

SUMMARY OF OBJECTIVES AS LISTED BY TEACHERS

1. How can we develop a community cooperation which will insure:
 - a. Cleanliness of pupils
 - b. Well-fed pupils
 - c. Proper language background
 - d. Parents' understanding of aims of school
 - e. Little absence or lateness
 - f. Neat and carefully prepared homework daily
 - g. Appreciation of the higher cultural phases of school work?

2. How can the work of the classroom be conducted to provide:
 - a. Adequate variety of drill
 - b. More group and less mass teaching
 - c. Completion of the required courses-of-study
 - d. A desire for learning that will promote interest
 - e. Presentation according to the type of child?
3. How can we develop a class and school spirit that will result in:
 - a. Consideration for others
 - b. Respect for authority
 - c. Conscientiousness toward work
 - d. Appreciative cooperation with school rules
 - e. Pride in the school—its appearance, activities, and aims
 - f. The transfer of control from the force of outside authority to the force of self-discipline?
4. What steps are necessary to insure a carry-over from drill to use in:
 - a. Oral and written expression
 - b. Written work other than handwriting
 - c. Home study
 - d. Conversational use of correct English
 - e. Health habits
 - f. Citizenship—school and community?

Applying the program. The remaining steps seemed to us to be:

- a. To appraise the present status of the school with respect to these objectives.
- b. To formulate plans for raising the levels of attainment.
- c. To devise tests, checklists, and other means for measuring changes in the levels of attainment.
- d. To reformulate objectives where necessary in the light of developments.

It would be impossible and undesirable in a paper of such limited scope as this one to give full details for each of the steps above. Such details are pertinent only in the particular situation to which they apply. However, we shall present specimens from some of the bulletins used in encouraging the teachers, bringing about uniformity of practices, and advising the parents. Several bulletins follow:

BULLETIN NO. 1

FORTEN SCHOOL OBJECTIVES

A study of the objectives listed as the result of our work so far points to the existence of two major classes of problems. There is on the one hand the problem of teaching technic—as set forth in #2 and #4 (see summary of objectives); on the other hand the problem of developing a school spirit which shall carry over into the homes as well as the classrooms.

My own conviction is that the latter is basic to the former. All teaching in any situation is conditioned by (1) the teacher's technic, (2) the aims or goals, (3) the pupilage, (4) the environment.

The improvement of technic is a matter for study and practice within the school situation. It is concerned with becoming acquainted with better methods through reading and observation, with practice and conference on improvable factors and with testing to check levels

of attainment. These things we have done and will continue to do for the specific problems outlined under #2 and #4 in the list of objectives.

The aims or goals are matters pertaining to the philosophy of education. Although each one may have to work out the details of this philosophy for oneself; there is substantial agreement upon this basis. . . . "The continuous reconstruction or reorganization of experience which adds to the meaning of experience increases the ability to direct the course of subsequent experience." (Dewey—*Democracy and Education*—p. 89-90). The very nature and content of the problems submitted implies this philosophic background.

In the past we have been altogether too ready to accept the child and the environment as fixed—at least for our purpose. Not that we are at all satisfied with this state. The reverse is rather the case. But very few schools have made any real attempt to grapple with the problem.

In a neighborhood such as our own the problem of environment and pupilage is magnified. I am sure we are beginning to see that all our attempts at raising the 'life-level' of our pupils are merely so much surface veneer.

What we must do, if we desire permanence, is to find some way of influencing the real world. To do this we must get the cooperation of every one of the 24 hours of each child's day.

So far we have been content to toil dutifully during our own five hours, and to look with wistful eyes at the opportunity lying open in the other 19×15 plus 24×2 . And many of us have been disheartened by the purely arithmetical fact that 19×5 plus 24×2 hours can and do produce more changes than 5×5 . Our task will not be fully accomplished until we can have found some means of enlisting the majority of the elements controlling the 19×5 plus 24×2 hours on our side.

This can be done. It has been done elsewhere. Can we not do it here?

Step I—Parents' Day—An opportunity—not a bother.

Will parents want to return?

The answer to a successful visit is YES.

BULLETIN NO. 2

HOMEWORK—A MESSAGE TO PARENTS

The greater part of the child's lessons ought to be learned in school. The old idea that lessons are learned at home and recited in school has been found unsatisfactory. However, there is still a place for home-study. It can help:

1. By reviewing the school work so that it may be remembered more easily.
2. By securing additional information from sources not available in school (other books, visits, pictures, conversation, etc.)

Parents frequently complain that no homework is given, only to discover that children have failed to report the facts properly. In order to eliminate this possibility, all our teachers have agreed that some homework will be given each day except Friday in all grades except the First. (Homework in Second Grade is optional and will be discontinued at parent's request.)

Home study is of little value unless it is done under proper conditions and in accordance with methods explained to the children by the teacher. We are asking parents to cooperate by seeing that children:

1. Study under proper light and without the distraction of having other people in the room.
2. Do the assigned work themselves. When help is necessary try if possible to get the child to see the correct answer by asking questions—never do the actual work for the child. The teacher will be ready to reexplain if the child really doesn't know what to do.
3. Complete the work assigned and have it in presentable form.

By direction of the Board of Education homework should not exceed

15 minutes daily in Grade 2
20 minutes daily in Grade 3
45 minutes daily in Grade 4, 5, or 6.

Should your child frequently find it necessary to spend more time than shown above, we will appreciate your calling so that we may make necessary adjustments.

BULLETIN NO. 3

CLASSROOM VISITS

A perennial reaction, so often overheard—"Why he didn't stay five minutes. What on earth could he expect to see in that time?"

Granted he couldn't evaluate motivation, pupil achievement, knowledge of subjectmatter, variety of devices, etc., etc. These take time. One must observe many full lessons before judging accurately of a teacher's proficiency in such matters.

But there are things one may see in a few minutes. Things fundamental to all good teaching. Yes, they are smaller than the factors just noted. But if a teacher cannot cope with these smaller things, can she fairly claim mastery over the greater?

Here is a checklist of items observable during a few minutes of inspection. It attempts the answer to that other hardy perennial.

"WHAT IS HE LOOKING FOR?"

- A. Physical conditions
 1. Are pupils getting best light available?
 2. Are postures healthful?
 3. Are existing devices to provide fresh air being used?
 4. Is room neat and tidy? Floors, desks, etc., not littered?

5. Is there evidence of attempt to beautify the room through
 - a. Pictures?
 - b. Pupils' work?
 - c. Artistic arrangement?
- B. Handling movement.
 1. Is there evidence of a ROUTINE (necessitating no repetition of detailed directions each time it is done) for such activities as
 - a. Passing to and from blackboard.
 - b. Leaving and entering the room
 - (1) As a class
 - (2) Individually.
 - c. Distribution and collection of materials.
 - d. Arrangement of papers, desks, etc.
 2. Are materials used frequently, placed where readily accessible?
 3. Does teacher have materials to be used ready?
- C. Economy of time.
 1. Does teacher lose time in attempting to find articles in her desk—closets, etc.?
 2. Does class waste time while teacher writes lists of words, problems, etc., on the blackboard, or is this done before the class period?
 3. Does teacher keep the attention of the class through devices inherent in the lesson, or is she forced to recall it by extraneous and artificial aids?
- D. Inculcating standards.
 1. Does teacher through personal example set standards of
 - a. Appearance?
 - b. English?
 - c. Manner?
 2. Is there evidence of attempt to set standards of achievement through
 - a. Standard tests and scales exhibited for comparisons?
 - b. Pupils' good work exhibited?
 - c. Records of achievement graphed?
 - d. Slogans, sayings, reminders, suggestions, etc.

In addition to the various bulletins illustrated above the writer and his teachers engaged in other activities. A number of excellent books on teaching methods were added to the library. Small groups met to discuss teaching problems. Personal interviews were used to enlist the cooperation of parents. On every possible occasion the talents and interests of each teacher were capitalized.

Evaluations and conclusions—The writer regrets that his transfer to another school at the end of the September-January term made it impossible to measure the effect of this program over a full year period. Enough was seen, however, to make possible certain very definite statements, as follows:

1. The levels of performance for all teachers were raised considerably over that of previous terms. This improvement was true not only in those factors especially stressed, but in all other departments of the teachers' work.

2. The cooperation of teachers in shaping the program released reservoirs of capacity whose existence was unsuspected not only by the principal, but also by the teachers themselves.

3. Preoccupation with the problems agreed upon seemed to eliminate disciplinary problems which might otherwise have come up. This is of course merely another way of saying "The better the teaching, the better the discipline."

4. The teacher-principal relationship began to get itself disentangled from the almost inevitable suspicions, hesitancies, fears, and misunderstandings incident to the usual program of principal-formulated and teacher-administered directions.

5. The benefits of this cooperative method of attacking our problems on the teacher-principal plane served to give impetus to similar attempts on the teacher-pupil plane. Teachers began to see the value of making the teacher's problems the class' problems.

6. Finally there was that intangible but unmistakable glow, compounded of solidarity, loyalty and self-denial which is the inevitable concomitant of dedication to a cause.

THERE has been a decided tendency to criticize the teachers. They have been called conservative, unprogressive and lacking in professional spirit because they have not made the changes that reformers have suggested. At the same time teachers have regarded supervisors as impractical, vague theorists because they have advised or demanded changes that the teachers cannot make. This whole conflict may be avoided if both the supervisor and the teachers take into consideration all of the factors involved.—Milo B. Hillegas, Chapter II.

THE INDIVIDUALITY OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

VIRGINIA E. STONE

Principal, Community School, Saint Louis, Missouri

THE DEVELOPMENT of the individuality of childhood is a primary aim of the modern school. Children are given all the freedom which they can wisely assume in an attempt to assure that inner freedom which releases creative energy. The school as a vital part of the environment aims to produce fine, well-rounded, wholesome boys and girls, living continuously healthier, richer, fuller lives.

Principals who guard school procedure zealously so that the all round development of children is assured often make no such provision for the development of the individuality of teachers. If the growth of childhood is to be assured, is it not necessary to free teachers so that they too may grow into well rounded, wholesome men and women, living continuously healthier, richer lives?

The lack of real culture in teacher training—Most of our elementary school teachers are graduates of normal schools or teachers colleges, two years, perhaps four years, beyond a formal high school. In the past, these training institutions have formalized the teacher by a maximum of method, a minimum of cultural background, and a smattering of work with children in a natural and wholesome relationship. On a recent visit to foreign schools, a Swedish principal of an elementary school said, "American teachers are too standardized. They have too much the same training and the same experiences. In contrast, European teachers have a more varied training and much wider experience for the same type of position."

The above criticism has been true, but many forward looking teachers' colleges, at the present time, are trying to lead the prospective teacher to learn to do through doing, to live naturally with children, to exercise her creative spirit in a free and happy environment where she is expected to think for herself, and to gain a fuller life through widening her intellectual and social interests. In the Milwaukee State Teachers College experiments are being made by which students will be stimulated and guided, as are the children in our best elementary schools, to take responsibility and initiative in studying and doing what seems to them and to their advisers worthwhile. Surely this is a step in the right direction.

The standardizing tendency of school practice—The teacher's experience in teaching has often fitted her poorly for a free environment where she is expected to do creative work. Principals have bent teachers to their own way of doing and thinking. Supervisors have tended to standardize instruction, although in doing so the level of teaching technic has undoubtedly been raised, and an understanding of the use of science in measuring education has led to a more intelligent and a more impersonal judgment of teaching results.

Principals and supervisors are gradually changing from an ideal of standardization through authority to one of *creative supervision* through leadership.¹ Intelligent leadership plans an opportunity for growth for each teacher in a school system, with the knowledge that this is one of the surest means of building a finer school.

Cooperative selection of teaching principles—The principal must meet the teaching group as a whole on the highest level of thinking and acting of which it is capable. The principal, if he has power to engage his teachers, selects those whose training and experience is leading them into the same philosophy of education which guides his own thinking in the growth of the school. If this is not possible, the group must be welded into a common understanding of the principles underlying school procedure.

The teachers' meetings as a means of growth—The teachers' meeting is perhaps the most expedient means of growth of teachers if organized toward this end. The first meetings of the year may be devoted to a study of the aims of the school and the method of working out these aims with special emphasis on the problems and needs of the school for the coming year.

In early September a committee of teachers in the Community School considers the kind of meetings we shall have for the year. The aim of our weekly meetings has been accepted as that of keeping us alive to educational problems so as to lead to educational growth both as a school and as individuals. The question in the minds of the committee are:—(1) What was good in the meetings last year? (2) What should be changed? (3) What school needs should be studied this year?

We have decided that no meetings devoted to school detail are to be held after school. It is surprising how easily the necessary knowledge about school detail may be sent to teachers in a notice or told by chairman of different parts of the school so that no one is ignorant on a question about which they should be informed. This manner of dealing with detail has had more to do with changing the mind set toward teachers' meetings than can be imagined. Before this change teachers' meetings were considered necessary evils which were politely accepted with a bored attitude.

Our meetings start at three o'clock with tea and sandwiches or cake. Then we have a constructive meeting, based upon our particular school needs, carefully planned by the chairman of the committee working with the principal. The meeting ends promptly at four o'clock.

Once a month a group of teachers report to the meeting on articles or books which they think interesting or instructive. These

¹See "Creative Supervision" in the *Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930. Chapter XII.

articles are not always on educational matters. In studying the problems on which the group as a whole need help, many subjects are considered. Last year five meetings were given over to a study of sex education, in charge of the school psychologist and the head of the physical education department. Our school doctor and a teacher of social hygiene talked to us, and an educational picture of the beginnings of life was shown before we started our group discussions.

This year the writer has been asked to tell the teachers about the schools visited in Europe during twelve weeks of foreign travel. Following this, the teachers have asked that we take up the question of improving the quality of children's speech. Two outside speakers will talk about how this may be done, one of them from Vassar and the other a graduate of the Polytechnic School of Speech Training in London. A specialist will then come to train the teachers in correct speech. This program is preliminary to a discussion of a plan to be used in the school. A committee of teachers and mothers is acting outside of these meetings in planning for speeches, making a bibliography and collecting materials on which to base our study.

There is freedom of choice as to the type of meetings. Teachers who resent being *made* to study will of themselves *choose* to study if they accept an aim of growth for the meetings and if the meetings are planned by a committee of their own choice. Naturally, freedom of discussion follows. In our school no one lacks courage to express an opinion. We welcome disagreement. It makes us think things through.

Democracy in using teaching principles—With agreement in educational essentials, it is the right of the teacher to have freedom in the way principles are worked out. In foreign schools the teacher is more of a free agent than in America. True, American teachers are younger as a group and have less extensive training. This shortcoming places upon us the responsibility for more expert help, but help which frees the teachers' energies rather than bends her to the method of the supervisor. Especially the young and inexperienced teacher may be helped by constructive criticism which is based on the principle involved rather than upon personality.

For many years Dr. Frank McMurtry sent supervisors and principals from Teachers College, Columbia University, with an invaluable admonition, "No destructive criticism unless you, as a supervisor, have a constructive remedy." This statement does not mean that you shall hand to the teachers the remedy planned for them. Rather it is wise to analyze with her the situation, point the goal, and leave the teacher free to take as many of the steps toward the end in view as she is capable of taking. Then after having set the stage for growth, the teacher must feel free to come to the principal for help if needed. This procedure leads to individual effort with not too much discouragement. The classroom teacher must also be en-

couraged to make constructive criticism and her suggestions should have consideration. The principal who encourages professional argument and who is not afraid to seek criticism of himself shows the strength of the true leader.

Strong teachers may be concretely used to help those who need help. "Miss A. is doing this nicely. Would you like to see how she is handling it?" or "Won't you and Miss B. talk this over?" or "Let us all plan this together," are natural suggestions in a school where there is democracy and real kindness within the teaching group. However, this type of help must be but a stepping toward the development of teachers who need help and in no way a hindrance to the development of the potential powers of new or inexperienced teachers.

Discovering the individual teacher—It is the real educator who sees the measure of growth of each teacher and plans for her to come up to the mark of her greatest possibility at that stage of her development. The individual tendencies of children are regarded in the modern school. We do not treat all children in the same way. The sensitive, timid child, the nervous child, the forward child, the intellectual child,—all are studied that we may lead to their greatest development through regard for their individuality. With teachers the same is true. Each teacher may be developed in accordance with her potentialities. The timid teacher, the introspective teacher, the very young teacher, the teacher who lacks balance, the teacher who is old in spirit—there are as many types as there are teachers, and each personality requires a different treatment to insure the greatest self-realization.

Each teacher should be expected to do her part in the cooperative job of building a school. A teacher who is capable of doing a finer job than she is doing respects the leader who is not satisfied with half a loaf when it is possible to have a whole. It is just as important to watch the teacher who is going beyond her strength and working too hard. A chain is as strong as its weakest link. A school moves solidly ahead only with cooperative effort where each teacher is working efficiently and happily.

All credit must be given to the teacher who is doing an original or an unusual piece of work. Again and again teachers have tired of making an unusual effort because it seemed unappreciated. Of course, one *should* work for the glory of working and the fact that you yourself feel conscious of a good job well done. Still it is well to remember that teachers need encouragement and recognition.

The teacher has a right to freedom of action in carrying out a principle if her plan fits into the plan of consecutive growth within the school. For example, a departure from an accepted method of teaching spelling may upset the whole plan unless discussed and accepted by the group. At one time, we allowed the trial of a method

of teaching spelling in a grade for a period of two years, although it was not the method accepted by the principal and most of the teachers. However, there was an understanding with the teacher by which we tested the results and watched her method of teaching. She agreed to return willingly to the regular procedure if her plan did not prove satisfactory. The writer has always questioned whether we had the right to risk a break in a method of teaching. Yet the whole staff gained much in increased study of spelling methods and in a feeling that freedom in teaching was genuine.

In our teaching plans we have agreed that each teacher may use any form as long as the report shows the use of child activity in relation to subjectmatter, an outline of outstanding activities, the subjectmatter covered in the year, and a bibliography. At the end of the year we go over the teaching records to evaluate progress, to study the sweep of subjectmatter in relation to activity, and to determine the variations to be made in the future.

Teachers must be given all the freedom which they can wisely assume. Freedom of choice in little things often assures the acceptance of responsibility of more important matters. Saying to a teacher, "Use your own judgment," gives a feeling of responsibility for her part in building the school.

Developing personal qualities—Individual teachers may be helped to success along the line of their greatest gifts and in so doing achieve the finest type of freedom—that which is released in a person's chosen work and which leads to that inner freedom which makes real men and women. Life may be made richer for the person who releases creative energy in work the teacher who has a gift for writing, the musician, the person who has a flare for the dramatic, the lover of the beautiful, the poet, the artist in working with children.

As a teacher develops, a principal must be willing to lose her if she is ready for a finer or different type of position. He must help the teacher to fit into the position which is best for her development.

In the development of the whole teacher her life outside of school cannot prove detrimental to growth. She is entitled to a life of her own, intellectually stimulating, socially attractive and physically comfortable. This type of living is difficult to secure for a teacher. However, an intellectually stimulating life is more possible than it was ten years ago. The radio, libraries, study groups, plays, music, art—the world today is a spur to intellectual effort to the person who desires to think and to grow.

Socially the situation varies greatly. Fortunately, if no interesting social contacts are made in the community, intellectual contacts may have interesting social leads. It is too bad if teachers have social contacts *only* with other teachers. It is an in-growing process

which makes a vicious circle. The fact that women teachers are so isolated from knowing interesting men socially is deplorable both for the men and the women. The woman teacher of today is an attractive, interesting young person who should be having a good time outside of school. Her recreational interests are as important as her intellectual pursuits. As a class, teachers do not get out of doors enough. Golf, tennis, hockey, or a Ford car might make a different outlook on life.

The living arrangements of a teacher have a great deal to do with developing individuality. It is hard to be interesting or interested if you spend your leisure hours in a stuffy bedroom in a drab boarding house. The efficiency apartment, where girls live reasonably and comfortably sometimes, solves the question of home life. However, there is danger if teachers in the same school or of the same subject live together, because the same vicious circle may repeat itself.

Expectation of continuous growth leads the way to desire for study, research and travel. We have been able in the Community School to set the salary schedule so that teachers accept an initial salary based on their training and experience and their fitness for the position. An increase of \$100.00 yearly is made on a basis of growth through study, research, unusual teaching or educational travel over a period of every two years. It is seldom that it is necessary to say to a teacher, "I regret that you have not qualified for an increase in salary this year."

Conclusion—Just as the modern school sees the development of the whole child, in the working together of all the forces which make for growth, so the principal must see the development of the whole teacher. Her entire life makes her what she is. An unhappy situation in any phase of her living may react on her teaching. The principal is her friend, her leader. She must feel free to come to him with her problem, knowing she will receive help in analyzing it and, if not aid in solving it, courage to face it.

Teachers desire in a principal the same qualities which children desire in a teacher—fairness, honesty, kindness, personal integrity, professional ideals, the spirit of growth, poise, and, last but not least, a sense of humor with which to see not only school situations but himself. Teachers should know that no one but a paragon could have all these qualities.

Through cooperation in a common aim, freedom within the limits of the accepted principles, kindness of personal relationship, provision for growth through the use of special talents, a happy and intellectual life outside of school and a vision of the possibilities of growth—principals are leading teachers to the ideal we are seeking for children, the school a vital part of the environment of growth, producing fine, well-rounded, wholesome teachers, living continuously richer lives.

DEMOCRATIC AND COOPERATIVE SUPERVISION¹

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THE PURPOSE of this article is to point out that the act of teaching can probably be improved more effectively by increasing the activity and responsibility of classroom teachers in planning and in carrying on supervisory projects with the guidance of their principals and other supervisors than by any other procedure in school supervision.

Effective supervision cannot be suggested, planned, and carried on without the active participation of the one being supervised—the teacher. Programs of supervision which do not consider the ability, interest and activity of the one to be improved are about as effective in modern education as courses of study and methods of teaching which have not been selected to fit the needs of the children being taught. No longer does the well-trained and skillful teacher attempt to present subjectmatter to pupils unless the problems of the material and the activities studied arise from the experiences and the interests of the pupils or are so introduced by the teacher that the pupils will accept them as their own. The same principle for attacking the many unsolved problems of teaching must guide our supervisory procedures.

An attempt is made here to present several reports of teacher participation in supervision for the purpose of illustrating the practicability of the suggestions offered in this discussion. It is to be hoped that many other reports of a similar nature will be collected and printed in our future supervisory literature so that supervision may be made more effective. No particular plan of research was used to collect the following accounts of teacher activity in supervision. About ten elementary school principals were interviewed concerning the improvement of school supervision by increasing the opportunity for teacher initiative and responsibility. Each principal was asked to contribute to the discussion by writing an account of one or more such supervisory projects in his school. The writers wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to the principals who took time to furnish such valuable material for the remainder of this article.

¹The unique device of Mr. Cramer and Mr. Longshore in interviewing ten or twelve principals as to their work is one worthy of emulation in other cities.

I. A SUPERVISORY ACTIVITY IN TEACHING THE FISHING INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES¹

This supervisory activity arose when two teachers, one a social science teacher and one a homeroom teacher approached the principal with the problem:—where can we get material on the subject of the fishing industry in the United States which is written on the interest and achievement level of fifth grade children?

After discussing possible sources, the principal offered the suggestion, that the material be written by the teachers and himself. The principal agreed to write at least one-third and to advise concerning each unit. On the following day, pursuant to the agreement, all three had outlined some fifteen topics that should be covered in the discussion. After carefully comparing the three outlines, an agreement was reached concerning the general content and facts to be incorporated.

Next, they agreed upon the style and form to be carried throughout the story. At the conclusion of this conference each one had accepted a certain phase of the story as a first effort.

Much reading was done. Letters were written to fish companies. In fact, statistics and information were gathered from many sources. From day to day the principal consulted, encouraged, and sometimes offered criticisms. The principal also encouraged and received criticism on his own writing from the two coworkers. At last the material was carefully checked for accuracy of information and for grammatical errors.

The material was then coordinated, unit by unit, and check tests placed at the close of each unit. The words were checked against the Thorndike list and all not suitable to the grade were supplanted by simpler ones or carefully explained in an appended glossary. All of the material was then mimeographed by the clerk in the principal's office and clipped together.

The children enjoyed reading the material because it was different from the text; it was on their ability level and was in interesting, informal and conversational style. The teachers worked with renewed zeal and all test evidence indicated that the children had a superior knowledge of the great industry of fishing.

II. TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN IMPROVING THE TEACHING OF ORAL LANGUAGE IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL²

The suggestion was made by one of the teachers in McCoy School that the oral language of the pupils did not measure up to standards of good usage and that some effort should be made to improve the situation.

¹Engleman, F. E., Principal, Whittier Elementary School, Kansas City, Missouri.

²Martin, A. E., Principal, McCoy Elementary School, Kansas City, Missouri.

After some consideration it was decided by the teachers that they would keep a record of all the errors made by the pupils in oral expression for one week. Teachers attempted to keep pencil and paper at hand when convenient so they could record errors. In the upper grades pupils assisted by keeping records on one another.

The teachers' reports were compiled into a table which showed the errors in order of frequency. It was then decided by the teachers what correct forms of spoken English should be emphasized to overcome the common defects. Four weeks was the allotted time to emphasize certain correct forms and then another group would receive special attention for the same length of time.

Parents were asked to help with the experiment by practicing with their children correct oral speech. Each family was supplied with correct language forms. Many parents became greatly interested and it appeared that a large number of pupils improved the quality of their spoken English.

III. SUPERVISION OF A READING ACTIVITY ORIGINATING WITH THE PUPILS¹

Three sixth grade reading classes in the Greenwood School, after reading the *The Pine Tree Shilling*, desired to make a study of United States money. In the study of money many problems arose because of the subject itself and the possibilities of its growth branching into other departments than reading. At the outset, the teacher conferred with the principal as to the advisability of letting the problem proceed according to questions raised by the pupils. It was decided to see what the pupils would develop and learn on the subject of money. As the activity proceeded it was found necessary to branch into the English, library, art and auditorium departments. The principal arranged with the teachers of the various departments to provide a time when the children could extend their activities into letter writing, dramatization, reference work, illustrations, reports, history of money, and book binding. The pupils' work became quite extensive, for letters concerning United States money were written to the Secretary of the Treasury, Treasurer of the United States, and a New York banker, who had spent considerable time in collecting and studying money.² Many other activities were carried on in the study, such as, an assembly in which the three sixth grade classes in reading participated. The program which pertained only to money, consisted of stories, poems, explanations, poses and dramatizations. Also, coin collections were exhibited. The children

¹Longshore, W. T., Principal, Greenwood School, Kansas City, Missouri.

²The New York banker (Mr. Farran Zerbe) wrote an article in the August, 1930, issue of the *American Magazine*, in which he offered to answer questions. The pupils found his letters helpful.

received cooperation from the homerooms, library, and art departments.

The coin exhibits presented several problems because of their value and the difficulty of obtaining a way to display them. After considering many ways, it was thought to be most practical to let each child present his own display in a frame sufficiently large for his collection. The displays were numerous, very attractive, and showed much individual initiative and taste on the part of the pupils. The large amount of valuable material collected and also written by the pupils concerning the history, minting and printing of United States money was finally organized into a book. The clerk of the school typed this material and the pupils in their art work designed the cover and bound the material into a gift for the school. This book on United States money was formally presented to the school at an assembly and it is to be kept in the school library for reference material.

Supervision of an activity, it will be agreed, must be done. However, it can be done in such a way that the children will feel free to present and carry out their own ideas and ask for assistance from teachers whose real aim is guidance.

IV. VISUAL EDUCATION AS AN ACTIVITY IN BRISTOL SCHOOL, INITIATED AND DEVELOPED BY KEY TEACHERS¹

Visual education reaches almost every phase of school work. We are attempting to learn more of its real value as an aid in the classroom.

Children are interested in pictures so the modern teacher utilizes this fact in her daily work. She recognizes the value of charts, maps, graphs and pictures. The bulletin board has a purpose and reflects the guidance of a wide-awake teacher. The primary child sees the picture and then the word or phrase.

Individual collections of pictures are assembled by the children and teachers, mounted and filed in classrooms for use at the proper time. These are supplemented from the visual education department. Attractive posters here and there carry important messages.

Through the use of visual aid materials, the teacher's aim is to arouse the interest of the child and stimulate him to self-activity which results in better learning. The introduction of the motion picture into the schoolroom has led to a closer study of the value of the picture in education. As an aid to the teaching act, visual education correlates with geography, history, language, reading, civics, safety, nature study, and art.

Bristol School was among the pioneers in Kansas City in the use of pictures on the screen. A patron loaned us a patched-up lantern slide machine, and the visual education department furnished slides as needed. With this equipment, this new method was introduced

¹Hooker, Minnie L., Principal, Bristol School, Kansas City, Missouri.

into fourth and fifth grades where the teachers saw the possibilities and wanted to know more of its real value.

At this time the visual education department gave bi-monthly motion-picture lessons in the auditorium. These were not satisfactory because of a lack of preparation on the part of both teachers and pupils, and lack of opportunity for questions or discussion. The attitude was not conducive to best learning, for the talks on the pictures in the room were of little value.

Through the efforts of these key teachers and the ready support of the visual education department the projected picture has gained a place of recognized value in our classrooms. It is used now in all grades from the kindergarten through the seventh grade.

The old lantern slide machine has been supplanted by a new one. All efforts now are centered upon classroom work, using lantern slides and the new type of film machine for the following reasons:

1. The picture is introduced at the right time after preparation has been made.
2. The teacher and pupils understand each other so the attitude is better for learning.
3. There is opportunity for questions.

As in all school work, the success depends upon the classroom teacher. In the right environment and under the direction of a skillful teacher, we note these outcomes:

1. Children are interested and attention is fixed.
2. Worthwhile questions arise.
3. Interesting discussions are had which aid oral language.
4. Children are stimulated to search for information and read with a purpose.
5. Facts are used in a natural setting and word pictures are made real.

V. REMEDIAL READING PROGRAM ORIGINATING FROM THE TEACHER AND EXECUTED BY TEACHER, PRINCIPAL AND PRIMARY SUPERVISOR¹

A second grade teacher found from the test results of the *Gates Primary Reading Test* and from a survey of the reading difficulties² of each pupil that about thirty of her forty-five pupils were not able to do second grade reading. The teacher and principal decided that the pupils should not be demoted because most of them were decidedly over-age and their reading interests would be lowered by demotion. Then the teacher with the assistance of the principal and the primary supervisor from the superintendent's office, who was called to help, used the following teaching procedure from September 1929 to February 1930 for the purpose of improving the reading of each child:

¹See: "Remedial Reading Program," by Roscoe Cramer, Switzer School, Kansas City, Missouri, published in *Kansas City School Service Bulletin*, September, 1930.

²See a reading difficulties sheet, prepared by P. G. Buckles, Principal, Woodland School, Kansas City, Missouri.

(1) Regular classroom work was first spent in reading primers and several easy first readers. (2) Difficult words appearing in each story were listed and studied as the pupils read silently and orally in class. (3) The words were studied by the most feasible method of attack, such as, phonics, sight word chart, reference to reading context, matching of words in original reading units, and snappy drills on the individual word difficulties before and after recitation and also in small groups. (4) Words offering frequent difficulty were written on large charts for each story studied and read, and the pupils would frequently refer to these drill word charts in order to recognize the same word giving difficulty in the new story. (5) Caution was always taken that word drill was given in connection with the actual reading situation.

(6) When pupils had read in class an easy book, they would then read it to father or mother which situation offered a new purpose for reading and at the same time afforded more practice in word recognition, interpretation, and comprehension. (7) Very easy and simple seat work exercises, which were always connected with the daily reading situation, were prepared, used and checked. (8) The pupils read for fun easy primer material, original short reading units of primer and first grade difficulty, and many other easy books in their room library which had been carefully selected in order to convince them that they were able to read for fun. (9) The reading for fun was checked by small groups of pupils, by the teacher, and by oral reading before the Reading Club. (10) Later, parents would hear the pupils read new material in primers and other easy books and they would write a note to the teacher as a check. (Here wholesome additional reading practice was obtained with pleasure.) (11) Stories and books read were recorded on the class library chart. (12) Pupils frequently composed short reading units in connection with projects and practiced reading these units. (13) Teacher constantly worked for good reading habits and attitudes. (14) A check test of the *Gates Primary Reading Test* was given in February and all but two of the pupils had advanced on this test from first grade or less ability to second grade ability.

The objectives that the teacher attempted to reach in this reading program were as follows: Word difficulties should arise from the silent and oral reading of pupils. Have word drill when needed in the reading situation. Attack word difficulties by numerous procedures. Read in class easy and interesting material until proper reading attitudes and sufficient power have been reached to do more of the study type reading. Connect the reading activity with the home. Afford opportunities to read for many purposes and under many situations. Emphasize the fun or pleasure side of reading.

The above outline of remedial reading procedure was initiated and used by a regular teacher with forty-five pupils in average daily attendance with the assistance of the principal and a primary supervisor. During the month of March, 1930, the teacher with the help of the primary supervisor taught a demonstration lesson for a number of teachers with the class that had been brought up to the second grade reading level. The results of this teacher supervisory activity were observed and studied by a number of teachers and all the teachers in the primary grades profited from the project.

VI. A COOPERATIVE SCHOOL NEWSPAPER¹

The plan—In September, 1930, the seventh grade teacher of English came to the principal to present a plan for a school newspaper,

¹Campbell, Cora, Principal, Baneroff School, Kansas City, Missouri.

as a language project. The paper was to be a simple four page sheet expressing children's thoughts and recognizing the pupils' efforts in written English. It was also to carry messages to parents in the home. The ideal expressed by the teacher was, "A *Booster* in every home." The paper was to be distributed, and carried home two or three days before each regular monthly meeting of the parent-teacher association.

It was planned to make the paper appeal to both parents and children in three ways:

- (1) It was to furnish a motive for more and better written English.
- (2) It was to inform parents concerning school policies and school projects.
- (3) It was to carry into the homes announcements of parents' meetings and information regarding parents' activities in the school.

Organization—At the next teachers' meeting, the plan was presented, discussed thoroughly, and adopted for trial. A teacher staff was appointed consisting of the seventh grade English teacher as chairman, one fourth grade teacher, as sponsor for the middle grades; and one first grade teacher to take charge of news and material from the primary grades. This staff of teachers was to be assisted by one pupil representative from each room of grades 4, 5, 6 and 7. The principal was to be responsible for school notices and for parents' notices and announcements.

A seventh grade boy, under the direction of the other seventh grade teacher, was appointed as "Advertising Manager"; for the low subscription price—twenty-five cents for the eight issues of the paper—made a few advertisements quite necessary.

Carrying out the plan—In carrying out the plans, staff meetings are called whenever necessary at a time of day that interfere with no school program. These meetings are sometimes attended by the entire staff, sometimes by the three teachers only, and sometimes by one teacher and the pupil representatives, as the occasion demands. These meetings are for the purpose of determining the character of the material for each issue, and for the purpose of selecting and arranging the material brought in by teachers and pupils.

Each issue of the paper is dominated by one central unifying thought. For instance, the October paper was a "Citizenship Number." On the second page was reproduced that part of the pupil's report card showing the "Habits and Attitudes Desirable for Good Citizenship," and on the third page was a note to parents explaining the card. The children's contributions in that issue gave their thoughts on citizenship and service.

The February number dealt with citizenship, but in a different way. This number told of the great Americans who were born in February.

Results—The paper is still quite young, but it is growing in popularity and in power, as it becomes better known. The children think each paper better than the preceding numbers. Parents are beginning to look forward with interest to the "next *Booster*." One mother said, "When Billy brings the paper home, I am as eager to read it as he is. He says that I take it out of his hands before he has time to finish it."

The children are writing more and are willing to try again and again to write something worthy to be printed in "our paper." Like all whole school projects, it is a unifying force also among the teachers.

Conclusion—We realize that our paper has in it many mistakes. We have made no attempt to reach any journalistic standard. We do not feel that perfection of form and arrangement is worth the time it takes in an elementary school paper. Our paper is just a bond between the school and the home, a messenger from child to parent, from child to child, and from parent to parent. And even the smallest child may send a message through the columns of "his paper."

VII. A PROGRAM OF TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SUPERVISION¹

Every teacher was encouraged to select and study some particular problem with reference to her classroom activities. Reports are to be given from time to time showing the progress made in the study. The following are some of the problems at which teachers are working:

1. The correlation of the pupils' progress and achievement in Grades I and II with the result of the *Pintner-Cunningham Test*; and with the kindergarten teachers' ranking.
2. Causes of failure in beginning reading with analytical case studies.
3. Does the retardation in written expression due to the transition from manuscript to cursive writing in the second grade outweigh the advantages of using the manuscript writing in the first grade?
4. The value of extensive reading as a background for particular topics of the social science curriculum.
5. Analytical case study of third grade deficiencies in reading and remedial measures to be applied.
6. Reading and problem solving in arithmetic.
7. Causes of deficiencies in oral reading and how to overcome them.
8. The correlation of library reading with the various school subjects taught.
9. To teach pupils to read to learn.
10. Creative writing; how secure it?
11. How can outside reading be made to function most effectively?
12. Books of fiction with an historical background. What use should be made of them?
13. Extensive reading as a basis for growth in oral and written expression.

¹Steuber, F. J., Principal, Rose Fanning School, St. Louis, Missouri.

All the results of a teacher-participating supervisory program are not in such a tangible form that they can be definitely measured. However, the independent thought it encourages, the spirit of progressiveness it creates, the new points of view it develops, keeps both supervisor and supervised from stereotyping school activities. Effective pupil activity can only result from effective teacher activity. The supervisor should aim to bring about both.

Supervision should therefore be so directed that the teacher carries on the desired activities as her own. Growth in independence, initiative, and creativeness cannot be developed in the classrooms on the part of teachers or pupils as long as definite programs of activities and methods of procedure are being superimposed. The teacher must take an active part in every well-planned program of supervision, if it is to result in whole-hearted enthusiasm in the classroom.

A COUNCIL of five or six more able teachers in a school to work out plans with the principal gives him a representation of ideas from the school as a whole. These teachers are frequently far more familiar with actual conditions in the classroom than the principal can possibly be. Their participation in the selection and guidance of policies for the school secures a confidence from the whole school.—John S. Thomas, Chapter II.

It must not be supposed that the influence of the professional cabinet is limited to the teachers having current membership. The cabinet influences directly or indirectly all members of the staff. As previously noted, any teacher may attend, and participate in, any meeting. The principal may invite teachers to discuss some phase of school work before given meetings of the cabinet. Then, too, membership in special committees may be so distributed that contact with the cabinet activities results for all members of the staff.—Paul R. Pierce, Chapter III.

CLASSROOM VISITS AND THE INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE

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NO CLASSROOM visit should be made without some definite purpose in mind. A definite purpose precedes and predicts a definite result. Other results may come as a by-product, may even be more important than the one planned for, but it is trusting a great deal to chance to enter a classroom on the mere hope that something may miraculously arise to justify the expenditure of time, energy, and possibly, teacher's and pupils' "nerves" arising from the introduction of another element into the classroom situation. Teachers mean to be complimentary when they assure the principal that "Your coming does not bother me." Is that enough?

Do teachers want classroom visits?—It is common in professional circles to discuss whether teachers like to have supervisors visit the classrooms. Our supervisory staff tried to get an answer on this question by asking the teachers. A letter was sent to approximately 700 classroom teachers, as follows:

My dear Friend:

The supervisory staff of the Wichita Public Schools is anxious to be of as much help to you as possible. Doubtless every teacher has some peculiar problems on which he or she would like counsel. Our supervisors and principals can conserve their time and help you most if they know what your greatest needs are.

Assuming that your assignment next year is the same as it is now, please list below not less than two or more than four ways in which the supervisory staff can be of greatest assistance to you. Think this through carefully and then make your desires known in the order of their importance to you. Of course you will want to state your larger problems rather than insignificant details. This is not a list of confessions but an honest attempt to get the help to which you are entitled.

The replies to the above letter showed "Conferences and criticism following visits" were asked for by 248 teachers; and "demonstrations" were asked for by 183 teachers. None of the other forty-six items listed received more than sixty-four requests.

How many classroom visits do principals make?—Ordinarily the number of visits made is not so important as the quality of the visit and the follow-up. Under a new plan inaugurated in our system during the year 1929-30, elementary principals having fourteen or more teachers were allowed full time for supervision; principals having between six and fourteen teachers taught half-days and supervised half-days. Table 1 shows that over a period of six months the average number of visits per teacher did not vary much regardless of the principal's freedom for supervision. However, the total number of visits per principal average higher for the full-time supervising principals.

TABLE 1—AVERAGE NUMBER OF CLASSROOM VISITS BY PRINCIPALS
FOR SIX MONTHS

Amount of Time for Supervision	Average Number of Visits per Teacher	Average Number of Visits per Principal
(1)	(2)	(3)
Half-time.....	4.4	42.8
Full-time.....	4.5	72.3

Does Table 1 mean that four or five visits each six weeks period is the optimum number per teacher? Or, does it mean that principals have the habit of dropping into each classroom about once a week? Classroom visits should be the means whereby the principal studies learning as it goes on. The writer repeats that purposeless visits probably attain no purpose.

Studying the visits of principals—Principals in our school system were asked to list the purposes and the results of classroom visits. The replies mentioned four or more times by 28 principals are as follows:

1. *For what purpose do you make classroom visits?*

To improve instruction	9
To aid in the evaluation of the learning situation and teaching results	8
To observe physical conditions, use or need of equipment.....	8
To become familiar with aims and methods of teacher.....	7
To secure knowledge of situation or problem.....	6
To follow work of group or individual	6
To aid in professional progress of teacher.....	6
To observe relationship between teacher and pupil, pupil and pupil..	6
To become acquainted with the school as a coordinate whole.....	5
To study activities of teacher and pupil	5
To study improvement in classroom procedure.....	4
In response to invitation.....	4

2. *What benefits accrue to the pupils from your visits?*

Individual case study and adjustment	10
Inspiration of pupils	9
Personal interest	7
Improvement of instruction	6
Respect for importance of school	4

3. *What benefits accrue to the teachers from your visits?*

Encouragement of teacher	12
Advice and suggestions for improvement.....	12
Cooperation from mutual understanding.....	10
Help in problem cases	8
Better attitude toward pupils	4

4. <i>What preparation do you make for classroom visits?</i>	
Check lesson plans	11
Set up objectives, decide on points to be observed, map out purpose...	11
Know course of study and texts	7
Know what subject is under consideration.....	6
Recall previous visits to teacher	6
Study authority on supervision	4
Consider what particular phases of teaching I want to inspect.....	4
Have in mind learning situation which should obtain from purpose set forth	4
Follow a definite plan of visitation.....	4
Prepare on special problem by reviewing books on teaching of subject to be observed	4
5. <i>What report on the classroom visit do you make to the teacher?</i>	
Conference to discuss observation	19
Commend good points	17
Suggest improvements	16
None	6
Suggest books and magazines for teacher to read.....	5
✓ 6. <i>What preparation do you make for conferences?</i>	
Collect references dealing with points to be discussed.....	17
Make note of points to be discussed.....	16
List suggestions to be made—what to say and how to say it.....	11
Prepare remedial plan	11
Study cause for poor work, wrong ideas, poor technic.....	7
Study basic principles underlying activities.....	6
Familiarize myself with all conditions of room and pupils.....	4
Study teacher's outlines and plans.....	4
Plan to lead teacher to self-analysis.....	4

General conclusions—The replies of principals to the six questions above raises considerable doubt as to value of classroom visits and conferences as commonly practiced. Will principals be accepted as supervisors as long as they tolerate hazy notions and half-baked thinking among school executives? A program of supervision worthy of support must exert some constructive influence upon the major elements in learning—teacher, curriculum, and child.

Classroom visits are of little value to the teacher if no comment or action of any sort results. Conferences with teachers from every section of the United States one summer brought out the invariable desire of the teacher to know what the supervisor thinks of the work observed. Several means are possible for satisfying this desire: conferences, both formal and informal; written reports, both subjective and objective; teachers' meetings in which impersonal discussions are held; comparisons with authorities on special or general points; and so on down a long line.

A report of observations has been used effectively in our school system in connection with individual conferences between principal and teachers. The first items of the report dealt with physical conditions, ventilation, room temperature, lighting, condition of floors,

use of apparatus; then followed display of work; devices used to secure and hold interest; attitude of pupils; attitude of teacher; teacher's voice; evidence of daily plans; discipline, how secured; chief actor in recitation, teacher or pupil; assignment of lesson; project upon which class was engaged; waste of time; purpose of lesson; suitability of lesson type to purpose; laws of learning observed; assistance of pupils in planning, organizing, and judging; supplementary material; opportunity of all pupils to participate; and satisfaction of pupils and teacher. A space was left for comments and questions. This report blank sounds cumbersome, but in actual use requires only a word or two for each item. Opinions of different persons using such form might vary and need to be subjected to objective data for validation, but, at least, it forms a point of departure for discussion between teacher and principal.

IN A RECENT issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, the editor has paid a splendid tribute to the members of the Department of Elementary School Principals—an inspiring tribute to the pioneers in one of the greatest educational movements of the last decade. This tribute is not only an inspiration but a challenge to all of us to keep alive these splendid fires of professional enthusiasm, many of which were kindled as far back as 1847.—Cassie F. Roys, President's Message, p. 135.

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE TEACHER CONFERENCES

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THE PRINCIPAL who wants to guide effectively the learning process in his school, will do well to give much time and thought to ways of achieving the results he desires. In thinking carefully regarding the problem, he will probably come to the conclusion that *teacher growth* is the key to the situation. The teacher who is herself growing is the one who will best stimulate growth in her pupils. The principal with a staff of teachers who are eagerly seeking to solve the problems that arise in the course of their every day work is the principal whose school will be progressive and successful.

How can the principal best stimulate the growth of his teachers? Whatever procedures he decides to use will be supervisory measures, for supervision stripped of its technical terminology is really nothing more or less than the process of "helping teachers to locate and to solve their problems."¹

There are various devices which can be and have been successfully used in helping teachers to find and to solve teaching problems. Faculty professional meetings, grade-group teacher conferences, classroom visitation, and conferences with individual teachers are among those commonly used. While classroom visitation is frequently mentioned by principals and in current literature as the best single supervisory device, the writer has found that *conferences with individual teachers* are more stimulating to teachers than any other procedure.

Why is the individual teacher conference effective in helping teachers to locate and solve their problems?—Teachers, as pupils, vary widely in their personalities. They come from differing backgrounds. Their training has been received in different colleges and in some cases in no institution whatever. Teachers do not all have the same nervous make-up. Some are phlegmatic and slow in their reactions, while others are quick and nervous. In short, no two teachers are exactly the same, and therefore no single "cut and dried" way of helping teachers will solve the problems of all. Knowing that Miss A is poorly trained, quick, nervous and inclined to make snap judgments, the principal can by means of a friendly personal conference help her to see the nature of her difficulties. In conference, they can work out a plan cooperatively that will help her to overcome her weaknesses and to strengthen her good qualities. Classroom visits and faculty meetings do not afford in so great a measure the opportunity to deal with the individual differences of teachers.

¹Definition suggested by Assistant Superintendent R. D. Lindquist of Oakland, California.

The principal may, by means of a survey or by classroom visitation, decide to his own satisfaction, just what are the particular problems of any of his teachers. But this knowledge alone is insufficient to effect the working out of solutions to these problems. Each teacher on the staff must be led to realize that she has problems that need solution in connection with her work. Knowing that such problems exist she must work out her own solution to them. The solution must be her own, because no problem that is solved for one individual by another, is effective in helping the first person to grow. In other words, while a principal may sense a teacher's problem and suggest to her a solution which she in turn puts into practice, the one who grows the most under such circumstances is the principal and not the teacher.

Classroom visitation is an excellent supervisory device. In fact, it is indispensable to the principal who would improve the learning activities of his school. Classroom visitation too frequently is nothing more than "hit or miss," infrequent, irregular, brief, and purposeless inspection. If a principal has no real purpose in visiting a classroom, no real problem the solution of which will be furthered by such a visit it would be better for the teacher if he stays in his office and gives attention to routine matters. On the other hand, if in the course of a conference principal and teacher have located a problem, the solution to which may be furthered by a visit or a series of visits to the classroom by the principal, then classroom visitation takes on meaning and purpose. Teachers eagerly welcome the "purposeful" principal to their classes. As a result of such visits other problems than the ones which originally prompted the visit will usually manifest themselves and so the purpose multiplies.

Individual conferences also provide unhurried and private discussions of the pupils by the teacher and principal. The difficulties and problems of each child, may be considered briefly or at length as the case demands, away from the classroom with its lack of privacy and constant interruptions. One of the most important services which may be rendered to teachers by a principal is that of bringing his advice and counsel to bear on the individual problems of each child in a class. The writer has found scheduled conferences to be greatly appreciated by teachers.

How to use the conference effectively—There are nine basic principles of teacher conferences which the effective principal will observe. These principles are:

1. *The principal must organize his school so that he will have time for regular conferences*—Such things as yard duty, auditorium and visual education meetings, should be scheduled in advance for the year. As far as possible the organization of special features of the life of the school, such as pupil councils, lunch room, playground activities, the community night assemblies, should be delegated to

individual teachers or committees. Many matters of a routine nature, such as transfers, filing, duplicating, care of stock room, phone calls, meeting, and directing visitors, should be delegated to the clerk.

2. *Conferences should be scheduled if they are to be most effective*—Each principal, knowing his own school can work out best his own schedule of conferences with teachers. The writer has found the following plan effective. The principal holds the hours from 8:00-8:30 A. M., 12:30-1:00 and 2:30-4:00 P. M. daily, open for conferences. Each teacher is scheduled in advance for the day of the week she is to have a conference with the principal, but she may choose the hour of the day she may see him. Each teacher knows that the principal reserves time once a week (on the same day of the week) when she may see him if she desires. While teachers are required to meet with the principal in conference for at least a half-hour every other week most teachers ask for conferences at least once a week. This plan does not preclude informal conferences when teachers or principal feel they are needed. However, most teachers save their problems for consideration at the time of scheduled conferences.

FIGURE 1—PRINCIPAL'S INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE SCHEDULE

Monday-----	Smith, Jones, Brown
Tuesday-----	Cooper, Singer, Bolton
Wednesday-----	Welch, Byers, Shetler
Thursday-----	Adams, Church, White
Friday-----	McDonald, Barrett, Hughes

3. *Conferences should be long enough to be effective*—The usual teacher conference, is a few words crammed in at recess time before or after a class visit by a principal or supervisor. Both teacher and principal are in a hurry, harassed by the presence of children, and fearful that the bell will ring before they have really started to discuss their problems. Such conferences are naturally ineffective. It is difficult to really deal with the problems of teachers; to get some teachers to sense that they have any problems in a hurried conference of ten minutes, for which neither principal nor teacher are prepared. While frequently less time will be used, at least a half-hour should be set aside for each conference.

4. *Conferences should be held where there will be freedom from needless interruptions*—The best place to hold them is in the principal's private office or the teacher's room.

5. *The teacher and not the principal should do most of the talking*—In many conferences principals do the talking while teachers do the listening. Principals fail to remember that conferences are held primarily to help the teacher locate and solve her own problems, not for the principal to air his problems and grievances. Gain the teacher's confidence and let her talk. By so doing you will learn what her philosophy of education is, what problems are troubling her,

and to what sources she has already gone for help. Occasionally ask a question that will start the teacher to talking again. Once the principal really gains the confidence of a teacher and gets her to talking about *her* work, *her* hopes, *her* ambitions and *her* fears, he will learn what her problems are and will be in a position to help her.

6. *The conference should be used to plan effectively for the future rather than to discuss past mistakes*—It is human to err. All of us make mistakes, the principal as well as teachers. Yet, we learn by our failures as well as our successes. But we learn *more* by our successes than we do by our failures. Any one who closely inspects a teacher's work can detect and point out flaws. It takes a higher and more subtle type of thinking to work out a plan of action that will help to eliminate the imperfections in a teacher's work. Most teachers realize their shortcomings. What they need most is help in overcoming them.

7. *The conference should always end in a program which has been mutually worked out and agreed upon for helping the teacher with her problems*—As has been stated heretofore—any solution to a teacher's problems must be *her* solution, not the principal's. While the principal should contribute to the plan to be used, it must also be the result of the teacher's thinking. She must honestly feel that the plan is well conceived, worth trying, and that it will be effective in her situation.

8. *The principal should always be prepared for his conferences*—It is logical that the principal should ask his teachers that they come prepared with materials that will be pertinent to the problems they expect to discuss. Is it not just as logical for the principal to take time to refresh his memory regarding the last previous conference with a teacher before going into a new conference? The principal should come to the conference with references on the problem to be considered, and with questions that he has thought out regarding the subject to be discussed.

9. *The principal should record the problems teachers bring up in conferences*—There are two good reasons for such records. One of them has been anticipated in the preceding paragraph. In a large school, where a principal must meet with from fifteen to fifty teachers in conference in the course of a week, it is impossible to remember all of the problems that his teachers have discussed. If he has a record of the problems of a particular teacher, he can turn to it and refresh his memory just before another conference with the same teacher.

In the second place, such a record may divulge problems common to a large number of the teaching group, which may become a basis for profitable professional meetings, bulletins or research. The form which such a record takes will vary with individual needs. There is no need for elaborate records when a few notes are more easily re-

ferred to. Care should be exercised that the system does not take so much time to keep up-to-date that it encroaches on the time which should be used for the interview.

What should be the results of well-planned teacher conferences?—The first result should be a better understanding of the teachers and their problems. Knowing his teachers, their differences and problems the principal will be better able to organize his school and his plans of supervision.

A second result will be a higher morale among the teachers. Where teachers feel that their good work is known to the principal and that it is appreciated by him they will strive to the limit of their ability to continue to merit that appreciation and confidence.

A third result will be a school that is successful because its teaching staff is growing.

A thought-out plan for conferences at regular intervals with each teacher will cost a principal considerable time and effort. There are a few things, however, that will yield greater returns.

OPINIONS of teachers are affected by the late hour at which meetings are often held. They are tired from the day's labor. This fatigue should be taken into account. Luncheon meetings at the noon hour may frequently be substituted for after school meetings. They are not so much of a hardship on teachers and they are less unpopular. They can be called readily when needed. Regular after school meetings, monthly or otherwise, that are held simply because the "rules require them" should be abolished by abolishing the rules. The necessity for the meeting should be the controlling factor in calling the meeting.—E. A. Brown, Chapter III.

A CHART FOR USE IN EVALUATING AN ACTIVITY

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THE TRUE value of an evaluating chart should be, not its effectiveness as a teacher rating device, but its usefulness in promoting better conditions for learning. Many charts suggested for use in supervision are for rating teachers and the teaching process.¹ A supervising principal whose philosophy of education is that education is not merely the acquiring of subjectmatter and skills but that it is the understanding, selecting, organizing, and using of subjectmatter and skills for purposeful, leading on activities, will place his emphasis on the children and the conditions of their learning.

Present teacher rating schemes are inadequate—The principal's chief interest in an evaluation of an activity is to help a teacher to improve a poor learning situation (in which the teacher herself may be a weak factor) or to strengthen a good learning situation. While Collings in *School Supervision in Theory and Practice* analyzes activities, he does so by means of "the conduct scale for the measurement of teaching," and by the chart for "measuring teaching improvements." The terms used in both charts are technical, abstract, require elaborate explanations and do not bear directly upon learning.

Since the first function of supervision is to keep abreast of the leading movements in education² and to stimulate teachers to think of "objectives, not details," of "the why," more than "the how," it is important that simple, concise schemes for the evaluation of lessons and activities be devised in the spirit of the new philosophy of education.

An activity analysis chart—It is hoped that the chart presented in this paper will meet, at least in some small measure the requirements stated in the preceding paragraph. It is believed that the presentation of the ultimate objectives, terms and categories is such as to prove helpful in the discussion of the lesson with a teacher subsequent to the principal's visit.

The use of the chart will help a teacher to analyze a classroom situation into its component factors. These component factors, "material," "environment," "responses stimulated," and "modes of expression" or "outcomes" will then be scrutinized as means for obtaining the desired major educational objectives, viz: "aesthetic," "moral," and "intellectual" learnings. As a consequence of such an analysis, the danger of specific objectives (i. e. subjectmatter and

¹See examples in Kyte, George C. *How To Supervise*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930; and Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923.

²National Education Association, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. *Current Problems of Supervisors*, Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.

AN ACTIVITY ANALYSIS CHART

Class _____ Date _____
 School _____ Activity or subject _____

A. Learnings

1. Aesthetic
(qualities determined by feeling)
2. Moral
(values, attitudes derived from doing)
3. Intellectual
(relationships discovered by thinking)

B. Material

1. Selected by children
2. Selected by teacher
3. Dictated by curriculum of children
4. Related to present interest of children.
5. Related to past experience of children
6. Related to adult experience
7. Adapted to individual differences
8. Rich in content
 - a. High emotional tone
 - b. Beauty
 1. Form
 2. Visual
 - a. Color
 - b. Design
 3. Auditory
 - a. Tone
 - b. Rhythm
 4. Kinaesthetic
 - c. Imagination
 - d. Relationships
 - e. Values
 - f. Attitudes
 - g. Applications

C. Environment

1. Psychological relationships
 - a. Fine personal relationships
 - b. Group stimulation
 - c. Pupil initiative
 - d. Pupil responsibility
 - e. Teacher leadership
2. Physical equipment
 - a. Conductive to activity
 - b. Variety of material
 - c. Use of excursion

D. Responses stimulated

1. Emotion
2. Observation
3. Audition
4. Judgment of choice making
5. Organization
6. Manipulation

E. Mode of expression (outcome)

1. Spontaneous
2. Deliberate
3. Words
4. Conduct
5. Creation
 - a. Graphic
 - b. Handicraft
 - c. Literary
 - d. Dramatization
 - e. Dancing

Comment:

skills) assuming undue importance to a teacher, will be obviated. Then a teacher's sense of accomplishment will lie in the discovery of how many kinds of learnings may be stimulated by a particular activity. It will not lie in discovering how much subjectmatter can be covered, or how much drill in the skills can be dragged in. The skills will find their place as necessary aids in achieving more complete and satisfactory self-expression. In other words the teacher's use of subjectmatter and other tools will become increasingly intensive. Frequently in so-called "appreciation lessons," teachers who have not thought through to their aims, rely solely on the inherent richness of the content of a subject and do not utilize it and the other factors in the learning situation as fully as might be.

The chart will help a teacher to see the interrelations of the several aspects of a lesson to each other and to the major objectives, to the end that she will plan full and well balanced activities, and that she may recognize more easily, as an activity proceeds, valuable educative situations and materials in unanticipated contingencies. Then her ability to stand aside while a social problem develops and to wait for it to be recognized and solved by the children themselves will be strengthened. Her perception of the significance of the psychological environment as a constant factor in all learnings will be keener.

Since the chief interest of both teacher and supervising principal is the providing of a classroom situation to stimulate learnings, a constructive, objective discussion of the situation, based upon such an analysis as is outlined in the chart minimizes the emotional element and so frees a teacher to work toward her own educational ideals.

Using the chart—Checks and double checks may be placed against the items as the principal observes the lesson. Scoring (1) high, (2) medium, and (3) low, and (blank) absent may be used. Also, alone or in conjunction with the other two methods a word or brief statement may be placed next to the items.

As an illustration of the use of the chart an observed fourth grade music appreciation lesson will be cited. The teacher selected the records to be played. She put them on the victrola. First, *Meditation* by Massenet, a record new to the children, was played. Then the teacher asked individual children, "What does that composition make you think of?" The children's replies were as diverse as "summer" and "winter." The teacher finally said it made her think of da Vinci and of Venice. The children were familiar with some of the facts of da Vinci's life. She then told them the name of the composition and of the composer. The children then volunteered the names of familiar compositions as they were played. Throughout the children were quiet and apparently attentive.

Had the teacher been helped to consider the activity in terms of the three objectives listed under "A" of the chart, she would have re-

alized that the predominant aim of the activity was to stimulate aesthetic appreciation "A", and that the auditory material "B8 b3" was conducive to emotional response "D". Then her question, had she asked one would have been "How does the music make you feel—happy, sad, quiet, like dancing?" or "Do you like it? Why?" An analysis of the auditory material as under "B8 b3 and 4" would have caused her to make use of those qualities characteristic of music in such child-like "modes of expression" as beating time, singing, marching, and interpretive dancing "E 5 e".

In the light of her aim to stimulate moral learning "A2" the teacher would have considered how group stimulation "b," pupil initiative "c," pupil responsibility "d," and teacher leadership (not dominance) "e" under psychological environment "C-1" might have resulted in more natural group activity out of which might have developed desirable attitudes towards, and values in, social behavior. She would also have considered the desirability of a spontaneous, courteous discussion of the music by the children "E 1, 2, 3, 4." Then she would not have used the "question and answer" recitation method.

With the third objective "A3" in mind the teacher would have seen to it that the children had a share in planning the program so that choice making and organization "D4 and 5" would have been called into play. Also by increasing the variety of material "C 2b" with pertinent, colorful background information by children and teacher, and by such booklets as the *Child's Own Book of Great Musicians*,¹ the activity would have provided greater intellectual stimulation, at least for some of the children.

To the extent that a teacher realized that the vividness, intensity and permanence of the learnings are influenced by the "self-identification" of the children with the music would she have used such factors as "1-4-5-7-8" under "B." Also would she have provided for the stimulation of as great a number of "responses" and "modes of expression" as possible.

Value of the chart—Each activity may not provide possibilities for all three (A1, A2 and A3 in chart) learnings. But since there are always potentialities in every social group for learnings of attitudes and values, as well as subjectmatter, opportunities for at least two learnings are always present. Even an arithmetic lesson required by the course of study, if planned and guided by a teacher, with the idea that the learning situation should yield every social attitude and value and every conception of ideational, factual, and numerical relationships possible at the particular mental, social, and age level of the children for the enrichment and integration of their personalities, will prove a developing experience not only for the children but for the teacher as well.

¹Tapper, Thomas. *Child's Own Book of Great Musicians*. Theodore Presser and Company, 1712 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

When a teacher has been helped to see the elements of a classroom situation assume some such relationship to one another and to the large educational objectives, as has been suggested by the chart, prescribed material frequently discloses richer treasure than had been previously suspected and experimental subjectmatter reveals exciting, challenging possibilities. A conception of a lesson or an activity that encourages on the part of a teacher, foresight, directed effort, a receptive attitude, analysis, self-criticism, and a flexibility of procedure will promote conditions for creative learning on the part of the children.

THE USE of checklists and other lists of items to observe is inclined to destroy a friendly relationship. Such lists are likely to be rather standardized. The teacher may feel that they are impressed largely to make her conform to the same pattern that has been determined as standard for the building. There is little doubt but that some types of checklists are of high value when all teachers in the school know their contents and understand that they serve as a guide to bring children to a higher level in some particular trait.—
John S. Thomas, Chapter II.

THE PRINCIPAL'S OBSERVATION RECORD FORM

JOSEPH B. DRIGGS

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IN REVIEWING the history of the elementary school principalship we see it passing through the head teacher stage, the clerical stage, the administrative stage, and the professional leadership stage. We are now entering the professional leadership stage which presupposes that the principal is a constant student of his profession and that he is able to keep his teachers growing by bringing to them the latest developments in progressive education.

This professional leadership carries with it responsibilities which are well-nigh overwhelming when one realizes that many new teachers are coming into the profession ill-prepared for the task before them and that many are called upon to teach subjects which they are not prepared to teach. The job of the principal is to develop a *technic of improving instruction*. Any activity of the principal, which tends *directly* to improve the teacher's work and learning conditions may be classified as supervision.

Several studies have been made to devise a checklist of the most helpful supervisory activities of the principal. The following items are the most frequently mentioned: (1) class visitation and observation, (2) individual conference with teachers, (3) testing and measuring, (4) demonstration teaching, (5) pupil study and adjustment, (6) teachers meetings.¹

The inadequacy of teacher rating forms—The present problem has to do with class visitation since it is an effort to devise an observation form, which will aid the teacher in her work, and at the same time help the principal put his supervision upon a more objective basis. Many forms have been tried and abandoned not because they were worthless, but because they were planned mainly as a teacher rating device.

Most forms, which have as their objective the rating of the teacher, are condemned because they are incompatible with the inspirational leadership which such a human relationship demands. The attached form, *though not a rating device*, may have just as much "dynamite" in it as a rating card unless skillfully handled by a tactful and sympathetic principal. The hope of the writer is that it might be used to tighten up both the teaching and the supervision without the stigma of being a teacher rating card.²

The outstanding weakness of this article is the lack of evidence to prove the effectiveness of the form. However, the observation sheet

¹National Education Association, Division of Research. "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Research Bulletin*, November, 1929.

²The writer acknowledges indebtedness to Superintendent Wagner's "*Common Sense in Supervision*," and to John J. Loftus, principal of Public School 80, Brooklyn, N. Y., for valuable suggestions regarding the items of form.

is not offered as the last word in solving the problems of supervision, but as the first step toward organizing the principal's work in such a way that both he and the teachers will have a record of their efforts to improve instruction. We cannot hope for a panacea that will handle our supervisory problems or supplant a well-developed technic, but we can develop keen tools which serve well in the hand of an expert in shaping the desired product. The keenest tools are always dangerous when carelessly handled.

The proposed form—The form here presented is self-explanatory and while not all inclusive is planned to tap the outstanding features when a close-up observation is given a time exposure. It seems likely that such an instrument would take supervision out of the realm of the personal or emotional and place it upon a more objective basis where it rightfully belongs.

It will be observed that the items of teaching excellencies follow in the main the arrangement of Anderson, Barr, and Bush in their book, *Visiting the Teacher At Work*, and the following quotation from their book would seem to warrant such a form in the hands of principals who may not have fully capitalized their opportunities, due to a lack of supervisory technic:

The ability to analyze a teaching situation critically comes only with training. Many supervisors "have eyes and do not see, ears and do not hear." In studying a teaching situation, note its three major elements: the pupils, the teacher, and the teaching. In making record of what is observed, note observable teacher and pupil activities. Subjective comments are misleading and difficult to interpret.¹

The form should be made in duplicate, the teacher receiving the original and the principal retaining the duplicate copy. The time of conference is noted in the space "E" at the head, and any comments not provided for under the various headings should be recorded under remarks.

The title of this article suggests that a more cooperative effort can be maintained by teacher and principal with some such scoring or recording instrument than without one. Supervision which is not based on such an understanding between the two servants at work on the same job is of doubtful value. If teacher and principal could develop such a spirit of candor and straightforwardness it would do away with much of the pettiness prevailing today and raise supervision to the truly professional plane. The principal would cease to be the task master, but instead would be the confidential guide and counselor of his teachers. Much of the objection to supervision on the part of teachers is due to the failure of a principal to be definite and skillful in his role of *super-teacher*. The teacher has a right to know her good and bad points and to be able to watch her growth as a result of *their* deliberations over points of desirable improvement.

¹Anderson, C. J., Barr, A. S. and Bush, Maybell. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. Appleton, 1925. p. 13-14.

PRINCIPAL'S OBSERVATION SHEET

- A. The following memoranda of my visit may assist you to improve your work.
This is an aid, not a rating.
- B. Your attention is called to the items checked.
- C. Items not checked were not noted. Not all appear in every lesson.
- D. Items noted under "Improvement desirable" are not adverse criticisms
- E. Kindly call at the office for conference at time noted:-----
- F. Bring this report with you. Be prepared to present any question or suggestion.

Principal.

Date -----	I. <i>General Conditions</i>	IV. <i>The Teaching</i>
Teacher -----	1. Light—ventilation—temperature.	18. Aim apparent to pupils.
Subject or activity— -----	2. Appearance of room.	19. Questions thought provoking.
Commendation— -----	3. Atmosphere created by use of pictures, charts, graphs, projects, etc.	20. Arouses and sustains interest.
Improvement desirable— -----	4. Care of school property.	21. Elicits discussion.
Suggestions— -----	II. <i>The Teacher</i>	22. Employs drill advantageously.
Suggestions repeated -----	5. Animation.	23. Makes all pupils take part.
Remarks: -----	6. Poise and self control.	24. Uses reference material wisely.
-----	7. Preparation of work.	25. Trains for independent study.
-----	8. Discipline.	26. Pupils criticise and evaluate their own efforts.
-----	9. Voice.	27. Commends success and effort.
-----	10. Attitude toward pupils.	28. Lesson assignment starts effort evoking interest.
-----	III. <i>The Pupil</i>	29. Were problem solving activities in evidence?
-----	11. Attention.	30. Good summary.
-----	12. Appearance attractive.	
-----	13. Properly seated.	
-----	14. Responsive.	
-----	15. Uses good English.	
-----	16. Courteous.	
-----	17. Shows initiative.	

It is a debatable question whether or not a principal should make notes while in the room. The writer feels that the teacher will not become disconcerted when she knows that she will see all the notes and go over them in a friendly way with the supervisor who is not trying to catch her off duty, but who is as much concerned as she in putting over the mutual job in a better way.

The times are crucial—Inspectorial visits have their place in the daily duties of the principal, but they should not be confused with the bigger and more important job of analyzing learning conditions as objectively as possible.

The increasing costs of education demand that schools pay well on the investment. It follows that a principal should have objective evidence to show what he is doing and why he is doing it. He should be particularly well informed on supervision.

It is pretty generally agreed by educational theorists that the elementary school is the foundation stone of our American school system. The principal is strategically placed to study and to guide the processes in the "melting pot" of American democracy. These responsibilities force the principals of the country to a professionalized position so as to justify the faith of the citizens. The principalship is becoming more and more important, and the principals themselves by their study and research must devise ways and means of helping each other to improve. The times are crucial; we must read and profit by the handwriting on the wall.

WE GIVE considerable time now to studying the individual differences of children and attempt to make provision for them. Too little, however, do we recognize these differences in teachers. We expect them to do a piece of teaching that requires ability to do a great many different things, and their success depends on how well they are able to do all of them. Teachers abilities are not alike. Attention paid to their special talents and to providing opportunity for their use is often the means of developing skillful professionally alert teachers out of indifferent discouraged ones.—Edith L. Curren, Chapter III.

DEMONSTRATION LESSONS

GERTRUDE E. MUNN

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THE USE OF demonstration lessons as a means of teacher training is not new. William G. Baker, a successful teacher, was employed as early as the first quarter of the eighteenth century by Henry Barnard to travel from meeting to meeting in a covered wagon. His class of twelve children traveled with him. He gave demonstration lessons of what was then approved procedure.¹

Service training in Germany—Germany has always had a system of training teachers in service although the system did not at first consist of a regularly organized course. Within the last ten years very definite tendencies have shown themselves toward the continuance of education after leaving the training schools. Demonstration lessons are given at regular intervals for a period of two years following the teacher's graduation from a training school.

Bavaria has a training "in service" plan for elementary teachers preceding the date of final appointment. Training-in-service districts are organized by the county government. No unit may include more than twenty teachers organized under the leadership of a teacher appointed by the district authorities. The "in-service" school year begins in October and continues until the summer vacation. Every member of the unit is expected to take part by teaching well planned and well organized classes several times each year. Each member of the unit is observed and visited by the leader of the group who, in turn, demonstrates to them how they may improve their teaching. In addition to these activities all members or candidates write out a lesson topic for four of the continuation days. These topics are criticised by the leader as to organization and content and then discussed at the next meeting and returned to the teacher. These lesson units, developed by the whole group, are given on the day set aside for the group meeting—a teacher having been selected from the group by the leader or the one having volunteered to teach. After the demonstration has been given, the lesson is discussed by all members of the group with reference to its material, organization, and arrangement in relationship to the course of study in the school. Each year an important educational question is studied and investigated thoroughly for the purpose of developing educational thinking.

Hamburg has a demonstration school in the process of organization. It plans to have a fully developed demonstration and experimental school, the purpose of which will be to supply the opportunity for experimenting and also evaluating educational practices. It is to be a means for the practical training of students in methods of in-

¹Barr, A. S. and Burton, W. H., *Supervision of Instruction*, Appleton, 1926. 626 p.

struction and in educational experimentation—a laboratory for research and investigation. This school will be a regular elementary unit with freedom as to registration and classification of the pupils. Its program of work and standards of attainment will be flexible as is necessary in an experimental school.

The teachers in this demonstration school have been selected carefully so that they can give regular instruction and also demonstrations. They have had excellent elementary school experience and have studied at the university which gives them the requisite teaching experience plus the academic background necessary. The young teacher observes and participates throughout the three years, starting the very first semester, thereby obtaining a much better conception of the needs of his work and the ability to interpret lectures in education and psychology more easily.¹

Who needs demonstration lessons?—The outstanding purpose for demonstration lessons is to aid in the improvement of instruction which, in turn, has for its aim the fullest development of the child. Demonstration lessons should give adequate assistance to teachers in meeting situations beyond their training, experience, and ability. They should serve as a clearing-house where problems can be brought forth and discussed.

Not all teachers need to see demonstration lessons, but they are valuable and recommended for: (1) beginning teachers, (2) experienced teachers teaching a new method for the first time, (3) teachers weak in methods and technics, (4) experienced teachers doing experimental work, and (5) teachers who are anxious to acquire new ideas although they are experienced and capable.

Beginning teachers, because of their lack of experience, sometimes lose their disciplinary control which makes proper instruction impossible. They need to have special help in the organization of the subjectmatter, and materials. Demonstrations showing the technic of classroom procedure and methods of instruction have been found to be of great value to such teachers.

Experienced teachers teaching a new method for the first time find demonstrations very helpful in many ways. It is sometimes hard for an experienced teacher to swing from the old way to the new way easily. Often a demonstration by a skillful teacher will clear up problems and objections that might be standing in her way and keeping her from adopting more modern ideas. This change can be brought about in a much shorter time through demonstration lessons than it would take for the teacher to work out her problems without such specific help.

¹Demonstration lessons and schools are used rather widely in large American cities, such as Chicago, Detroit, Seattle, and Baltimore. See Chapter X in the *Superintendent Surveys Supervision*. Eighth Yearbook, 1930. Department of Superintendence, National Education Association.

Teachers weak in methods and technic find immediate assistance from demonstrations providing they know their own needs. Experienced teachers doing experimental work gain a great deal from seeing someone else, who is likewise experimenting, demonstrate her interpretation of the new thing being worked out. Then there is the experienced, capable teacher who is always looking for new ideas, and devices that will add to her general knowledge and ability. She enjoys and asks for demonstrations to enlarge her teaching experience and ability.

If a teacher has gained an understanding of procedures and a superior technic in teaching, her methods are valuable not only to her own class but also to all of the teachers in her community. Her room should be made an observation center for those teachers needing help. Nothing convinces so thoroughly, nor is so stimulating as seeing results achieved by a skillful teacher.¹

Types and purposes of demonstrations—There are different types of demonstration lessons which may be given that will provide for the various needs of the teachers, since all of them do not require the same kind of help. They are: (1) a demonstration by the supervisor with the teacher's own pupils in her own room, (2) a demonstration by a capable teacher with her own pupils for a group of visiting teachers, (3) visiting days or intervisitation, and (4) a series of demonstrations, to show growth stage or steps in the development of a particular method or technic.

The requirements for giving any of these demonstrations would necessarily be the same, that is, the lesson would be taught in a regular classroom. It would need to be carefully planned so that it would meet the needs of the teacher or teachers for whom it was given. The lesson should be followed by a conference in which the teaching is evaluated and discussed.

Normal classroom conditions should exist where the demonstration is to take place. The subjectmatter, time, and method should adhere to typical school practices. Needless to say, the demonstrator should make careful preparations for the lesson to be taught, and should be well-trained in the technic and devices to be used. It is equally important for the observers and visiting teachers to be prepared for what they are to see in order that they observe and react intelligently to that which is being demonstrated. A careful and critical discussion should follow the demonstration. This conference is probably the most important element next to the skill displayed by the expert teacher. Discussions are valuable in that a free exchange of constructive ideas are of mutual benefit to the teachers. If demonstrations are to be effective, teachers should come with well-

¹National Society for the Study of Education. "Putting a Reading Program into Operation." *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, 1925, Part I, p. 302.

defined aims and should actively participate in the discussion that follows.

A demonstration by a supervisor for a teacher in her own classroom is often very helpful, since she can step in just when help is most needed and give the necessary aid at the exact time the problem arises. For a less able teacher it may be necessary that the supervisor demonstrate several consecutive days before the teacher has gained enough skill to pick up the work and go on herself. When the work is again taken by the classroom teacher, her success and abilities should be capitalized and further help given to her indirectly rather than directly.

An excellent means of teacher improvement is intervisitation, especially when such visits are well-planned and suggested by the teacher who needs assistance. Careful preparation should be made by the visiting teacher and by the teacher to be visited. Care should be taken in the selection of the teacher to be visited that she is capable of demonstrating just the type of work the visiting teacher needs to see. The demonstrator should be notified in advance as to the exact time she will be visited and what she is to exhibit. The visiting teacher should make careful preparations and have definitely in mind what she should observe. Enthusiasm for the efforts of the teacher visited should indicate to her the visitor's appreciation. In many school systems certain days are allowed the teachers for visiting within their own system and also for visiting in a nearby district.

A series of demonstrations to show growth stages or steps in the development of a particular method or the technic in handling a method are very helpful, since, by doing so, every phase of the work is clearly outlined and its possibilities experienced.

The Detroit plan—The plan of training teachers in service in Detroit is one of cooperative effort on the part of district principals, principals, supervisors, teachers, and the department of instructional research.

The Detroit district principal is head of an elementary school and is also the administrative head of its several schools in the district. He has a capable assistant who relieves him of much of the administrative work in his own school. This freedom gives him time to devote to supervision, observation, and experimentation in the twelve or more elementary schools of his district.

The building principal of each school acts not only as an administrative head in his building but, in addition, serves as a supervisor of instruction. In this capacity the task of improving instruction has been added to the principal's role and many of his former tasks have been given over to an assistant principal or to a clerk. Counseling, guiding, instructing and training his teachers so that he may effect the highest possible development of the child is felt to be of paramount importance.

The supervisor is an expert in his particular field and is best fitted to solve the difficult problems that might arise. He is expected to contribute the results of his creative efforts for the benefit of the whole system. He not only maintains existing levels of efficiency in instruction but endeavors to improve the standards of instruction through research, training, and field work.

A department of instructional research has been organized in Detroit as an aid to principals, supervisors, and teachers in securing training and help in the field of research and experimentation for the purpose of setting up experiments, measuring results, diagnosing conditions, and planning remedial measures.

Procedures for improving instruction may take the following forms:

1. Demonstration lessons given for
 - (a) district principals
 - (b) principals
 - (c) teachers in the system
 - (d) teachers in certain districts
 - (e) teachers in special subjects
2. Visits to schools for demonstrations, instructions, or diagnostic purposes.
3. Bulletins for instruction and for concrete help.
4. Extension classes for district principals, principals, and teachers.

With the introduction of new methods of instruction it is impossible, in a large city system, for a supervisor to administer personally to the individual needs of her teachers. Consequently she must delegate powers to others in the system who are willing and capable of discharging such responsibilities.

Detroit has developed the "key teacher" plan for the training of first grade teachers of reading which takes care of its particular needs. A new basic method of teaching reading, which differed widely from the method to which the teachers had been accustomed, was adopted. Approximately eight hundred teachers were to be trained in the use of this new method.

According to the "key teacher" plan, each district principal's district constitutes a unit within itself, and is responsible to a large extent for the training of its own teachers. To supplement the district principal's and the school principal's assistance, key teachers are selected in each one of the districts to act as a demonstrating center. These key teachers are selected by the district principal. They are superior teachers especially trained in the detailed phases of reading and are used to: (1) demonstrate reading work in their respective districts, (2) act as demonstrators in their own rooms which are visiting centers for other teachers who wish to observe them at work during their regular class periods, and (3) visit other teachers in the district for the purpose of giving detailed assistance.

Through the help of these teachers it is possible for each district principal to control to a great extent the training of teachers in his particular area. The needs of teachers in different districts are more fully met and specialized assistance is obtained at the time it is needed rather than having it delayed or perhaps not received at all.

The key teacher receives recognition for her superior ability and has the opportunity for further development, while the supervisor receives fewer calls for assistance and has more time for research and constructive work.

Conclusion—As internes and nurses learn from observing the skilled physician, so classroom teachers profit from seeing the expert in their profession at work. Demonstration lessons are valuable because they help improve instruction through the establishment of standards leading to higher goals of attainment, the improvement of technic in classroom procedure, and teacher growth which is reflected in the power acquired by pupils.

THE PRINCIPAL who works at his duties of supervision often may wish that he had some method at the tips of his fingers whereby he can locate the children who are standing at or near the bottom of their class; or perhaps he may wish to select those in the upper portions. Since most of the problem children in a grade are located at either extreme of the class, and since the principal's efforts usually begin with these problems first, it simplifies the procedure if he has some device which points out such cases. The individual profile of percentile ranks is a device which will do this very thing.—Roy E. Robinson, Chapter V.

A DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL IN READING

OTTO SCHENK

Principal, Dixon School, Chicago, Illinois

DEMONSTRATION teaching has been quite generally accepted as one means of improving the work of the classroom teacher. The proper utilization of this method offers an interesting supervisory problem for the principal. The experiment described in the following pages includes an account of the organization of a series of demonstrations and a study of their reaction upon demonstration teachers and visitors.

How the school was organized—In September, 1929 a movement toward the improvement of the teaching of reading in the elementary schools of Chicago was initiated under the direction of the superintendent of schools. With the cooperation of the University of Chicago, a lecture course in the teaching of reading was provided for teachers representing each school. In connection with this course a demonstration school in reading was planned at the Arthur Dixon School.

The first four months were occupied with the organization and development of the work in reading, and the planning of demonstrations.¹ The faculty consisted of twelve teachers of the branch school that preceded the new Dixon School and eight teachers from the transfer list of experienced teachers. The actual demonstration work was begun in January, 1930. Between January and June, 1930 forty-eight demonstration lessons were presented, at the rate of three every Wednesday afternoon. Table 1 shows the attendance for the whole semester.

TABLE 1—TOTAL ATTENDANCE AT THE FORTY-EIGHT DEMONSTRATIONS

Types	Number
Classroom teachers	276
Principals	89
Superintendents	12
Others	17
Total	394

How the demonstrations were conducted—Before the demonstrations the visitors assembled in the art room and received a mimeographed program of the lessons to be witnessed. A sample program is given herewith as Form 1.

Inasmuch as the three demonstrations of one afternoon were given successively in three different grades, visiting teachers were invited to visit non-demonstration classes in the building during exhibits

¹Valuable help was given by Dean William S. Gray of the University of Chicago, Assistant Superintendent Rose A. Pesta, and District Superintendent William Hedges.

in other than their own grades. This provision enabled teachers to observe our everyday work as well as a formal demonstration. Comparatively few made use of this opportunity because the teachers preferred to observe the prepared lessons.

The prepared demonstration has advantages, because (1) the visitor has in his hands an outline of the lesson plan, which renders critical observing much simpler; and (2) he sees a complete unit together with its bearing upon the past experience of the class and upon the work of the next day. In contrast, the casual classroom visitor, entering at any stage of the lesson, usually fails to see the lesson as a whole and has little opportunity for intelligent observation. Random visiting of classes, in the experience of the writer, is wasteful of the visiting teacher's time and causes undesirable interruptions of classwork.

FORM 1

DIXON SCHOOL DEMONSTRATION LESSONS

MAY 21ST, 1930

- NOTICE: 1. Visitors will please assemble in the art room.
 2. Wraps may be left on the desks; the room will be watched by patrol boys.
 3. Please sign visitor's book in the art room.
 4. Visitors who wish to attend the demonstration of their own grade only, may visit other rooms of that grade during the other demonstrations. Kindly refrain from conversation during recitations.

I. GRADE 2-B ROOM 201 TIME 1:15 MISS GROGAN
 "Why Little Cricket Sang," Child-Library Readers, Book 2, p. 58.

Teacher's aim:

To train the children in the ability to concentrate their attention upon content.

Pupil's aim:

To find the answers to the questions:

1. Where did little cricket want to go?
2. Why did little cricket sing every day?

Previous experience:

None

Procedure:

1. Motivation; study of pictures
2. Silent reading of the story
3. Testing comprehension
4. Training in recognition of new words
5. Oral reading.

Follow-up work:

1. Seatwork
2. Dramatization.

II. GRADE 3-A ROOM 208 TIME 1:45 MRS. HUTTON
 Silent Reading "Flax and Linen," Best Stories III, p. 209.

Teacher's aim:

To help children select points of importance in informational story.

Pupils' aim:

To obtain information that will aid them in doing seatwork project on "Needs of Man."

Previous experience:

None with this story. Book has been used by children this week only.

Procedure:

Children read story silently, then discuss the content. Pick out main points of information, to be written on blackboard by teacher.

Follow-up work:

Silent reading seatwork. Other stories in same book to help with this seatwork.

III. GRADE 5-A ROOM 305 TIME 2:20 MISS CONNOR

Reading of poem: "The Wind and the Moon," Elson Reader Book V, p. 77.

Teacher's aim:

Improvement of oral reading.

Children's aim:

Enjoyment of humorous poem
Reading to an audience.

Previous experience:

Similar work with other poems.

Procedure:

1. Introduction of poem
2. Silent reading of poem
3. Discussion of content of poem
4. Reading of poem by groups of pupils
5. Suggestions for improvement of reading by class
6. Rereading.

Assignment:

Oral reading at home in preparation for oral reading in class the next day.

The type of lessons demonstrated may be illustrated by the following examples:

Grades 1-3:

Reading to train in word recognition
Reading for comprehension
Reading to increase rate
Reading for pure enjoyment
Oral reading for appreciation.

Grades 4-6:

Reading for information
Special training in the reading in content subjects
Reading for literary appreciation
Oral reading to impart information
Oral reading for appreciation.

The teachers strove to exemplify an ideal teaching and learning situation, i. e. the maximum interest and activity on the part of the children under the guiding control of the teacher. It was surprising how readily the children forgot the presence of twenty-five or thirty visitors and focussed their attention upon the lesson. Attaining this attitude on the part of the children was doubtless facilitated by the fine social background of the typically American middle-class community in which the Dixon School is located. However, teachers attempting similar work in schools located in foreign neighborhoods have reported that they can create a similar atmosphere without great difficulty.

What are the results?—The effects of this undertaking upon the Dixon School, and upon the visiting teachers, are difficult to measure. Doubtless the demonstration teachers were stimulated by the many new contacts and experiences made in the course of the semester. They planned and executed lessons with greater care and thought, tried out new devices and methods, and strove to perfect their teaching technic. An inquiry blank, circulated among the demonstration teachers, gave the results shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2—REPLIES OF DEMONSTRATION TEACHERS TO QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Has the experience of demonstration stimulated your interest in improving your teaching of reading?
Yes__11 No__2 No answer__1
2. Has it helped to improve your teaching of reading?
Yes__11 No__2 No answer__1
3. How has the demonstration work affected your general classroom work?
Favorably__5 Adversely__2 Not at all__6 No answer__1
4. How has the demonstration work affected your health?
Adversely__8 Not at all__4 No answer__2
5. How has the demonstration work affected the progress in reading of the children of your class?
Favorably__9 Adversely__0 Not at all__4 No answer__1
6. Have your attending demonstrations given by other teachers of the Dixon School helped you in your teaching?
Yes__11 No__3
7. Do you believe that visiting demonstrations in other schools would help you in your teaching?
Yes__11 No__2 No answer__1
8. Have the conferences after demonstrations been of constructive value to you?
Yes__4 No__9 No answer__1
9. Additional remarks:
Three answers were received.
 1. Request for extra compensation for this extra service.
 2. Request for higher degree of specialization in demonstrations.
 3. Children receive same instruction irrespective of demonstrations.

Question 4 in Table 2 shows that the demonstrations affected the health of eight teachers out of fourteen. The writer's own observation led him to expect a larger number of teachers reporting adversely on this question. The adverse vote on the value of the conference held after demonstrations (Question 8) is probably due to a natural reluctance of teachers to have their lessons discussed and commented upon in public.

The principals who visited or sent teachers to the demonstrations were asked to give their reactions to the program. The replies to this inquiry are shown in Table 3.

Eighty-three out of eighty-nine principals responded to the inquiry as shown in Table 3. They seem to agree with a fair degree of unanimity that demonstrations of the type presented contribute to the improvement of instruction in reading and to stimulate the teachers' interest therein. Almost fifty percent of the principals report-

TABLE 3—REACTIONS OF PRINCIPALS TO THE DEMONSTRATION LESSONS

QUESTIONS	Yes	No	No Answer	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I. Principals who attended a demonstration lesson.				
1. Do you believe the lesson contributed to the improvement of instruction?	74	0	9	83
2. Please suggest improvements ¹ .				
II. Principals of schools whose teachers attended demonstrations at the Dixon School.				
1. Did attendance at the demonstrations stimulate your teachers to improve their reading teaching? ...	66	0	17	83
2. Was the benefit to the teachers commensurate with the time and effort spent?	60	1	22	83
3. Have you observed any specific cases of teachers applying methods obtained from the demonstrations? ...	41	17	25	83
4. If you answer Question 3 by "yes" please make a brief explanation. ¹				

¹The comments and explanations are given elsewhere in this article.

ing observed specific cases of teachers actually applying or trying out some method or device seen at the demonstration. Nineteen principals sent in statements in response to part I-2 and thirty to part II-4 of the questionnaire. A few of these comments may be of interest to the readers:

I-2. SUGGESTIONS ON HOW TO IMPROVE THE DEMONSTRATIONS. (See Table 3)

Unfavorable Comments

- Present demonstrations with groups of slowest children
- Present only one demonstration in one afternoon
- Furnish checklists to visitors to facilitate discussion
- Demonstrations should be given in different types of schools in the different districts of Chicago
- Socialized recitation unsatisfactory method
- Work good, but nothing new
- Own work equal or superior, no advantage in attending
- More attention should be given to weakest pupils
- Not a natural teaching situation.

Favorable Comments

- Praise of demonstration teachers' efforts
- Praise of organization of the work
- Freedom of children in discussion
- Inspirational and technical value of demonstrations
- Value of free discussion in conference.

II-4. EXPLANATIONS OF HOW TEACHERS APPLIED METHODS SEEN AT DEMONSTRATIONS. (See Table 3)

Help to experienced teachers in observing new methods.....	6
Teachers gave demonstration of type of work observed.....	5
Improving motivation	5
Increasing amount of free reading and library reading.....	5
Teaching new words thru context in grade 1.....	3
Improving lesson planning	2
Increasing amount of reading lessons in content subject.....	2
Use of table of contents.....	2
Chart work in grade 1.....	2
Use of homemade lantern slides for testing in primary grades.....	2
Talks to faculty on work observed.....	1
Technic of setting and attaining specific aims.....	1
Improving lesson assignment.....	1
Oral reading of poetry	1
Use of printing set in primary grades.....	1
Use of dictionaries	1
Use of socialized recitation.....	1
Use of bulletin board.....	1

The teachers who visited the demonstrations were asked to answer several questions and to make suggestions.¹ The results of this inquiry are summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 4—TEACHERS' EVALUATIONS OF THE DEMONSTRATION LESSONS

QUESTIONS	Yes	No	No Answer	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Did the demonstration offer you any helpful suggestions for your teaching of reading?.....	180	13	5	198
2. If so, was the benefit commensurate with the time and effort spent?.....	171	15	12	198
3. Have you tried out in your classroom any method or device observed at the demonstration?.....	149	31	18	198
4. If so, make a brief explanation. ¹				
5. Please suggest how the demonstrations could be made more helpful to visitors. ¹				

¹Some of the explanations and suggestions are given elsewhere in this article.

Table 4 shows that out of 278 questionnaires to teachers 198 or 72 percent were returned. About 7 percent of the teachers replying to the inquiry did not feel that they received any helpful suggestions, and 15.6 percent thought that whatever benefit was derived was not commensurate with the amount of time and effort spent. Seventy-five percent observed some device or method that was worth trying

out or adopting. One hundred and fifty teachers offered comments or suggestions in answer to parts 4 and 5 of the questionnaire. Some of the more frequent or suggestive comments of the teachers are given below:

TEACHERS' COMMENTS AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Adverse:	
Nothing new	2
Too many frills	2
Demonstration class too small	2
Over motivated	1
Exaggerated perfection	1
B. Favorable:	
Inspirational; helpful	9
Appreciation of spirit of Dixon teachers	7
Appreciation of work done	6
Interest shown by children	5
Socialized recitation	3
Interesting drills in teaching new words	2
Unit mastery	1
Conference after demonstration	1
C. Improvements suggested:	
Give demonstration in word recognition, word and phrase drills	8
Give demonstration in oral reading	5
Give demonstration in "C" groups	3
Have every child in class recite	2
More central location of demonstration school	1
Spread demonstration schools over many different types of schools ..	1
Omit conference	1
Give demonstration in remedial work	1

The following devices or methods observed in demonstrations were tried out by teachers according to responses point 4 in Table 4.

METHODS TRIED BY TEACHERS AFTER DEMONSTRATIONS

A. General methods:	
Motivation and approach to new lesson	9
Socialized recitation	8
More careful lesson planning	5
Free library reading	4
Word recognition	3
Dramatization	3
Assignment; follow-up work	3
B. Specific devices:	
Use of lantern; homemade slides	16
Proposing thought provoking questions to motivate silent reading and to test comprehension	14
Word recognition, drill, etc., devices	6
Use of table of contents	5
Seatwork	4
Bulletin board	3
Picture study preceding reading lesson	2
Use of dictionary	2
Use of kindergarten chairs in grades 1 and 2	1

C. Special types of lessons:

Outlining	17
Reading of arithmetic lessons	11
Poetry reading, silent reading for comprehension followed by oral reading for appreciation and expression.....	10
Oral reading to answer questions by other pupils or to prove a point in the discussion	6
Oral reading with special attention to creating an audience situation..	5

D. Other activities:

Teaching lessons similar to those observed.....	14
Demonstrations similar to those seen	4

Conclusions—From his own observations, the writer has come to the following conclusions:

(1) Teaching lessons before a group of teachers is a valuable experience to the demonstration teacher.

(2) Observing such lessons, discussing merits and suggesting improvements is an excellent way of receiving new suggestions and of improving teaching.

(3) Satisfactory demonstration lessons can be prepared and presented by almost any good teacher with benefit to herself and to her audience.

(4) It is better to place demonstrations in a large number of schools, rather than concentrating them in one demonstration school.

(5) If a demonstration school is organized, additional compensation must be offered for the additional service in order to attract the best teachers of the system. It is better to make his work a part of the teachers' regular assignment rather than a generous gift to the school system.

SINCE the conferences were on the children they were entirely objective; there was no feeling on the part of the teacher that there was personal criticism of her work. There was, instead, a feeling of a common, goal and educational problem to be solved to the best of our ability. Many invitations to visit the classroom were issued by the teachers as a direct result of these conferences.—Robert B. Abbott, Chapter V.

STENOGRAPHIC REPORTS OF LESSONS

CLAUDE L. WILLIAMS

Principal, Hookway School, Chicago, Illinois

IN THE FALL of 1929 a series of stenographic reports of lessons was obtained at the Hookway School for the purpose of illustrating "experience reading" in the first grade. The results were published in the *Chicago Schools Journal*.¹ Many favorable comments have been received from various sources on this means of demonstrating lessons procedure. Teachers have indicated that the article has been of service to them in developing a technic for first grade reading and English instruction.

With the idea of extending this experiment, an attempt was made to secure by means of stenographic reports a cross section view of reading from first to sixth grades. A good stenographer from the office of district superintendent made possible the realization of the plan.² This article will evaluate some phases of the work in its supervisory aspects. Sections of the stenographic reports are introduced and discussed from the viewpoint of the principal's supervisory functions.³

In order to help the teachers feel at ease over the experiment, they were told to select their own time and convenience for their lessons. With this freedom the teachers were able to prepare for the lessons and thus to do themselves full justice. They were also told that they might have a second demonstration in case they were not satisfied with the first lesson.

A fourth grade lesson in English—The first case is that of a fourth grade teacher,⁴ who wanted to experiment with (1) ways of introducing new words to the class, (2) helping the children to make outlines of the reading lesson, and (3) obtaining oral compositions that gave evidence of sentence sense and freedom from grammatical errors.

After the stenographer had written up the lesson the teacher and principal met for conference with the verbatim report before them. Frank discussion of the result ensued. The teacher showed a sincere desire for suggestions on how to improve the lesson procedure.

For the first part of the lesson the teacher introduced the new words into a summary of the story, sufficiently full to place the words in good contextual setting, without spoiling the story that was to be read

¹Swartzell, Marjorie and Williams, Claude L. "Experience Reading." *Chicago Schools Journal*, March 1930. p. 283-88.

²The writer acknowledges the splendid support of William Hedges, Assistant Superintendent of schools.

³An addition to the procedure as discussed herein would be a careful stop-watch record. By this means one could determine the relative amount of time given to questions, to study, and to the assignment.

⁴Lesson presented by Helen Lind, Hookway School.

later. As she talked she wrote the new words on the board. The italic words in the following narrative show the new elements.

Teacher: This story is going to tell you about Polly's trip West to Ohio. Polly Curtis' parents grew tired of the quiet life of their good old *Connecticut town*, and decided to go West. Connecticut is a state in the northeastern part of the United States. This is part of a group of states called the New England states. They went to a *settlement* in Ohio. A settlement is a colony newly settled by settlers or colonists. Although Ohio is east of the Mississippi, this was a long journey in the early days. The *oxen* were hitched to a wagon. The oxen were tied to a wagon. Oxen are slow clumsy animals and are able to travel *over rough land*. A *brisk fire* and the good things to eat made camping by the roadside a *delight* or a *joy* to Polly. A brisk fire means one that is burning freely.

Dandy, Polly's shepherd dog, met his first *porcupine*. This is a gnawing animal covered with spines, or perhaps you have said needles. It belongs to the family of rats, mice, and squirrels. At another camp Dandy and Polly saw a *woodchuck* village. The woodchuck is a small animal, *grizzly* grey in color. The *Marshal* or Superintendent, the leader of the village, poked his head out of the house and then another, perhaps the Mayor, looked out. After looking around both *scuttled* or hurried into their holes. On the way Mr. Curtis killed a deer and they had *venison*, deer's flesh, for dinner. At last they came to the settlement or colony near Big Walnut River.

Did you see as many things on your journey as Polly did on her way to Ohio? I think I will let you find out for yourself. As you read the story try to remember the new words introduced to you in the brief account of the story. Before you read this story read the list of five questions on the board, then read your story and find the answers. If you need to read the story twice you may do so. Open your books to Page 99. You might read these outlines also before you start reading your story.

The following five questions were then exposed to the pupils and they read with the idea of securing the answers.

1. Would you have enjoyed being with Polly? Why?
2. If you were making the trip now, how would you travel?
3. Why did Mr. Curtis go by ox train?
4. Why do you think Polly was glad to have Dandy and her doll along?
5. What would you have taken?

After the period of silent reading, the teacher called on various ones to read aloud selections which they wished to use to prove that Polly had a good time on her trip. Before each one read a selection, he announced the page and location of paragraph on the page. Two passages were read, the teacher gave approval of their selections, and then asked for the second and third questions.

In connection with the third question, a boy who is a problem case in reading showed how he had perused only the decorative picture in the book instead of the text. The class discussion below shows how the teacher was able to meet the situation:

Teacher: Answer the third question, Raymond.

Raymond: Mr. Curtis went by ox team because there wasn't any automobiles, trains or aeroplanes.

Douglas: He did not want to take an aeroplane.

Teacher: Were there aeroplanes in those days?

Douglas: Yes, it shows one in the picture.

Teacher: That picture shows travel in the early days as compared to modern travel today. The picture is really a poster. Answer question four, Agnes.

Following the answering of the questions, pupils were told to consider the outline of the story as it appeared on the board, and to be prepared to give a short oral theme in one of the divisions. The six short themes were considered by the teacher and the principal later in reference to sequence, sentence structure, freedom from grammatical error, and general interest. Samples of these are here introduced:

Teacher: I think you have had enough time to think over your story, Joan.

The Woodchuck Village

Joan: As Polly and Dandy were walking through the forest they were going to make some houses but Dandy had already found some woodchuck houses. Polly saw the mayor and marshal peek out of the house. She wanted Dandy to see because Dandy's eyes were closed. She shook Dandy and he looked at the mayor and marshal. He thought to himself that they were one of the prickly porcupines that had thrown a spear at him. With one look he dashed at them and the mayor and marshal dashed into their holes.

Teacher: Joan gave just one part of her story. Her story was "On the Way" and she should have given us five sentences.

On the Way

Betty: The first few days out Polly was very lonesome. She missed her friends at home very much. At night when they went to bed they took out the feather bed and put it under the wagon. One day Dandy met a porcupine and after a few moments he found that he was very prickly. That night they were playing in the sand when they found the woodchuck village and Dandy saw some of the woodchucks and thought they were porcupines. He jumped towards them but he ran back in their holes. The next day Mr. Curtis shot a deer so Polly's traveling was over for that day.

Teacher: Betty, you should have said "they ran back into their holes," instead of "he ran back in their holes."

The Start West

Violet: Over 100 years ago Mr. and Mrs. Curtis decided to go West to Ohio, for they were tired of their lonely Connecticut town. They were starting to get ready for their trip. Polly and her mother brought the arm chairs and the feather bed out into the wagon. Polly brought her doll, Jane, out too. The oxen pulled the covered wagon.

The Start West

Gladys: Over 100 years ago there was a family named Curtis. They got tired of their Connecticut home and wanted to go West to Ohio. They got ready for the trip. Polly and her mother carried the rocking chair and Polly's doll, Jane, and the feather bed out into the wagon. They were going on a trip in the covered wagon with some oxens pulling it.

During the progress of the lesson twenty pupils took part in the discussion. The teacher had the gratification of knowing that she had kept her goals well in mind, and that she had accomplished her objectives, namely, interest in reading, mastery of words, general class participation, introduction to outlining, and very excellent fourth grade compositions. Her ability to draw the interest of the poorer pupil was shown in the case of the problem boy who chimed

in with his mistaken conclusion resulting from the "reading of the picture."

A fifth grade lesson—The next lesson for comment will be one from the fifth grade in which the teacher¹ employs the socialized recitation for reading. This type of recitation has its strong advocates; it also has severe critics. It is certainly easy to find flaws and weaknesses in the socialized procedure, and it proved of interest to get a record of how this teacher had used the method.

Five questions were placed on the board before the opening of the lesson. These questions were used as the beginning of the discussion after the reading and after a pupil had been called to the teacher's chair to preside. The teacher had taken position inconspicuously at the side of the room, ready to be of service in case the lesson should drag or run off on a tangent. In the introduction to the lesson the teacher called attention to their study in geography of the steel industry and told them that they were to read a story about steel. She also recalled that the class had been reading about the unit "cooperation"² and that this story in their reader would be along the same line of thought.

The conversation which brought out the concept that the children had of cooperation follows:

Teacher: Who can explain what cooperation means? Bertram.

(Bertram explains meaning)

Teacher: Bertram explained the meaning according to the story we read Monday. Who can explain what it means in another way—for all cases? Warren.

Warren: When people work together, they help one another in things.

Teacher: Can you give any other explanation of cooperation?

June: On Saturdays my mother, sister, and I clean up the house. We help each other.

Teacher: Yes, you mean you work together.

Read the story and find any examples of cooperation.

(Class read the story silently).

Teacher: Close your books. Edna take charge of the class.

In the general class procedure that followed with the pupil presiding and the teacher assisting, this conversation took place:

(Edna sits in front of the room facing the class and acts in the capacity of teacher.)

Edna: Nora, may answer the first question.

Nora: "Why did Father Bear spare Nils?"

Father Bear spared Nils because when Father Bear was in danger of being killed by the man Nils told him to be careful and Father Bear wanted to repay him by setting him free.

Teacher: You misunderstood the question. What happened at the beginning of this story?

Nora: He wanted Nils to burn the steel mills.

Teacher: Don't you know by that why Father Bear spared Nils?

¹Presented by Ella M. Johnson, Hookway School.

²See *Third Yearbook*, Chicago Principal's Club. 1928. p. 25.

Nora: Yes, because Nils knew that so many things were made out of steel and didn't want to burn them down and Father Bear thought he was kind.

Edna: Why did Father Bear want Nils to burn down the steel mills?

Nora: Because it was so noisy.

Teacher: That was not in this question.

Eileen: What did Nils tell the bear when the bear was about to eat him when he found he had made up his mind not to burn the steel mills?

(*Nora does not answer*)

Teacher: What happened to Nils in the beginning of the story?

Nora: He was in the bear's hole and when the bear came in he was going to eat him but Nils lit a match and the bear was glad to see it and he wanted him to burn the steel mills.

Teacher: Is that why Father Bear spared him, then?

Nora: Yes.

Teacher: You give me the answer, Donald.

Donald: He was going to spare Nils if he burned down the steel mills.

Teacher: Yes, Nils was going to be spared if he burned down the steel mills.

The concluding question of the series given by the teacher was, "In what way is cooperation shown in this story?" The stenographic report throws light on how the unit teaching functioned. It also shows how essential it is in the socialized recitation for the teacher to follow the discussion very closely and to prevent the pupil-teacher from going astray. Edna, the presiding pupil, asked the question and started the discussion, but later the teacher found it necessary to lend a hand. The teacher's concluding sentence showed her own belief that the teacher must take a hand. The class themselves were made to realize that cooperation was the big objective of the lesson. The class procedure was as follows:

Edna: June, answer the fifth question.

June: I think there is cooperation in the story because the workmen all work together in the factory and help other people.

Donald: Does that mean that Nils was working with the workmen?

June: Nils was not working with the workmen.

Donald: Then that is not so important. Nils was the most important in the story.

Teacher: Did Nils work with them?

June: I don't think he did.

James: I think he did work with the workmen. He was thinking what he should do, if he saved the men's lives. That is working with them.

Teacher: Does everyone think so?

Class: Yes.

Teacher: Yes, he was working with the men, if he saved their lives. Was June's example of cooperation good?

Class: Yes.

Teacher: Did you find any other examples of cooperation?

Margaret: The bear and Nils worked together because he helped the bear to get away.

Teacher: Yes, there was quite a bit of cooperation. When you started to read the story did you think you would find much cooperation?

Class: No.

Teacher: No. I don't think you thought much about cooperation. If I hadn't asked my fifth question, you wouldn't have thought of cooperation, would you?

Class: No.

In the conference with the teacher after the lesson, an attempt to evaluate the socialized recitation was made. The teacher saw the faults of many parrot-like answers. She realized that the teacher-pupil is in danger of calling too much on either the brightest pupils or the poorest ones. A good point of the recitation was that more than half the class of 46 were represented in the discussion. Additional points might be made to show how the stenographic reports catch the intangible elements of the socialized recitation so that teacher and principal may analyze the method.

A sixth grade lesson—Reading in the content subjects had made up much of our reading work in the sixth grade. One of the teachers¹ has developed an interesting procedure for her geography that seems very effective. The first step is to make a preview of the country from a wall map. Such physical features as mountains, lakes, rivers, table lands, and sea coast are considered. The pupils then predict the products, industries, climate, and other characteristics of the country as indicated by the map. A part of her introduction to the study of Poland appears below and indicates clearly her success with this sort of procedure.

Teacher: We are going to study about a new country. This is the name of the country. (Teacher writes the name Poland on the board) This is what we call the people who live in that country. (Teacher writes the name Polish on the board) Take out your book and find page 8. Opposite page 8 look at the map. Find Poland on the map. Put your finger on it. Look at it carefully. Do you think Poland has a better or a poorer location than Germany? Roberta.

Roberta: It seems poorer because it hasn't got such a large sea coast.

Teacher: All right. Anyone else; is that the only reason?

Robert: That's the only place where the ships from other countries can get through.

Teacher: That's the same. Give me another reason.

Jack: It is too far away from the Atlantic Ocean.

Teacher: Now look at Poland again. You can find out a lot by looking at it on the map. What do you find about the surface from looking at the map? Is it level?

Harry: In some places.

Teacher: Look again, has it any high land at all?

Donald: It has high land in the Southern part.

Teacher: What is the name of those mountains?

Donald: Carpathian Mountains.

Teacher: Has Poland good boundaries? See all the nearby countries. Do you think Poland has good boundaries?

Harry: Hardly any natural boundaries.

Teacher: Which part of Poland has the best boundary?

Alfred: The Southern part has the best boundaries.

Teacher: Yes,—all right. Name the countries that touch Poland.

Phyllis: Lithuania, Russia, Rumania, Czechoslovakia and Germany.

Teacher: Is that all? Someone disagrees.

Robert: East Prussia.

¹Presented by Elizabeth M. Fogarty, Hookway School.

After the preliminary discussion the teacher takes up the second part of her work which is to have the children read to confirm or refute the hypotheses that they have set up by looking at the map. The following is an excerpt showing how it worked out in the case of the study of Poland.

Teacher: We have a number of good ideas; Jack's statement was good. He said he lived near the steel mills and that the people who worked there were Polish and he thought they did that work in their country. Some said farming was good because of the level country, and it is near the sugar belt. The only way is to read and find out. Go ahead and read. These questions will help you with your reading. (Teacher has the following questions written on the board. The children write the answers on a piece of paper while studying from the book. The teacher supervises and gives assistance where necessary).

1. What is the chief occupation of the Polish people?
2. In what ways is farming in Poland like farming in Germany?
3. Why are there better farms in Western Poland than in Eastern Poland?
4. What is the "Polish Corridor"? Why is it important?
5. Prepare questions of your own.

Teacher: Put your work aside whether you have finished or not and we will have our discussion and get the information from the discussion. Close your books and sit up nice and straight. Have we settled our question? What is the chief occupation?

Jack: Farming is the chief occupation.

Teacher: Yes, in what ways is farming in Poland like farming in Germany?

Roberta: The people use scientific methods and raise about the same crops.

Edward: The ice sheet at one time covered Germany and Poland and left rocky and sandy soil.

Edsil: They both are great potato growing regions.

Margaret: When the Polish people came to our country, and if they came to Chicago, there is not any farming here for them to do.

Teacher: Let's discuss the third question, Margaret.

Margaret: They have better farming in the Western part than in the Eastern because they use more modern methods and raise more crops.

Teacher: Why do they use more modern methods?

Frances: That land used to belong to Germany and the German people took great pains with their work.

Harry: The Eastern part used to belong to Russia and they have poor soil.

Teacher: That's true, anything else?

John: In the Western part when it belonged to Germany they took great care of it and the Polish learned how to take care of it from them and had better farms.

Teacher: Let's discuss the fourth question. Some people were not able to find that.

Geraldine: The Polish Corridor is a small strip of land that connects parts of Poland to the sea coast and is the only sea coast that Poland has.

Teacher: What is a corridor, another word for it?

Robert: Like in a hall.

Teacher: Yes, we have a corridor in the school. Does this look like a corridor (pointing to the "Polish Corridor" on the map).

Class: Yes.

Teacher: Why is this such an important place?

Billy: Important for the Polish because they haven't any other way to get in or out to the sea.

Earle: If the Polish people did not have that, they would have to pay to get through Germany to get to the sea coast.

Teacher: Yes. Have you some questions of your own? We want some good questions.

Ruth: What are some of the chief crops the Polish people raise on their farms?

Irene: Oats, wheat, barley, sugar beets.

Teacher: Is that all? She forgot one of the most important.

Margaret: Potatoes and rye.

Teacher: Yes, that's important because Poland ranks second to Germany in the production of potatoes. Germany is first and Poland is next. We ought to remember that. Another question.

Phyllis: How much land is occupied by farms in Poland?

Earle: About one-half is occupied by farms.

Phyllis: How many people on the farms?

Howard: One-fifth.

Phyllis: No.

Helen: About one-half.

The third large division of the lesson is the board summary made by various pupils. The writer would call attention to the economy of time here, for while these pupils are putting summaries on the board others carry on the discussion in a very thoughtful manner.

Teacher: Think carefully. What are the important points about Poland? What did we learn in today's lesson about Poland that you think is worth remembering. Could you sum up in two or three sentences what would give a summary of what we have learned? All right, Geraldine, take a piece of chalk, go to the board and write your sentences. Harry you try it, Ruth, and Phyllis. I think that is all we have room for. Just go ahead and do your best. Whatever you think would be a good summary.

While those children are doing their summary work, the rest look this way. How has Poland changed since the World War? What changes have been made in that country?

Irene: Before the war Poland belonged to Germany, Russia, and some other country.

Teacher: What other country?

Earle: Czechoslovakia.

Edsil: And Austria. After the war Germany lost some of its land and so did Russia.

Margaret: Poland got its freedom.

Earle: Before the war Germany was larger than France, now France is larger than Germany.

Teacher: Yes.

Robert: I brought a map showing the country before the war, it shows how big Germany, Austria and Russia were. There was no Poland, it was Russia.

Teacher: That is very interesting. I will put it up on the board. Let's look at the summaries on the board and pick out the one you think is the best. Which one gives the best summary? Which do you think is the best, Margaret?

Margaret: I think Phyllis' is.

Teacher: How many think Phyllis' is the best? How many like another one? Most agree that Phyllis' is very good. What other do you like?

Edwin: Harry's.

Teacher: Yes, that is very good. Both of those people have very good summaries. They have covered everything we had in our lesson. How could Ruth improve her summary?

John: She could tell the chief occupation of the Polish people and what the Polish Corridor was.

Teacher: Yes, instead of making the statement, we learned about those things, tell what they were. Put your books away now.

(The following are the two summaries which were written on the board by Phyllis and Harry).

1. Farming is very important in Poland.
2. There is a narrow strip of land which separates Germany from Poland and empties out into the Baltic Sea, this is called the Polish Corridor.
3. Farming is more important in the Western part than in the Eastern part. This is because they use modern methods.

Poland ranks second in producing potatoes, only Germany raises more potatoes than Poland. Western Poland is more fertile than Eastern Poland. At one time Poland was divided between Russia and Germany. Since the World War it recovered its freedom.

Outstanding features of the above lesson are full class participation, well ordered procedure, thoughtful reasoning, and a summary at the end which serves to clinch the points emphasized.

Summary—The values of the stenographic reports as a supervisory device are as follows:

1. There is a record of details and a fidelity to facts that often are lost when the supervisor depends on his memory after a visit to a teacher.
2. The method is particularly good in showing whether the large patterns or divisions of the lesson are realized by the teacher.
3. It gives in permanent form for the help of other teachers the good points of lesson procedure as developed by outstanding teachers.
4. It encourages teachers to plan more carefully and to do their best work.
5. It gives the teacher a good chance to observe her English and to check on her mannerisms of expression. It was interesting, e. g., to note how commonly the teachers gave their approval by using the phrase, "All right."

The limitations are evident. It is only a supplementary device to the ordinary class visits of the principal. It is impersonal, which has its good as well as its weak phases.

The first requisite to success is the teacher's confidence and sympathy. The second factor is a good stenographer who is reliable in every respect. Finally, the teacher and the principal should examine the stenographic reports and agree upon a cooperative program of improvement.

THE 1932 yearbook is to treat the principal and his community. Send in your article to the Editorial Committee by November 1, 1931.

PRACTICAL AND SPECIFIC TEACHER AID

NETTIE BONNER

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SUPERVISION by the principal of the building is a comparatively new field. Yet, we hail it as a means of keeping our feet on the ground in this educational whirl. The principal alone can pick up the "loose ends" of a building's instruction and tie them together so that a spirit of unity prevails. Effective supervision brings results through the discovery and the study of the practical problems of teaching. The following discussion sets forth three practical projects that proved worthwhile in one school.

The new and inexperienced teacher—The head of the school was a teaching principal who spent six hours a day in her own classroom. Since such a program made it difficult to supervise, a cadet teacher was appointed to relieve the principal of part of her duties. This new teacher, although she had had three years of college work, could not be regularly employed in the system because she lacked teaching experience. She was assigned to teach five 30 minute periods, to do clerical work for two periods, and to observe other teachers for three periods a day. Her activities had two immediate results: (1) the older teachers of the building became alert to help the newcomer fit in, and (2) the principal learned how to supervise by supervising.

The outcome of the program was satisfying. At the end of the second six weeks of the term Miss Cadet, as we shall call the new teacher, gave her fourth grade English class a final objective examination. The principal, while teaching the previous semester, had used the same test at the end of the term. When comparisons were made it was found that Miss Cadet's class equaled the principal's class in A's and C's, and surpassed in B's and D's. Assuming that the two classes were comparable (the facts at hand indicated similar class conditions) then Miss Cadet's class had achieved in 12 weeks what the principal's class had taken 18 weeks to do.

Realizing that part of the difference might have been due to the difficulties under which the principal had taught, we tried a more reliable test of Miss Cadet's efficiency. We selected a class in another building which was equal, according to subjective judgment, to Miss Cadet's class in home environment, opportunities, and personal ambition. This second group shall be referred to as Miss Story's class. The two classes of 45 pupils each were given the *Haggerty Intelligence Test, Delta II*, followed by the *New Stanford Language Usage Test*. The results are shown in Table 1.

Miss Story has taught in the system six years and is rated as "above average" in the subjective judgment of her principal. Table 1 in-

dicates that Miss Cadet has fitted into the teaching as far as subject-matter is concerned. Her other qualities can only be measured subjectively as follows: discipline problems, few; routine work, good; class activity in projects, exceptionally good.

TABLE 1—COMPARISON BETWEEN MISS CADET'S CLASS AND MISS STORY'S CLASS IN INTELLIGENCE AND ACHIEVEMENT

Teacher	Intelligence Test		Achievement Test	
	Range	Median	Range	Median
Miss Cadet -----	35-132	68	20-108	70
Miss Story -----	30-113	64	20-105	55

Of course, Miss Cadet had the qualities of a good teacher to begin with. Without supervision, however, she might have justified the board of education's caution in requiring two years' experience for admission to the system. On the basis of the above tests she is on the regular payroll for next year, and is considered a full-fledged teacher. The principal followed every visit to Miss Cadet's room by a conference. Lesson plans for the next day's work were discussed every afternoon. Clearly defined objectives were always in the foreground of the plans. Miss Cadet and the principal vied with each other in finding activities for the classes. Miss Cadet not only met the requirements of two years experience in four and one half months, but the principal was promoted from a half-time "trial" supervisor to a full supervising principalship.

Making teacher's mark more reliable—The principal discovered that the low standards for grading of one teacher were bringing severe criticisms of the marks of all of the teachers. Further study showed a teacher thoughtlessly giving 50 percent of her pupils A's. While we must admit that school marks are a necessary evil, as long as we have them, there must be some sort of uniform basis of grading. Certainly no fixed standard is desirable, but in an elementary school an extremely low standard of grading by one teacher and an extremely high standard by another teacher is most undesirable.

The principal asked each teacher to send a report of her grades. From these reports a number of comparisons were made. Table 2 illustrates the type of table which was made to show how the marks varied from one semester to the next. In most instances the teacher was marking the same group of children. However, in Table 2 the high first class of the fall had a different teacher in the spring term.

Table 2 shows a wide variance in the accomplishment of the children. It is hard to explain why a group of children in the high first grade would change from 40 percent B's and 60 percent C's in reading to 11 percent A's, 11 percent B's and 44.4 percent C's in the low second grade. It is still harder to explain why the high second

class fell from 55 percent A's to 35 percent A's in the low third grade. This change is particularly hard to explain since it is the same teacher and the same group of children. Other inconsistencies can be pointed out in Table 2 which are not only hard to explain to teachers, but are absolute mysteries to the parents.

Table 2 certainly shows the inconsistent use of the old-fashioned letter grading system. However, this school system and, perhaps, a majority of the schools in the country still cling to some form of letter marking. No doubt, letter marking will be used in many schools for some years to come. If a "hit and miss" process is to be avoided, the whole program must be effectively supervised. Even when letter marks give way to each broader terms as "satisfactory" and "unsatisfactory" there will be greater demand for close supervision. No system of grading can be satisfactory and consistent without constant guidance.

TABLE 2—PERCENT OF EACH CLASS RECEIVING VARIOUS MARKS IN THE FIRST AND SECOND SEMESTER READING

Class	Time of Year	PERCENTS OF CLASS RECEIVING					Total Percent
		A's	B's	C's	D's	E's	
Low to.....	Fall.....	30.7	41.1	15.3	2.5	10.2	100
High First.....	Spring.....	12.3	60.4	25.0	2.3	0	100
High First.....	Fall.....	0	40.0	60.0	0	0	100
to Low Second..	Spring*.....	11.1	11.1	44.4	33.4	0	100
Low to.....	Fall.....	27.5	48.2	19.5	0	4.8	100
High Second....	Spring.....	25.6	46.2	28.2	0	0	100
High Second....	Fall.....	55.0	25.0	15.0	5.0	0	100
to Low Third...	Spring.....	35.0	25.0	40.0	0	0	100
Low to.....	Fall.....	25.0	52.5	22.5	0	0	100
High Third.....	Spring.....	24.4	48.7	21.9	5.0	0	100

Read table thus: The low first class in the fall had 30.7 percent, A's; 41.1 percent, B's; 15.3 percent, C's; and so forth. The same pupils with the same teacher in the High First had 12.3 percent, A's; 60.4 percent, B's; and so forth.

*The high first in the fall had a new teacher when it became the low second in the spring.

Correlating a departmental program—Supervision will help overcome the mechanical part of departmental teaching. In our departmental plan the teachers move from room to room for 30 minute periods. If a child makes no unusual response while a teacher is in the room, she is not particularly alarmed, but if a child sits through one class after another without making any response, the situation is alarming. The principal sent the following report to the teachers after spending the day in a single classroom with the same group of children.

It was my privilege to spend about 90 percent of the day, yesterday with the Low Sixth grade. These are some of my observations:

1. There was not one discipline problem.
2. Pupils adjusted themselves easily to changes in teachers and subject.
3. There was an unusual degree of courtesy on part of both teachers and pupils to visitor.
4. A number of pupils asked the teacher to allow them to remain after school to work on their art project.
5. Teachers were alert: their voices were pleasing.
6. The "drudgery element" did not appear during the entire day.
7. There was a general spirit of good-will in the classroom.
8. The meaning of the bell signal was recognized to a fair degree.
9. *Twenty-one pupils made no verbal contribution to the work of the class during the entire day.*

Point (9) above does not apply to concert singing in music. Also, a few of the non-participating pupils may have read during reading class, but they had no part in discussions. Not more than a third of the pupils were sharing class responsibility. Among the "silent" group were a number of summer school promotions and new pupils.

Questions:

1. Are we making the most of our opportunities?
2. Do we have clear cut objectives? Are we "driving them home"?

There were 40 pupils in the class, and for a whole day 21 of them failed to make any voluntary contribution to the day's work. Not a teacher on the circuit realized that even one child sat "mum" for an entire day, to say little of 21 children. To make the situation worse, the teachers had been requested to give particular attention to summer school promotions and to new pupils.

Three weeks later the principal visited the same class again, and the following report was given:

I spent the day Monday with the Low Sixth Grade. Here are some of my observations:

1. The principal was greeted with an enthusiastic welcome by the teacher and by the children.
2. At least 50 percent of every class made individual, voluntary contribution to the recitation.
3. In the drawing and music classes, every member of the class took part in class discussion.
4. In the music class, there were 54 recitations.
5. In every recitation there was evidence of a well-prepared lesson plan.
6. At the end of one activity, a boy said, "I like that; let's do it again." It is interesting to note that this activity was a means of getting over an idea that had been presented to the class several times.
7. Six pupils asked permission to stay after school hours to finish English and art projects.
8. One teacher secured the cooperation of the whole class by commending the pupils who were working rather than condemning the pupils who were listless.
9. In one class a visitor came in. The teacher nodded "good morning"; a child seated her and explained what was going on; the class proceeded as though she weren't there.

Comments:

1. Every teacher is "putting her shoulder to the wheel" in connecting the chain of activities in the department.

2. It is pleasing that things move along in normal channels even though visitors are present.

3. Our victory is not yet won. Every child should contribute something to every lesson.

The first class situation above creates "repeaters". It makes drudgery out of what should be a happy school day. It shows up the inconsistencies of a departmental program. Here the job of a principal is a big one. She has to furnish the personal touch to the machine. She must be the connecting link between teachers. Supervision can overcome the disadvantages of the departmental program so that classes may really profit by its advantages.

Summary—A study of the three cases shows results obtained from the launching of a practical program. As a result of Case 1, an extra teacher was added to the faculty so that the principal might be relieved of a full day's teaching duty. Case 2 encouraged a self-rating of teachers that helped them adjust their standards of grading to a consistent plane. Case 3 was an effort to overcome the handicaps of the mechanical procedure of a departmental program. Consecutive visits to the same room showed a decided difference in pupil participation in class activities.

The keynote of the whole program was the establishment of a great degree of confidence between the teacher and the principal. Conferences, often apparently casual conferences, promoted this feeling. The results of the plan prove that the old inspectional type of supervision is a thing of the past. In its place is a new type of helping hand that will bring about a union of forces and a greater spirit of cooperation.

SUPERVISION is chiefly concerned with the improvement of the learning interactions between child, curriculum, and teacher. It is a common practice for principals to improve instruction by influencing the *teacher* directly through such procedures as teachers' meetings and classroom visitation. Why do we not more frequently observe and adjust the *child*? Can we not "improve instruction" by showing pupils how to gain the most from school life?—H. M. Gunn, Chapter V.

CHANGES RESULTING FROM SUPERVISION

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THE LAST few years have witnessed a marked change in the conception which the average person has of the function of supervision, the responsibilities of supervisors, and the attitudes of the supervised. Today principals and teachers think of supervision as a working together on common problems. The problem of the teacher has become the problem of the supervisor. Common problems furnish a common basis for work. No longer does the teacher work for the principal, supervisors, or superintendent, but she does work with them, and upon the problems and projects in which each has a responsibility. The shift has been from a working-for to a working-with, all working for the general welfare of the boys and girls.

Does this mean that teachers welcome supervision? Do all teachers like building meetings? Do all teachers like to learn how to teach more effectively? Do all teachers like personal conferences? To answer all of these questions in the affirmative would be misleading. The answer depends upon the value of the building meetings, the classroom visits, and the personal conferences to each individual teacher. An increasing number of principals carry on their supervisory activities in such ways that teachers receive help, learn how to improve in their work and as a result welcome supervision.

What are the responsibilities and obligations of the good principal? As professional leader of a school what have the teachers a right to expect of him?

Each teacher has a right to expect of the principal:

1. A sympathetic understanding of the teacher as an individual, and as a co-worker in the profession
2. A sympathetic understanding of classroom and community problems
3. Consistency in supervision and administration
4. Professional leadership and insight
5. Sensible praise of work well done and appreciation of special abilities, originality, and initiative
6. Impersonal criticism with worthwhile suggestions for improvement
7. Opportunity to grow in teaching ability and in professional understanding

Important among the factors which bear upon changing attitudes of the teaching personnel is that of analysis of problems, difficulties and successes. There should follow a careful and minute analysis of all the known elements involved in particular problems. It is through careful analysis that the principal can offer help and suggestions in matters of organization, method, individual variations of pupils, discipline, device, and can be ready to make the best use of the personality of the teacher, her abilities and teaching skills.

It is by such means that a definite program of supervision will be undertaken which will aim toward more effective teaching and more satisfying teaching results. Three of the most commonly used means of supervision are: (1) building meetings; (2) classroom visits; (3) conferences.

The building meeting—The following case study was drawn from a situation in a relatively small elementary school. The teachers had become acquainted in a general way with modern tendencies in education through participation in curriculum revision, supervisory programs, various extension courses, and the reading of current educational literature. They were interested in the application of these principles and needed definite, concrete methods for translating them into technics of instruction. This need was shown clearly in the first general meetings where there was a discussion of those basic principles which characterize modern education, including individual differences in children and the importance of teaching them how to think and how to do things. The dynamic personalities of children with the resulting desirability of stimulating their interests were discussed from the viewpoint of leaders in the field of education.

A number of the teachers of this building had taken an active part in the revision of the curriculum in which the city had been engaged over a period of several years. Courses of study had been developed by committees representing teachers, principals, general and special subject supervisors. The major portion of this curriculum material had been developed in the classroom, written into courses of study and distributed among all teachers. It has become a part of the supervisory program to make use of this material as an instrument for the improvement of teaching.

In brief, in this building were teachers, part of whom were traditionally trained, others well trained in modern classroom procedure, all of whom were willing to learn more about modern educational theory and practice. There were at hand excellent courses of study as a result of extended curriculum revision work. There also existed in some teachers a conscious lack of knowledge necessary for the application of more desirable technics of instruction, while at the same time, others were carrying out excellent classroom practices.

It seemed desirable to attack the problem through a series of teachers' meetings devoted to evolving practical methods, the application of which would conform closely to the basic principles already discussed and to the procedures suggested by the courses of study. At these meetings, considerable care was given to the formulation of definite criteria for the evaluation of classroom teaching in terms of these fundamental principles. Criteria were set up which were concerned with general methods of instruction and with various subject-matter fields. At this point general teachers' meetings as an instru-

ment of supervision were discontinued, such meetings having been replaced by special group meetings. Demonstration lessons in arithmetic, spelling, social studies, and language were prepared by especially well qualified teachers of the school and were given after the school day was over.

Teachers were given a choice of attending the demonstrations which more nearly satisfied their own needs. At first there was some hesitancy on the part of teachers to give such lessons, but this feeling largely disappeared when they realized that it was really a distinction to volunteer to make such a contribution. The demonstrations were followed by discussions wherein connections were traced to the basic principles of education and attempts made to evaluate the teaching in the light of the criteria which were formulated in the first general meetings.

The following ends were sought in the demonstration lessons:

1. Train the children in effective study habits
2. Develop in the children desirable social habits
3. Bring about maximum pupil activity pointed toward some definite purpose
4. Conserve the time of teacher and pupils in classroom procedure
5. Provide for pupil individuality and pupil needs
6. Establish a close and friendly relationship between teacher and pupils in the classroom, thus insuring a high degree of cooperation
7. Enable the children to experience satisfaction through successful accomplishment

To accomplish these ends, the group study type of lesson was selected for the demonstrations.

A LESSON IN SOCIAL STUDIES CONDUCTED BY MISS B.

- I. Plan of organization
 - A. Assignment to groups
 - B. Group study and conference period
 - C. Check-up accomplished by individuals, group leaders, and by Miss B. as well as by group reports to the class as a whole.—Summary
- II. Aim
 - A. To find out why one sees so many French names of street signs and cities when touring in Canada
 - B. To discover who were the first Frenchmen to come to America and the reason for their coming
- III. Assignment by groups
 - A. Group—A dialogue between Cartier and the French king to bring out the purpose of the journey
 - B. Group—Drawing of a frieze to depict the various scenes and events in Cartier's exploration of the St. Lawrence River region
 - C. Group—Map of the St. Lawrence River region showing locations mentioned in the story and events connected with Cartier's journey
 - D. Group—A short written description of Cartier's journey such as appears in accounts of the Weekly Reader, etc.
- IV. Development of the lesson
 - A. In order to bring again before the class, the purpose of their research, discussion and activities, Miss B. asked the following questions:

1. "Let us find out again how many of you have been to Canada."
 2. "What did you notice about the highways and street signs there, different from those you see when motoring to places near Springfield?"
 3. "Then what people must have come to Canada from Europe, many years ago?"
- B. Miss B. called for presentation before the class of the completed group activities
- C. Brief general discussion by members of the class
- D. Short report from other groups as to nearness to completion of topics assigned in previous lesson
- E. Summary of lesson in the form of news flashes written on blackboard by different members of the class

This class secured its information through textbooks, various supplementary books, magazines, pictures, maps, etc. Many of the boys and girls had relatives and friends living in Canada and a few had toured Canada during summer vacations. Much direct information was secured through conversations with fathers, mothers, older brothers and sisters, who had in some cases lived in Canada. This information was made available to the various individuals in the groups through conferences, and to the entire class through the group reports and the summary.

At the close of the lesson, the children were dismissed and an informal conference was held with the teachers who had observed the lesson, Miss B. taking part. Many questions were asked, indicating a keen interest on the part of the teachers who had observed the lesson. One teacher asked Miss B. how she managed to have the groups work so quietly together. Miss B. replied that every group had been given a definite piece of work to do, within its powers of accomplishment during a given time; that the subjectmatter itself was interesting and the individual pupils experienced satisfaction in the accomplishment of their tasks; that the absence of disciplinary trouble was one of the real results of such work.

Immediate results of the demonstration lessons were evaluated as follows:

1. The principal secured a more comprehensive knowledge of the course of study
2. The demonstration lessons made possible a definite basis of comparison between them and daily lessons in the classroom
3. Many teachers learned that they were following outlines too closely and making little provision for initiative of pupils
4. Many teachers learned of one definite method of securing a maximum degree of pupil participation with a minimum degree of teacher direction and talking

Having closed the series of special building meetings or demonstration lessons, the principal announced that he would be glad to have other teachers try out this method of classroom teaching in their own rooms and that he would help those teachers who desired to try it, plan their first lessons. Judging from the response to this suggestion and to others, it is believed that a very definite accomplish-

ment in terms of teacher growth has been made by the use of building meetings as an instrument of supervision.

The classroom visit—If the teacher desires and welcomes the classroom visits by the principal, the time that is spent in observing is of inestimable worth to teacher, children, and principal as it affords a means of improving teaching, a means of enriching the learning of the children, and an opportunity to strengthen the skill and understanding of the principal. On the other hand, classroom visitation where a supervisor is not welcome may lessen temporarily the effectiveness of the teaching as frequently it leaves the teacher perturbed and ill at ease. After having had sufficient time to become acquainted with his faculty the good principal generally is a welcome visitor in all the classrooms of his building.

Certain technics of classroom visiting are essential factors of good supervision.

1. The principal enters the classroom in such a way as not to disturb the work already in progress
2. He selects a location of the room where the teacher can see him, preferably at the rear or the side
3. Note taking is often distracting to the teacher, children, and supervisor and he avoids this practice
4. The principal has definite purposes for visiting
5. He is a silent but active participator in the classroom, and if he does speak he remembers that he is a guest in the room

A principal who becomes a co-worker with the teacher in the classroom is helping to establish right relationships and common understandings for the conference that is to follow.

What indexes are there by which the principal may measure the effectiveness of his classroom visits? There are many meaningful evidences that show when there is real achievement resulting from this type of supervision. Some specific evidences of change may illustrate what a principal might hope to achieve in carrying on a definite program of classroom visitation. The following are given:

The teacher had taught two years in a small town school. Here she had carried on her work without any or very little supervision. She had good class control and had come to believe that lack of strong disciplinary measures meant that she was doing effective teaching. She came into a city school system for her third year's work. Once again she had no trouble with discipline and the classroom relationships were good but the children did not learn. This city was experimenting with a new Social Studies Course of Study and this furnished a point of contact between the teacher and the principal. The work in social studies was something to be observed and studied together. In talking over the work with the teacher the principal said he hoped to visit the class very often and together they worked out a list of the things they would observe and study.

1. Study habits of children as shown in preparation and recitation
2. Use of supplementary materials: maps, books, newspapers, and stereographs
3. Use of manual activities to clarify meanings
4. Value of excursions to enrich meanings
5. Test results

All of these placed emphasis upon the observation of the children and left the teacher free to do her work to the best of her ability without feeling that she was being observed.

The principal visited the classroom very frequently always trying to study with the same viewpoints on which they had agreed and at no time did the teacher seem to be embarrassed by his visits. From time to time conferences were held in which the teacher and principal evaluated the learnings of the children.

The following definite results began to show. The children studied with definite purposes. They began to use the indexes of their books. They were able to select pertinent material from their books. They prepared short reports to give to other children. They used graphs and illustrations. Globes and maps were consulted. An animated map was made and the explorers, in miniature, were placed correctly on the map. Excursions were made to the public library and to museums. Books and pictures from the library were brought to school. Achievement test results showed positive and continued improvements.

Such tangible results were not the only growths that took place. There were evidences that denoted a desire for supervision and a welcoming of supervisory visits. The teacher would come into the office to say, "I wish you had been in my room today to have seen how well Jack gave his report," or, "Will you be sure to come in tomorrow to see the progress that we have made on our animated map?"

These comments showed a desire for supervision, a spirit of cooperation, and a recognized need for help. Although the end of the year left many goals to be reached both principal and teacher felt that there had been growth for the teacher and improved learning opportunities for the children.

Many more examples of the value of classroom visits and their influence upon the teachers' work could be cited. Worthwhile cooperative work in the classroom helps to build right attitudes between the principal and teachers, and where there are right attitudes plus help in guiding the teaching, learning and supervision ought to show a steady improvement. The following reports of cases are given which represent the tendencies upon the part of teachers to grow without pressure having been used.

My work in arithmetic is not going well. Will you come in for several arithmetic periods and help me to locate the difficulty?

(A Sixth Grade Teacher)

Dear Miss -----,

Would you like to see our gymnastic lesson tomorrow at eleven o'clock? We began this work a few days ago and we are trying to do well.

(Fourth Grade Children)

Dear Miss -----,

Will you come to our Story Hour on Friday afternoon? We will have a surprise for you.

(Third Grade Children)

We can be assured that these letters were sent to the principal's office with the consent and approval of the teachers.

I am not feeling well today and probably won't be able to do my best work. Will you please not visit our room?

(Sixth Grade Teacher)

Such a request is an example of sympathetic understanding and it should be recognized and granted.

I am going to try a new way of showing a moving picture film. Could you come in to see it and later help me to evaluate the procedure?

(Fifth Grade Teacher)

Our children are upset every time we exchange groups. We think we are not consistent in the things that should be matters of routine and that this causes difficulties for the children. Will you visit both kindergarten rooms and help us to remedy the trouble?

(Kindergarten Director and Assistant)

These examples and the many more that are common to all principals show:

1. If worthwhile classroom visiting is done, it is generally welcomed by the teacher
2. Teachers recognize the value of classroom visiting
3. Principals can somewhat measure the effectiveness of their classroom visiting by the demand for it
4. Classroom visiting has a decided influence on the teaching of the school and results in better learning opportunities for the children.

The individual conference—A third means of effective supervision is the individual conference. Although it is a difficult task and one that takes a great deal of time, it is one of the most valuable ways of bringing about desirable change and improvement.

If there is a sympathetic understanding between principal and teacher the latter will welcome the personal conference. "It is valuable beyond measure," is the comment of one teacher, "for then I know where I am headed. You can give me your point of view and I can give you mine." There is no better time to help a teacher become aware of the exact nature of her need, to help her analyze it and plan how to solve the problems in satisfying this need. Individual teaching problems may be discussed and satisfactory solutions offered. Helpful criticisms may be given and the teacher guided into better

ways of doing things, by helping her to check her own efforts according to different and higher standards.

The special task of the supervisor lies in encouraging the teacher to "keep going." Her efforts should be appreciated; her individuality respected; and she should be given a chance to experiment for herself. She should be given opportunity to grow in her own way, discovering for herself better technics of teaching. She will make mistakes, of course, but it must be remembered that as in other fields, growth and improvement may come about through the mistakes made, and in the correction of the mistakes. The "periods of error" will depend on the effectiveness of the principal and mutual feeling of confidence. A teacher working under such conditions is likely to take the suggestions of the supervisor and make them her own much more quickly. Little is usually gained otherwise.

In the personal conference the principal should always bear in mind that the whole procedure of supervision is aiming toward increased power on the part of the teacher. It is helping her:

1. To feel the need of self-improvement
2. To find out her own particular need
3. To analyze it and work out a satisfactory solution
4. To evaluate her own efforts according to different and higher standards
5. To originate plans and to carry them out successfully
6. To make her work contribute to the interests of the whole group
7. To achieve and find joy in her success

The individual conference is one of the most challenging activities the principal experiences in his work with teachers; for, if the purpose of such conference is to stimulate growth on the part of the teacher, the principal, as supervisor, must continue to grow. He must continually ask himself, "Do I measure up to this responsibility entrusted to me? How may I better fulfill my obligations?" In order to meet his own requirements, he should keep informed about the new in education. His own educational philosophy should be sane and sensible. He should be familiar with the best methods of teaching, and have a thorough knowledge of the subjectmatter to be taught. He should be ready to give definite and constructive help when needed. But most of all he should understand and maintain an enthusiasm for the art of teaching and for the boys and girls with whom he works every day.

For the purpose of illustration, let us take a particular situation to see the significance of the personal conference.

First of all, it is thoroughly understood that supervisor and teacher are co-workers. Both are working on a common problem for the common good of the individual child, in his relation to the school as a whole. The building meeting has set up common objectives and it is decided together, that teachers will confer with the principal to present their plans before launching upon a new unit of study. New

teachers will talk over the new situation, the children, the building and classroom organization, courses of study, building equipment, the program, etc. After the principal has made classroom visits, it is agreed that the teacher will discuss, in conference, the lessons taught, expecting adverse criticism when necessary, constructive criticism always and encouragement. She is urged to feel free to go to the supervisor when help is needed, and indeed the principal likewise will feel free to go to the teacher when working out some of his plans.

In order that the conference may be helpful, the principal tries to make preparation for it, first by knowing the teacher as well as possible, and second, by gaining a thorough knowledge of the group with which she is working. For a fifteen-minute period of conference, the principal often spends two or three hours in the classroom, making a careful study of the teacher's problems. When he returns to his office, he jots down things he has seen and wishes to talk over, he is then ready with definite criticisms and definite suggestions for improvement. For example:

A superior teacher of sixth grade had an unusually intelligent group of pupils. A fine, natural, friendly relationship existed between pupils and teacher. They carried on a current events period. The teacher sat at one side, as a member of the group. The boys and girls proceeded with their news items. Undivided attention was given to Joseph who was engrossed in his topic. Robert had something of vital importance. Kenneth talked a great deal. Joseph entered his comments and objections and was very much in evidence, too much so. The period continued with the same few boys doing most of the talking, only one or two girls had a chance to contribute. The topics were interesting, the speakers came to the front of the room to address the class, they went to the map to locate the places mentioned, or to trace the route of the busses that took the Cardinals and the Athletics from Philadelphia. The majority of the class participated silently.

At noon the teacher came to the office to talk over the lesson with the principal. Both agreed as to the merits of the lesson. It was a good social situation. The topics discussed were timely and of general interest. They had been chosen with discrimination. They were presented clearly and with poise on the part of the few speakers of that day.

The teacher felt that the same boys were talking too much due to their interest in the World Series, which was being played at the time. It was suggested that the teacher talk this over with the class, encouraging the more retiring children to make contributions.

The next morning the principal again visited this class for the same period. It was evident that the children had adopted the suggestions of the previous day. Two-thirds of the class showed that

they were prepared to take an active part. Clippings, pictures, and newspapers were on desks. It was noticed that Jeanette and a few others were again silent, while others were eager to talk.

These points were the subject of another conference with the teacher. A week or two later the principal was invited to the room to hear reports on the subject of transportation. The class had divided itself into groups with a leader for each group. Each member had prepared a contribution on that phase of the subject which most interested him. Practically every one in the room contributed. The two prominent members were submerged in the group. Jeanette who had failed to take part in the previous lesson contributed her share.

The principal commended the children for their interesting contributions and later the teacher for her skillful management of this classroom situation.

Other incidents illustrate this same tendency on the part of teachers to analyze classroom procedures for the purpose of improving their teaching.

At the close of the session a teacher approached the principal and asked for immediate help on a lesson which the principal had observed that morning. The principal stated that she was to remain at school for luncheon and that a conference might be planned for the noon hour.

A teacher wished a conference for the purpose of discussing a visits to another school. Her questions indicated a desire for help in evaluating the teaching which she had observed.

Tentative plans for teaching the lives of primitive peoples were placed before the principal with a request for assistance.

The results in teaching spelling to a class of fourth grade children were not satisfactory to the teacher. She asked that the principal observe a lesson and give suggestions which might help to bring about the desired improvement.

There is no fixed time or place for a conference between teachers and principal but in a building where teacher and principal share the responsibility for good teaching it is expected that frequent conferences will be a help. These may be initiated by either party. If there has been no request for help from the teacher for a considerable period the principal after a series of visits may ask that this teacher meet with her to talk over the work.

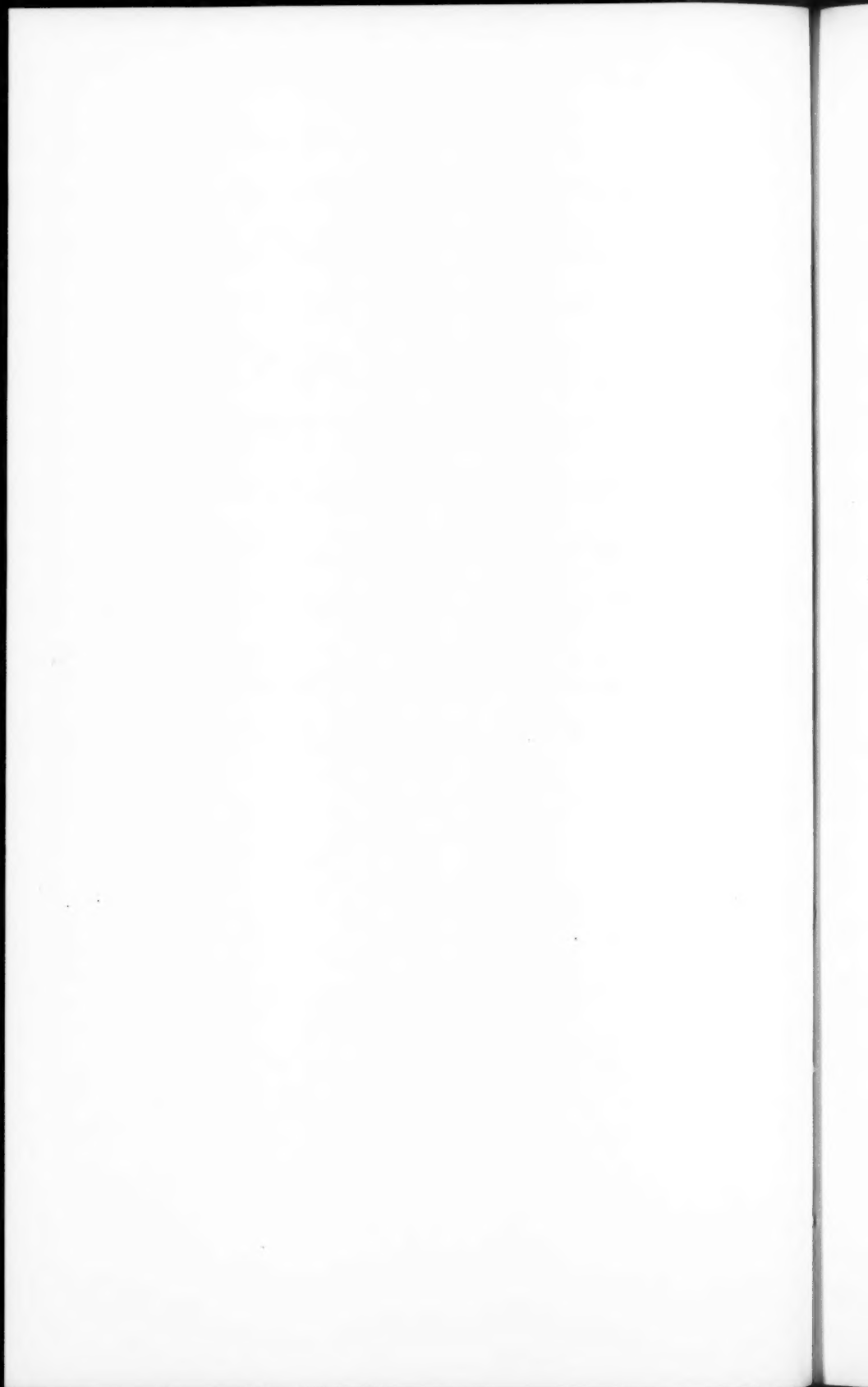
Conclusion—These evidences of improvement of instruction through supervisory programs show that worthwhile work through building meetings, classroom visits and conferences between principal and teacher affect the welfare of the school. The quality of teaching is improved, standards of accomplishment are raised, and a constant zest for the work is maintained. These three ways show some of the means whereby training in service may take place. Through cooperative work a good school offers growth and learning to children, teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendent.

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IT IS TOO bad if teachers have social contacts *only* with other teachers. It is an in-growing process which makes a vicious circle. The fact that women teachers are so isolated from knowing interesting men socially is deplorable both for the men and the women. The woman teacher of today is an attractive, interesting young person who should be having a good time outside of school. Her recreational interests are as important as her intellectual pursuits. As a class, teachers do not get out of doors enough.—Virginia E. Stone, Chapter IV.



CHAPTER V
INFLUENCING THE PUPIL
GUIDANCE OF INDIVIDUAL PUPILS
THE COOPERATIVE EFFORTS OF PRINCIPAL AND PSYCHOLOGIST
CREATIVE GUIDANCE OF PUPIL TALENTS
INDIVIDUAL PROFILES OF PERCENTILE RANKS
AN EXPERIMENT WITH REPORTS TO PARENTS
THE PUPIL REPORT AND SUPERVISION
CREATING EFFECTIVE PUPIL REPORTS

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER V

Until recently, the descriptions and practices of supervision have been concerned chiefly with influencing the teacher directly. Pupil adjustment, case studies, cumulative records have been looked upon as purely administrative problems. While the organization and management of these devices is largely administrative the *knowledge revealed* about pupils has supervisory uses.

Chapter V brings out many of the implications to instruction of certain pupil personnel procedures. Pupil reports, case studies, interviews, and extra-curriculum activities are shown as potential influences upon the growth of children. How can the principal guide individual pupils so as to foster the optimum conditions for learning?

Previous yearbooks of the Department have contributed to the problems raised by Chapter V. Principals will wish to refer to the following: *First Yearbook*, p. 59-86; *Second Yearbook*, p. 169-444; *Third Yearbook*, p. 245-337, 387-458; *Fourth Yearbook*; p. 245-49; 250-56, 257-61, 262-71; *Fifth Yearbook*, p. 310-15, 368-76; *Sixth Yearbook*, p. 211-28; and *Eighth Yearbook*, 218-34, 235-39, 268-77.

Immediately following Chapter V will be found several selected references on pupil guidance and adjustment.
—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER V

INFLUENCING THE PUPIL¹

GUIDANCE OF INDIVIDUAL PUPILS

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SUPERVISION is chiefly concerned with the improvement of the learning interactions between child, curriculum, and teacher. It is common practice for principals to improve instruction by influencing the *teacher* directly through such procedures as teachers' meetings and classroom visitation. Why do we not more frequently observe and adjust the *child*? Can we not "improve instruction" by showing pupils how to gain the most from school life? The purpose of this article is to suggest some of the procedures in an effective guidance program.

Need for guidance—Our school consists of about 300 pupils in grades one through eight. While all children need some guidance we found that there was one group which particularly needs systematic study and help. These are the pupils, thirteen or fourteen years old, who are waiting for the legal age for dropping from school. Usually, such factors as economic necessity, academic failure, or personal maladjustment make these pupils eager to go to work. Their attitude is frequently one of indifference and unconcern. Such passivity in the classroom destroys the vitality and enthusiasm of the most energetic teacher. It is vital, however, that these poorer students be advised and guided, for it is from this group that society receives a large share of its misfits.

Realizing the social implications, the teaching corps of our school became interested in the problem of these indifferent children. As a result of this interest we made a survey of the literature in the field of guidance for the elementary school. For working purposes we divided guidance into three types, as follows: (1) vocational, (2) educational, and (3) personal adjustment. Our program included activities which might be classified under the three heads: (1) studying the pupil, (2) informing the pupil, and (3) aiding the pupil to make his own decisions.² The general program and procedures are shown in Chart I. The following paragraphs will set forth the plan in greater detail.

Vocational guidance—Although the indifferent and over-age child in the upper elementary grades needs much vocational information

¹While many of the devices described in this chapter are primarily administrative principals will appreciate the important supervisory implications.—*Editorial Committee*.

²Suggestions were obtained from Bulletin No. 6, University of Oregon, December, 1928.

CHART I—THE PLAN AND DEVICES OF THE RIGLER SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

	Vocational Guidance	Educational Guidance	Personal Adjustment
Studying the pupil	1. By means of the cumulative record which shows such information as: Intelligence-test scores, achievement-test scores, previous school marks, reports of special abilities, health reports, and visiting teacher reports.	Same as 1 under vocational guidance.	Same as 1 under vocational guidance.
	2. By correlation with: grammar in grades 6-7-8; geography in grades 6-7; civics in grade 8. 3. By means of physical equipment such as motion pictures, lantern slides, and exhibits. 4. By means of reading material such as library books, bulletins, and mimeograph material. 5. By means of visits to factories, power plants, transportation centers, and other industrial plants. 6. By means of talks and lectures by employers and business men.	1. By means of courses of study from academic, polytechnic, and commercial high schools. 2. By group discussions and socialized recitations. 3. By talks by representatives or principals from different high schools. 4. By correlation with civics in grade 8.	1. By group discussions of concrete problems which each individual must face. 2. By correlation with health teaching. 3. By correlation with Auditorium program. 4. By correlation with civics classes. 5. By talks by doctors and nurses.
Informing the pupil	7. By means of pupil conferences with teacher and principal. 8. By means of parental conferences with teacher and principal. 9. By means of questionnaire on selection of life work. 10. By means of group conferences with teacher and principal.	5. By means of questionnaire on selection of a high school. See items 1, 2, and 4 in vocational guidance.	6. By developing social consciousness through individual responsibility. See items 1, 2, and 4 in vocational guidance.
Aiding the pupil in self-deter- minism			

we have not stressed this phase of the work. However, as the teachers become more used to the guidance plan much more is to be done.

1. *Studying the pupil*—We obtain much of our information in guidance work from the cumulative record cards. The information on these cards includes the following: (a) intelligence test scores, (b) achievement test scores, (c) previous school marks, (d) teachers' reports of special abilities, (e) visiting teacher reports, and (f) the health record.

While the above facts are necessary in any case study our teachers have decided, however, that tact, human sympathy, and understanding are necessary tools which must supplement these objective data. Each teacher, beginning with the fourth grade, makes a special effort to cultivate a confidential relationship with slow and indifferent pupils. The attempt is made to continue this relationship until the completion of the elementary school. Teachers solicit conferences with parents on many of these problems. This pupil-parent-teacher relationship, supplemented by definite objective data, has served admirably in revealing the source of many of the indifferent pupil's difficulties.

2. *Informing the pupil*—In the sixth and seventh grades a general course dealing with occupations is presented to all pupils. In the sixth grade the course is very elementary and covers a wide field. We make the subject of occupations so definitely a part of the work covered in geography that it is correlated with that subject. In the seventh grade the course is more specific and treats of local occupations which are open to boys and girls entering industry before the age of twenty-one. In the eighth grade a general review of the course on occupations is given. This review is supplemented by visits to factories, power plants, transportation centers, restaurants, and other industrial plants which may offer work to adolescent boys and girls. Practical illustrations are given of the economic fallacy of taking a "blind alley" job. In the eighth grade all of this work is correlated with the course in civics. In all three of the grades previously mentioned a correlation is made with language work by devoting several lessons to writing letters of application, making telephone applications, and making personal applications for employment.

3. *Pupil self-determinism*—In the sixth and seventh grades the teacher holds frequent individual conferences with pupils. These conferences are held primarily for the purpose of stimulating friendly relationships between pupil and teacher. Occasionally the principal, teacher, and pupils hold group conferences pertaining to guidance problems. In the eighth grade every pupil has at least two individual conferences with the principal. The principal invites the parents of each eighth grade student to participate in one of these conferences. Before holding these conferences a thorough study of the cumulative

record card is made and the advice of former teachers is solicited. Since the groundwork for the individual conference has already been built by the teacher the principal can usually enter into an immediate discussion of the future plans of the pupil. These conferences are non-compulsory, and in every instance the principal acts only in an advisory capacity, he never attempts to dictate a policy. Conferences are also held with pupils who plan to leave school before completing the eighth grade. All pupil conferences are supplemented by facts obtained from Form 1.

One purpose of Form 1 is to introduce the pupil to the problems of life work such as seasonal employment, wage scales, possible changes which may occur in industry, and other problems with which we feel the indifferent student should be conversant. The final choice of vocation is left entirely with the pupil. The teachers and principal simply aid the decision by supplying the most reliable information available.

Educational guidance—In this type of guidance work we deal almost entirely with the problem of the choice of a secondary school. The bearing which this choice may have on advanced training or on choice of vocation is dealt with only to the extent to which the choice of a secondary school may affect such advanced training or vocational choice.

FORM 1—SUPPLEMENTARY FACTS FOR PERSONAL INTERVIEW

What kinds of work have you done to earn money during your spare time?

Of these jobs which do you like the best?.....

In reading and studying about occupations what have you found to be some of the necessary requirements to make good on any job?.....

Of the occupations you have studied which do you prefer?.....

How much training do you need for this occupation?.....

What is the beginning wage?.....

What is the opportunity for advancement?.....

Does the work continue the year round?.....

About how much could you make each year?.....

Will the working conditions of the job injure your health?.....

Is this an occupation which you can follow in your own community?.....

How does the occupation serve the community?.....

Is there a possibility that some invention may be made in industry which may do the work you are planning to do in this occupation?.....

1. *Studying the pupil*—The same method of studying the pupil is practiced here as was suggested in the outline of the vocational guidance program.

2. *Informing the pupil*—The problem of educational guidance is so closely related to that of vocational guidance that we have made no definite line of demarcation between them *before* the eighth grade.

In the eighth grade the types of training in the various high schools are discussed with the pupils. The three types of high schools represented in the city are: academic, polytechnic (boys' and girls'), and commercial.

Each of the high schools offers several different courses. For example, the academic high school usually offers three, as follows: classical, college preparatory, and general.

At one time our indifferent and slow students made their choice of high school for nearly every reason except an essential one. They rarely asked themselves the questions, "How will this educational program aid me to become a better citizen?" and "Does such a program prepare me for what I wish to become?"

To counteract this former policy on the part of students a definite outline of each course in the different high schools is presented to the class for study. Socialized recitations are held for the purpose of discussing these different courses. Mimeographed copies of the different courses are given to each pupil so that he may refer to the high school programs at any time he chooses.

3. *Pupil self-determinism*—Teacher and principal hold individual conferences with each pupil in the eighth grade. Parents are invited to attend at least one of these discussions concerning high school choice. Form 2 shows the inquiry blank which is filled out by each member of the senior class. The replies are kept in the principal's office and referred to in connection with individual pupil conferences.

FORM 2—QUESTIONS ASKED OF EIGHTH GRADE CLASS

What high school do you plan to enter?-----
 What course are you planning to take?-----
 Does the course continue for two or four years?-----
 What benefits do you hope to obtain from your high school course?-----
 Will you need any other training beyond high school?-----
 Will the high school course you are planning to take prepare you for that training?-----
 What else do you expect to get in high school besides training for your life work?-----

Personal guidance—This type of guidance covers a great number of activities sometimes listed as health guidance, moral guidance, civic guidance and sex guidance. It is extremely difficult to outline a definite program for the more personal type of guidance work. A great portion of the problems which arise in this field are individual problems to be worked out through conferences between teacher, parent, pupil, and principal.

We have handled health guidance as largely as possible through the health classes, but where special cases arise the principal and

teacher confer with the school nurse before any remedial work is undertaken. The problem of moral guidance is handled largely through an activity program which gives a definite responsibility to each child. Some of these activities are appointments to positions such as traffic officer, class president, editor, committee chairman, fire marshal, and safety officer. The objective of such a program is to develop a social or group consciousness in each individual student.

In all of these adjustment problems the teacher and principal endeavor to make a study of the individual somewhat after the manner suggested for vocational and educational guidance. Informing the pupil on matters of personal adjustment is the most difficult task the teacher has to face. Moral platitudes are avoided and rule-of-thumb methods for moral conduct are never laid down. Information on moral problems is presented through group discussions concerning definite and concrete problems which every individual must face in actual life situations. The real stumbling block encountered in matters of personal adjustment is making the pupil self-determining in matters of right and wrong. He usually has sufficient information to realize what to do, but to so guide him that he will do what he knows he ought to do is the real task. We have found no better solution for the problem than that which has been suggested in a former paragraph, by endeavoring to develop a social consciousness in each pupil by giving him some definite task which he is morally obligated to perform. In more difficult cases we hold frequent conferences with the pupil, not conferences for the correction of each overt act, but interviews to develop mutual understanding. These talks usually reveal the real source of the maladjustment.

In the above discussion the writer has avoided the problem of testing and diagnosing pupil difficulties in subjectmatter or the remedial devices which may be used to correct such difficulties. These testing and remedial methods are, of course, included in our guidance program but are similar to the methods commonly suggested by professional literature.¹

Summary and conclusions—The principle involved in the guidance program we have adopted for the elementary school is one which stresses guidance as information. We have avoided any attempt to outline a definite policy, chiefly because our purpose is to combat indifferent attitudes by making pupils feel their own responsibility in matters which pertain to their future relations to society. Such a program as we have outlined is definitely planned for an elementary school containing eight grades.

We have no defense for those who may criticise us for neglecting the better and more interested students. We feel that such pupils will obtain some benefits from the program we have outlined. Most

¹See Chapter VII of this Yearbook.—*Editorial Committee.*

of them, however, will continue their work in high school where a more detailed guidance program is available. We have primarily attacked the problem of the indifferent pupil who wishes to quit school at the legal leaving age. We have tried to "improve instruction" so far as these children are concerned by studying and adjusting each individual child. Of the noticeable results of our guidance program those most worthy of recording are:

(1) Mutual interests have been developed between teachers and pupils.

(2) The indifferent attitude of poor students has in many instances been changed to one of interest.

(3) Pupils and parents solicit advice concerning future education and training.

(4) The number of pupils entering high school has increased, particularly among the group who formerly dropped out of school at the legal leaving age. The majority of these pupils are entering the polytechnic and commercial schools.

(5) Pupils entering industry at the end of the elementary school course are following vocations chosen by themselves and a larger percentage of them have steady employment.

IT IS agreed that the greatest responsibility of the principal is the improvement of instruction. While the supervision of classroom teaching is the most direct means of bringing about better teaching, certain administrative activities also seriously affect instruction. Attention to pupil adjustments, study of class organization, and consideration of teacher abilities contribute very definitely to the improvement of instruction. As the responsibilities of the principal increase, it becomes more and more necessary to rely on administrative measures to achieve results.—Edith L. Curren, Chapter III.

THE COOPERATIVE EFFORTS OF PRINCIPAL AND PSYCHOLOGIST

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THAT effort in supervision is good which has desirable and lasting effects primarily upon pupils and community, and secondarily upon teaching materials, teaching methods, teachers, principals, and supervisors themselves.¹ In this primary aim of effective supervision the principal as supervisor, the teacher, and the psychologist, concerned with pupil adjustment, have a common vital objective to the achievement of which their cooperative effort is essential. The effects of a supervisory program, teaching methods or efforts at guidance upon the pupils (and consequently upon parents and community) are primary because the school's major aims are to influence the child and society. "Teachers, principals, supervisors, psychologists, methods, materials, are means to the end of effecting changes in pupils and community.

Pupil adjustment aids supervision—It is readily apparent that whatever the psychological service of a school does to improve the classification of pupils, and to aid in the adjustment of individual pupils, it renders a preliminary and fundamental aid to the principal in his efforts as supervisor to improve methods of instruction and teachers' direction of learning; whatever else this service does to measure school achievement objectively it provides data basic to experiments in instructional methods. The psychological service whether represented by an individual or a staff, should moreover render aid in an advisory or active capacity for the principal's committee on curriculum revision; should contribute to the development of a system of records and reports adequate to provide a dynamic record of growth for all the children in the school and to give data essential for diagnosis when a problem arises. If a school lacks a division of research and reference the psychologist may aid not only as adviser, but take a definite responsibility for guiding some special supervisory effort designed to improve conditions for learning, or to develop in pupils more effective study habits and skills. Such efforts are legitimate activities for the psychologist who is concerned with improving the adjustment of pupils whether considered as individuals or in groups.

The plan—This article attempts to present very briefly a cooperative effort by the principal and the psychologist; not to illustrate a carefully controlled experiment to compare two methods of super-

¹See "The Evaluation of Supervision." *Fourth Yearbook*, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Educational Association, p. 15. Published by Teachers College Bureau of Publications, New York, 1931.

vision but rather to emphasize the values of integrating the activities of principal, teachers, and the director of pupil adjustment to obtain a more adequate knowledge of the pupils of a given group, with the purpose (1) to improve their total adjustment on the basis of the factors revealed; and (2) more specifically to improve the pupils' skill in study and the teachers' direction of learning. During the past three years such cooperative effort has proved stimulating and productive in Grade VII, (or Year I of the Junior High School) of the Horace Mann School. Since the initiation of the program in 1928-29, such interest has been stimulated that the teachers' intensive study of pupils has been extended to Grades VIII and IX, and downward in the elementary school, with the accompanying efforts to adjust instruction to individual needs and to direct children's learning more effectively. The program in Grade VI might have been chosen for presentation here but the initial experience in Grade VII is described because it revealed some outcomes a little more clearly than did the subsequent experiences in Grade VI and other grades.

In October 1928 the Director of Psychological Service and Pupil Adjustment of the Horace Mann School, acting with the approval of the principal, met on Thursday of the second week of the school session with all the teachers concerned with instruction in Grade VII (or Year I of the Junior High School). A second meeting was held after a two weeks interval, a third at the close of the second month of school, and a fourth at mid-year. During the second semester two conferences were held for the entire group, and individual teachers, principal and psychologist conferred informally as frequently as they wished. During the previous year the value of persistent, carefully directed observation of Year I pupils by an expert observer had been demonstrated. A trained, experienced, supervisor studying at Teachers College had for six weeks in October and November, visited the two sections of Year I to observe their behavior as groups and to note any individuals particularly in need of attention. The results had proved so constructive both for teachers and for pupils, that for 1928-29 the plan of directed observation and conference by the class and special teachers of the group was devised. Previous to the meeting a letter had been sent to those teachers, about eleven in all, who worked with Year I pupils in 1928-29, in any way. Fortunately, most of these teachers had taught in Year I the previous year, and also taught Year II classes. Thus they had had the experience with and profit from the efforts at guidance and adjustment used with Year I, in 1927-28.

As will be noted from the portion of the letter quoted below, the desire of the principal and the psychologist was to emphasize the close tie-up between individual pupil adjustment and the direction of study. The problems involved: (1) A diagnosis of the factors contributing to pupil strengths and weaknesses; (2) the determina-

tion and utilization of procedures which would overcome specific individual weaknesses and develop on a new level for the entire class certain study skills essential for effective learning in the later years of the high school. The project as it developed utilized several methods for analysis of the problem and check of results. These are apparent as the experiment is detailed. They included directed observation of pupils by the teachers of regular and special subjects; the pooling of information and judgments by group discussion, with the subjective determination of the outstanding needs of individual pupils and class groups, in respect to personality traits and habits and skills, and similar judgment of strength; the report of pupil growth in terms of teacher opinion or judgment; and finally the use and interpretation of objective tests of mental quality and achievement to aid in diagnosis of problems and to measure progress in skills; and the utilization of all cumulative records available for those pupils who had entered the class from the sixth grade of the Horace Mann School.

Memorandum to Teachers of Year I.

It seems desirable to have a meeting of all teachers who are concerned with Year I pupils on Thursday, October 4, at 3 o'clock, in Room 304.

As you are aware, we are very desirous of knowing pupils in Year I as quickly and thoroughly as we can. The concentrated, cooperative effort of Year I teachers last year, helped that class to make a better adjustment, and to gain in habits of work, to a greater degree perhaps than has previously been true with Year I. It is hoped that we can do even better this year.

In order that each of us may have the aid of every other teacher will you please come to the meeting with the following items:

1. A report of any problem with any pupil, which has appeared to you, at this early date, and which should, in your opinion, be discussed with other teachers; any information pointing either to strength or to weakness in any pupil, which should be communicated now as an aid in helping the child to a satisfactory adjustment.

2. Miss Blank (the home-room teacher) not only has the problem that each of the other teachers has in improving the direction of study in her particular field of instruction, but is eager for all the help which we in combination can give her as the general director of the homeroom study. Will you come, then, prepared to present any definite suggestions as to how each teacher may help the children study, through her assignment, and the direction of study begun in the class period? What specific skills, what specific ways of studying do you teach in this first month, for example? What skills do these girls now possess and in what skills do they need either remedial training or intensive instruction on seventh grade level?

Mrs. Flemming, Chairman of the Committee To Improve Pupils' Study, will summarize briefly the methods used last year to determine the needs of Year I pupils; teachers can then suggest how we may improve our study of this year's beginning class. She will also make available the records for individual pupils and the grade summaries of the results of the mental tests and the standard tests of achievement in reading and mathematics.

Will you please make any suggestions you can to improve our methods of inquiry for these classes, and to make more effective our combined efforts to improve adjustment and develop in these children better methods of work?

In the first discussion consideration was given to needs of individ-

ual girls and to the outstanding strengths and weaknesses in study skills already apparent. A tentative determination was made of the tendencies to which concerted attention should be given immediately and of the general methods which should be observed in such attempt. The subsequent meetings continued the discussion of problems and corrective procedures, and attempted subjectively to estimate improvement. (See list of factors in this article.) After each meeting a record of significant comments on each pupil considered was made available to the teachers for ready reference. The suggestions accepted for concerted remedial efforts were likewise reported. Where the individual need was great the Division of Adjustment provided intensive, remedial instruction to overcome fundamental weaknesses in the mechanics and skills, in reading and arithmetic. The psychologist worked with the teachers concerned with these skills to devise training to develop study skills upon the grade level at which the class was working.¹ She also aided intensively with the problems involving emotional, and physical factors and social maladjustment.

LIST OF FACTORS WHICH CONDITION ADJUSTMENT AND SUCCESS

1. Mental ability or ability to learn.
 2. Physical condition, temporary, and permanent; with consideration particularly of
 - (1) Nutrition and apparent vigor or energy, and
 - (2) Physical defects.
 3. Ability to read.
 4. Quality of present achievement in specific school subjects; achievement previous to this year, if pertinent.
 5. Conditions in the home, including
 - (1) Economic conditions
 - (2) Social and cultural background
 - (3) Influence of other members of family
 - (4) Conditions for study.
 6. Conditions for study in the school, with emphasis upon library facilities.
 7. Total program of work including work in class; extra class activities in school; activities outside of school, within and outside the home.
 8. Pupil's methods of work in preparing school assignments.
 9. Pupil's attitude toward school work. Interests.
 10. Pupil's associates.
- If the problem is primarily failure or unsatisfactory achievement, so that attention must be given to the problem of *learning*, these additional items should be considered:
11. Personality of teachers and relations with particular child under consideration.
 12. Ability of teacher to direct study.
 13. Character of assignments; activities provided for; motivation; adaptation to pupil's ability.
 14. Accuracy of grade placement.
 15. Suitability of curriculum to needs of pupil under consideration.

¹Woodring, M. N., and Flemming, Cecile White. *Directing Study of High School Pupils*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1929. p. 112 ff. Also Flemming, Cecile White "Training Pupils in Study Procedures, with Emphasis upon Reading," *Teachers College Record*, (March, 1929).

The following excerpts from records of these meetings indicate the constructive character of the information emphasized. To protect the pupils in case of loss or misplacing of records a code number was substituted for names. Similar extracts from records for the October, November, and January meetings would indicate the character of the comments on the progress in adjustment made by these girls.

Report Upon Individual Pupils, Year I (Grade VII) Based Upon Staff
Discussion of October 4, 1928.

Memorandum to Staff:

Please consider these comments; use them in any constructive way you can and add your own in subsequent staff discussions, or in a dictated report.

A-SECTION

Pupil A-5. She is alert and nervous. A good mixer. Quite sure of herself. Rapid reader. Grasps things easily. She was the first to finish Haggerty test but ranked next to the lowest quarter of the A Section in comprehension. Needs training in accuracy.

A-9. Too stout. Very nervous. Is she well? Protects herself. Can't seem to get directions; motor coordination poor. Tests of ability indicate that she should get such directions, and Miss Blank thinks she has ability. Stays alone after school and prepares the next day's lessons. This is good unless it affects exercise.

A-11. Lowest of A Section in reading tests. Change to B Section seems advisable. Careless of spelling and form. Expresses herself awkwardly. Is this all due to physical condition?

A-13. Is very young, and seems so. Though her intelligence score is very high, she didn't know what to do with successive study periods. Writing very poor; content of written work inferior. A little lost. Not an A Section pupil in mathematics. Draws conclusions hastily and prematurely. Watch carefully.

A-14. Does rapid work. Is she inclined to be superficial? Attention extremely fluctuating. Needs training in study habits. Is there a physical basis for this? A little stubborn. Rather original.

A-15. Quick and alert. Outstanding in ability; and original. Quite sensitive. Tires physically. Must not be allowed to overdo.

A-16. Vivid and alive. On reading test in comprehension her score is normal for Grade 11. Charming and liked socially by class.

A-17. Grown-up. "Shows off" constantly. Why is this, what is the reason? Psychologist should observe carefully.

A-18. Drawls excessively and is extremely precise in speech and work. Is there any emotional difficulty? Attractive in appearance. Always ready for anything that comes. Original work.

A-20. She is a social problem. She wishes to be apart from the rest of the group. She is unstable. Her family think she is a genius. She thinks her future is assured because of a volume of her poems which her family had printed for her. She does not want to do anything that anyone else is doing. She likes to sit off by herself. She is devoted to animals and out-door life. She is very poor in mathematics. She is very young and mentally very able.

B-SECTION

B-10. Very lively and young. She has a keen sense of humor. She talks well, and can be a good influence if she is properly directed. Her form in written work is very poor. Her mother seems cooperative; she realizes the child's laziness. B. loves to read Milne. Animals are her hobby. Needs to be held pretty carefully to assigned work. Very poor form in mathematics—extremely careless. Reads slowly. Do her reading tests reveal little ability to distinguish between main ideas and subordinate details?

B-13. She is lively physically, and boyish. She is careless in writing and spelling. She has a helpful spirit in class room. Needs training in habits of reading and study. Poor quality of written work.

B-15. Inclined to be very aggressive. She has a good deal of influence in class. She doesn't cooperate and answers in a supercilious way. Her social influence is not good. She must be held to requirements.

The October Year I staff conferences began the consideration also of the problem of directing study for the two sections of this grade.¹ Each teacher presented her conclusions from the objective test records and from a month's observation and analysis of skills possessed or lacking, and emphasized the most outstanding and immediate needs in her field of teaching. In some instances the instructor reported some one or more specific technics which she was using to give her pupils certain work skills.

With respect to general habits and attitudes the staff were agreed that the first need was a combined effort by all teachers to have the pupils get to the classrooms on time; to have them come equipped with needed tools and materials; and to habituate them to get to work promptly without waste of time. Every teacher, whether in mathematics, social studies, music, or household arts, combined in these efforts. Another common need for the pupils in the less mature section, was the learning to take the teacher's assignments and directions as given to the group. The improvement of the pupils' methods of study by providing training in specific work skills, was stressed as a fundamentally necessary aid toward better adjustment. A summary of the analyses presented by several teachers shows some of the interesting differences in the equipment for learning of the generally more mature A Section in comparison with the B class.

The A class (as a group) reads extensively, rapidly and accurately. They have good form in outlining and make practical use of outlines as an aid to organizing what they read; the B Section, as a group, reads less well (as revealed by a variety of reading and study tests), and makes little use of outlining. The A's prefer assignments in terms of larger problems; the B's wish specific questions as a guide to study with exact page references to needed materials. The more mature pupils are much more critical of subjectmatter and of one another's

¹During the year 1928-29, the Grade VII was divided into two sections. Although mental ability was not the exclusive basis for the division, the mental age and the intelligence quotient were the first factors considered. Other elements also given consideration were school achievement, reading skill, health, teachers' estimate of personality, interests and attitudes, habits and methods of work. Some one or more of these additional factors sometimes caused a pupil to be placed in one section, when her mental quality would have placed her in the other. All the children in the grade had a mental ability normal or superior. The A Section was in general mentally more mature and had a higher intelligence quotient than had the B Section. Though all children in the group had a mental ability equalling or exceeding the norms for seventh grade pupils yet a wide range of ability (mental ages 12 years, 9 months to 17 years, 7 months) created problems in meeting individual differences.

statements and opinions. The less mature girls need more training than the A pupils, in such skills as the use of the index, table of contents, location of materials, and in specific types of silent reading to meet specific purposes, as skimming, reading for main ideas and so forth. Other needs characteristic of each group and other attitudes, and skills in which both groups needed to develop upon a new level, were stressed. The value of such analysis and consideration of pupils' abilities is emphatically increased when teachers in many fields contribute to the judgments, share in the conclusions, and combine in a unified, constructive effort for pupil growth.

Several standardized reading tests were used to permit measures of specific types of reading skills most effective to achieve certain purposes in reading. These tests included the *Haggerty Sigma 3* for directed comprehension; the Gates tests designed to test reading for general significance, the comprehension of details and reading to follow precise directions; and the *Iowa Silent Reading Test* with its seven sub-tests of specific reading skills, including general comprehension, outlining, organization of ideas, use of the index and other work-type reading skills. In addition informal tests of study skills were devised and used by the teachers, aided by the psychological service. These tests were developed from the materials to be read in social studies, science, household arts, etc. The teachers utilized for practice and test exercises, suggestions from the informal study-tests devised by the teachers of social studies in Rochester; from the exercises prepared by Minneapolis teachers in work-type reading, and such inventory, and check tests of study skills as those developed by Barnes.¹

Outcomes—In the May staff meeting the progress of the year was considered in terms of the specific adjustment problems for individual pupils to which attention had been given; the pupils' growth in fundamental processes and habits and skills in study; and finally, but in a more casual way, the growth of the teachers themselves in their ability to diagnose pupils' needs; to provide remedies for individual problems; to analyze individual and class equipment in study skills; and to achieve more effective direction of pupils' learning through increased knowledge of their pupil material, through improvement of their own assignments and through the development of more effective procedures in the direction of learning. Obviously the judgments of progress on these three bases must be subjective, except for

¹BARNES, MACON. "Directions to Pupils in Methods of Study in the Social Studies." Mimeographed leaflets. Newport News, Va. BRUECKNER, L. J., and CUTRIGHT, PRUDENCE. *Work Reading in the Minneapolis Public Schools*. Minneapolis Board of Education, Bul. No. 512, April, 1927. FLEMMING, CECILE WHITE. "Training Pupils in Study Procedure with Emphasis upon Reading." *Teachers College Record*, March, 1929, and *The Work of the Public Schools, Rochester*. Board of Education, Rochester, N. Y.

the use of the limited number of objective measures available.¹ This is to be regretted, yet there is encouragement in the fact that not only individual opinions but the combined opinions of all the staff members expressed in group discussion, strongly emphasized the varied profit resulting from the cooperative effort to improve pupil adjustment and the methods and results of instruction. The gains in skill in various types of reading, and an arithmetic fundamentals and arithmetic reasoning were measured by a repetition on May 1, of the tests used in October. The gains varied noticeably for the 47 girls, and varied likewise for the several specific skills. However, in every instance but one the individual grade gains in reading skills exceeded the normal expectation of a year's progress. The median of the gains in the several specific reading skills was 1.85 in terms of grade level, where 1.0 indicates normal progress.

¹Undoubtedly (at this state of educational practice) both forms of evidence (objective test data and the judgments of supervisors, principals, teachers, or others interested in the experiment), are of definite value in estimating the work of an educational procedure, and the use of each type may be justified in a supervisory program. See "Evaluation of Supervision," *Fourth Yearbook*, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Educational Association, 1931.

ONCE A month a group of teachers report to the meeting on articles or books which they think interesting or instructive. These articles are not always on educational matters. In studying the problems on which the group as a whole need help, many subjects are considered. Last year five meetings were given over to a study of sex education, in charge of the school psychologist and the head of the physical education department. Our school doctor and a teacher of social hygiene talked to us, and an educational picture of the beginnings of life was shown before we started our group discussions.—Virginia E. Stone, Chapter IV.

CREATIVE GUIDANCE OF PUPIL TALENTS

LEONA WHITWORTH LOGUE

Principal, Stewart Avenue School, Cplumbus, Ohio

PERHAPS we as principals have always been concerned with supervision in our work, but supervision has become a highly significant term in recent educational thought. "Creative supervision provides an opportunity for each teacher and each child in a school system to grow through the exercise of his talents and abilities under expert professional encouragement and guidance."¹ A new element enters our supervisory program: the thought that supervision is really one of our distinct teaching aims. The idea that work may be definitely organized in a way that its accomplishment is not by chance nor only by the effort of a devoted few, but is deliberately planned and assigned to all teaching groups. Educators are becoming more and more concerned with the problem of supervision.

Supervision and the individual pupil—Supervisory activities, in the elementary grades, will have much to do with exploring the interests, aptitudes, and abilities of children. Also, supervision must determine the rate of progress which is most natural for each child in mastering the elementary curriculum. There are few elective subjects, because all contribute to complete living.

Among the problems yet to be solved are those concerned with the rate of progress, and the quantity and quality of work to be reasonably expected. Those responsible for supervision will be expected to discover whether a child with superior mentality should complete the course in a shorter time or stay the average time amid extra activities calculated to greatly enrich the ordinary elementary experiences. In another child's case the units of accomplishment should be so distributed that the essentials will be mastered in a little longer time than the average, but without failures or repetitions. Finally, some children will be found who cannot master the essentials in symbol-employing subjects at all, but who can learn the simple mechanical processes. These should be guided into doing the things which they can do, and not kept at tasks beyond their ability.

Improvement of instruction for each child through extra-curriculum activities—During the past several years at Stewart Avenue School we have been increasingly concerned with studying the needs of the child to determine 'his natural bent'. We strive to build up a foundation which will influence the child's planning of his life work, to release each child's creative powers, and to train him in the best use of these powers. In our supervisory program we endeavor to stress the *Seven Cardinal Principles of Education*: (1) health and

¹National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*. 1930. p. 344.

safety, (2) worthy home membership, (3) mastery of the tools, techniques and spirit of learning, (4) vocational and economic effectiveness, (5) faithful citizenship, (6) wise use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.¹

The pupil's mind naturally gropes for light and truth. It is important, therefore, that freedom under guidance be given to the extent that nothing impede the powers which would permit pupils to give expression to that *inner urge* which is necessary for the motivation of every task. The more the writer studies the club objectives, the more she is convinced that a club system may be planned for in the school program. Extra-curriculum activities will become *super-curriculum*, and as an integral part of school routine they will be found infinitely more effective.

Through our clubs we stress the seven cardinal objectives and foremost among these clubs is the Civic Club, the membership of which is composed of those who have the highest grades, perfect attendance and good conduct. This club is interested in upholding and promoting the traditions and highest ideals of the school. Many subjects are discussed in the club meetings, such as good citizenship. We have an individual self-rating chart for exercises in good citizenship. This card was worked out by the pupils and principal and was given to the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grades and they were permitted to score themselves, a new card being issued each semester to each child.

The Thrift Club is an important one in the life of the pupils in Stewart School. Learning to save now is an important factor in their future life. All the children are enthusiastic about the school banking plan that is used and many rooms rate 100 percent each week in banking. One day the Thrift Essay Contest was mentioned and the next day an essay was presented which won first prize in Marion Township and the south-side of our city.

The Safety Club has a very strong appeal for our boys. Stewart Avenue School is located between two heavily traveled streets. Perhaps that is the reason why we are more than interested in highway safety and the School Boy Patrol, which works in conjunction with the Columbus Automobile Club to help make the streets safe for school children. Our school has a patrol squad. We presented them last spring in a demonstration in a big pageant. At the Field and Flag Day program held this year, a traffic demonstration was presented by the fourth and fifth grades. Their stunt was "Safety in Traffic". The children provided the toy trucks, fire engines, automobiles, doll carriages, and tricycles. The scene was laid at the intersection of two streets. Two flag boys from the patrol handled the

¹Originally published as the "Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," *Bulletin No. 35*, 1918. U. S. Office of Education. Restated at intervals in the *Journal of the National Education Association*.

traffic in the same way as it is handled on the streets. This little stunt was entertaining, we know, and educational as well.

CITIZENSHIP INDIVIDUAL RATING CHART

The Junior Citizen—at home, at school, in the community.

1. I obeyed promptly all requests. (Check each week)
2. I observed proper manners at all times.
3. I was agreeable and courteous.
4. I did something helpful without being told.
5. I read a good book or magazine, or listened to a good story.
6. I was kind to all pets and animals.
7. I did nothing to worry my parents.
8. I spoke or acted no untruth.
9. I was on time at all school sessions.
10. I did not cheat in school work.
11. I used proper language.
12. I kept my desk in order at school.
13. I was careful of all public school property.
14. I did not annoy my teacher.
15. I did not play in the street.
16. I did a good turn to a neighbor or stranger.
17. I disobeyed no law that I know of.
18. I did something to make my home more attractive.
19. I helped keep the school house and yard clean.
20. I did some act to help make my community better.
21. I was kind and helpful to smaller children.
22. I observed my daily health rules.
23. I assisted an aged, crippled, or blind person in some way.
24. I did not use another's property without permission.
25. I was a good loser in games.
- 26.
- 27.
- 28.
- 29.
- 30.

In the presence of my flag, emblem of the highest type of citizenship, and my principal I affirm that I have to the best of my knowledge kept this record honestly.

Signed.....

Last spring we entered several of our outstanding sixth grade pupils, from our Writers Club, in an essay writing contest about the junior citizen and his duty to observe the traffic rules. The efforts of these pupils were rewarded, we won four cash prizes and medals. This year the English classes of the sixth grade, spurred on by their classmates' success last spring entered the contest. They hope to equal, if not surpass, the other record made at our school.

The Reporters' Club aims to give training in the use of concise English through condensing reports of actual happenings, in good journalistic style. It reports the pupils on honor rolls, programs, and other items of interest. The following news story was typed by the

principal when the president of the club bounded into the office saying—"I have just come from a trip in the air"—

I went up in a Ford plane and got a seat right next to the pilot. We started off and I watched the wheels—they kept moving and then they stopped. I had a funny sensation then. We had to yell to be heard.

I asked the pilot how high we were and he said, "about 2000 feet." I asked him how fast we were going and he said, "about 100 miles an hour".

We circled the A. I. U. Tower and crossed the Scioto River, then we started back. When we landed we were all laughing.

A policeman was standing about 100 yards from the plane. When it started there was such a terrific wind that the policeman's hat and some papers which he was holding were blown over the field.

The Poetry Club aids pupils in acquiring a discriminating taste in poetry by work in appreciation, and encourages the writing of original verse. An introductory talk by the leader gives the pupils some conception of the nature of poetical material, and acquaints them with the best standard poetry and worthwhile current poetry. She works to encourage pupils to make individual compilations of favorite poems. Original and selected verse are given in assembly programs, and published in *The Columbus Citizen*. The following verse is an example:

I LIKE SCHOOL

I like to go to school because
We learn such lovely things,
Geography and history,
And music, how it rings.

We draw a bit and paint a bit
And read and write and spell
And every now and then
We have to know our tables well.

For teacher has a table race
Which proves to her our worth,
I'd rather go to school today
Than any place on earth.

The History and Biography Club inspires pupils with a desire to make the most of life and of themselves. Publicity is given through a "guidance bulletin board," to data on success problems, which will benefit the entire study body. Informal talks and discussions on the achievements of modern great men and women in their respective lines of work as,

Invention—Edison

Wright Brothers

Statesmanship—Roosevelt

Wilson

College Professors—Maynard Hutchins,

John Dewey,

W. O. Thompson

W. W. Charters

The Health Club aims for higher health standards and also acts as a sort of Playground Committee. The children stay out of the

building during recess and noon, the leader of the girls has taught them games and the boys' leader heads the baseball team or leads in other games. Some of them have organized a hiking club. Every year the boys keep in training so that the swiftest runners will be ready to go to the State Relay race, at O. S. U. stadium, which the boys attended with great interest this year, especially are they interested in George Simpson. A baseball team is organized which at times plays other elementary schools in the city. The teachers cooperate, having them make booklets illustrating health rules, and have toothbrush drills in their classes. Films of health habits and health talks have helped to emphasize our health standards.

FIGURE 1—PERCENT OF TOTAL ENROLMENT OF SCHOOL IN EACH CLUB

Name of Club	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Thrift	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX
Safety	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX
Library	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX
Health	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX
Good Citizen-ship	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX
History and Biology	XXX	XXX	XX								
Bird	XXX	XX									
Kindergarten Band	XXX	X									
Harmonica	XXX										
Civic	XXX										
Patron Squad	XX										
Red Cross	XX										
Reporters	XX										
Poetry	X										

The Junior Red Cross is organized with about fifty members. They have done a number of things to aid in relief work. They earned money from a candy sale and bought outing flannel to make baby nightgowns and slips. They filled Christmas boxes which were sent over seas. They made many sets of jointed animals and made Easter baskets and filled them with jelly eggs for the Children's Hospital. They also contributed to the fund for the relief work in Florida.

Space does not permit a description of the activities of several other organizations such as: bird, library, and harmonica clubs. It has been the contention of this article that the so-called "extra-curriculum" activities offer an enriched curriculum and varied experiences to children. In a real sense this program means "improving instruction" for each child, provided the clubs touch the lives of many children. Figure 1 shows the percent of the total enrolment of our school which is found in each club.

Conclusion—Education is no longer the mere acquisition of a fund of knowledge. The habits a child forms, his attitude toward life, and his happiness are regarded by modern educators as of far more importance. Supervision through extra-curriculum activities seeks to develop in the teachers and pupils independence, initiative, and originality—the qualities essential to leadership.

Multiplicity of routine demands is cited by many principals as a hindrance to the supervisory program. One principal, on being asked what were her major problems, replied "Chiefly interruptions." Sometimes the demands are so many the principal finds little time for supervision. Many demands upon the principal are inevitable, but do not always require personal attention. The principal may, and should, delegate many responsibilities to others. Supervision, through extra-curriculum activities, seeks to bring about the development of all through the cooperation of all.

THE TRUE value of an evaluating chart should be, not its effectiveness as a teacher rating device, but its usefulness in promoting better conditions for learning. Many charts suggested for use in supervision are for rating teachers and the teaching process. A supervising principal, whose philosophy of education is that education is not merely the acquiring of subjectmatter and skills but that it is the understanding, selecting, organizing, and using of subjectmatter and skills for purposeful, leading on activities, will place his emphasis on the children and the conditions of their learning.—Dorothy Colman Mott, Chapter IV.

INDIVIDUAL PROFILES OF PERCENTILE RANKS

ROY E. ROBINSON

Principal, Liberty School, Highland Park, Michigan

THE principal who works at his duties of supervision often may wish that he had some method at the tips of his fingers whereby he can locate the children who are standing at or near the bottom of their class; or perhaps he may wish to select those in the upper portions. Since most of the problem children in a grade are located at either extreme of the class, and since the principal's efforts usually begin with these problems first, it simplifies the procedure if he has some device which points out such cases. The individual profile of percentile ranks is a device which will do this very thing.

Meaning of the percentile rank—The use of a percentile rank in expressing a pupil's standing is by no means new. It is merely the subject score of the child expressed in a way which tells just what percent of the class stood above him or below him. It is common practice to state the class score in terms of the median or quartile points, and, if the pupil's score happens to fall on one of these points, it is easily seen that this pupil exceeded 25 percent, 50 percent or 75 percent of the class if he falls on the lower quartile, median, or upper quartile lines, respectively. It is no stretch of this conception to interpolate the intervening points and say that he exceeded 17 percent, 35 percent, 68 percent, or 95 percent of his class in the subject. Such is the percentile rank. *The percentile rank of a given score is the percent of the observations below that score in the distribution.* Its computation is simple and its use has certain advantages.

If one will assume that the group's achievement may be used as a standard against which to check the individual members of the group, it is obvious that a pupil's percentile rank gives his relative position in the group. Such information is valuable.

However, more useful than the above, is the fact that percentile ranks in a given test are directly comparable with those on another test in the same subject or different subjects. In this respect the percentile rank makes possible the assembling of such data in graph form showing a pupil's relative standing in various subjects month by month, the standing in each subject for one month being comparable with that in every other subject the same month or succeeding months. An example of such a graph is shown in Figure 1.

Assembling the data—The profiles are used from the fourth through the seventh grades all of which are organized on a departmental basis. The course of study in the social sciences and grammar is conducted by a modified Morrison technic, which plan makes available many assimilative tests whose results may be made into a composite score at the end of a unit. Reading is of the remedial type. Arith-

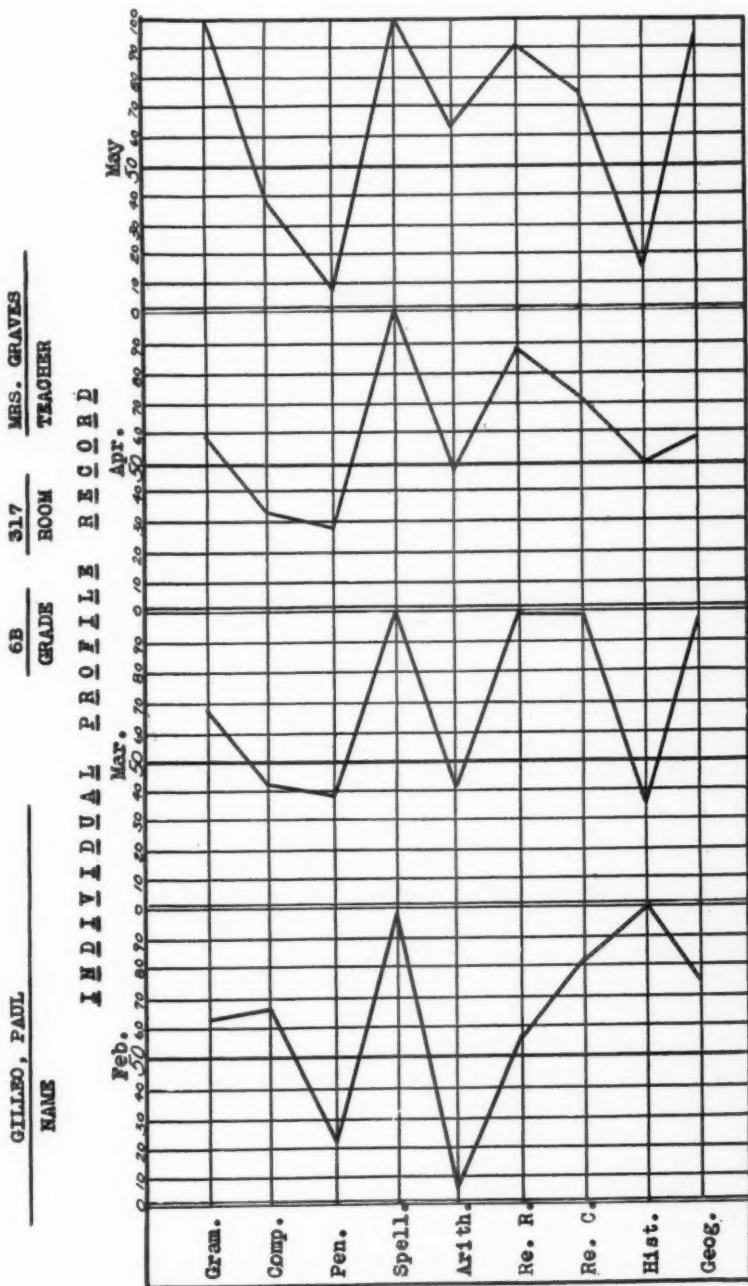


FIGURE 1—Paul is a boy afflicted with a cardiac defect which has caused his parents to rear him in a very sheltered regime. Being unusually mature in his language and reading skills he has made a success of the subjects involving such skills. Arithmetic is his weakest subject, but recently he has improved, for his teacher has convinced him that heart trouble is no excuse for any deficiency in arithmetic. The card shows a constant gain in this subject throughout the semester. Paul is editor of his school paper.

metic and spelling follow the methods and courses of study of selected texts. A manual is used in penmanship until the seventh grade where some children are excused, for their proficiency is such that, as long as their writing "in use" is satisfactory, they no longer need formal drill. Composition is taught as outlined by the local course of study.

Step I. Once a month for the first four months of each semester scores are obtained for each child as follows:

Grammar: A teacher-constructed objective test covering the work recently completed.

Composition: Samples of the pupils' work rated subjectively by the teacher. The samples of the class are stacked, ranging approximately from the best to the poorest.

Penmanship: Same as composition.

Spelling: Test on all words studied during the month.

Arithmetic: Tests furnished with the text which check the monthly progress of the pupils.

Reading (Rate and Comprehension): Short forms or parts of standardized tests.

History: Composite score of assimilative tests of work units.

Geography: Same as history.

Step II. The scores secured as described above are transmuted into percentile ranks, using the scores of all the children in a half grade (one or two rooms) as a basis. These percentile ranks are recorded on a class record sheet specially designed for the purpose.

Step III. The percentile ranks are recorded on the profile card to be used by the principal and teachers.

Uses of the profile card—After the graph for any one month is completed the card may be used in a number of ways which are determined by the things the teacher, principal, or supervisor are seeking.

1. It discloses the low or high spots in the pupils' academic achievement in which way it may point to those who need remedial work in certain subjects or, in the other case, more activity on a higher plane. See Figures 1 and 2.

2. It shows the pupils' general academic placement and, hence, points to possible retardations or accelerations. See Figures 3, 4, and 5.

3. It exhibits any consistent trends of achievement from month to month, either in a single subject or all of them. See Figure 1.

One should note, however, that no data are given which show the relation between the pupil's ability and his achievement. An attempt is being made to correct this defect during the present year.

When the data as listed above has been placed on the card, it may be referred to the home-room teacher, who, as the child's counsellor, may investigate the possible causes of his deficiencies. More facile than this is the use to which the principal may put such information. It may direct him to the cases referred to above,—those who are located on either fringe of the achievement range. His attempts to help the teacher with the needy cases cease to be "a leap in the dark."

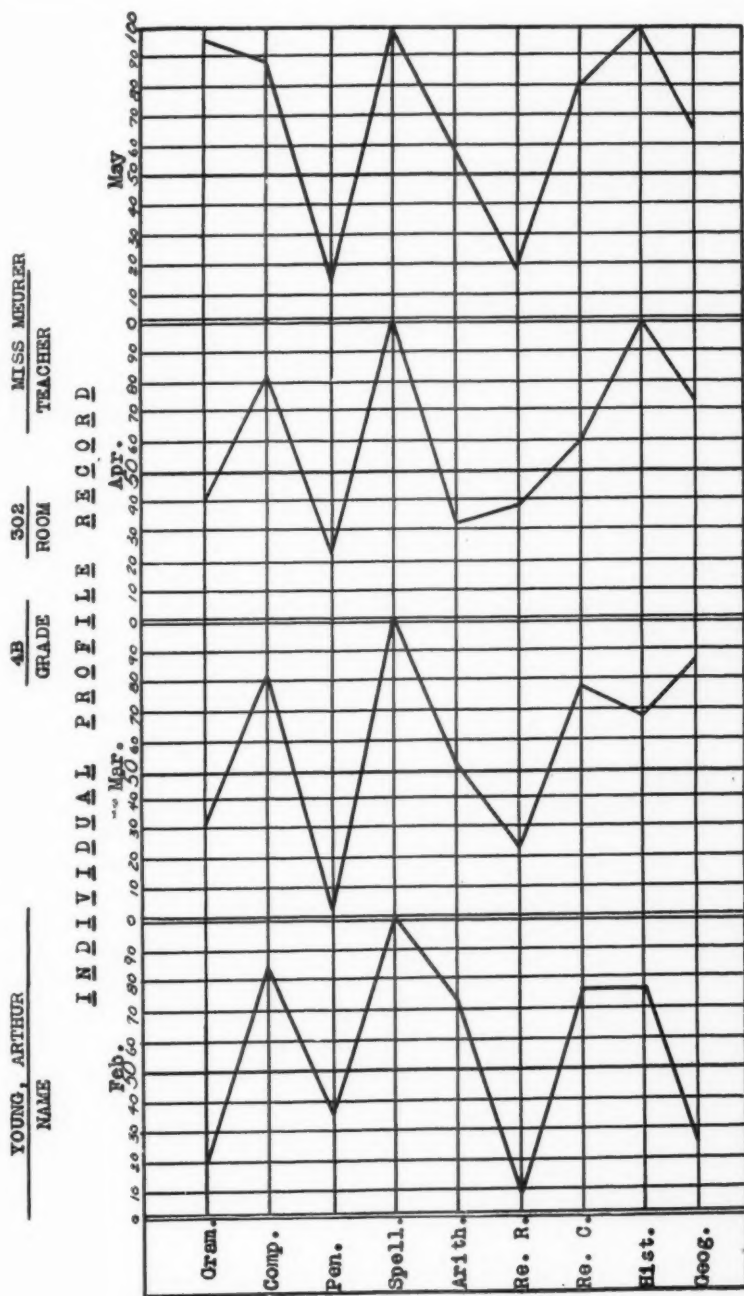


FIGURE 2.—Arthur is the youngest boy in his class, but has one of the highest mental ages. His skill in reading reflects itself in his success in history and geography. His low ranking in penmanship is probably due to his physical immaturity.

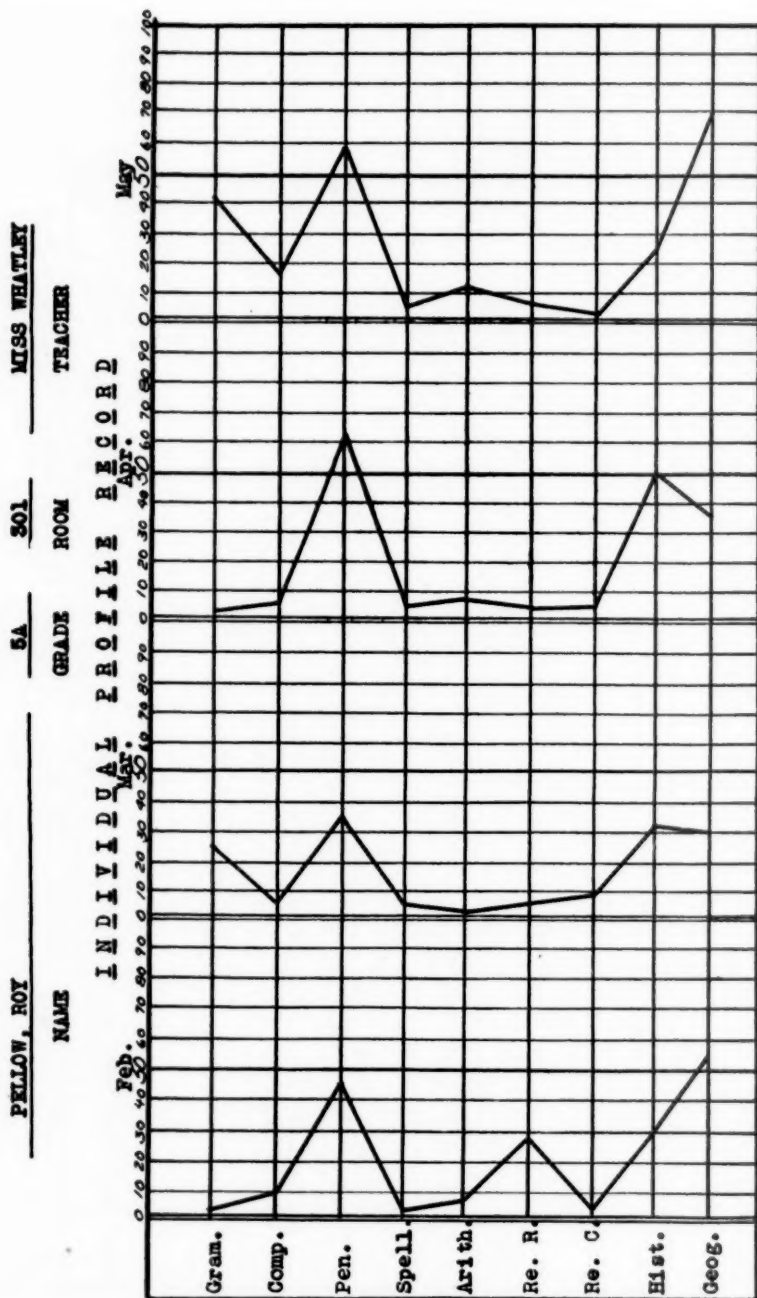


FIGURE 3—Roy, one year over-age for his grade, illustrates a type whose whole academic achievement calls for adjustment. A psychological test showed his abilities to be such that steps were taken to have him transferred to the special education department. Most of his rankings fall in the lower quartile (lowest twenty-five percent).

HOSKING, FRANCIS

NAME

5B

GRADE

307

ROOM

MISS GARWOOD

TEACHER

INDIVIDUAL PROFILE RECORD

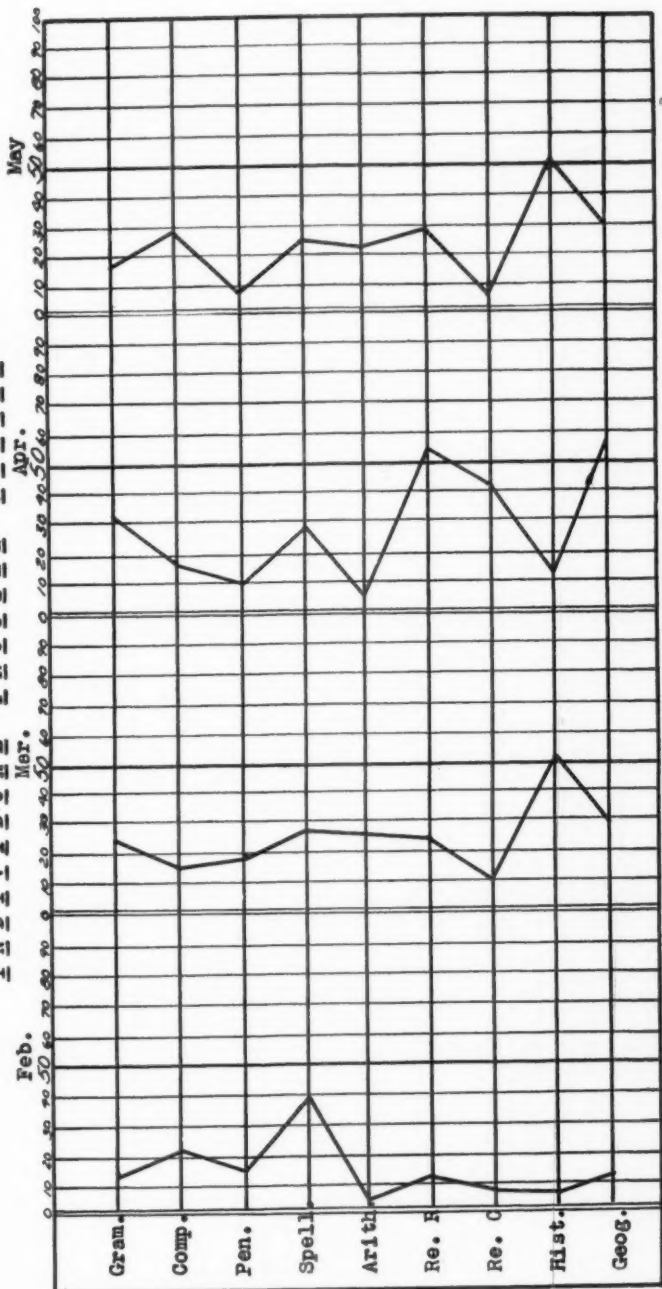


FIGURE 4—Francis' profile is much the same as Roy's (See Figure 3), except that he is of normal age for his grade. Special study is being made of his reading difficulties which seem to be the cause of his poor successes in history and geography.

...one year over-age for his grade, illustrates a type whose whole academic achievement calls for adjustment. A psychological test showed his abilities to be such that steps were taken to have him transferred to the special education department. Most of his rankings fall in the lower quartile (lowest twenty-five percent).

HUFFMAN, ELIZABETH 6B 317 MRS. GRAVES
NAME GRADE ROOM TEACHER

INDIVIDUAL PROFILE RECORD

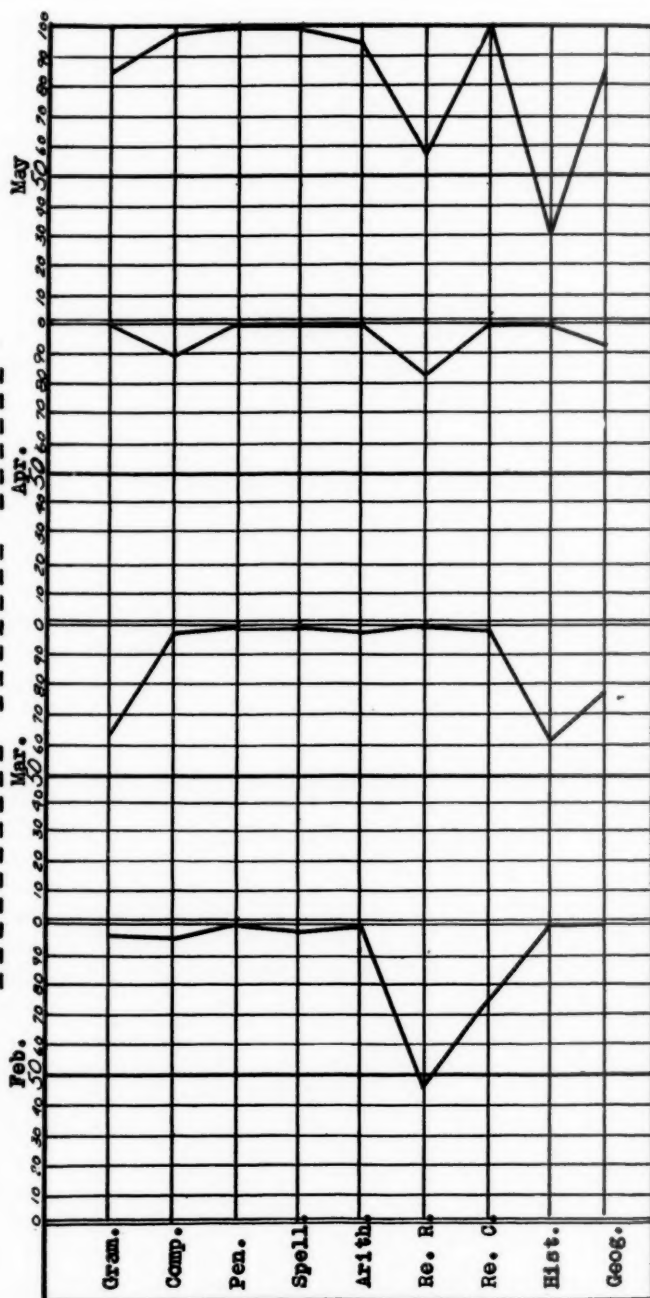


FIGURE 5—The profile record of Elizabeth shows her outstanding successes in practically all of her subjects. At present she is being studied with a view toward a double promotion.

Because the profile contains the data in such simple and convenient form it can easily be used in any conference involving the individual child whose betterment is in question. Experience has shown that the scheme is readily comprehended by the parent when he is called for conference. His thinking is divorced from the traditional report card because of the profile's different nomenclature. Even children easily understand it as will be shown later.

How the use of the profile card improves instruction—As shown before, it singles out for study those who need the benefit of individual instruction and it is those with whom one must work first in improving the standard of a class.

At this point one might raise the question as to how one is to know when the standard is raised. This change can be ascertained only by means of the standardized tests. But it is evident that if it is possible for those at the low part of the subject in any month to raise their percentile ranks the succeeding month, the improvement raises the whole class standard, even though the low pupils apparently push some other class members down in their ranks.

Such a scheme of coordinated marks, as it might be called, likewise has an effect on the teacher, herself. It stimulates her to study the individual pupil. It causes her to strive to improve the discriminating power of her tests and to select the really important points of the completed teaching unit. It invites careful consideration of the course of study and provides an excellent appraisal of the work accomplished. It constantly holds before the teacher the comparison of the pupil's accomplishment with that of his fellows rather than with her own varying and perhaps erroneous standard.

Over and above the ways which one might expect the card to improve instruction, the writer has made a few attempts to ascertain just how much improvement takes place. Because of the limited time the scheme has been in use the objective data are still quite scarce.

During one month of the past semester the children who were outstandingly near the bottom (lower quartile) of their classes in arithmetic were called to the office for private interviews. The technic of the card was briefly and simply explained to them and their attention was called to their status in arithmetic. They were told how their scholastic standing was inspected each month by their principal in his efforts to keep track of their achievements. The hope was expressed that the next month might be better. A very crude method of improving instruction, indeed. But for the forty-two pupils consulted, there was an average gain of 11.4 points in their next month's percentile rank against 0.7 points gain of the 205 who were not consulted. Not very convincing proof, but the trend was there. The point is: without such a scheme of recorded marks it would have been difficult for the principal even to find out who these children were.

The reliability of such measures—Some may question the reliability of such scores derived from teacher-constructed tests of an objective type, or, as is the case in composition and penmanship, a subjective ranking. In any event, it is as good and probably better than the marks on the traditional report cards due to the reasons given above. Of course, the percentile ranks are interpreted with perhaps a plus or minus ten points leeway. But so far only a few checks have been made to date to determine the reliability of such ranks.

Figure 6 shows by means of a scatter-diagram the correspondence between a teacher's subjective ranking of writing samples for two consecutive months. It is obvious that a significant relation exists between the two,—probably the variance due to the teacher's estimates is no more than the change in the samples, themselves.

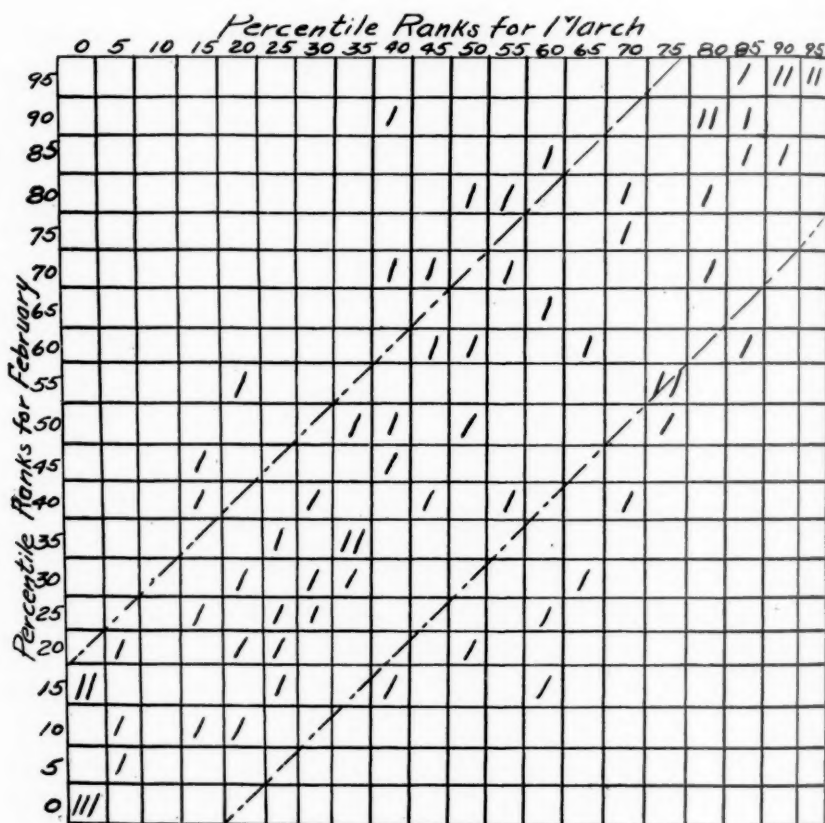


FIGURE 6—A scatter-diagram showing the amount of correlation between the percentile ranks, subjectively determined, of penmanship samples for two successive months.

Another check between the percentile ranks of the arithmetic tests for one month and the percentile ranks of the arithmetic part of the *Stanford Achievement Tests, Form V*, given that same month showed a correlation of $.603 \pm .021$ (Pearson).

Similar correlations with reading and language usage were apparently less significant. See Table 1. However, one must remember that the monthly tests are used to measure a few specific abilities, whereas, the *Stanford Achievement Tests* are more general, and consequently a lower correlation may assume more significance.

TABLE 1—CORRELATION BETWEEN STANFORD ACHIEVEMENT TESTS AND
TEACHER-CONSTRUCTED TESTS

Stanford Achievement, Form V, Arithmetic-----	.603 $\pm$.021
Stanford Achievement, Form V, Language-----	.483 $\pm$.038
Stanford Achievement, Form V, Reading-----	.481 $\pm$.037

Conclusion—In the preceding paragraphs the writer has offered for consideration a scheme which, though laden with all the errors of any educational measuring stick, has the advantage of assembling a growing graphical picture of a child's achievements during the semester. It is easy to understand, its form is compact, and it seems to possess many of the characteristics of standardized tests which, however, are not available for monthly use in all subjects and therefore must be supplemented.

It is hoped that this article may suggest to others the devising of similar schemes which with more refinements and greater accuracy will become a valuable tool in the location of academic problems and the consequent improvement of instruction.

TEACHERS weak in methods and technic find immediate assistance from demonstrations providing they know their own needs. Experienced teachers doing experimental work gain a great deal from seeing some one else, who is likewise experimenting, demonstrate her interpretation of the new thing being worked out. Then there is the experienced, capable teacher who is always looking for new ideas, and devices that will add to her general knowledge and ability. She enjoys and asks for demonstrations to enlarge her teaching experience and ability.—Gertrude E. Munn, Chapter IV.

AN EXPERIMENT WITH REPORTS TO PARENTS

ROBERT B. ABBOTT

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EARLY in the fall of the year of 1929-30 the writer called a meeting of the faculty to consider the question of report cards. At this meeting he made the suggestion that we write letters rather than fill out a typical report card. Discussion brought out the following points:

Possible plan

1. Use the principal's letter-head for the letters.
2. Include a section (one paragraph ordinarily) on the child's progress in subjectmatter. For example, "Joe's work is entirely satisfactory in all subjects except reading. In art and music he is doing exceptional work. In reading, his chief difficulty etc.—"
3. Include a section on character traits, personal habits, social difficulties or other accomplishments or deficiencies that affect the development of the child's "personality".
4. Letters to be signed by the teacher and read and approved by the principal.
5. Where the teacher felt that a conference with the parent would be valuable, when she wished to impart or receive information that the child should not hear, she should ask for a conference stating the time that she would be free to see the parents.
6. Due to the time it would take to write a letter as compared with a report card, report letters should be sent out every eight weeks for all pupils.
7. Letters might well be sent at any time, but particularly at four-week intervals to the parents of the children who are having considerable difficulty at school—whether academic, social, emotional, or physical. Requests for conferences with parents are better in all such instances.
8. The principal should send out a mimeographed letter to parents giving the proposed plan and stating the reasons for following it,—the letter to include a request for suggestions and comments from the parents on the plan and also such comments on the report letters as would aid the teacher in teaching the child.

Possible advantages

1. Puts the emphasis on the growth of the whole child.
2. Better psychologically because it looks to the effect of the report on the child.
3. Fits each individual child.
4. We can, and should, more easily mark the child in terms of his ability and what should be expected of him—rather than entirely on the basis of comparison with the class.
5. Allows definite statement of the child's difficulties, whether academic, social, or physical.
6. Insures closer cooperation of parent and school because of more definite statement of the child's difficulties.
7. Allows parent to write information to teacher by providing space and encouraging parent to make comments.
8. Allows teacher to encourage the child by commenting on achievements other than those listed on the ordinary report card.
9. It probably means that the teacher would need to know the child better in order to write such a letter. This would also include better knowledge of his subjectmatter needs.

10. Instead of saying in effect, "these are John's weaknesses. What are you going to do about it?" say, "these are John's difficulties and here is a possible program for overcoming them. We can deal with his academic needs, for the most part, but we need to work together on these personal growth problems."
11. It makes the report a teaching act rather than a clerical job.

Possible disadvantages

1. Takes a great deal of time—possibly more than teachers can afford.
2. May not give parents satisfaction, particularly if they are looking for grades on subjects.
3. May not drive the child to further effort as a report on his accomplishment in subjects may do.
4. May allow the teacher to teach without keeping records of the progress of her pupils in subjectmatter.
5. May be too personal.

Studying and preparing for the new reports—There still remained the question of whether the theoretical advantages of such a report letter could actually be attained in practice. Before giving further consideration to the organization of the plan, it was decided to try to write letters, one for an average pupil, one for a weak pupil, (socially or academically) and one for an excellent pupil. These were to be brought in at another meeting. Most of these letters were shown to the principal before the meeting day, which allowed him to make suggestions and to know which letters would best serve as models in case there were no opportunity for all to read theirs. The principal also attempted to write some letters, discovering that he needed more information than he had on the children, and that a technic of writing such letters would be helpful.

The second meeting found a group with more definite suggestions and very definite problems. With the principal acting as group leader, we plunged into the problems. The time element in writing reports was a big problem. Rather than throw out the plan on that basis alone, however, we made note of the fact that as we individually developed a technic of writing letters, the time taken to write them would not be as great as these first letters would indicate, and that the advantages might be great enough to make it worth the time and labor involved.

A few of the letters were read, the principal calling for those he knew presented either the difficulties that should be brought out or the ideas and technics that should be included. These served as a basis for a discussion that brought out the following points:

1. We needed to know more about our children to be able to write letters such as these.
2. We should be definite in our statements, giving instances or the instance from which we drew our conclusions. (This proved to be important, we found later. It was much more valuable to the parent and the child, as measured in terms of changed conduct, for the teacher to write, "Robert does not pay close attention to the work of the class. In arithmetic he

often does not hear the explanations or assignments of the teacher and must be told individually." than writing, "Robert is inattentive.")

3. It is well to tie up an accomplishment of the child with something in which he needs to make progress. When pointing out that Lester is careless and untidy in his written work, note that he is very careful of his personal appearance. Thus ideals are particular rather than general, and the teacher uses an ideal the child has so that it aids in developing habits and attitudes he has not acquired.
4. The teacher must get at causes—at least at immediate causes if not at ultimate causes. The report is not satisfactory with "George is weak in arithmetic" but must go on to say that he "does not know the following combinations" with a suggestion on how the parents may help him if they wish. Or "George is not getting along well in his class because he does not remember that he must take his turn. For example---- etc."
5. It makes considerable difference how the letter is worded. It should be worded so that the teacher's objective yet personal interest in the growth of the child is shown. "John is unruly and belligerent" may give the impression that the teacher is taking it as a personal affront. It is better to indicate just what is meant by writing "In working with his classmates, John is often belligerent and inclined to break the rules of the group." This is not necessarily tact. It is making certain that the point of view of the teacher is understood by the parent and the child, as well as the facts of the case.
6. The school should assume in most cases full responsibility for the teaching of tool subjects, asking parents only in special cases to assist (and then only under the guidance of the school). The school is technically prepared to teach subjectmatter as parents are not. Parents and school should co-operate closely on development of character traits, habits and attitudes.
7. Each letter should fit the needs of each child. The type of letter that would lead John to further effort would cause Doris to withdraw into herself, considering herself a failure. It is best to try persuasion and to interest the child in making an improvement rather than forcing him in any way. Remember that the letter is a teaching act—not a clerical job.
8. Judge children on childish levels—not by adult standards. If we continue to judge them on the basis of what children of their age can do and want to do they will be, in the long run, better adults than if we are always comparing them with what they should be as adults.
9. It is easier to write letters for the exceptional child—those who stand out in the group, either above or below the average. It is hard to write something distinctive, individual about the average child. This indicates a need to observe more carefully and to know better the average child. It means that we need to develop a technic of recording as well as of observing the traits and activities of pupils.

The meetings above described took place early in the semester, which left us considerable time in which to start our observation and record keeping before the first report letters were to be sent out. The teachers began immediately to prepare ways and means of keeping records and technics of studying their children. The records kept varied considerably, ranging from records that were kept in mind to those in which the teacher kept a notebook with two or three pages for each child on which she recorded the pupil's accomplishments, traits or characteristics, and progress. The regular record books were

continued for academic records, but were found not to be as important as the teacher formerly thought them.

The principal prepared a mimeograph letter which was sent out with the report letters when they were first sent out. Its substance and tenor can best be indicated by including a copy of it. It should be realized that letters on report cards had been sent out the previous year which gave most of the parents a background for this letter.

Dear Parents:

We are sending you this time a report *letter* rather than a report card. You will note that this letter includes a report of your child's work in the academic subjects (reading, writing, music, social studies, etc.) and a report on character traits or social habits. The statement concerning the subjects will usually be one saying that "John's work is satisfactory in all subjects except -----" followed by a statement of the subjects in which he is doing excellent work and those in which his work is poor. This may be followed by a statement of why he is weak in a certain subject—such as lack of attention, application, or lack of the ground work necessary.

The part of the report that deals with character traits is, in our opinion, much the more important of the two. It will tell definitely the traits in which we think he needs to improve and it will often include a description of the things that happen at school that make us think this. This gives you a definite picture of your child at school. This part of the report will include not only those habits which he needs to improve but will also give him credit for the very fine things he has done during the period.

You will readily see that this type of report has several advantages over the old report card. It still gives you a report on how your child is getting along in his school subjects but it places emphasis on the development of character traits and social habits. You would prefer that your child were able to get along with other children, able to think for himself, honest and upright than that he should stand high in his subjects. The school can do more than you can, ordinarily, to improve his work in subjectmatter, but we need your cooperation and you need ours in making a better boy of him or in overcoming any social handicaps he may have. These report letters should be of much more value along that line than the report cards were.

The report is sent home with the child, who necessarily sees it. In many cases we may want to tell the parent something which we do not wish to have the child see or read. In that case we will ask in a sentence at the bottom of the report letter for a conference with you. We hope that you will make every effort to hold a conference with a teacher in case she asks for it.

We are making this report with the child in mind chiefly—rather than the parent. We are concerned more with its effect on him—encouraging him when he needs encouragement, urging him to greater effort when that is needed, praising him when he needs praise, showing which acts we highly approve of and those of which we disapprove. Report cards often discourage the child who has just begun to succeed and often give some children a "don't care" attitude because they so seldom get good grades as compared with the rest of the class. Not all children can get good grades. Why give some of them an idea that they can't succeed, and others the idea that they are succeeding when they aren't doing their best? All children, however, can learn to be honest, play fair, get along with others, and other like character traits.

We are trying this report letter plan for this year. Since it requires a great deal more work on the part of the teacher, we are sending out reports to all children only at eight-week intervals. On children who are doing unsatisfactory work we will send reports at four week intervals or notify you in some manner.

We would greatly appreciate your reaction to this type of report. Will you please tell us on the back of the report letter what you think of it? Any comments of information that will be of assistance to us in knowing and teaching your child will be of considerable value. The report letter is only a substitute for a personal conference with the parent. Where it is possible for you to come to the school and talk with the teacher that is, of course, much more satisfactory.

Sincerely yours,

Principal.

We began making out the report letters about one and one-half weeks before it was time to send them out. The teachers made sample letters and also made outlines of what they wished to say about each child. These were the basis of two individual conferences with the principal. The teachers' point of view and attitude toward their children were fine from the first and they realized that this type of report allowed them to show parents their goals in teaching and to carry out their work in accordance with their philosophy.

Results from the new reports—Needless to say the individual conferences over the letters offered the principal a fine opportunity to discover the problems of the teacher, help to delineate them, and to the extent that he was able, help her to solve them. For the most part the problems were in terms of social adaptation as well as individual development; the problems extended into every field of teaching. Since the conferences were on the children they were entirely objective; there was no feeling on the part of the teacher that there was personal criticism of her work. There was, instead, a feeling of a common, goal and educational problem to be solved to the best of our ability. Many invitations to visit the classroom were issued by the teachers as a direct result of these conferences. (The conferences were a part of the regularly scheduled conference plan of the principal.)

It should be noted that the report letter plan fitted in as an essential and consistent cog in the rest of the school program. The program included an emphasis on social studies for the year; an organization of the school providing for many activities designed to develop pupil leadership and responsibility, and an activity program in which projects and problems called for the use and understanding of subjects (by pupils).

The result of the report letters from the point of view of its effect on children is hard to measure. How much of the growth on the part of the children in ability to work with groups as leaders or followers, to plan and organize, to find information when needed, to think, to take responsibility and to be an individual is due to the report letters is impossible to determine, because it was but a part of the learning situation created in the school (and elsewhere). We can say that there was noticeable growth in these abilities and in wholesome attitudes. The teachers have a distinct feeling of worthwhile accomplishment.

There were, however, several things that were apparently due to the report letters:

1. After the report letters went home there was obvious improvement on the part of children who had tended to disturb the class. The definite statement of the nature of the offenses or attitudes often brought a different point of view of his actions to the child, and the fact that his parents knew what he was doing in school seemed to make a great difference. Much of the *conscious* development of character traits of all pupils can be laid at the door of the letters.

2. There was greater effort to overcome the academic difficulties listed in the letters. Apparently putting these weaknesses in black and white and sending them to parents in the very definite statements we used made it possible for the parents to exert greater influence, or made it easier for the pupil to know just where to direct his efforts.

3. Parents understood the purpose and methods of the school as they never had before. This understanding undoubtedly had an influence on the attitude of the children toward the school, since it is often a reflection of the attitude at home.

4. Parents cooperated with the teachers in carrying out "programs" designed to help their children better than ever before. These programs usually related to attitudes and social or individual habits but sometimes dealt with the child's academic problems. The school influenced home attitudes and habits more than formerly, in many instances. Parents often commented, "that is just the trouble I am having at home with John," after receiving a letter from the teacher. This exchange of facts was followed by a tendency on the part of the school and the home to carry out the same program in overcoming the trouble.

5. Subjects assumed their proper relationship both to parents and children. We no longer graded the children on isolated subjectmatter after saying to them "what is important is what you are and what you do." We tended to judge them and report to them and their parents on the things that we thought most important.

6. The report letters often served as a program for the teacher and the child to follow out for the following period. This was sometimes true of parent and child.

The report letters were not satisfactory to all parents by any means. The many comments received on the back of the first reports were proof enough, however, of their general approval. Many commented, "We very much appreciate this new type of report."

A few comments, however, were along the line of, "I want to know just how well my boy is doing in school work. I know already what his faults are and that's my job. You stick to your job of teaching reading, writing, arithmetic, and I'll take care of the other things."

To determine the opinion of the parents as a group we sent out a questionnaire near the end of the school year, as follows:

We would like to have from each parent in the district a very frank statement of his approval or disapproval of our report letter plan as carried out this year. We want this information to guide us in making our plans for next year and to answer more fully the questions that have come from other school systems about the plan.

Do you: approve, disapprove, very decidedly approve, very decidedly disapprove, doubtful? (Underline one)

Why? -----

What suggestions for improvement would you make? -----

Please return this to us

TABLE 1—ATTITUDES OF PARENTS TOWARD NEW REPORTS						
	Very Decidedly Approve	Approve	Doubtful	Disapprove	Very Decidedly Disapprove	Total
Number	61	120	16	14	11	222
Percent	27	54	8	6	5	100

Two hundred twenty-two families (Table 1) reported out of an approximate two hundred fifty in the school (above kindergarten). Of the families reporting, 81 percent favored the report letters, 11 percent disapproved and 8 percent were doubtful. This report shows a very general and generous approval of so radical a departure from customary report cards.

The comments were illuminating and a few examples pro and con will serve to show the point of view of the parents.

Approve:

Because it is much more important to know how my child is meeting life than to have an attempt made at an exact grade in academic subjectmatter.

It seems that this system lays more stress on character building of the child as well as giving the parent an idea as to how the child stands in his studies. I most certainly approve and hope it continues.

The individual analysis of each child is bound to result in a more detailed report, helpful to teacher, parent and child—much more accurate information can be given of each child's own needs.

The parent receives so much more knowledge about the child than just the graded report cards. It is a satisfaction to know the home training reflects so much on the school work and play. It also brings the teacher and parent closer together.

We like the type of report card very much because of its personal touch and the individuality of each pupil.

Because they go with the new method of teaching we have now.

Disapprove:

I am not at all in favor of the report letter. In the first place I want to know how Ted is doing in the different studies and I have absolutely no way of knowing. I have not had a grade on a single study for two or three years. If I ask the teachers, they say, "Oh Ted is getting along fine." That does not mean a thing to me. I want something to *compare* each time he brings his report home. If I find he is not as good as the time before there is something to show him and

he can see the difference himself too. I continually ask him what grade he got in different subjects and I never know. He doesn't know or hasn't got his paper back. I just find out finally whether he passes or not.

It would seem that the defect in the present system is the inability to watch progress in separate studies. The child's work taken as a whole might be good while he might have a decidedly weak spot in some particular subject. Mark them in each subject separately.

The idea of education as an end is too indefinite for a child. I think he needs a definite regular report of his progress.

It is impossible for a parent to know or appreciate the effect of your new report card plan in the group as a whole; the effect especially upon the students whose attitudes toward each other are often exaggerated by the old grade system. I like to see a new plan tried long enough for definite results. We parents can judge from only one angle. Personally I prefer the old report card with grades on each subject because the preference for certain subjects with my children I believe are a matter of "environment" which can be largely controlled by home encouragement and help. I have in the past rewarded my children for good grades—helping their school bank account. It has been quite easy thus with added home help to change C's to A's with our children. According to your new plan I can be of no service except as regards school citizenship because I know little of the quality of work being done or the weak points.

It is not comprehensive enough and could not be used to advantage by a child leaving this school and entering another.

It will be noticed that the school's educational program (of parents) has succeeded admirably in many of the "approve" notes and that many of the criticisms of the "disapprove" notes are due to misunderstanding the plan as in "inability to watch progress of the child in separate subjects," "leaving the school," and the idea of being able to tell progress of the child by receiving grades. Parents have an overwhelming faith in the accuracy of the teacher's grades.

What of the future?—There were many suggestions, of which one was repeated rather often, i. e., that at the end of the year a subject-matter report be sent out. The faculty agreed that such a report might well be made at that time since this would allow children transferring to other schools over vacation to have an ordinary report card; would summarize the work of the year in subjectmatter; and since the character traits having to do with school situations would not persist after school was out, there would not need to be so complete a report on them.

The regular school report cards did not suit our ideas after using the letter plan, however, and we drew up a card of our own. This card left space under each subject for the teacher to write in any suggestions that the parents might wish to carry out during the summer, e. g., "needs drill in the following combinations" "should do much reading of easy books," "let him read a little to you every night," etc. It also included a space for standardized test results (recorded as "at grade," "below grade" or "above grade") as well as a space for any remarks that the teacher wished to make as a summary of the child's

growth in character traits during the year. This card was not printed, but merely run off on the ditto machine.

This coming year the matter of report cards vs. report letters will be brought up again in faculty meeting and we will decide what plan to use. We will probably use the report letters since one year is not long enough to give them a thorough test, since they have proved so satisfactory from all points of view in accomplishing the thing in which we are most interested—child growth. The writer believes, however, that having tried it out for a year it should be for the faculty to decide (as a group—not as individuals) whether the plan should be carried on. The principal, of course, is a member of the group in this case and possibly the leader, but not in the same position he would be in if he were advocating trying out a new plan or procedure. In the latter case, he might ask the faculty to cooperate with him in the new plan (insisting that it be carried out) rather than asking them to decide whether or not it should be tried.

If the report letters are continued there are several points which may well be improved. 1. The mechanics of the process may be improved by having the secretary type the letters rather than having the teachers write them longhand. This would mean that teachers could hand a corrected copy to the secretary with the inserted words, re-paragraphing etc. that ordinarily happens to the first copy of any written material without having to spend the extra time and care in recopying it. 2. Our standards of what to expect of children of different ages need to be more objective and more carefully worked out. This comes with experience in handling children—especially when using this type of report to parents—but can be refined by a conscious effort on the part of a group of teachers to set up such standards. 3. We need to improve our outline for observing and recording child growth. Such an outline would include, for example: physical growth, mastery of tool subjects, mental growth, emotional growth, social growth, and individual abilities and interests as main headings with subheadings to be developed. 4. Our methods of recording our observations of children need to be pooled and technics developed by some of the teachers need to be made known to all with discussions resulting in standards of recording for the school. It is not necessary that every teacher use the same technic, but it is well that each teacher use a plan which will be of greatest value to her—resulting in the greatest good to the greatest number of children.

THERE is a list of local and state principals' organizations at the back of this yearbook.

THE PUPIL REPORT AND SUPERVISION¹

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THE report card presents the aims of the school to the home. It is a definite statement of school objectives, and is usually accepted by parents as the *ultimate* goal. Pupils come to look upon marks as means of approval from both parents and teachers. Obviously, such assumptions on the part of children and adults seriously affect instruction. The purpose of this article is to raise questions and to offer suggestions which principals need to consider in a supervisory program.

Are report cards administrative or supervisory in purpose?—There are many criticisms typical of reports because they often stress the administrative phase of the school program. Some administrative items are necessary and do not decrease the value of the reports. The administrative items usually include: the name of the school, the school system, the name and grade of the individual, and the year of the report card. It is necessary to include the days absent, times tardy and promotion record. The signature of the parent may or may not be considered an administrative factor, but space must be reserved for it. Other items as family history, health, etc., have been proven more valuable on a separate form. Unless for some peculiar reason the administrative items need to be stressed, these items should be given an unimportant place on the card.

The supervisory phases of the report card are sometimes supplemented by written statements concerning the type of activity expected. This procedure is very valuable at times and is of great assistance in any change in policy. These statements are, however, of value chiefly in their flexibility and therefore should be included in such a way that they can be changed to show progress in adopting school policies. Report cards developed in this way can help in carrying out supervisory programs and help in understanding the philosophy of education.

An error that has frequently been made and must be avoided is the apparent conflict of the supervisory program and items noted on the report card. A common example of this error is that of stressing the wise use of leisure time in the instructional program and then the complete neglect of this aim on the report card. This omission has happened so frequently that the basic aim is oftentimes entirely forgotten and other items over-emphasized. Thus we fail to help the pupil in developing himself in the light of the best educational aims and supervisory practices.

¹The writer acknowledges the encouragement and assistance of Dr. Milo B. Hillegas, Dr. Cecile Flemming, and various graduate students of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

How can a report improve the welfare of a pupil?—The report is a digest of what is accomplished and as such acts as a guide for the pupil. If the pupil is to consider reading, writing and arithmetic as the only aim to be accomplished in the school then these only should be listed on the report. If, however, the pupil is to consider cooperation with others as important, this item should be given a very definite place on the report and its relationship to the fundamental skills should be indicated. If cooperation with others is of greater value to the welfare of the pupil than reading, then the item considered most important should be given a larger and more conspicuous place.

Report cards that are not understood by pupils are of little value. The items to be checked should be thoroughly understood by the pupils and the type of checking or value of the check should be understood. Too often the teacher and supervisor understand the report and think it of real worth but if the pupil is asked, the meaning has been entirely distorted or lost. The pupil must understand clearly the goal he is to achieve and also have definitely in mind the quality or ideal to be achieved. He must also realize that there are many steps before achieving the ideal. He must appreciate how much he progresses toward the realization of the aim.

Is the emphasis to be placed on the individual skills or the development of character traits? It has been claimed that only those traits that can be accurately measured should be placed on the report. Will this help in carrying out the aims of education or develop individuals who are "good" citizens? In what way can the report further these aims and not appear to be in conflict with them,

A study of the opinions of teachers, parents, and others—Recently, the writer circulated an inquiry blank among parents, teachers, administrators, and pupils of a New York City school. The questions asked for opinions on both the administrative and supervisory phase of report card use and construction. Briefly, the findings were as follows:

1. *Frequency*—Parents and administrators agreed it should be sent every six weeks. The teachers believed that once or twice a term was sufficient. The pupils favored either twice a term or every six weeks.
2. *Delivery*—There was no general agreement as to how the report should be sent. The pupils were overwhelmingly in favor of sending it by mail.
3. *Type of marks*—As to the type of marking to be used on the report there was no agreement. The parents and pupils were inclined to favor the use of A's, B's, and C's. The teachers favored the words, "excellent," "good," "fair," and "poor." The administrators were apt to favor the use of the graph for showing growth.
4. *Character rating*—All groups believed that character rating was of great value although the pupils rated this secondary to subjectmatter. There was general agreement that the character traits should be printed in a full descriptive sentence.

5. *General summary*—A general summary was considered least important and a report of progress in remedial work was given third place by all groups except the pupils who rated it fifth place. A general subjectmatter rating and a graph showing growth were not generally agreed upon.

6. *Pupils or parents?*—All the groups agreed that the report should be a record for the pupil and give information to the parent.

7. *Details*—The parents desired the reports to be quite detailed. The teachers, pupils and administrators however wished it to be a general summary of progress. It was generally agreed that the report of achievement should contain separate items, such as: effort, homework, subjectmatter, etc. The administrators were equally divided in opinion on the above statement, some preferred merely a general statement of growth.

8. *Health*—There was no agreement as to how to note health on the report cards.

Eight principles of report card marking—The principles underlying the use and construction of report cards are derived chiefly from three sources: (1) The suggestions of teachers regarding the relationship between classes activities and reports, (2) an examination by the writer of sample cards from progressive school systems, and (3) the recommendations of current surveys and studies.¹ Briefly, the basic principles may be summarized, as follows:

1. The report should be a broad, flexible, humanitarian system measuring the progress and achievement in which the development of the child's welfare is of main importance.
 - (a) Items should be pertinent and should be given in specific terms.
 - (b) It should be formalized enough to render it useful as contrasted with traditional administrative forms.
2. The aims of education should be considered and used as a guide in making a pupil report to the parent.
 - (a) It has been suggested that reports should be based upon the "Cardinal Principles of Education." However, such plans might lead to a cumbersome report.
 - (b) It is necessary to choose only certain items that seem most important.
3. The report should be constructed in such a way that it will develop an understanding of the whole personality of the child. It should include the health, the work, the social development, and the character development of the child.
 - (a) Special abilities should be stressed.
 - (b) The report should, however, avoid attempting to show too much as it would include too many minor items and be confusing.
 - (c) It should be a general index of growth, and strive to give a complete picture.
 - (d) It should be a general summary of data and opinions. If details are important those should be incorporated into a separate report that may be attached to the regular form.
 - (e) It should be a general resume of activities that are integrated.
4. The report should be in terms that are understood by both the pupil and the parent. It should lead the parents to a better understanding of the pupil. It should lead the parent to a cooperative understanding of what the school is attempting to do.

¹The writer acknowledges help from unpublished studies by Glenn Henderson, Martha Van Brussel, and Evelyn Hubbard.

- (a) It should be definitely stated whether the marks are based on the average of the group, the ability of the child or the standard average for the grade. It should also be noted whether or not the report is a report of progress for the month or is the present standing of the child.
 - (b) Specific technics acquired by the child that are of special interest to the parent should be included. Also specific technics or procedures used by the teachers that are effective, should be included.
 - (c) The report should show progress in terms of the pupil's ability. If there is an accurate measure of this.
 - (d) The report should measure and report in some definite way the progress of pupils in academic skills and achievement, as correlated with the child's ability to succeed.
 - (e) Character traits or conduct should be noted by a descriptive sentence.
 - (f) Special aptitudes and abilities should be commented upon. Any trait needing improvement should be noted.
5. The report should aid the pupil in self-understanding and should stimulate him to a steady and continuous growth utilizing his various abilities. It should provide opportunity for the pupil to express views concerning his progress and growth.
 6. The report should describe that which it purports to describe.
 7. The report should be limited to that which can be reliably described.
 8. Remedial work or any special adjustment is an important phase of school work but reports concerning this type of work should be on a separate form and not be a part of the regular report. It should, however, be of such nature that it can be attached or fastened to the regular report.

Conclusion—A report card shows in its make up the basic viewpoints of education which are accepted by school authorities. Some of these viewpoints are publicly acknowledged and others are never considered by the educators. If the report contains only those items that can be measured then the educator should realize fully that the parent will consider those things that can be measured as more important than any other phase of school work. All educational principles acknowledged, inherent, or even superimposed must be mulled over seriously before a report is accepted for use.

The report card should always be considered in a supervisory program in order to direct the work toward the objectives, as planned by the supervisory force and teachers. The report should be a careful analysis by the teacher of pupil progress in relation to the basic aims of education and should also aid in the development of a supervisory program. It is of great value in a program involving pupil adjustment and acts as the basis for the organization of the entire school system.

Many of the above points are neglected or lost sight of when a report card is being developed and therefore a report is accepted and used that merely repeats the weaknesses of past experiences rather than one of real value to all phases of an educational program.

CREATING EFFECTIVE PUPIL REPORTS

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THAT local communities are vitally interested in education is shown by the financial support of public schools. It follows that school authorities should keep the patrons informed as to the progress of their children. Furthermore, the complete development of children is now visualized on a much broader educational basis than was true some years ago. Today parents share with teachers the creation of a favorable learning environment. In the maintenance of these favorable conditions for education the report card should play an important role.

How report cards originated—The pupil report had its origin in a "deportment" card. In 1863 Superintendent Sill in his annual report to the Detroit Board of Education suggested that there should be devised "some just and uniform plan for keeping account of scholarship and deportment of all the pupils in the schools and also some system of frequent reports to parents of pupils' standings in junior and senior grades in high school." This suggestion was apparently not carried out, for we find the principal of the high school complaining in 1889 that "The work of monthly reports (to parents) would be enormous and unnecessary, for more important work should be sacrificed by teachers for this drudgery. Parents may assume fair work if no notice to the contrary is received." He proposed instead that teachers meet every two weeks to discuss pupils' work.

Up to this period, it was customary for teachers to keep all pupils' records in a school register based upon the one recommended by Horace Mann in his tenth report given in the *Connecticut Common School Journal* of 1846. This register contained all information pertaining to the pupil and was devised primarily to keep an official record of school attendance. It included the name of the pupil and that of his guardian, date of entrance and leaving, age, attendance, tardiness, number of days in the school term, school marks, and the state of the weather each day. Parents were allowed to examine the register, if they wished, but it belonged to the school and remained there.

The spread of democratic ideas in education brought the home and school into closer relationship and by the middle nineties, the deportment card had come into general use, evidently, and had much the same form and content as the conservative types in use today. One card was used from Grades 1-8 but pupils in Grades 1 and 2 were not marked in as many subjects. The emphasis was entirely on subjectmatter but a mark was given in deportment, or conduct, as it was sometimes called. Citizenship, at that time, was studied as a branch of history under the title "Civil Government" in the upper grammar grades.

Some recent trends in pupil reports—We have sympathy for the teacher of yesterday who thought some of her pupils were “bad” and marked them accordingly, often permitting herself to be biased in giving marks in academic subjects because of a personality conflict. A recent study¹ found that the actual educational achievement of the so-called problem children studied was not significantly below that of normal children. The fact was noted that such extrovert traits as truancy, stealing, and disobedience tend to affect immediate school achievement, but the introvert tendencies of fear, seclusiveness, and day-dreaming showed little immediate effect. Yet these latter are very important to education since they are frequently responsible for vocational maladjustment when school days have passed.

The task of marking each pupil in her room presents not one definite problem to a teacher but many which, furthermore, vary in complexity. In order to rate each one fairly, she must first have a reliable standard by which to mark; second, it must be understandable to both pupil and parent as well as herself; third, she must weigh the accomplishment of her pupil, if that is to be her basis of marking, or, what is more difficult still, she must evaluate the pupil's personality as evidenced by his character traits. When this has been accomplished there is still the necessary matter of putting the marks on the cards. In order to justify this effort, it seems essential that the card should be as meaningful to all concerned as possible.

Table 1 shows that the trend is toward a lengthy period between reports rather than to send a monthly record of the child's work to his parents. It is significant that of the 452 elementary school cards from 65 training schools and 436 cities and counties, 52 per cent were sent out monthly and 25 percent every six weeks, while 14 percent report work only four times per year, probably twice each semester.

TABLE 1—FREQUENCY WITH WHICH ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS SEND OUT THE PARENTS' REPORT CARDS

Number	Frequency	Number of Elementary Schools	Percent of Elementary Schools Using Each Frequency
1	Four times per year.....	64	14
2	Five times per year.....	14	3
3	Six times per year.....	113	25
4	Monthly.....	234	52
5	Miscellaneous (less than four and scattered)	27	6
Total		452	100

Chapman, H. B., and Ashbaugh, E. J. “Report Cards in American Cities.” *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, October, 1925.

¹Paynter, Richard M. and Blanchard, P. M. *Study of Educational Achievement of Problem Children*, Commonwealth Fund, 1929. 72 p.

Chapman and Ashbaugh grouped the cards in their study for (1) university teacher training institutions, (2) county school systems, and (3) cities of more than ten thousand population. No rural school, they found, reported quarterly, but 22 percent of the second group and 12 percent of the third group did. Apparently the smaller cities tend to report more frequently than rural districts of large cities.

In trying to determine the marks to give pupils indicating their achievement, several methods have become familiar, for example, the percentage method (1-100), marking by letter (A, B, C, D,) by numbers (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), or the descriptive method (excellent, good, fair or average, poor, and failure.)¹ These schemes have been in use for so long a period that parents feel that they understand them.

Since standardized tests and ability groupings based on them have become so much a part of school work, some cities² are attempting to use allied ways of interpreting the pupils' scholastic efforts by using the percentile method (rank in group), the three-group method (above average, average, and below average), the child's rank in his class, the T-score (based on entire age group), and the test-score method (actual score made, supplemented by average age or grade record). Difficulties lie in the way of using these newer methods, meritorious though they may be in many respects, because they are hard to interpret to parents. Table 2 shows the percentage of the 842 cards examined by Chapman and Ashbaugh which use the various methods outlined above.

TABLE 2—METHODS OF REPORTING SCHOOL MARKS TO PARENTS

RATING METHOD	PERCENTAGE EMPLOYING EACH METHOD			
	Elementary School	Junior High School	Senior High School	Total
Percentage.....	29	23	37	31.6
Letters translated.....	35	28	34	34.3
Letters.....	17	26	17	17.8
Groups.....	7	16	5	7.0
Symbols.....	8	7	5	6.3
Graph.....	0.5	0	1	0.7
No rating.....	3.5	0	1	2.3
Total number of forms.....	452	70	320	842

Chapman, H. B., and Ashbaugh, E. J. "Report Cards in American Cities." *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University. October, 1925.

When the teacher was guided by the old subjectmatter goals which dominated educational policy, in giving the pupil a mark to indicate

¹Heck, Arch O. *Administration of Pupil Personnel*. Ginn and Co., 1929. 479 p.

²Allen, I. M. "A Plan of Reporting Results of Educational Measurements to Parents." *Proceedings, National Education Association*, 1921. p. 827.

his standing she looked up his record in her class book, averaged the marks found there and transferred the result to his report card. If the pupil had committed no overt act so that her attention was called specifically to him, he was considered an asset to the room and marked accordingly. It is interesting to note that studies of teachers' marks show that teachers tend to penalize the boys, and the marks seem to indicate, as Courtis¹ says, that "for a boy to get a high mark he must be about one-third as much superior in achievement to a girl who receives the same mark as the achievement denoted by a mark of 1 is superior to the achievement denoted by a mark of 2." This study of teachers' judgments showed that boys who had been marked "4" made Stanford test scores that were twice as high as the scores of girls who had been marked "4" by their teacher.

It would serve no purpose to discuss here the variability of teachers' marks as found by other investigators, such as Starch and Monroe,² but it must be kept in mind in discussing the subject generally. School marks have been generally looked upon as a means of reward for the diligent and punishment for the ill-fated ones to whom the touchstone of conformance could not be applied.

Old report cards in the light of new education—What of the teacher who has seen the new vision and is focussing her attention, not upon the child's record of achievement, but upon his growth as an increasingly efficient human being? How can she interpret the child's reaction to his school environment on a card whose only mention of character is an item which connotes his effort or industry in performing teacher-assigned tasks? How can she continue to reconcile the typical report card with Dr. Payson Smith's statement:

The schools are fast learning that the most effective means of developing the desired qualities of citizenship are to be found not in textbooks but in life situations within the school and the class groups themselves. Through these pupil activities the elementary schools are seeking to cultivate those attitudes, ideals, and interests that will make our boys and girls more worthy members of their homes, that will assist them to use their leisure time with profit and that will assure to them that foundation of moral qualities and purposes so necessary to the later fulfillment of their vocational and civic obligations.

The new education raises many questions about many of the typical pupil report cards. That an attempt is being made to answer these questions is shown in the increasing number of cities, small and large, which have revised their report cards so that the new goals of character through school citizenship may be understood more clearly by pupil and parent. In examining a number of the newer type of re-

¹Courtis, S. A. *Why Children Succeed*. Detroit: Courtis Standard Tests, 1925. p. 71.

²Starch, Daniel. *Educational Measurements*. Macmillan Co., 1916.

Also, Monroe, Walter S. *Measuring the Results of Teaching*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928.

port cards recently it was found that items presented for the teachers' consideration ranged in number from 20 to 92, the median being about 35. It was not expected, of course, that teachers would mark every item, for the cards, in some instances, were veritable manuals on character training, but the trends toward revision are significant.¹

An experimental card in Detroit—The writer has been a member of a committee,² which for the past three years, has attempted experimental study of the results of children's spelling achievement when the emphasis was placed upon their control rather than upon their acquisition of subjectmatter. One of the questions which arose early in the work was on how to mark spelling on the pupils' report cards. It was agreed that, temporarily, no mark should be given, since pupils were working on individual problems and records of progress were not being kept.

During the second year of the experiment, the teachers concerned suggested that a different type of report card be used for the pupils in their experimental classes. The new card, they felt, should emphasize the values for which they and their pupils were working. The committee in charge of the experiment worked on the problem in cooperation with the teachers. After discussion and trial of a tentative card, a new card was evolved for use in these classes which stressed the objectives of the study. (See Figures 1 and 2.) As a concession to the parents, marks in academic subjects were provided for. In the majority of cases, parents feel that they have a better idea of what is happening in their children's school lives if it is stated in terms similar to those used in their own school days.

Figures 1 and 2 show the inner pages and the reverse of the experimental card which, in the original form, was a three-by-eight-inch manila card. The academic subjects were listed in the order given so that homeroom and special teachers would find the subjects of their interests close together. Pupils were given no academic marks in art, gymnasium, or auditorium work.

A note to the parents which appeared on the front of the card (Figure 1) explained that the mark given in any trait or school subject would be crossed out only if the child showed need of special training in it. Since the average number of pupils belonging in the experimental classes was about forty-five, every effort was made to reduce the amount of clerical work which would of necessity have to be done in marking the cards. An "S" indicating satisfactory work was printed, therefore, after every item on the card as a time saving device.

¹See *Educational Measurement* by Daniel Starch and *Measuring the Results of Teaching* by Walter Monroe.

²The Committee consisted of Effie M. Downer of the Detroit Teachers' College (Chairman), the following Detroit elementary school principals: Agnes W. Carroll, Evelyn B. Hubbard, Clara E. McConnell, Alice E. Robinson, and the writer. Dr. Stuart A. Curtis was general educational consultant.

DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Experimental Report Card

(Spelling Committee)

Detroit Teachers College

Name
 School Grade
 Teacher Term Ending

To the Parents:

The school today aims to make a good future citizen of your child. To gain this end home and school must work together. His training to be a citizen of worthy character is as much a matter of developing the right attitudes as it is of teaching him facts. It is important that every child should know where his work needs strengthening. Parents and guardians can do much to encourage in the child a desire to improve.

In a few classes this new report card is being tried out which shows your child's progress in two ways: (1) the traits of character and attitudes of mind which are those of a good citizen, and (2) in the progress made in school subjects. The mark given in any character trait or school subject will be crossed out *only* if your child shows the need of special training in it. The standards by which a pupil is judged are placed under subject headings.

You are always welcome to visit the school and confer with teacher or principal on the best means for bringing about your child's improvement.

We shall be glad to know how you like this type of record.

Parent's Signature:

A. READING	S
1. Has good work attack	S
2. Understands what he reads	S
3. Reads well orally	S
B. SPELLING	S
1. Recognizes spelling difficulties	S
2. Knows how to study	S
3. Shows ability to attack new words	S
4. Spells well in written work	S
C. HANDWRITING	
1. Writes at grade level in hand-writing lessons	
2. Judges his work accurately	
3. Writes well in all written work	
D. ARITHMETIC	
1. Knows combinations and tables	
2. Works accurately	
3. Checks work carefully	
4. Reasons well	
E. ENGLISH	
1. Gives oral composition well	
2. Does good written composition	
3. Takes active part in class discussion	
4. Tries to recognize and overcome errors in English	
F. LITERATURE	
1. Reads good literature	
2. Gives good book reports	
3. Participates in daily work	
4. Gives oral composition well	
5. Does good written work	
G. SOCIAL SCIENCE	
1. Knows facts assigned to grade	
2. Gives reports from reference reading	
3. Takes part in socialized discussions	

Rate
Quality

FIGURE 1—OUTSIDE PAGES OF REPORT CARD

CITIZENSHIP

CITIZENSHIP

Date.....

Home Room	Literature	Science	Health	Auditorium	Art	Music	Library
-----------	------------	---------	--------	------------	-----	-------	---------

A. ORDERLINESS

1	Keeps desk and floors in order.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
2	Takes good care of wraps.....	S					
3	Keeps body and clothes clean	S	S	S	S	S	S

B. INDUSTRY AND THRIFT

1	Attacks tasks.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
2	Completes tasks.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
3	Works steadily	S	S	S	S	S	S
4	Takes good care of materials.....	S	S	S	S	S	S

C. PROMPTNESS

1	Has supplies on time.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
2	Finishes his work on time.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
4	Is prompt at his meetings	S	S	S	S	S	S
5	Number of times tardy.....	-	-	-	-	-	-

D. REGULARITY

1	Number of half days absent	-	-	-	-	-	-
---	----------------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---

E. SELF-CONTROL

1	Keeps his temper.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
2	Controls enthusiasm	S	S	S	S	S	S
3	Is a good loser	S					

F. INITIATIVE

1	Goes ahead without being told	S	S	S	S	S	S
2	Finds new worth while tasks to do when work is finished.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
3	Asks worth while questions and offers good suggestions.....	S	S	S	S	S	S

G. COURTESY

1	Waits his turn patiently and quietly	S	S	S	S	S	S
2	Remembers not to pass in front of people.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
3	Listens politely when someone is speaking	S	S	S	S	S	S

H. COOPERATION

1	Works well with others.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
2	Obeys traffic rules				S		
3	Takes only his share of attention and time	S	S	S	S	S	S
4	Is careful not to disturb others.....	S	S	S	S	S	S
5	Helps classes to pass quickly and quietly from room to room.....	S	S	S	S	S	S

FIGURE 2—INSIDE PAGES OF REPORT CARD

Before the cards were given to the pupils there was discussion of the objectives toward which they had been striving so that they were quite prepared for the next step—the marking of the cards by themselves in conference with the teacher. It was interesting to note how little variation there was, on the whole, between the pupil's estimate of his record and that of the teacher. This agreement was probably due to the fact that there had been much incidental discussion of the elements in control which were listed on the card. The discussion had taken place as one phase of the problem-solving activities which were the basis of the pupil's work. Appraising each day's lesson, both from the individual and group standpoints, gave training in judgment which helped the pupil to evaluate his contribution effectively.

The note to the parents on the face of the card explained the position of the school with reference to citizenship and character training. Parents were invited to give their reactions to the card also. In the majority of cases, they liked it. Many commended it highly and some made fine constructive criticisms. Parents whose children's cards showed records of outstanding achievement with the former type of report said that with the new card they could tell little of what had actually been accomplished. The parent whose attitude had always been that of mere acceptance made no comments. In the districts where the level of social intelligence was high, many responses were received from parents. On the other hand, in the district lowest in the social scale, no comments were made. The school principals and the teachers of the experimental classes watched closely the effect of the attention paid to the citizenship traits. One teacher was so interested that she made a tabulation of the reduction in unsatisfactory marks and found it substantial. Although the committee in charge of the work felt that this card was an advance over the old one, another attempt would probably show further improvement.

Conclusion—The type of record which bridges the gap between the school and the home assuredly should be one which will interpret the ideals of the school in its broadest sense. If the goal is to be the acquisition of subjectmatter, a card containing only the names of the various studies pursued by the child may be sufficient. If, on the other hand, the development of the child's whole personality is the goal, those qualities which enter so vitally into the make-up of a complete individual should be given proper consideration by both the home and the school. The report card used should make these ideals clear to the parents.

In a study of college students made by Herriott¹ it was found that the major factors of scholastic success are: (a) previous preparation, (b) intelligence, (c) study habits, (d) an evaluative attitude, (e) a persevering attitude, and (f) a self-confident attitude.

The last three items in particular are definite character traits which may be acquired through training, but which contribute largely to the social efficiency of an individual. The ability to weigh values, to judge, and to persevere to the end that satisfaction and a feeling of confidence result are not peculiar only to the college student. They are present, in less degree to be sure, in the kindergarten child, but to the teacher falls the lot of their continuous development throughout the school career of every child. Parents are willing and anxious to contribute once they understand. To quote Paul Terry:

The school can never be radically different from what the people want it to be. They understand—that its function is to prepare boys and girls to carry on the work of the community when they come of age. . . . People who attended schools several decades ago have little first-hand present day knowledge of them. It is not surprising that many . . . adults believe that reading books and answering the questions are the only important things.²

The problem of Horace Mann's day was to get the pupils into the school. Even as late as 1897, however, attendance was still a problem. Out of a school census of 78,700 children between the ages of seven and sixteen in Detroit in that year 35,894 were in public schools, about 15,500 in private schools, and the remaining number, totalling about 27,000, were not attending any.³ Thanks to progressive educational movements since that time, we now have children in our schools in numbers undreamed of in 1840.

If the present ideals of the school are to be interpreted adequately to the home and thus to society, it is important that every communication between home and school shall stress the objectives of education in understandable terms. A report card, for example, should give more information about a pupil than his mere physical presence in school and the record he achieved in scholastic subjects. As for the teacher, that all-important person, the question of what she is teaching and why must be made clear in contacts with parents to the end that growth shall be stimulated in each child whose life she touches.

¹Herriott, M. E. "Attitudes as Factors of Scholastic Success," *University of Illinois Bulletin*, 1929.

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CHAPTER VI

VITALIZING THE CURRICULUM

THE PRINCIPAL AND CURRICULUM INSTALLATION

HOW THE CHILD SHAPES THE CURRICULUM

DISCOVERING COMMUNITY NEEDS THROUGH THE PRESS

CHILDREN AND CURRICULUMS CHANGE

PUPIL PARTICIPATION AND THE CURRICULUM

ASSISTING TEACHERS TO FORMULATE UNITS OF WORK

VOCABULARIES OF HISTORY AND READING TEXTBOOKS

PRINCIPLES OF THE TEACHING OF SPELLING

IMPROVING LANGUAGE IN THE UPPER GRADES

DIFFERENTIATED ASSIGNMENTS

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER VI

The three primary factors in the learning situation are the child, the teacher, and the curriculum. Chapter VI presents contributions which deal chiefly with the curriculum and general methods.

Curriculum construction has been a major activity during recent years. Committees of teachers, principals, and experts have been appointed in many school systems. The objectives of education have been formulated, activities designed to reach the aims have been proposed, and measures of progress applied. These activities have not only improved the materials of instruction, but they have helped principals to raise the level of teaching performance.

The Department has shown considerable interest in curriculum contents and methods. For example: Horn, Wilson, Brueckner and others discussed various elementary school subjects in 1923 in the *Second Yearbook*, p. 287-432; Stone, King, Davis and others contributed to the *Third Yearbook*, p. 310-37; 483-92; nature study, history, and various methods are found in the *Fourth Yearbook*, p. 205-31, 278-368, music, arithmetic and devices are considered in the *Fifth Yearbook*, p. 306-28, 344-67, 384-92; Potter, Gregory, Newell and others discuss language, reading, and methods in the *Sixth Yearbook*, p. 200-10, 235-60, 294-317; Cotrel and Berman have written about oral and written English in 1929 in the *Eighth Yearbook*, p. 187-217.

The selected list at the end of Chapter VI, includes only a few of the references which principals will need to consult in connection with the supervisory problems of the curriculum.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER VI

VITALIZING THE CURRICULUM

THE PRINCIPAL AND CURRICULUM INSTALLATION

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THE principal can function in curriculum construction and installation in several capacities. In some cities he serves on general directing committees; in other cities he serves on subject committees; while in still other cities he functions upon the "try-out" or experimentation committees.

In every city, where the principal is recognized as the general supervisor in his school, he serves as an important installation official with all new curriculums. He is familiar with all local school conditions, such as the type and ability of the pupils, the community interests and background. Most important of all, he knows definitely the personal and professional characteristics of his teaching force. All of this information places him in a key position to influence the functioning of the new curriculum.

Professional insight—It is necessary for the principal to possess accurate professional insight as to the major objectives of each course. As a professional leader he must know how such a subject or course will influence the lives of the pupils. He must know why the course was prepared. He must be in sympathy with the viewpoint of the committee which prepared the major objectives. He must accept the viewpoint which the committee had in preparing the suggested classroom activities.¹ While the principal may well have professional ideas which are the result of his experience, he will not function adequately without the definite knowledge of the curriculum and its purpose. Hopkins² says:

It is unreasonable to assign a lawyer to install the boilers in a large manufacturing plant and expect the machinery to operate successfully thereafter. He might undertake it if he were driven by necessity, but no one would expect the production to be satisfactory.

Definite training of the principal for the installation of new curriculums may be helpful and necessary. This training may be conducted by the curriculum committee, by the director of curriculum

¹If the principal cannot accept the viewpoint underlying the course of study then he must present his objections and a substitute program. The superintendent then may excuse the school from the regular requirements, but require the principal to justify his special proposals.

²Hopkins, L. T. *Curriculum Principles and Practices*. Benjamin H. Sanborn & Company, 1929. Chapter XII.

construction, by the special supervisors, or by the assistant superintendent in charge of elementary schools. The principal should not resent these attempts at special training. If he does not promote the installation of new curriculum in his school, some other school official will. If an outside official is forced to assume this responsibility, the principal is automatically left out of supervision with little excuse for his office except administration. The writer realizes that this dismal situation is somewhat dogmatically stated, yet supervisory experience in this country confirms the above statement.

Democratic relationships—In our age of democracy in public school administration it is apparent that the principal must be democratic in all his professional relationships. He must be a real inspirational leader who can obtain high type results without coercion or autocratic mandates. The teachers must feel that their principal believes in the new curriculum and has definite familiarity with it. When the teachers have respect for his professional judgment and are inspired by his democratic leadership, the new curriculum has a proper setting for installation.

Definite plans for installation—After the principal has familiarized himself with the new curriculum and is willing to accept all viewpoints of the committee, overlooking any differences of personal opinion, he is ready for some definite plans of installation. The "take it or leave it" attitude on the part of the principal in presenting the new curriculum to his teachers has no place in modern supervision. Five plans are herein suggested for installation:

1. The principal may practice one of the psychological principles of modern salesmanship, namely, that of convincing the purchaser of his need for the goods. In modern business we no longer make purchases or "sign on the dotted line" merely to satisfy some high-powered salesman or to get rid of him. We accept the merchandise or professional service because we feel that we need it. This psychological procedure is valuable for the principal in arousing an interest in the new curriculum. Teachers are continually presenting their instructional problems to their administrator. This contact gives him a golden opportunity to "sell" the new curriculum to meet these problems. In the opinion of the writer it is better for the principal to wait for the psychological moment or to create it by skillful questioning of his teachers, than to call a meeting of his teachers and formally present the new curriculum to them. Teachers' meetings and group discussions are valuable and often essential, yet the teachers should come to such meetings with enthusiasm believing they will receive valuable assistance from the new curriculum and help in solving their instructional problems.

2. The principal may arrange demonstration teaching to arouse enthusiasm for the new curriculum and to clear up any hazy conceptions regarding it.

There are several important steps in demonstration teaching. It is well for the principal to select a limited phase of the new curriculum. Some section which is of importance or may be somewhat misunderstood should be selected. He should choose a competent teacher who is willing to conduct the demonstration. This teacher should prepare her class not to the point of crippling the pupils' spontaneity, but to the degree that the observers may see clearly the phases to be demonstrated.

The teachers observing also need some preparation. They must be enthusiastic regarding the demonstration. They must want to see it, feeling they will get something of value. The principal should place in the hands of these observing teachers a typed list of the activities to be demonstrated. This outline should indicate the relationship between these activities and the new curriculum. With aroused interest and definite preparation the teachers are likely to receive the maximum of benefit from the demonstration.

Instruction should be conducted under typical conditions in a class period of usual duration. Naturally, the teaching must be good, but the observers should realize that the lesson is conducted for the purpose of demonstrating some phase of the new curriculum, good teaching being incidental to this main object. Teachers have been known to attend such demonstrations and come away asserting that they did not see anything especially noteworthy regarding the quality of instruction, missing entirely the main object of the lesson.

The principal should plan the demonstration lesson so that it is followed by an informal conference. At this time the teacher who gave the lesson should be present to lead the discussion or to answer questions. It is hardly fair to her not to be present.

3. The principal may also arrange inter-school visitation. Such visitation should be carefully planned. One step in this planning is the selection of the school to visit. Very often a principal who is a member of the curriculum committee is doing some outstanding work in that field. He can easily arrange for such visits. Details should be planned definitely to secure profitable results. The teacher visited should know of such contemplated visits, and the visitor should observe with sympathetic, intelligent interest.

4. The principal as the director of education within his school should seek the assistance of the experts available in the various fields. These officials may be the special supervisors, the curriculum expert, or the director of elementary education who is often an assistant superintendent. It is an excellent plan for the principal to analyze his own problems with his teaching staff and then send for these experts. Under such conditions the visit of the specialist may function to the best advantage. The administrative arrangement may be comparable to the professional work of the physician of general practice who often calls in the specialist for consultation purposes.

The teacher, however, is not the patient but merely a professional worker seeking assistance with the advice of her principal and the experts. The functioning of the new curriculum is thus a study for intelligent co-workers within the field.

5. The principal should arrange testing and experimentation as another valuable means of installing a new curriculum. The testing should be as objective as possible. The curriculum, being subject to experimentation and constant improvement, is rarely installed in its final form. The content is a growing instrument of instruction which changes and evolves as the world changes and as our viewpoints are broadened and enriched. This condition requires constant study and experimentation. The curriculum needs checking from time to time. In fact, adequate tests should accompany or shortly follow the installations that all may know the degree of success with which the curriculum is functioning.

Many subjective elements also need intelligent study, such as the pupil's attitudes and interests. His originality must be protected and developed. Does the new curriculum provide adequately for such subjective qualities?

Careful study must be made to ascertain the value of the new curriculum from a "try-out" standpoint.

Conclusion—The above outlined analysis of installing the curriculum shows that the principal has important responsibilities. He must constantly direct the teaching of all new curriculums. He must be enthusiastic and intelligent regarding all plans for installing the new curriculum. The degree of success which he secures in this installation is one indication of his ability as a director and supervisor of education within his school.

BEGINNING teachers, because of their lack of experience, sometimes lose their disciplinary control which makes proper instruction impossible. They need to have special help in the organization of the subjectmatter and materials. Demonstrations showing the technic of classroom procedure and methods of instruction have been found to be of great value to such teachers.—Gertrude E. Munn, Chapter IV.

HOW THE CHILD SHAPES THE CURRICULUM

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THE degree to which the child shapes the curriculum depends on the philosophy held by the curriculum builder. If one believes in a fixed society which serves its best ends when it perpetuates itself, then the child has little to do in moulding the curriculum. His job is to fit himself as efficiently as possible to maintain society in *status quo*. Education comes to him from without; it demands of the learner conformity, obedience to established institutions and traditions, and control over such thought and behavior patterns as have been approved by adult society.

On the other hand there are those who believe that the social order is to be ignored, while the child alone forms the matrix of the educational process. We begin and end with him. His desires and prepossessions determine aims, activities, and outcomes. Curriculum building is a matter of day to day chance, veering with the child's desires, inclined to spread over large areas without much depth or height. Education becomes a somewhat hand-to-mouth existence in which chaos is imminent and theory stumbles along with its eyes full of star dust.

There is a third position on this scale—the place where child and society are considered and respected as co-workers, partners in life, so closely integrated that education becomes the current of the life stream on which they ride. If one holds such a philosophy, the task of education is to develop the child to the limit of his capacity for rich and satisfying living, both as an individual and as a contributing member to the good of the social group.

What is rich and satisfying living for the individual? What constitutes a worthy contributing member of the social order?

That person may be said to live successfully who feels that he is working happily and constructively at a worthwhile task of which his best self approves. He has confidence in his ability to meet and understand new situations; his self-respect is untarnished. He looks at life not cynically or indifferently or hopelessly. Rather to him it is a challenge to wit and courage, a call to high adventure, an opportunity to widen his horizon and to see his world in a clearer, more understanding light.

This brings us to the second motif in education—society. The best health of a democratic social order is insured when every member realizes intelligently and sympathetically the general interdependence of humanity, and when he expresses his appreciation of this fact in terms of honest, unselfish contribution to, and sharing in, the general good of all.

The obligations, duties, and privileges which society metes out to the individual will be ignored, as far as their integration permits such oblivion, in this chapter. The problem to be discussed here is how the child shapes the curriculum.

If one of our great aims is to develop the individual to his fullest capacity for rich and satisfying living, then it follows that it is the child's needs and abilities which guide us in the selection of objectives and experiences for the curriculum. Outcomes to be expected are only realized objectives. Appraisal of them must be made in terms of actual pupil achievement.

Agreement with this viewpoint means that aims and objectives are stated in terms of pupil growth, not in terms of subjectmatter mastery. If such aims and objectives are whole-heartedly accepted, then all those experiences which definitely and wisely foster the opportunities to attain these goals will form an essential part of the curriculum. Thus the child helps us to select the activities in the curriculum because, if we have sincerely subscribed to the aims set up, we must also agree to admit only such methods and materials as will tend to achieve them.

To adopt this program without reservations implies that much of our sacred subjectmatter will be cast into limbo, that many of our most dearly beloved methods will fade out completely; but there will be, eventually, consistency between our objectives and our products, between our theory and our practice.

Consciously and persistently the educational processes are so manipulated that the child is given every opportunity to stand on his own feet, to recognize and approach with hopeful confidence the life problems which are inherent in the situations that confront him daily. He learns how to solve these problems effectively, how to select from indiscriminate masses of data that which will bear intelligently on them. He learns, too, how to pool experiences, knowledge, and appreciations during the process of solution.

Once his plans are carefully made, it is vital that the pupil carry them through to fruition, both as an opportunity and an obligation. He may adapt and develop his ideas as he sees the need, but there should be something in the curriculum which helps him build into his being the quality of persistence that sees a thing through.

He learns to evaluate his achievements in the light of the goals he has set up. This statement means that while the long-view aims are conceived by the curriculum council or committee and the more direct objectives are set up by the classroom teacher, the goals which lend drive and purpose to the child's immediate activities are proposed by himself. It should be clearly understood that his whims or evanescent fancies are not meant here, but his real, felt, fruitful purposes.

That the teacher, wisely and watchfully in the background, often generates the "electricity" which stirs these purposes to life is not

only an accepted fact but is admitted as necessary to guide and promote the learner's most meaningful growth. Some purposes may be encouraged, some must be germinated, others should be tactfully atrophied in favor of more worthwhile desires.

Always the individual is considered, for no group is truly and entirely homogeneous. Each child is heterogeneous within himself and varies in his specific abilities. Pupils who resemble each other in one trait may differ in another. Averages are dangerous soporifics by which we often deliberately or unconsciously deceive ourselves as to the truth. Individual differences due to inherited or acquired idiosyncracies, social backgrounds, and cultural history, or economic status operate to extend the range of necessary experiences and outcomes and complicate still further the task of curriculum building. To ignore these truths is to cling to the belief in a classic educational mould and to close one's eyes to its necessary complement—a devastating heap of misfits, failures, and rebels whom we have cast aside as nonconformists.

The long-view aims and objectives have their effect here in the proper manipulation of educational environment. All the child's experiences which are fruitful and worthwhile, have a four-fold value. First, they lead on to deeper and broader experiences. Second, they help the child to generalize, to make valid conclusions which will bear profitably on his future behavior and assist him to meet new situations ever more effectively. Third, his experiences are of such a calibre that they maintain and ennoble his sense of personal integrity. Finally, they help him develop and enrich his concept of himself as a responsible member of the social group.

That he will blunder and even fail at times is recognized as part of the learning process. His best growth demands that he discover the need of intelligent and desirable purposes, the necessity for earnest, sustained effort, the urgency of persistent analysis of both success and failure, and the consequent modification of behavior. He needs to know the joy of deserved success or all is lost. For every child there ought to be such guidance that with a reasonable degree of effort he can succeed in some appropriate field; for every member of the social group there should be fulfillment.

Hence, outcomes are to be based on actual possible achievement and not on adult theory or cherished educational tradition. In this sense the pupils, themselves, decide the outcomes. When curriculum builders realize and accept this truth, the tremendous gap which exists almost universally between our expectations and our achievements will disappear.

In all honesty we must admit, too, that in many instances we have set our aims beyond the farthest stars and have had to explain ceaselessly and to no avail our aborted achievements. This condition would not be so if we taught children instead of subjectmatter; if our

objectives were couched in terms of demonstrable pupil growth instead of in degrees of skill or knowledge. Our general aims are all too often vague, grandiose gestures to which our methods and materials give the lie; our more immediate objectives are frequently only pious hopes and traditional beliefs. Our theoretical outcomes are granite nuggets of facts and skills; our products are the children's living refutation of all these phantasies.

Not that skills and knowledges are to be ignored. Children need to acquire control in these fields, too. Kind and amount are dictated by individual needs and abilities and by whatever demands society has a right to make upon its various members. What the child needs to know he should know well; he ought to be master of the best tools he can handle. The question is: What does he need to make good as an individual; as a contributing and sharing entity in the social order? What we have always considered sacrosanct the child himself often exposes not only as empty phrases but positive impedimenta to his real development.

While the pupil, rightly guided, learns to appreciate the importance of personal articulation, he is also helped to feel that he occupies a necessary place in the social order; his contribution to the common cause is a dignified and welcome one, no matter how simple or humble it may be. Failure to promote the ample development of self-mindedness and social-mindedness leads inevitably to intellectual and moral anarchy.

Thus it is that the child requires of the curriculum an intelligent and sympathetic leading-on through wise control of environment and through recognition of the possibilities for growth in every situation.

As a responsible and understanding interpreter, as a co-builder with the child, the teacher provides pupils with opportunities for a wide range of meaningful experiences pregnant with potential reachings-out. She promotes an appreciation of the value and significance of life. And to make these experiences function more definitely for the child, she helps him to interpret them in terms of individual and social living.

The child rightly demands of curriculum and teacher that through their guidance he will become more and more independent, thinking for himself wisely and deliberately, meeting gallantly and effectively the pressing challenge of our ever-changing civilization.

There is an index at the back of this yearbook.

DISCOVERING COMMUNITY NEEDS THROUGH THE PRESS

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SINCE the days when schools were first established in America the community has determined the type of material used in the course of study. The content taught in early colonial schools reflected the demands of the people. Before the Revolutionary War it was generally believed that the primary function of the school was to teach pupils to read the Bible. Hence, the Bible and the catechism made up a large part of the course of study. Little change was made in the content of the curriculum until the church and state were officially separated by the Constitution in 1787.

When a demand came from the citizens that the schools prepare for living in a democracy, such subjects as geography, history, and civics were added to the curriculum. With the coming of the machine age and the consequent growth of cities, the community asked the schools to give instruction leading to industrial, technical, and commercial education. More recently the community has asked that guidance in the wise use of leisure time and instruction in character education be made a part of the school program. So it is that the community is ever asking the schools to adjust the curriculum and the courses of study to meet the changing needs of society.

Recent community demands upon schools—During the last quarter century even greater demands have been made upon the educational program to give instruction which will articulate the community and the school. Specific instances of these influences are the changes in content which have occurred in several subjects. Much of the abstract arithmetic in the elementary grades, for example, has been replaced by practical problems. Cube root, ratio and proportion, compound and complex interest and the like have given way to a study of common finances, to the making of budgets, and to a study of simple graphs. In health education, gymnastics and calisthenics have been replaced by activities that can be carried on through the years following school days. Today the schools cooperate with city health departments in their attempts to eradicate disease. In social science, attention is given to a discussion of community problems, to participation in community undertakings, and to practice in conducting an election and in voting on the issues of the nation, the state, and the local community.

In vocational education, the pupils learn to make their own clothes, to construct their own toys, to do the numerous odd jobs in mechanics that arise in the routine living of the home, and to develop avocations for leisure time activities. In English, instead of formal study of language forms, the errors made most frequently in the local commu-

nity are studied and an effort is made to correct these errors in the pupils' own speech. Current magazines, newspapers, and recently published books are now a part of the English course of study as well as the established classics. In fine arts, the pupils study the art forms about them, particularly the architecture of their own city, and engage in poster work allied with community activities. These and the study of interior decoration, that the home itself may become more beautiful, are all a part of the school program. In addition, the community calls upon the pupils to urge the voters to go to the polls on election day, to collect clothes for the relief of the needy, and to canvass the city to secure work for the unemployed. In fact, at the present time there is little being done in the community in which the pupils from the first grade through the high school are not participating.

By what right does the community make its demands?—The community has a right to expect, as one of the returns on its investment, sincere desire for service on the part of the pupils. Today the community is investing large sums of money in each pupil. In Detroit it costs the community approximately \$75 for each year the pupil is in the elementary school, \$120 for each year of intermediate school attendance, and \$130 for each year in senior high school. Thus, for education alone, at the end of the elementary school the community has invested \$450 in each pupil. By the time he has finished the ninth grade, the community investment in him is \$810, and upon his graduation from the regular high school, the sum has become \$1200.

The community has a right to expect the schools to provide those experiences needed by boys and girls for their growth and development which are not adequately supplied by other social agencies. Professor Bobbitt says, "The curriculum of the school will aim at those objectives that are not sufficiently obtained as a result of general undirected experience."

How may the schools determine the needs of the community?—If the schools are to continue meeting the needs of the community, it is necessary for them to determine what those needs are, to find out what experiences other organizations are providing, and to adopt a comprehensive program to supplement these.

How can the schools determine the real needs of the community? Obviously, it will be necessary for the schools to go to those agencies which express the community needs. Some of these are the press, the business organizations, the luncheon clubs, the welfare organizations, the churches, and the parent-teacher associations. Teachers and school officials can discover community needs and get an appraisal of the work of the schools by making contacts with such organizations.

All community organizations and agencies may be used profitably, but probably the press is the most important of all. The press in-

cludes books, magazines, newspapers, bulletins, yearbooks, annual reports, special reports, circulars, billboards, songs, and others too numerous to mention. All of these publications depict life and the conditions existing in the country as a whole, but the newspaper gives the needs of the local community more accurately than any of the others. Not only does the newspaper report news items, but it attempts to render service to the community by helping to mold public opinion, by bringing the merchant and customer together, and by giving assistance to many who do not know where to go with their problems. An example of the type of problems revealed from a study of this division of the press follows.

For six weeks a daily analysis was made of some of the items published in three Detroit daily newspapers. The twelve headings chosen for analysis with the number of separate items recorded in each are given in Table 1.

In the newspapers examined, space is provided in the so-called "experience column" where people may send letters for advice regarding social and personal problems. These letters are published with the editor's comment on them, suggesting lines of procedure or solutions for difficulties.

The "letter box" is the recipient of messages either of complaint or appreciation on public matters of all sorts—a civic "safety valve," so to speak.

In the health column, questions are asked and answers are given, presumably by a physician, on matters relating to general health, symptoms of illness, and the like.

The section on "questions" is devoted to the giving of information in response to such queries as the depth of the ocean, how to obtain a passport, or the exact nature of the theory of relativity.

TABLE I—NUMBER OF ITEMS FOUND IN NEWSPAPERS UNDER EACH OF TWELVE HEADINGS

Classification	Frequency	Classification	Frequency
Editorials -----	447	Beauty -----	107
Experience -----	280	Etiquette -----	96
Letter Box -----	253	Cartoons -----	56
Health -----	158	Child Care -----	51
Questions -----	155	Gardening -----	38
Hostess -----	147	Interior Decoration -----	30

The separate items were classified under twelve headings as shown in Table 1. For example, during the six weeks' period there were 447 editorials which were classified under seven different headings.

(1) Under *national*, were included such articles as comments on the President's message, President's viewpoint and the like. (2) Under *international* were classified discussions of armament, tariff, and the Mexican situation. (3) Under *Michigan*, taxes, capital punishment, relicted lands, and such. (4) Under *Detroit*, city budget, civic opera,

zoo, and like matters. (5) Under *transportation*, subway, airport, traffic rules, and the like. (6) Under *prohibition* were classified all questions either national, state or city, which dealt with prohibition. (7) Under *miscellaneous* were such items as the future of our automobile industry, call money 20 percent, and other items of infrequent occurrence.

Although editorials are of interest to numerous classes in the schools, they are of special interest to classes in social science. When newspapers in their editorials, news columns, and letter boxes are discussing such topics as mentioned above, is not that the proper time to present such topics to the pupils in social science classes? There probably is no better time during the child's school life to discuss transportation than at the time the adults of the city vote on the subway question, nor a better time to discuss tariff than at the time Congress debates and votes upon the question.

There were 280 letters in the Experience Column. To make tabulation and analysis easier these letters were classified under six general headings.

1. Under *encouragement* and *philosophy* were classified letters from people in various walks of life. One was from an old man who said that life in the city moved too fast for him and that old men had no place in the modern world. One pupil in high school said that no matter how hard she worked she received only D's and E's. A mature person wrote a letter on hedonism.

2. All topics on *romance* and *marriage* were classified together. They included questions on how to be more popular, triangle problems, and the advisability of obtaining divorce.

3. *Social Service* problems included the advisability of sending a subnormal child to an institution, the directing of those ill or in financial need to hospitals, clinics, and social service workers.

4. Under *morals, ethics, and conventions* were classified such problems as those dealing with standards in which a girl of high school age wants to be modern and not "prissy" but her elders do not agree with her. Under this were also classified problems on the advisability of smoking, petting, habitual attendance at dance halls, and divorce. One young girl felt responsible for the supervision of her parents and wrote to the Experience Editor about it.

5. Under *finance* were classified all problems dealing with budgets, how to get summer employment, how to get out of debt, how to save money, and attendant matters.

6. Under *miscellaneous* were classified such items as the advisability of taking free land and roughing it, of asking for the recommendation of certain educational books, and inquiring whether the landlord should pay for having the ceiling washed.

There is not room in this article to give the results of the complete study. There were questions on science, religion, government, English, and all manner of questions on the duties of the hostess, on rules of etiquette, and on the care of the skin, the hair, and the body.

The most significant thing to education in all these problems under "Experience" is the need that people feel for going some place for information. They have not received from the schools the help that

they need. People have not learned where to get information, nor have they learned how to take care of simple finances. They have not learned that most important phase of human relations—how to get along with others. The lack of training in morals, character, and social responsibility can be easily seen in most of these letters.

Many of the letters written and the questions asked were vital in the lives of those who sought an answer from the newspaper. Evidently people need guidance and help in many social problems that are not touched in the schools or, if so, only superficially.

The press and the school curriculum—Curriculum builders who wish to study the social group and to build a curriculum around its activities will find that the newspaper and the press in general are invaluable instruments. Although some studies of this type have already been made, many more are needed. Each large community has its own problems. The newspaper is one of the best sources to which one may go to find the special problems of the community. A study of conditions in Cleveland may not be applicable to Detroit.

Studies of the industrial conditions of a city or town may show that we are training more commercial students, for example, than we can place in positions, or they may show that we are not meeting the demands of the employment organizations. In any case research will show whether or not we are meeting all the life demands of the group. If the schools are to serve adequately all of the people, it will be necessary for us to discover community needs and attempt to meet these needs in the curriculum, even at the expense of omitting some of the activities which are now considered essential, but which may be a carry over from the needs of a preceding period.

PRINCIPALS who guard school procedure zealously so that the all round development of children is assured often make no such provision for the development of the individuality of teachers. If the growth of childhood is to be assured, is it not necessary to free teachers so that they too may grow into well rounded, wholesome men and women, living continuously healthier, richer lives?—Virginia E. Stone, Chapter IV.

CHILDREN AND CURRICULUMS CHANGE

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AT A recent school board meeting the question was asked: "Are you ever going to be through working on the curriculum? The superintendent replied: "Never, because the curriculum is a continually changing process." Surely this is true, not only because of formal curriculum revision programs, but because children and teachers in the classroom shape the course of study as they use it. The purpose of this article is to illustrate this ever-changing process.

Children are interested in the curriculum—In the upper elementary grades, where the teachers can take the children into their confidence and talk over the goals for the year's work, children respond with a greater zest and understanding as they work through their activities. Units of work acquire new effectiveness in developing responsibility and cooperation because of a better understanding between teacher and pupil of the common goals in achievement.

As children are taken into the confidence of the teacher and grow into a more cooperative group, more time can be spent upon the things they wish to do. For example, a group of sixth graders wanted to know when they would learn the adverbs, pronouns, and compound sentences which their older brothers and sisters at high school often talked about. Upon checking through the English course of study with them, the teacher helped these children to see that good English expression both oral and written, right in their present situation paved the way for easier learning in the high school. They understood their position in the scheme of things much better through this consideration of the curriculum and went at their particular tasks with a happier attitude. They also found that if they carried out their work each day with dispatch, more time was available to do the things they most wished to do, such as working with clay, wood, paint, cloth, and paper. The art and music interests of certain individuals could be developed further by clearing up some of their necessary learnings first.

Children in the upper elementary grades are conscious of the need of certain fundamental learnings. When the teacher and the group discuss the common problems, consult the curriculum booklets and then proceed steadily along definite lines toward mutually agreed upon goals, harmony and cooperation are bound to exist. Each curriculum is also subject to modification depending upon the teacher's attitude, composition of the group, and the type of community from which each school draws its children. When the teacher confides in her children as to the goals for the year, she must adjust the suggested activities listed in the curriculum to the needs and abilities of the group. Hence a group consisting of mostly foreign children should

engage in activities adapted to their understanding and natural tendencies. A group of colored children have more interest in folk songs and rhythms than would their Dutch friends in a nearby school. Children whose parents are on a sound economic basis will respond to many suggestions in a curriculum much more readily than the children of transient families.

In order to make the above points clear, specific examples of curriculum adaptation to pupil needs will be cited. Children shape the curriculum as they attack the problems which activities present to them. They either accept, reject, or modify the suggestions presented to them in the light of their past experience and present environment.

Nature study—The first example has to do with the nature study course as used throughout Grand Rapids schools. The groups discussed are fifth grade children of two schools located in different sections of the city. The teachers of both classes are sincerely interested in boys and girls and are enthusiastic about their work. They understand the need of adapting the course of study to the interests and abilities of their own pupils. School A draws its pupils from a group of middle-class home owners, chiefly thrifty Dutch families. Groves of trees surround the school and much is done by the children and faculty to beautify their school yard with perennials and shrubbery. School B, situated among various industrial plants and the make-shift accommodations for laborers, lacks the background of natural beauty. These children come from broken homes and 50 percent are transients.

The activities listed in our nature course of study center around the study of the flora and fauna of the United States. Collections, excursions, scrap books, and slides are some of the specific suggestions that are mentioned to aid the group in obtaining an understanding of their surroundings.

School A with its natural setting among the trees and flowers, has the advantage in stimulating the collecting activities of children. The fifth grade room abounded in individual and group collections of twigs, leaves, and bark. Beetles, butterflies and caterpillars were made into mounts after children had observed their development. Toads, frogs, and snakes in various stages of activity became inhabitants of home-made cases. Scrap books, containing descriptions of specimens, stories of excursions, and study sheets for further investigation, became a happy means to a better appreciation of the home environment. Parents showed an interest in these activities by taking their children on week-end trips, allowing home collections of pets and specimens to accumulate, and encouraging the investigative type of working. With such cooperation, these fifth grade children not only attained the objectives set up in the nature course of study, but they developed many new activities that were not listed for them.

In contrast, the children of School B were handicapped at the outset by economic conditions over which they had no control. Excursions to distant parks and ponds were out of the question. Stimulation from the home environment was meager. The school yard itself provided little interest because of its lack in natural beauty. Although those children brought and studied frogs in the aquarium, their collections stopped there. The teacher contributed brilliantly colored leaves, interesting weeds, and seasonal flowers. These contributions brought much admiration, but no imitation. The locality, the home conditions, and the tendencies of the group did not encourage extensive interest in nature study. Since the contributions to the class work were meager these children did little in shaping the content of the nature study course.

Social studies—The aims in the history course of study for the sixth grade are centered around the idea of interdependence of groups of peoples. For example: The European contributions to American civilization and American needs and development as related to the Old World. Activities include the making of a book to show the development of printing, the construction of boats or other examples of transportation, the writing of a play, and the reproduction of a medieval castle. Such projects are profitable largely in terms of the interests and facilities of the classes that are studying that period of time.

To amplify this point, we shall consider the work of two schools. School C is in a residential district consisting mainly of professional people. Libraries are an important feature of these homes. Conversation in family circles is apt to be more or less along educational lines. Magazines are subscribed to and read. The children come to school with a background of interest and experience. The activity chosen by the children for the year's work was a pageant depicting the scenes of European peoples long ago, some of the early explorers of America, the first settlers in the new land, and, finally, the amalgamation of all peoples to make the United States. The pupils planned the scenes, wrote their own lines, made the stage settings, and prepared a very attractive program. Many reference books, magazines, and papers were searched for the necessary information to make their portrayals true to history. Interested parents, supervisors, and friends contributed suggestions and information as the activity progressed. A most worthy production was finally presented to groups of children, teachers, and parents. The contribution of this class to the curriculum was not only valuable at the time but it continues to stimulate other classes from year to year.

In School D, located in a residential district where the people are mostly home owners, another sixth grade class became interested in a history unit. The boys in the group constructed types of water

transportation to show the influence of time upon man's achievements in that direction. The girls worked out a frieze for their room showing the development of transportation by water. At one end of the panel one could see water travel in a burned-out log and at the other end a picture of the latest oil-burning steamship. As a climax to the study, the class prepared a luncheon for their mothers at which they explained what the Old World had contributed to the present modes of transportation. While these children engaged in a worthwhile activity, their contribution to the curriculum was not so rich in content as that of the group in School C. However, pupil effort was at a high level and the research of the group influenced the construction activities of the school's history work.

Parents can be helpful—The descriptions given above have already shown how parents may be enlisted through the interests developed by children in the classroom. The parent-teacher group offers the principal another means for acquainting citizens with the school's curriculum. We must show parents that the new course of study does not neglect the adult standards of skill in the fundamentals, good character, and civic knowledge.

A school community that is definitely informed about the plans and achievements of its children develops the type of pride and loyalty in its school which will weather many a stormy season. Even the foreign parent, if he is made to understand that his child is getting the fundamentals, will not object to the child *enjoying* the school's experiences. Well-informed parents will usually do everything possible to cooperate with the teachers and the principal.

The curriculum is a cooperative project—In this age of multitudinous suggestions, the teacher needs a guide through the many splendid ideas on subjectmatter, activities, and school problems. Such a guide is an up-to-date printed curriculum. It helps her to stimulate the thinking of her pupils along certain lines, to direct them from others, and to provide worthwhile learning situations as the group delves into an activity. The best curriculum helps the teacher to check upon the knowledges, habits, and skills as well as attitudes of children.

The curriculums of greatest value to a teacher are constructed by many persons. The classroom teacher in her contacts with children is able to bring worthy contributions. Supervisors and principals, who because of their positions are able to see and understand many learning situations involved in the best teaching, contribute ideas which are somewhat broader than those of the classroom teacher. Supervisors see the need for graded difficulties, for large units of work in each grade, and for the consideration of definite outcomes. The fourth type of individual, who adds vision and the results of research, is the specialist in the theory and practice of curriculum making.

When curriculum making in a school system is the cooperative enterprise of teachers, principals, supervisors, and specialists, then wholehearted interest and enthusiasm in its use will result. Administrators, as well as supervisors, will find better attitudes towards supervision if classroom teachers have been invited to share the responsibility of making and launching the course of study.

Conclusion—Let us go back to the first paragraph in which the school board members hoped for a discontinuance of the curriculum committee. Such a state of affairs can never take place in a progressive school system. The curriculums are always changing according to the needs and the findings of the best groups of children and the most alert teachers. As a city grows, so must its schools develop and seek to adapt courses to the best qualities in its children. Revision of courses of study will be a continuous process where contributions from experienced groups are accepted, modified, or rejected. The locality of the school, the caliber of its patrons, the abilities of the children and the personality of the faculty all exert their influence in shaping the curriculums of the schools of today.

IT IS HUMAN to err. All of us make mistakes, the principal as well as teachers. Yet, we learn by our failures as well as our successes. But we learn *more* by our successes than we do by our failures. Any one who closely inspects a teacher's work can detect and point out flaws. It takes a higher and more subtle type of thinking to work out a plan of action that will help to eliminate the imperfections in a teacher's work. Most teachers realize their shortcomings. What they need most is help in overcoming them.—Irwin O. Addicott, Chapter IV.

PUPIL PARTICIPATION AND THE CURRICULUM

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MANY observers are absolutely convinced that our course of study making is so paternalistic that little round boys and girls are being forced into square holes in a curriculum without any regard for those sacred American rights of life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. We are told that preconceived ideas of professional curriculum makers govern everything, and that it is ridiculous to think of children as having anything to do with the course of study.

The above charges might be true if courses of study were made only by curriculum committees at prescribed meetings. In fact, curriculum making is a continuous process in which complicated forces are at work at all times. One of these elemental forces, one of the most powerful, is the pupil. In spite of the objections of people who think that a course of study should be the imposing creation of an inspired authority, the fact remains that mere pupils, who are supposed to be only on the receiving end of the learning process, are actually shaping our curriculum in positive ways.

It is the purpose of this article to present four definite schoolroom situations that may be used as evidence of the direct and indirect ways in which pupils effect the curriculum. The data submitted in support of this thesis are limited in number, but reported in some detail so as to afford opportunity for analysis or deduction. Each of the four examples are from representative teachers in our school system who can speak with a convincing first hand knowledge of present practice. The first report is chosen to show how course of study materials and methods are being determined by pupils of different native ability. In many educational systems, three ability groups are recognized for the purpose of differentiating the courses of study to meet the needs of individual pupils.

Ability groups in social science—The three-level arrangement of subjectmatter in junior high school social science affords a good illustration.¹ Since social science is a subject as broad as the world is old, there is no dearth of what may be offered, or indeed of what may be left out! The simplest course that may be planned for the slowest pupil is yet of vital importance—and the most enriched course that can be given the bright pupil is meager compared to the possibilities of the material at hand. The maker of the course of study should be thankful that the children insist on helping determine what shall be offered.

¹From a report by Elsie B. Essex, Chairman, Social Science Department, North Junior High School and Chairman, 1927-1930, Junior High School Curriculum Committee.

The first problem taken up by our curriculum committee was that of the slow-learning pupil. In the seventh grade a simple textbook was sought because the slow pupils could not understand the vocabulary of the regular social science text. Since an easier book could not be found, teaching units were devised which greatly simplified the subjectmatter. Simple objectives were set forth, and points of emphasis determined. Procedure was suggested intended to simplify the learning process. These teaching units were sent to all the teachers of slow groups in the junior high schools. In order that the pupil might experience the essential feeling of success in his work, the uniform examinations given at the end of the semester were based directly on the specific objectives and the points of emphasis found in the teaching units. The venture proved an entire success. The dull child is working harder than ever, because he can do the required work, and realizes that school is a place where he really belongs. Little does the child dream that he has told us what he can do, and we have been wise enough to listen.

In the eighth grade, the American history texts were too long and difficult in content for the slower groups. A simple little book was found, which was most entertainingly written, and which contained excellent completion tests and problems for fifth and sixth grade pupils. This text was supplemented by teaching units containing specific objectives, points of emphasis, and additional facts. This course also has proved successful. The teachers report that the pupils love their work, and moreover, succeed in it. The class now has time to discuss interesting current events and to carry out some projects, such as the making of an American history museum, or the dramatizing of the life of Columbus.

Slow children always seem to know quite a bit about Indians, and are always eager to talk about them. A certain slow-learning American history class was transformed by the pupils being allowed to call themselves "Native Americans," with a class organization of four Indian tribes. The tribal names chosen were: Kiowas, Comanches, Shoshones, and Osages. Big, rough, mentally-retarded boys ever after entered that history class noiselessly, as befitted their tribal custom. Drill work on important points was entered competitively, and good grades became "scalps," careful record of which was kept by the "sachem," or teacher. The teacher felt very fortunate in that she had been able to understand the subjectmatter which most appealed to this particular class, and made the most of it at all times. She called the pencils "tomahawks," which must be kept ready, and insisted that Indians stand erectly and move quietly. At times "council meetings" were held to plan a simple dramatization.

In one building, it was felt that much of the subjectmatter in the vocational civics course did not appeal to the girls in the classes, while

on the other hand, the boys were not especially enthusiastic about the parts that the girls found most profitable. So the pupils were divided into classes of boys and girls. The girls could then consider the possibilities of stenography as a vocation thoroughly, without boring the boys with their discussions. Meanwhile, the boys could enlarge upon the vocations most interesting to them. One class of girls formed a "Junior Business Girls' Club," and carried out a number of projects, such as a poster contest. Each girl made a poster setting forth her chosen vocation in picture form. Two posters made by girls who wish to become dressmakers were especially good. These posters were adorned with the cleverest of miniature costumes made by the girls themselves. Such work is surely the most interesting of subjectmatter.

The average groups have not been the source of as much anxiety on the part of curriculum makers as the superior and dull groups. Somehow, the average pupils adjust themselves to subjectmatter offered them and get along. Perhaps their needs are more clearly understood because there are so many of them. The bright pupils are receiving the most attention from the curriculum committee. The brilliant pupil, with his eager, thirsting mind, has been slighted, pushed back, ignored too long, but we are really listening to him now. The objection has been made that bright pupils, put into classes by themselves, tended to become vain, haughty, snobbish. This condition could not happen if these superior pupils were forced to extend themselves every day in order to meet the requirements of the course of study. A brilliant class given the proper subjectmatter is *humble*. Not too humble—for these pupils, too, should be happy in their work, but nevertheless, humble, in the presence of the great mass of human knowledge, the immensity of which has been made evident to them.

The superior groups in the junior high schools of Colorado Springs are being given an enriched course to answer the plea for work which will attract, interest, and challenge. This course in social science gives the essentials of the year course for the seventh grade in the first semester, whereas the average groups have a year for it, *although with a different procedure in the treatment of the material*. In the second semester of the seventh grade, the bright groups begin American history, which is concluded by them in the first semester of the eighth grade. A special course in community and vocational civics has been planned for the second semester of the eighth grade, leaving the ninth grade for the first half of world history—ancient history to be given in the first semester, and medieval history in the second semester. The second half of world history is to be given in the tenth grade. The course outlined will test the powers of any pupil, however brilliant. The work is varied in content, and comprehensive in scope. The pupil has had a distinct part in the planning of

the work being offered him, and alterations will be made, where there are indications of the need for them.

It can very clearly be seen from the foregoing exposition that the wide difference in native ability of pupils has definitely affected this course of study (1) through a difference in the reading difficulty of texts used, (2) through methods of lesson presentation which are employed, and (3) through the amount and type of material that is offered at the different levels.

A project in geography—The second method which has been selected is the project method. One of the strongest points of the project lies in the opportunities which the pupils have for shaping the methods and the subjectmatter of the regular course of study. The following description is an account of a fifth grade project in geography which developed from the spontaneous desire of the pupils to correlate manual and mental activities.¹

The general topic for study in the geography class was the scenic attractions of North America. The topic was selected by the teacher because of the desire, shown by the children in their language work, to write about the trips taken during the summer vacation. When the class was having its first lesson on scenic attractions, the pupils wanted to include descriptions of the beauty spots around their own locality. In a community where there is considerable interest in tourist travel it was natural to discuss why people should visit Colorado Springs and the Pikes Peak region. Children were quick to point out arguments which local newspapers and the chamber of commerce had been advancing to induce tourists to come to this locality. These included accounts of the scenic attractions of the region, the healthful climate and other points which were familiar to the children. During these first two or three days some children brought pictures and snapshots, not only of near-by places, but of more distant ones which they had visited.

The interest of the class expanded until it was thought worthwhile to collect and to study pictures of scenery of North America. Among the pictures acquired were some of the best-known national parks. The teacher told a few facts about the parks which she felt would be of general interest and members of the class told of their visits to various parks. The boys, quick to seize any chance of making use of rivalry and teamwork, suggested that the class be divided into two teams that would compete against each other in collecting pictures. As the specimens were brought in they were mounted and placed in the position where each team had set up its exhibit. During the class period the pictures were studied and used for map work in place of geography, being labeled as follows: "This is a picture of a scene in Yellowstone Park. The Park is located in the northwest corner of

¹Project under the supervision of Jewel M. Pryor, 5th Grade, Longfellow School.

Wyoming." The class would then locate Wyoming and the park on a map. During the picture contest the teacher discovered that two or three boys were interested in making a small scale model of the Mesa Verde National Park. This discovery was the beginning of the new project.

The children organized themselves into groups and each group selected one park for construction. The work was entirely pupil-directed with the teacher supplying references and material when the children asked for it. The room had movable furniture so the groups could arrange places for the construction of the parks. During the construction the members of each group learned to know that park very intimately and to realize why it was a scenic attraction.

As a culmination the class decided to have a "national park party" and invite friends and relatives to come to the room for a tour of the parks. In explaining the construction and the principal features of these parks it was necessary for each child to be able to give a report on his particular national park. The project developed into one of interest and real worth, capitalizing readiness on the part of the pupils through the alertness of the teacher. During the construction work it was necessary frequently to drive the pupils home at the close of school. When parents called for children they were urged to view the progress made during the day and to hear a detailed description of the project from the enthusiastic children who were learning about the parks for the first time themselves.

During the park project, interest was more sustained than is possible with a situation which is completely planned and controlled by the teacher. The problem of conduct, customarily a troublesome one for a certain group of boys, disappeared during the progress of the project because those same boys had become actively engaged in something that seemed real to them. The project led the pupils into points of contact and correlation with work in history, spelling, language, reading and even arithmetic. The library became a focal point of interest. It developed civic interest through visits to the local broadcasting station in search of maps, to railroad offices for descriptive literature and to the chamber of commerce bureau of information for national park booklets. Road maps were acquired from different sources. Reference books were dug out of home libraries as well as the school and public libraries. Illustrated booklets and picture albums of snapshots were brought from home by many of the pupils. Fathers were induced to give ideas of construction, of stone work, and of carpentry. Mothers were asked to help with costuming and decoration. From such activities, it is clear that home participation and wise use of leisure time were some of the added results from this geography project.

Most valuable for our purpose, is the evidence that pupils' desire for real activity has many opportunities for real life situations. Dur-

ing this project pupils actually were responsible for initiating the idea through the interest which they were showing in summer vacation trips. When some members brought pictures to show to the class, the next step was started. The actual construction work of the model plans was directly due to the interest of two or three of the boys. Many minor outcomes were brought about through pupil-directed activities that occurred during the progress of the unit. The project method of teaching is valuable because in it the course of study may be interpreted so as to obtain from children the greatest amount of pupil initiative, self-appraisal, self-control and cooperation.

A correlated second grade activity—The third proof of pupil participation in curriculum building has been selected from the second grade of a platoon school. This activity shows the natural correlation when pupil interest and inquiry in one field overlap many other fields and thereby lead the teacher to develop whole units of subject-matter rather than isolated sections. The correlation in this instance has been developed through the use of the project method, but the idea of an auditorium program was not present at the beginning. The auditorium presentation developed from pupil interests which the teacher capitalized upon at different stages.

The original incentive for the activity came through the children's reading a set of books called *Art-Literature Readers*.¹ Two regular reading periods were spent looking through the books. The children selected the pictures which appealed most to them and imagined stories about them.

The children next became interested in reproducing the pictures by posing, using for costumes whatever accessory was at hand—a large ball for *Baby Stuart* or an overcoat and hat for *Blue Boy*. They found this so enjoyable that it was decided to use the idea for a school auditorium, and from that time forth activity of every kind seemed to flourish. A definite choice of the nine pictures listed below was made by the children.

Hiawatha
Boy With a Rabbit
Madame Le Brun and Her Daughter
Baby Stuart
Penelope Boothby
Age of Innocence
Blue Boy
Girl and Cat
Feeding Her Birds

Elizabeth Norris
Sir Henry Raeburn
Madame Le Brun
Sir Anthony Van Dyck
Sir Joshua Reynolds
Sir Joshua Reynolds
Thomas Gainsborough
Paul Hoecker
Jean Francois Millet

¹Activity under the supervision of Rose K. Eastland, Second Grade, Buena Vista School.

Simple costumes were designed with a little help from mothers. This work did much to focus the attention of the children on color combinations. Among ideas suggested to improve the program was the use of songs which the children had learned in the music department. They were delighted to find that they knew some songs that seemed quite well adapted to the pictures, such as "Bunny Rabbit" for the *Boy With a Rabbit*, "In Days of Old" for *Penelope Boothby* and the *Blue Boy*, and "I Love Little Pussy" for the *Girl and Cat*. The children asked the music teacher to help them find other songs and to teach them so that they might become a part of their auditorium program. This resulted in "Indian Lullaby" for *Hiawatha*, "Off to Dreamland" for *Baby Stuart*, "Children People Love" for the *Age of Innocence*, "Twilight" for *Madame Le Brun and Her Daughter*, and "Cradle Song" (about a nest full of birds) for the picture *Feeding Her Birds*. Songs were one of the most valuable outcomes because they furnished an opportunity, during the auditorium program, for every child to have a part in the presentation.

The art department found that large colored reproductions of the pictures could be obtained from the public library. When these arrived they were placed on low bulletin boards where they were surrounded almost all of the time by absorbed groups of children. Since most of the pictures lent themselves admirably to silhouettes, the children were eager to make these in the art room. The posters were used for display on the bulletin board in the main building as a means of interesting the whole school. The displays were made every day in advance of the program, because the children thought that a more appreciative audience might be secured in this way.

Since the school was conducting an experiment which related language, spelling and writing, the spontaneous and sincere interest of the children in the picture program was eagerly welcomed as an opportunity to further the idea. Each child selected the picture about which he wanted to write. Free composition work at the board brought to light the facts in which he was most interested, at the same time serving as a basis for special help. At the next writing period individual children were given time for a conference with the teacher and suggestions were discussed as to how to make each theme more interesting.

Abandoning the regular outline for a week made it impossible to incorporate certain difficult words for which no natural situation had as yet presented itself. The list comprised such words as thought, think, having, because, know, knew, under and through. A few words such as artists, paint, picture and beautiful had to be supplied since the written vocabulary for second grade did not include these. These efforts resulted in a book, called *Famous Pictures*, to which every member of the class contributed in some way. The book contains a

simple explanation of the project, a story about each picture, and it is illustrated with the silhouettes. Of course, *Famous Pictures*, occupies a favored place on the reading table and is thoroughly enjoyed by the children.

Other written outcomes of the project were notes of invitation and of thanks for help received. Stories interesting to the children were written about the cat and the rabbit which were borrowed for two of the pictures. These pets soon became very much at home in the schoolroom.

The progress of the above unit of work is replete with instances where the children were responsible for steps affecting the course of study. The correlation with the language, writing and spelling, and with the art and music departments, culminating in the auditorium program, make a well-developed unit for which the interest of the children was responsible, even to the extent of setting aside the regular course of study for a week. The teacher remarked that her greatest satisfaction came from the spontaneous and sincere enjoyment of the children which was so prominent throughout. It is evident that this was largely due to the ways in which they were permitted to modify the regular course of study.

Extra-curriculum activities—In the past there has been a tendency among school people to divide pupil activities into two groups, the curriculum and the extra-curriculum. Pupil interest in the latter group, which included clubs, societies, athletics and students participation in school government, has been often more genuine than in the regular school offerings. Many authorities now regard any activity, worthy of a place in the school, as a part of the regular curriculum. This broader field offers perhaps the greatest opportunity for pupil influence in shaping the course of study. The fourth example, selected for this article shows how pupils shape their character when allowed to participate in the government of the school. Such activities provide opportunities for pupils to take part in real life situations where it is often necessary for them to make their own choices from optional courses of conduct. This experience has a profound influence upon the development of character. It is timely when much is being said about the place which character education should occupy in the school program.

For the purpose of showing how pupils shape the activities which are the course of study in this field and how the results indicate the way in which it is working, some opinions of pupils and teachers are given. It will be readily seen that the effects are far-reaching and touch the lives of the pupils at many points during their daily school experience. Space does not permit a description of the actual situations which have made possible the results enumerated in these observations. The comments are unfavorable as well as favorable.

Both are given because of the effects which they have on character development. Pupils have reported that when they see favoritism of officers, bribery of officers by offenders, and violation of rules by officers they feel the offenses keenly. In the past, cheating or fibbing to the teacher were certainly not so universally condemned. Wrong doing was thought to be cleverness or justifiable revenge against a traditional enemy. Raising the question of right and wrong in the pupil's mind is the first step in convincing him. When a real situation such as favoritism or bribery is exposed, the other citizens are quick to sense the fact that the officer has violated his pledge of office, that he is not fit to hold office, and that he should not wear the badge of honor of the school.

Student participation in the government of the school is a course of study in character development which is almost entirely controlled by the pupil. The following results, based on teacher observations, seem to justify a wide usage of so important an educational device.

1. It cultivates a more critical attitude toward right and wrong on the part of all the children.
2. Children become more conscious of meaning of personal honor when an officer pledges his loyal support and cooperation to the school, and fails to keep his pledge.
3. Annoying disciplinary cases have improved when responsibility for the welfare of the school is placed upon them.
4. It develops thinking and stimulates and motivates discussion in meeting situations that result in character-forming attitudes.
5. It trains children in the habit of expressing themselves in parliamentary procedure which has a carry-over to classes.
6. Officers are looked up to as examples, especially by younger children, and older children take great pride in their responsibility for the younger ones.
7. Children, when given responsible positions and proper guidance, build up their own inhibitions by seeing the need of self-control.
8. Sometimes the wrong pupil is in authority and character building through restraint is developed, not in the leader, but in those led.
9. Any person who has learned and practiced self-government and self-control is bound to be a big asset later in making a law-abiding community.

Summary—The four methods described in this article are but a few of those in which pupils are helping to shape the curriculum. Some of the other ways that are just as effective as the ones described are simply listed below because further space is not available:

1. Children in a foreign section of a town exert tremendous influence in modifying a course of study.
2. Unexpected current events when tied up to real life experiences of the children will modify a course of study in many ways during the course of the year.
3. Individual differences in achievement in various subjects make necessary some modification of the regular course of study because of the remedial situations that demand attention. The adjustment room modification of the regular course of study through the needs of the children is worth an entire paper.
4. The growth of the museum and collection idea with the opportunities which it offers for special emphasis in particular localities will affect many courses in the general school program.

5. All vocational and industrial subjects reflect the desires of the pupils and are subject to modification through the needs as expressed by those pupils during their course.

6. Pupils' ideas of self-expression and their creative instincts may have profound effects upon courses in art, music, and dramatics, if opportunities are recognized by sympathetic teachers.

7. Instinctive play desires together with current health and hygiene problems have a very definite bearing on the course of study in health and physical education.

The above points should provide stimulation to our thinking and action in the future. Convincing proof exists that pupils exert an influence upon our courses of study. As educators, we should not only be conscious of these effects, but should do something in the future to insure a more active participation by the pupil in the formation of courses to fit his needs. Instead of these static and superimposed courses of study, let us have more flexible curriculums inspired by the needs, capacities and interests of children.

IN THE conference with the teacher after the lesson, an attempt to evaluate the socialized recitation was made. The teacher saw the faults of many parrot-like answers. She realized that the teacher-pupil is in danger of calling too much on either the brightest pupils or the poorest ones. A good point of the recitation was that more than half the class of 46 were represented in the discussion. Additional points might be made to show how the stenographic reports catch the intangible elements of the socialized recitation so that teacher and principal may analyze the method.—Claude L. Williams, Chapter IV.

ASSISTING TEACHERS TO FORMULATE UNITS OF WORK

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ONE CHARACTERISTIC of American education is the widespread use and belief in the school textbook. Teachers often feel that a year's work has no "base" or core unless some superior officer prescribes a standard text. Supervising officers are often horrified at the possible errors which may creep into a classroom where no text stands guard.

Why the textbook habit?—Our faith in textbooks has certain interesting historical causes. When public education sprang into existence it did so over a relatively few years. Libraries were few and far between at that time. A nation spreading rapidly over a continent had little time for books. Let us recall how the boy Lincoln walked for miles to borrow books which today are sold for a dollar at the nearest drug store.

Another reason for textbooks arose from the fact that our teachers were poorly trained. We were a young nation and a "little bit o' larnin'" had to go a long way. The young persons who went into teaching did not have the deep and rich academic experience which many teachers have today.

Are we ready to abandon the textbook?—Many educators today feel that the textbook is a mill-stone around the neck of the trained teacher. Such an attitude may be justified in our large city school systems where high salaries have brought together the teachers of the finest preparation. But let us remember that the major portion of American children are still in rural or small town schools. Let us not forget that if two years of college training were set up as the minimum, as many as 80 percent of the teachers in the rural schools of some states would have to be given further training or discharged. Furthermore, we cannot overlook the fact that the bulk of our city teachers were trained in "textbook methods."

What is to be done?—It is the viewpoint of this article that much of the responsibility for changing conditions rests upon the elementary school principal. It is up to him to show that the development of many supplementary readers, the magazines, the reference libraries, the encyclopedias, the newspapers, and the radio have opened up new sources of information.

No longer is the textbook the "whole house" or even the first floor—it has been delegated the important function of being the foundation. No longer does it dominate the whole structure or the surrounding landscape.

In place of the textbook teachers are substituting units of work. Essentially, these are topics around which there gather hundreds of

questions like a swarm of bees. Children and teachers alike have introduced the keenness of the hunt. No longer is it "what does the textbook say"—rather "what do we want to know" and "what do we need to know."

How can we take the next step?—In the opinion of the writer, the unit of work procedure cannot be adopted by the typical teacher without some help. It does no good to print in the course of study: "Work out a unit of work which will help children appreciate China." Teachers have a right to be shown a "type lay-out" or plan for the new procedure.

With the above thought in mind the writer proposes the following "type outline" for the study of any foreign country. It so happens that the following is based upon China, but the general topics and approach could have widespread application.

AN OUTLINE OF AN ILLUSTRATIVE UNIT OF WORK ON CHINA FOR GRADES
FOUR, FIVE AND SIX.

I. *General Objectives*

- A. To help the children develop an understanding and genuine appreciation of the material and cultural gifts the Chinese have contributed to world civilization.
- B. To show that the characteristic differences of the Chinese from us are due to the adaptation of their mode of living to geographical and environmental conditions within their own country.
- C. To develop an appreciation of the problems in the lives of the people, and how they solve these problems according to their own values or standards.
- D. Appreciation of the excellent qualities of the Chinese as: energy, pride in good workmanship, loyalty to home land, and folks.
- E. Creation and maintenance of a genuine friendly relationship between our children and the Chinese, especially needed in California, as well as in the whole United States.
- F. To show the commercial inter-dependence of China and the United States.

II. *Possible procedures, to introduce the subject*

- A. Visual methods, that stimulate two questions:
 1. I wonder why?
 2. Why didn't I know?
- B. Collection of various Chinese articles as chopsticks, tapestries, jewelry, art materials, paintings, articles of clothing.
- C. Talk on China by a native Chinese, or by a sympathetic visitor who has been in China in whose social insight and reliability you have complete confidence.
- D. Reading of Chinese stories such as "The Goddess of the Silk Worm" or "Nightfall" in the book *A Child's History of the World*.
- E. The story of Marco Polo in China.
- F. Visiting the harbor when a Chinese boat is at dock. If possible, visit the boat.

III. *Activities that accompany this study:*

- A. Raising silk worms.
- B. Making one large class, or individual small booklets on China.

- C. Getting a silk exhibit for the school museum.
- D. Visiting a Chinese truck farm.
- E. Dressing Chinese dolls to represent various types of Chinese and occupations. The boys could carve out the bodies from wood. Dressing friendship dolls to send to Chinese children.
- F. Collecting some genuine Chinese folk and fairy stories and poems for our library. Illustrating them appropriately.
- G. Collecting Chinese songs and proverbs.
- H. Learning an authentic Chinese dance, and giving it to the school at assembly.
- I. Visiting Chinatown and making oral reports on: foods they had for sale, bamboo articles, tea packing, Chinese customs that differ from ours, and deciding which is better from a hygienic point of view.
- J. Making graphs or charts to show products that we send to or receive from China.
- K. Reading the story of Ray Chapman Andrews and his explorations in Central Asia.
- L. Bulletin board: posters, pertinent clippings, and pictures.
- M. Ascertaining why bamboo is used so extensively.
- N. Write an imaginary story of a visit to the home of a wealthy Chinese.

IV. *Leads for study:*

- A. Why the Chinese use wind power whenever possible.
- B. Why the China of today is engaged in a civil war.
- C. Part played by foreign nations in this revolution.
- D. Why was the Great Wall built?
- E. Why so much valuable land is occupied by graves.
- F. History of paper making, ivory and teakwood carving.
- G. Read an account of the life of Confucius. Tell it to your group at the Reading Club.
- H. Plan a trip to China: (1) route, (2) port of departure and entry—why? (3) shortest route—prove by measuring, (4) best season for ocean voyage to China, (5) railroad and steamship lines used, and (6) cost.
- I. Uses of rice-straw.
- J. Why is China called "The Helpless Giant"?

V. *References for supplementary reading:*

A. Magazines

- 1. *National Geographic*. November 1920, April 1925, April 1927, October 1929.
- 2. *Asia*

B. Books for children

- 1. Clark, Vinnie B. *Asia*. Silver Burdett Co., New York: 1925.
- 2. Allen, Nellie B. *Geography Reader*. Ginn & Co., Boston: 1916. p. 9-48, 51-66, 75-85.
- 3. McMurry, F. M. and Parkins, A. E. *Advanced Geography, Part II*. Macmillan Co., New York: 1921. p. 409-419.
- 4. Atwood, Wallace W. *New Geography*. Ginn & Co., New York: 1929. p. 231, 242-245.
- 5. Huntington, Ellsworth. *Asia*. Rand McNally & Co., Chicago: 1912. p. 221-283.
- 6. Miller, Olive Thorn. *Little People of Asia*. E. P. Dutton Co., New York: 1908. p. 307-360.

7. Packard, Leonard O. and Sinnott, Charles P. *Nations as Neighbors*. Macmillan, New York: 1925. Chapter XXXI.
8. Branom, F. K., and Gandy, H. M. *Social Geography Series, Book III*. W. H. Sadler Co., New York: 1928.
- C. Books for teachers
 1. Huntington, Ellsworth and Cushing, W. Sumner. *Principles of Human Geography* (Third Edition). John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York: 1924. p. 296-298, 326-327.
 2. King, F. H. *Farmers of Forty Centuries*. Harcourt Brace, New York: 1912.
 3. Smith, J. Russell. *Commerce and Industry* (New Edition). Henry Holt & Co., New York: 1928. p. 3-28, 553-577.
 4. Monroe, Paul. *China: A Nation in Evolution*. Chautauqua Press, New York: 1927. Chapters II and III.

VI. Sources of Visual Aids:

- A. Bray Pictures Corporation, New York City.
- B. University of California Extension Division, Berkeley, California.
- C. Spiro Film Corporation, 161-179 Harris Avenue, Long Island City, New York.
- D. Pennsylvania State Museum, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, supplies lantern slides for Pennsylvania schools.

Other helps to the teachers—When the principal has shown his teachers how to outline a unit of work his work is not over. First, he has to smooth away the administrative problems. For example: How will the special supervisors feel toward the unit of work plan? What changes will have to be made in the classroom equipment? What provision can be made for the delivery of supplementary books from the library? Where can we obtain funds for library books? How can we develop a library in our own building? What new supplies will the teacher need? How can we provide for supervised study?

While the unit of work plan in geography, in the opinion of the writer, is fundamentally sound, and challenges a maximum of initiative, resourcefulness and dependability of both teacher and pupils concerned, yet, it is highly essential, that the teacher or principal should not lose sight of the fact, throughout the development of a unit, that the fundamental geographic principles are demonstrated, and clinched in the children's minds. This check is necessary, if future behavior and attitudes are to be based on an understanding of the effect of geography on social customs.

Second, the principal has a difficult job sometimes in keeping up the morale. It isn't easy for the teacher to take up a new technic. The principal needs to "stand by" with encouragement, advice, and the delivery of the necessary instructional materials.

Of these problems, that of keeping up the morale is most difficult, for many superior teachers in making so great a change from customary procedure will become discouraged, and feel themselves at fault, and inadequate to carry on such a program of work effectively.

This depression would be disastrous to the successful educational program of the building, and to the development of the unit of work idea within it. The difficulty can be prevented when the principal actively participates and supervises, instead of inspecting the carrying out of the unit.

Summary—Supervision demands that principals actively participate in the learning process. It isn't enough simply to inspect what the teacher does. The supervisor needs to know possible ways to improve learning conditions, and to be ready to illustrate those suggestions.

In this article the writer has suggested the unit of work as a plan which provides a richer curriculum environment. However, to get the unit of work technic into action often means that the principal must be ready to actually outline such a project. It is suggested above that the outline on China might be used as a working basis in units on other countries. With characteristic foresight, the principal will smooth the administrative road which leads a teacher to the completion of a fine teaching project.

NORMAL classroom conditions should exist where the demonstration is to take place. The subjectmatter, time, and method should adhere to typical school practices. Needless to say, the demonstrator should make careful preparations for the lesson to be taught, and should be well-trained in the technic and devices to be used. It is equally important for the observers and visiting teachers to be prepared for what they are to see in order that they observe and react intelligently to that which is being demonstrated. A careful and critical discussion should follow the demonstration.—Gertrude E. Munn, Chapter IV.

VOCABULARIES OF HISTORY AND READING TEXTBOOKS

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THIS article summarizes briefly a comparative study of the vocabularies of ten sixth grade textbooks. The investigation began with an attempt to ascertain the difficulty of the vocabularies of five history texts in terms of the number of new words used, length of words used, and frequency rating of words as measured by the *Thorndike Scale*.¹ The study was expanded to include five readers so that comparison between the two groups of texts might be made. The books studied were all listed for use in the schools of Philadelphia for the year 1929-1930.²

Procedures of the study—A random sampling of 2000 words was made of each text. Each word in the sample was copied on a card, the cards arranged alphabetically, and the number of occurrences of each word entered upon the cards. Word form only, and not meaning, was considered, since the latter would have introduced endless complication. The number of letters in each word was noted, and then the words were compared with the *Teacher's Word Book*. The relative frequency of occurrence of the word, as estimated by Thorndike, was recorded. A word not listed in the *Word Book* was given an arbitrary credit of zero. Derived forms falling under any of the heads listed by Thorndike were given the credit of the primary form; all other derivatives and compound forms not definitely listed were given credit of zero. The data thus accumulated for each book were then summarized and general trends and tendencies noted.

The number of new or different words in each sample divided by the total number of words in the sample (2000) gives the percentage of new words for that text, e. g. 750 different word forms in a sample of 2000 words gives 37.5 percent for the book in question.

TABLE 1—PERCENTAGES OF DIFFERENT WORDS BY TEXTS

Histories		Readers	
Book	Percent	Book	Percent
A	39.8	V	38.9
B	39.0	W	36.0
C	34.4	X	37.4
D	38.5	Y	36.6
E	38.6	Z	38.5
Median	38.6	Median	37.4

What does the study show?—Table 1 contains a summary of the percent of new words in each of the books studied. The figures in

¹Thorndike, E. L. *Teacher's Word Book*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1921.

²Names of the books will be supplied by the author.

themselves are not apparently so significant, but when applied to the average textbook containing a total of some 70,000 words they become significant. Assuming that a given percent remains constant for the entire book, the pupil will meet in the median history textbook 800 to 850 more new words than he does in the median reader. These new words are not the easy "are," "and," "the," and similar words found in all books. Rather, the new words are more unusual, less frequently occurring, and more difficult.

Comparisons within the two groups of Table 1 show differences just as great. The child using history A, for example, meets 3500 to 4000 more new words than does the one using C. Those using reader V must become acquainted with 2000 more than the pupils who read from reader W.

A distribution was made for each book to show the length of the words by letters. The central tendencies as indicated by the medians and quartiles were then compared as shown in Table 2. The term "average" is used to designate the median of the five items in each column.

TABLE 2—THE LENGTH OF WORDS IN LETTERS

Book	Histories			Book	Readers		
	Q1	M	Q3		Q1	M	Q3
A	4.8	6.1	7.6	V	4.7	5.9	7.2
B	4.8	6.3	8.1	W	4.5	5.7	7.2
C	4.8	6.2	8.0	X	4.6	5.9	7.5
D	4.8	6.1	7.9	Y	4.5	5.7	7.3
E	5.0	6.5	8.3	Z	4.6	5.8	7.5
Average	4.8	6.2	8.0	Average	4.6	5.8	7.3

If difficulty increases with the length of word, all other things being equal, then the average history text is somewhat more difficult than the average reader. Other comparisons in Table 2 may be made. The highest medians of the readers, V and X, are lower than the lowest medians of the histories, A and D. The lower and upper limits respectively of the range of the middle 50 percent of the words studied, for the readers are in every case lower than the corresponding limits for the histories. In terms of the length of words the pupil in history labors under a handicap, since he meets in his texts longer words on the average than he will find in his readers.¹

Finally, a frequency table of credit rankings according to Thorndike was prepared for each text. Median and quartiles were found and comparisons made as shown in Table 3.

All other things being equal, frequency of occurrence indicates inversely degree of difficulty. From Table 3 it appears that the average reader has a vocabulary easier to master than does the average history.

¹Of course, sentence structure and other factors may lessen the difficulty of textbooks with long words, or may complicate a textbook written in simple words.

TABLE 3—FREQUENCY RATING ACCORDING TO TEACHER'S WORD BOOK

Book	Histories			Book	Readers		
	Q1	M	Q3		Q1	M	Q3
A	26.6	62.3	107.7	V	29.0	64.6	108.3
B	21.2	54.3	104.0	W	30.1	64.5	114.2
C	28.3	58.3	113.1	X	27.0	64.0	110.3
D	27.9	62.2	109.4	Y	33.0	70.7	110.5
E	27.1	56.3	107.5	Z	28.0	67.0	115.7
Average	27.1	58.3	107.7	Average	29.0	64.6	110.5

This statement is borne out by Table 4 giving the percentage of words in each sample occurring in the various "thousands" of Thorndike's list. Note in Table 4 that the reader with fewest words in Thorndike's first thousand has more common words than the best history. It is also of interest to compare the percent of "zero words" or those not in the *Word Book*. The "zero words" is the only point in which the histories have the advantage over the readers. A possible explanation, although not fully verified, lies in the number of mythological and fictitious names found in the readers.

TABLE 4—PERCENT OF WORDS OF TEXTBOOKS FOUND IN EACH THOUSAND OF THORNDIKE'S 10,000 WORD LIST

Thousand	Histories					Readers				
	A	B	C	D	E	V	W	X	Y	Z
First	58.5	52.4	57.2	58.9	55.4	61.0	60.5	59.7	64.6	60.2
Second	13.8	15.1	16.0	14.8	17.1	13.9	15.4	13.2	14.2	14.0
Third	10.6	9.1	9.8	8.3	10.9	8.8	7.9	8.2	6.7	7.6
Fourth	5.0	5.7	4.5	3.8	3.8	5.4	3.1	4.3	3.8	3.8
Fifth	3.3	3.7	3.9	2.9	3.9	2.4	2.8	4.3	2.9	4.4
Sixth to Tenth	5.0	8.3	5.4	8.1	5.4	5.2	6.0	5.2	4.5	4.8
Zero	3.8	5.7	3.2	3.2	3.5	3.3	4.3	5.1	3.3	5.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

In this matter of "zero words" lies one of the most significant features of the whole study. Approximately 40 percent of the 70,000 words in the average text are different. Of this 40 percent about four percent do not appear in the most frequently used 10,000 words in the language. In other words, in each book studied about 1.6 percent, or approximately 1000 words, are new to the pupil, provided he is familiar with all of the 10,000 listed in the *Word Book*. Does the child have a fair chance, especially in history? We take it for granted that the teaching of vocabulary is an end in the study of English. History is commonly known as a "content" subject, and the vocabulary is merely a *means* to an end. Think of the handicap, if the pupil must acquire a new vocabulary of over 1000 words in history before he can fully understand the facts. Suppose he doesn't know all of the first 10,000 words?

Conclusion—The study would seem to show that from the standpoint of the three criteria mentioned, vocabularies of sixth grade texts in history are more difficult than those of sixth grade readers. It suggests the advisability of (1) rewriting our textbooks in language more within the comprehension of the average pupil, (2) placing the texts in the next advanced grade, or (3) deliberately drilling children on the words found in various textbooks.

Perhaps all three adjustments should be made. What similar maladjustments exist in other subjects? How widespread are these difficulties among American elementary schools? Does this matter of vocabulary account for pupil failures and for unsatisfactory learning conditions? What are principals doing about these various problems?

THE KEYNOTE of the whole program was the establishment of a great degree of confidence between the teacher and the principal. Conferences, often apparently casual conferences, promoted this feeling. The results of the plan prove that the old inspectional type of supervision is a thing of the past. In its place is a new type of helping hand that will bring about a union of forces and a greater spirit of cooperation.—Nettie Bonner, Chapter IV.

PRINCIPLES OF THE TEACHING OF SPELLING

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THE elementary school principal who has been given the responsibility of improving teaching in the school in which he serves is confronted with two important professional obligations. He must become skilled in using supervisory technics and, through these procedures, in giving teachers the assistance they need. The two aspects of efficient supervision are correlative phases of the work of a principal and both of them are essential to sound supervisory leadership.

Any attempt to present in adequate detail the guidance for the principal in meeting his two-fold obligation would result in a treatment too lengthy for inclusion in this book. In fact, a complete presentation of either phase would cover all of the pages of a good-sized book. This article is limited, therefore, to a specific unit involved in meeting one of the aspects of supervision, namely, the principles derived from the research literature regarding the teaching of spelling. These are principles which should be followed in a program of supervision of the teaching of that subject.

The significance of this phase of supervision becomes obvious when knowledge of the principles is applied in the supervisory work of a principal. As he studies the results of a testing program; for example, he notes weaknesses in learning which need supervisory attention. His observations of classroom activities in the teaching of spelling indicate numerous weaknesses of individual teachers and the learning problems common to many of the children in various classes. Teachers come to him with specific problems regarding their methods of teaching or their cases of pupils making noticeably slow progress. New teachers have to be adjusted to the school and the school system. Both old and new teachers must be guided in keeping up with the latest sources of help in improving their teaching.

In meeting the responsibilities as a supervisory leader the principal will resort to teachers' meetings, individual conferences, supervisory bulletins, demonstration lessons, intervisitations of teachers, experimentation, and the like. In order that these supervisory procedures may furnish the teachers with the concrete help they need in their problems centering around methods of teaching spelling, principals should utilize principles derived from research studies in the field of spelling.

In furnishing teachers with the professional assistance they need in dealing with many of their classroom difficulties and in continuing to grow, the principal is called upon (1) to indicate to the teachers the findings derived by research workers applicable to the problematic situations or (2) to direct the teachers to the sources of the desired information. So rapidly is the literature regarding elementary school

subjects accumulating that no principal can keep abreast of it studying alone and at the same time give adequate attention to his work. He must find a way, however, to familiarize himself with the sources of fundamental conclusions and, in so far as is humanly possible, assimilate these findings so that he can readily use them as he is confronted with teaching difficulties to which they apply.

Investigations and experimentations in the teaching of spelling have reached such large proportions during the past few decades that the time and energy required to analyze and integrate the results of the studies are more than most principals can afford to give to them. It is not sound economy to expect every principal to carry on the intensive study regarding this subject and the other subjects when there is so much else to be done.

While serving as an elementary school principal, the writer felt keenly the need for finding some solution to this large obstacle which is in the way of all principals. He resolved, therefore, when he undertook an intensive study of the research literature dealing with the teaching of spelling, that he would organize the integrated findings so that they could be made available to principals for such use as they cared to make of them. The results of his efforts are included in the remainder of this article.

In the limited space allotted to the writer, it is possible to present only a brief summary of the findings from the scientific literature regarding the teaching of spelling. An attempt has been made to organize the conclusions so that they are presented in a way which will be most helpful to both the principal and the teacher. In order to keep the treatment concise, the writer has stated the integrated conclusions in the form of a series of principles, but has omitted the host of references from which the principles have been built. He gladly acknowledges his indebtedness to the army of research workers whose contributions made possible the development of the following principles.¹

A. *Principles Regarding Methods of Teaching Spelling*

1. Pupils should know the meaning and use of a word before the teacher begins instructing them in learning to spell it.
2. Ability to pronounce the word is a very important aid in learning to spell it.
3. Acquiring a correct visual image of a word aids materially in learning to spell it.
4. Syllabication of a word aids in learning to spell it.
5. Pupils are aided materially in learning to spell a word by writing it.
6. Aggressive interest on the part of the learner is important in learning to spell economically.
7. Presenting spelling in script to elementary school pupils helps them in learning to spell.

¹For an expanded running account of the application of the principles to teaching see *Helps for the Teacher*, published by G. C. Kyte, in *Modern Methods Speller*, Silver, Burdett and Company, 1930, p. vi-xxiv.

8. The principal mental processes to be included in learning to spell are (a) careful observation of the form of the word, (b) correct analysis into syllables and letters, (c) vivid visual and auditory images of parts and wholes, (d) association of throat and hand movements with visual and auditory images, and (e) repetitions to secure correct recall.
9. Present a new word in the following order: (a) development of its meaning and use, if not known; (b) fixation of correct pronunciation; (c) preliminary spelling test; (d) notification of pupils who misspelled the word; (e) guidance of these pupils in developing a clear image and correct motor response; and (f) supervision of the pupil's study. (See principles 1 to 8).
10. Make use of a wide variety of devices, which include the above principles, in the course of teaching the spelling of the word.

B. Principles Regarding Questionable Practices

11. The development of pride in spelling cannot be substituted for drill.
12. Rules cannot be substituted for direct instruction in spelling, even in the case of words covered by them.
13. Saying the letters only is not an efficient method of learning to write words correctly.
14. Marking prominently with colored crayon or underlining difficult parts of a word has little value to the learner.
15. The use of diacritical marks in teaching spelling hinders children in learning to spell.
16. Grouping words into families aids in immediate recall rather than delayed recall.
17. Repetition without securing attention will not insure learning to spell.

C. Principles Regarding the Organization of Drill Lessons

18. Preliminary testing of the words before teaching is essential to economy and efficiency in the use of the spelling period.
19. Study under the careful supervision of the teacher produces the best results.
20. When daily programs are followed, less than fifteen minutes per day, efficiently used, is needed for teaching spelling.
21. Distribution of the drill on a given word so that practice on other words intervenes, increases the effectiveness of the learning.
22. Constructive assistance given to children in starting their study of words misspelled aids materially in the learning.
23. Mastery of an efficient method of studying spelling should be habituated in each pupil.

D. Principles Regarding Individual Differences and Needs

24. A pupil should study those words he has difficulty in spelling and needs to know and no others.
25. Pupils in a class will exhibit considerable variability in spelling ability.
26. Erratic spelling must be expected and must be overcome.
27. Individuals vary greatly in the amount of repetition needed to fix the spelling of a word.
28. Errors in spelling are due to different causes and must be corrected by different methods.
29. Pupils differ in the effectiveness of the various types of learning (visual, auditory, hand-motor, and speech-motor) as applied in the study of spelling.

30. If a certain type of imagery is found especially effective with a pupil, make special use of that particular type with him.
31. Methods found suitable for the good speller are suitable for the poor speller.

E. *Miscellaneous Principles Regarding the Teaching of Spelling*

32. Frequent and systematic review is essential, especially in the case of words found difficult.
33. Provide abundant use of words in sentences, especially by way of review or drill.
34. Spelling scales and tests can be used with children profitably, especially if the words found in them have been checked against lists of minimally essential words; pupils are interested in the evidence of progress made by themselves.
35. All teachers must share the responsibility for aiding pupils to become good spellers; careful spelling should be required in all written work and pupils notified of their errors found in it.

If a teacher plans her program in the teaching of spelling so that the above principles are operating in her methods of teaching, in the pupils' methods of learning, in the distribution and use of the time available for spelling mastery, and the like, the achievement of the pupils should be all that can be desired. The elementary school principal who assists the teacher in understanding these principles and in applying them in her classwork will have made efficient use of his supervisory technics.

THE WORK on the 1932 yearbook has begun. Articles on the general topic "The Principal and the Community" should be sent to the Editorial Committee, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C., before November 1, 1931.

IMPROVING LANGUAGE IN THE UPPER GRADES

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LANGUAGE is an all inclusive subject and one most closely related to the everyday life of the child. The child begins in the first grade to develop power in language expression. This power grows in complexity as the child passes on through the grades and is stimulated by contact with the various teachers with their individual technic and interpretation of the course of study.

What are the objectives of language teaching?—Language presents as many individual differences as there are different environments, and different inherent aptitudes. It involves many factors, such as freedom of expression, oral and written mechanics, spelling, grammar, vocabulary enrichment, form, and correctness. The child must learn language for his everyday needs whether they are recreational or occupational. The school cannot hope to perfect all the phases of this work, but it should give the child command of the common means of communication. In order to accomplish this the following fundamental principles that underly all successful teaching must be applied to the teaching of language:

1. There must be clearly formulated aims or objectives.
2. There must be carefully selected and organized materials.
3. There must be intensive study of the current practices and best method of developing language power.
4. There must be a measuring program to determine whether progress is being made.

Each of the above principles must be thoroughly analyzed before a supervisory program for the improvement of language can be organized. What are some of the specific aims or objectives for language? It is enough for the purpose of this article to state general aims that can be made applicable to all grades. These general aims are:

1. To develop ideals of and pride in good English.
2. To fix the habit of correct usage and correct English habits.
3. To aid the pupil in expressing ideas with readiness, poise, and due regard to the audience.
4. To develop the ability to listen intelligently.
5. To aid the pupil in acquiring a desire and a method for improving his ability to speak and write clearly, correctly, concisely, and fluently.

At the end of the sixth grade, a child, having chosen a subject of his own interest, should be capable of standing on his feet and talking with a pleasing voice for two minutes using brief, clear-cut sentences and a good choice of words. Taking this same subject, he should be capable of writing a paragraph or two on it with some style

and free from errors of punctuation and grammar. He should also be capable of writing an acceptable social letter and a correct business letter.

How can language be taught?—If language power is to be developed the following types of experiences are necessary: (1) The increasing of expressional power, (2) the developing of a theme in all its relationship, and (3) the correlation of all subjects. There is not room in this paper to elaborate on the activities that are the instruments in developing these experiences. It is necessary, however, to list several of the most important.

1. *Story telling*.—Story telling can be divided into two types: productive stories and reproductive stories. Productive stories develop the power to express original ideas, and the ability to weigh and assimilate related material. Reproductive stories can be used in developing correct usage, a good choice of words, punctuation, and sequence. The last type should be thoroughly understood by the teacher and should not be overdone.

2. *Dramatization*.—The chief value of dramatization lies in its demand for spontaneous action and conversation. It is interpretative and individual. It is a means of reaching the timid and backward child. It gives training in clear expression of thought with a real motive.

3. *Poetry*.—Poetry develops three distinct language powers. The study of a poem enriches the child's vocabulary and choice of words. The writing of original poems gives the pupil an excellent opportunity to express ideas and individuality. The reciting of poetry helps to develop posture, poise, and a pleasing voice.

4. *Letter writing*.—Letter writing whether it be friendly, social, or business is the most important of all activities. It gives the child an opportunity to express his ideas with clearness, conciseness and form. Through this activity, the pupil develops an individual technic that will always meet his needs.

5. *Clubs*.—Clubs and assemblies which include in their programs such activities as book reviews, debates, reports, speeches, plays, and construction work develop the power of expressing ideas in a concise, clear manner.

6. *Picture study*.—Pictures serve, mainly, as source materials, but they can be instruments by which the child develops in art appreciation and story interpretation. They are a means of correlating the language work with the other subjects.

7. *Other activities*.—Correct form and usage are developed through activities such as language games, drills, filling-in blanks, dictation and sentence building.

Discovering the language difficulties by the principal.—After having established the powers that the activities develop, the next step

is to find out just what powers the child needs to develop. Pupil difficulties can be found best by a testing program which should consist of formal tests and informal tests. The standard tests or scale should be chosen for their validity and reliability. If a test measures adequately the knowledge, traits, skills, functions, attitudes or content of the language work that it is supposed to measure, it is valid. If it measures accurately with the same results no matter when given it is reliable.¹

The principal to help the teacher must become familiar with tests if they are to be given successfully. The proper atmosphere for the giving of the test includes, making the pupils feel at home and having the room quiet. At all times an atmosphere of success should be maintained. Every precaution should be taken to guard against a waning of interest and a tiring of the pupil. The method of scoring should be simple. Results tabulated by each question for each pupil helps the principal and the teacher to see quickly the types of pupil difficulties.

Our language supervisory program—The purpose of this paper is to show how supervision was applied to language at the Robinson and Valentine Schools to produce the best results. The mediums that were used to accomplish this were meetings, measuring programs, classroom visits, bulletins and conferences. Each of these played its own important part in our plan of improving instruction through supervision.

A series of meetings was held preparatory to the actual classroom work. The purpose of these meetings was to plan the method of approach, and to create a thorough understanding of our program. A building and a grade secretary were elected to report the findings of each meeting. A bulletin which outlined the program, the problems, or the findings to be discussed was given to the teacher three days before each meeting so that there could be a free expression of opinion. The meetings that were held later in the program were devoted to examination and comparison of papers, the discussion of best methods to use and demonstration lessons. Each of the demonstrations was followed by a discussion period where the relative values of the lesson were weighed. At the first group of meetings the following topics were discussed:

1. A plan for improving language.
2. Reports on general and grade objectives of various authorities.
3. Final setting up of the objectives for language.
4. Reports on our own course of study and that of many other cities.
5. Additions we should make to our course.
6. Activities that best develop power in language expression.
7. A successful measuring program.

¹See such books as Russell's *Classroom Tests*, Ginn and Company.

Demonstration lessons were given in:

1. Paragraph study (to develop sequence in a story).
2. Picture study (as a means of developing a story).
3. Poetry study (for appreciation).
4. Dramatization (to obtain free expression of ideas).
5. Conducting (to show how to plan a club program).

The aim of our testing program was to measure both the written and oral work of the pupil. The *Driggs-Mayhew Scale* was used to measure the written work. Each teacher corrected and graded her own set of papers without marking them. They were then sent to the office where the principal corrected and graded them and made a list of the outstanding difficulties.

Measuring the oral language was a harder task. A list of five items was used to check the child's ability at first but other items were added later. Each teacher checked her class by marking "s" for strong and "w" for weak. The principal using the same list checked all the pupils by grades. Conferences followed, notes were compared and analyzed. It was found that the children wrote as they spoke and the difficulties were similar. The findings of these surveys were tabulated by the principal and bulletins with suggested remedial work were issued, as shown in Survey Bulletins, No. 1, 2, and 3.

SURVEY BULLETIN No. 1

October Written Survey

	Grade IV	Grade V	Grade VI
Quality A.....			
Quality B.....		4	2
Quality C.....	14	20	31
Quality D.....	52	46	80
Quality E.....	22	20	26

October Oral Survey

	GRADE IV		GRADE V		GRADE VI	
	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
1. Clearness.....	7	81	44	46	48	91
2. Choice of words....	48	40	23	67	42	97
3. Sentence Structure..	18	70	20	70	26	113
4. Sentence Sense.....	83	5	86	4	134	5
5. Usage.....	66	22	36	54	94	45

General statement—The work that you did in September was evident in the language papers. The children wrote in sentences in almost every case. Continue the work you have been doing because it is only by constant drill the class improves. The big problem for the next two months will be developing and improving the paragraph. We will work for clearness, conciseness and smoothness.

Outstanding problems

I—Repetition of words and groups of words

II—Unnecessary details

III—Unrelated sentences and words

IV—Too many sentences and words to express an idea.

V—Crudeness of expression and choice of words.

Suggested remedial work

Study paragraphs as class exercises, crossing out all repetition. Do as individual exercises. Teach synonyms—use them in sentences and paragraphs when the same word is repeated. Teach use of pronouns to take place of names of persons, or things that are repeated. Use paragraphs, sentences and filling-in blanks as medium of correction. Be sure models are free from usage and punctuation errors.

Cross out the unnecessary details from paragraphs on the board. Tell why.

Develop stories in class with proper sequence of events. Study paragraphs on the board or individually crossing out and rearranging the group of words so that there is a proper sequence.

Give exercises where words or groups of words may be omitted and the same idea be expressed.

Rearrange sentences or words so they will read smoothly. Develop stories in class. Develop picture words that describe. Give exercises with words to choose, as—"The storm (shook, rattled) the windows." Develop picture words that express how or add something to the meaning of the predicate, as—"The gentle nurse entered the bedroom—." Fill in the correct word exercises.

CORRECT USAGE GRADES IV-V-VI

The verb forms were especially poor.

The use of the correct article especially before vowels.

Use fill-in exercises. Questions with their answers that have the verbs to be filled in, as—"What did Tom see at the circus? He—an elephant." Games. Dictation.

Games. Dictation. Filling-in blanks.

GRADE VI (only)

There were quite a few errors in the use of the apostrophe.

Give drill on the use of the apostrophe in contractions and in plural and singular words showing ownership. Have exercises that contain both uses.

GRADES IV-V

The use of the words to-too-two, our-are, and there-their were confused.

Give drill exercises in the use of these words. Use games to fix words.

SURVEY BULLETIN No. 2

January Written Survey

	Grade IV	Grade V	Grade VI
Quality A.....			2
Quality B.....	8	14	21
Quality C.....	62	56	76
Quality D.....	10	20	25
Quality E.....	8	10	15

January Oral Survey

	GRADE IV		GRADE V		GRADE VI	
	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
1. Clearness.....	76	12	78	12	88	51
2. Choice of words...	68	20	57	33	96	43
3. Sentence structure..	56	32	65	25	98	41
4. Sentence sense.....	86	2	87	3	136	3
5. Usage.....	77	11	64	26	113	26
6. Vocabulary.....	30	58	27	63	42	97
7. Unity.....	21	67	35	55	56	84
8. Interest.....	15	73	32	58	34	105

General statement—This survey shows that the stories have improved in sentence structure and they were clearer and more concise. Continue work suggested in Bulletin No. 1. We will work for more alive stories this next term.

Outstanding problems

I—Beginning sentences lacked life and did not arouse interest.

Remedial work

Make a list of good beginning sentences on board. Point out whether they arouse interest or give an idea of what is to follow. Combine first two sentences of stories into one good sentence. Compare beginning sentences. Point out good beginning sentences. Tell why. Supply paragraphs with beginning sentences.

II—There was no point to many stories.

Study paragraphs picking out main thought. Develop story around one incident. Compare the way the same main thought is developed in different stories. Show how every sentence should help unfold the story through the development of paragraph in class.

III—The stories were not alive. The sentences were uninteresting.

Train the children to tell their own ideas on the subject. Have them make their stories personal but begin sentences with something else besides I. Compare paragraphs on the same subject. Pick out the sentences that make the story alive. Use a short sentence and develop it into a longer sentence.

IV—The stories didn't seem to end. The endings had no relation to the story. They were flat and uninteresting.

Study endings to see if they add anything to the story or make the story more vivid. Find good or poor endings. Tell why. Read paragraphs omitting the last sentence. Is it improved? Why? Give good ending sentences to unfinished paragraphs.

V—The vocabulary used was not adequate for the child's grade.

From paragraphs pick out the words that describe sound, looks, objects or persons, or groups of words that make it interesting. From lists of words pick out words that could be used to describe a given object. Exercises giving picture words to describe objects.

CORRECT USAGE AND PUNCTUATION

Verb forms still bother.

Continue work as suggested in October bulletin.

Double negatives were used a great deal.

Games. Filling-in exercises and elimination exercises will help correct this error.

Indirect quotation was punctuated as a direct quotation.

Give thorough review of the use of the quotation marks. Have exercises changing from direct to indirect quotation. Dictation and sentences to be punctuated.

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SURVEY BULLETIN No. 3

April Written Survey (Letter Writing)

	Grade IV	Grade V	Grade VI
Quality A.....	3	2	5
Quality B.....	44	46	56
Quality C.....	28	22	21
Quality D.....	8	12	13
Quality E.....	5	8	5
Form.....	7 Failures	6 Failures	4 Failures

April Oral Survey (Story)

	GRADE IV		GRADE V		GRADE VI	
	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
1. Clearness.....	85	3	80	10	105	34
2. Choice of words...	78	10	72	18	112	27
3. Sentence structure..	66	22	55	35	102	37
4. Sentence sense.....	88	0	89	1	137	2
5. Usage.....	78	9	79	11	126	13
6. Vocabulary.....	68	20	75	15	94	45
7. Unity.....	47	41	48	42	74	65
8. Interest.....	76	12	68	22	98	41

General statement—There was general improvement in interest in the stories of this survey. The beginning and ending sentences in most cases were vital. The work next term will be for self-analysis of papers and stories, using these bases: What is good in the story? What is poor in the story? Why? How will you improve the story? These bases will serve as a summing up of the work that has been done. Continue work suggested on the two previous bulletins.

Outstanding problems

- I—Details were left out that would have added interest to the paragraph and made it life-like.

- II—The sentence structure was too much the same.

Remedial work

Compare paragraphs omitting necessary details with those with details added. Add sentences to paragraphs to increase the interest. Pick out sentences in a paragraph that make it life-like.

Vary the length of the sentence by expanding short sentences and breaking up long sentences. Substitute sentences in a paragraph by new and better sentences.

Monthly surveys were given in punctuation and usage. These consisted of dictation and filling-in exercises. As drill is the only remedial work effective in this phase of language it does not seem

necessary to tabulate the findings in this paper, although each month the teachers were given the tabulation.

Classroom visits and conferences also played an important part. When our program was started, each teacher was asked to make the plan of her week's language lessons in advance. The less experienced teachers were asked to make rather complete plans while the more experienced teachers only outlined their plans. At individual conferences these lessons were discussed and criticized. Suggestions, corrections and additions were made and sometimes copies of model lessons were given to the teachers. Later on, the week's plan was merely sent to the office where criticisms were made in writing, but when necessary a conference was held. This pre-visit preparation allowed for the closer study of the language itself when the supervisor visited the class and gave the teacher the assurance which comes when one knows that the presentation itself will be acceptable. Because of the size of the school each class could be visited only once every two weeks so this plan allowed for either direct or indirect supervision of each room every week.

At first the writer planned her week's visits to lessons that were planned to correct the outstanding difficulties, but after the program was well established all types of lessons were included. Many rating forms were examined but as they were all rather long and included all the problems of teaching, a simplified form was prepared. As preparation of the lesson was taken care of by the pre-visit conferences and discipline was handled as a separate problem, it was not necessary to include them in the rating form. This form, which follows, was given to the teachers so that there would be no misunderstanding of the aim of the visit which in all cases was to suggest ways and means of improving the language.

RATING FORM

Teacher's Name.....

Visit No.....

1. Was the activity successful?
2. Did it establish a correct English habit?
3. In what details was it good?
4. In what details was it not so good?
5. Was the technic correct?
6. Was the work on the child's level?
7. Did it allow for individual difficulties?
8. Did the children enter freely and spontaneously into the discussion?
9. Did it stimulate the pupils?
10. Was the spirit of the class and teacher cooperative?

Date.....

After the classroom visit, a conference was held and the lesson was discussed and remedial suggestions made.

Some errors made

I—Material was not on the pupil's level.

II—There was no technic in the presentation of the lesson. You seemed to be reciting instead of presenting. Lesson was too bookish. The method of approach was indefinite.

III—Lesson did not allow for individual differences.

IV—Pupils were not stimulated as they were unfamiliar with or had forgotten the type of exercise. Exercises seemed too hard.

V—There was a lack of cooperation in the class. There was no freedom of discussion.

Remedial suggestions

Discover the central interest in the class and build the lessons around it. Try another type of exercise or an easier exercise.

Study model of grade in *Standards of English* by Mahoney, or *Speaking and Writing English* by Sheridan.

Use Thorndike's word list in making out your sentences.

Put your own personality into the lesson. Read *Self-Help Methods of Teaching English* by Wohlfarth or *Teaching English in Elementary and Junior High School* by Paul Klapper for suggestions on ways of teaching language.

We will have a report of Strayer and Norsworthy, *How to Teach*, at the next meeting which might help you with your problem. You may report on Stormsand's *Progressive Methods in Teaching*, at the January meeting.

Each lesson should have a maximum or minimum. You will be allowed to visit in another class where individual differences are handled well. You will be given a unit of work that will help take care of the problems of your class on this point.

Do more of that type of exercise. In next week's plan include three exercises of that type. Give class a variety of types of activity but do not disregard types you have already had. Point out how exercise is similar to work they have already had success in.

Every lesson should have both pupil and teacher activity. Do not have pupils do all the work. Each one has his share. Let class feel you have a responsibility as well as they have. Assign tasks to the pupils that do not cooperate. Give responsibility for the success of the lesson to various pupils. Have exercises easy enough so that each child wishes to take part. Call on the children who are retiring. Do not let bright children monopolize the lesson.

Conclusion—There was not room in this paper to write fully on any of the phases that were covered by our experiment but there was an attempt to include all types and ways of supervision that were used. Perfection was not attained but the language instruction did improve and the teachers were more satisfied and happier with their teaching. This program is to be continued next year with the hope of accomplishing better results.

NO CLASSROOM visit should be made without some definite purpose in mind. A definite purpose precedes and predicts a definite result. Other results may come as a by-product, may even be more important than the one planned for, but it is trusting a great deal to chance to enter a classroom on the mere hope that something may miraculously arise to justify the expenditure of time, energy, and possibly teacher's and pupils' "nerves" arising from the introduction of another element into the classroom situation. Teachers mean to be complimentary when they assure the principal that "Your coming does not bother me." Is that enough?—Laura G. Snyder, Chapter IV.

DIFFERENTIATED ASSIGNMENTS

NETTIE B. STEWART

Principal, Center School, Thomaston, Connecticut

IN OUR work as educators of the boys and girls of today we must make sure that initiative and independence are fostered, that the creative faculties are developed, and that a patriotic love of home, school, and country are nurtured. In brief, that our young Americans are given an education of such a nature that they will become well-rounded, worthwhile individuals who are fitted to take an active part in the complex social life of today.

American life has always been characterized by change. Social classes as well as conditions of living have undergone transformation. No one's status in life is fixed. The school has been consciously instrumental in raising children above the station in life in which they were born. Education itself has changed and has become more dynamic with the passage of time.

The educational pendulum has swung away from the monotonous uniformity of the question-and-answer recitation and is rapidly approaching the point of a purely individual-social-civic type of training. In bringing about this change, which is so important in the lives of our pupils, there are several significant factors to be taken into consideration, namely, the teacher, the methods used, the needs of the pupils, the environment, as well as the economic status and the civic and social necessities of our future citizens.

Taking into consideration the various factors enumerated above, we have been experimenting for the past ten years with a revision of our curriculum, which was of the old commonly accepted type. This article will summarize briefly the various changes which have been made in our efforts to make the *pupils*, not the school, the center of education in Thomaston. We have approached the problem by way of the differentiated assignment and by adopting new revitalized methods of teaching, namely, the socialized recitation and the project method. We have in connection with these changes made use of standard tests and measurements and later those tests which are commonly designated as "new type".

Thomaston is a town with a population of approximately 3500 people, nearly one-half of whom are of Polish ancestry. The principal industrial life of the town is centered in the manufacture of clocks and brass products. Our elementary school population averages about 480 pupils every year. These pupils are divided into fourteen home-rooms, each room presided over by an experienced teacher.

In adjusting the content of our curriculum to the individual pupils we have been hampered by lack of a modern building, by lack of

equipment, and by lack of financial resources. Under these circumstances we were obliged to abandon the idea of purely individual assignments, as it was impossible to procure the necessary space and equipment. We then began to experiment with the type of assignment that could be used in working with our groups and still could be adjusted to pupils of varying aptitudes and capacities. After many revisions we at last have our assignments on a practical working basis. The assignments are not simply lists of things to be done, but are well-motivated, well-planned teaching units. We owe much of our progress in assignment making to our superintendent of schools who has formulated comprehensive principles for assignment making and tests of the written assignment.

Reading—We led up to the adjustment of reading material to the individual by using standard tests. Testing was followed by remedial work with the individual pupils, or with groups who might need the same kind of reading instruction. This group work brought about improvement in reading, but, not satisfied with the quality of reading interest shown, we decided to place our reading on an individual basis. Our sole idea was to place the reading responsibility upon the pupil, thereby obtaining better motivation.

Beginning with the third grade we now have sets of individual readers in each grade, no two books being alike. In grades three and four these readers are divided into the classes of literature, history, geography, and nature. In grades five and six we have the same with the addition of biography. We read these books in cycles, each cycle consisting of one book of each class. Our idea in this was to broaden the reading by giving the pupil acquaintance with the different types of work usually read by adults, thereby adding also to the appreciation and enjoyment of different kinds of literature. To deepen the interest and to give each child a definite aim in reading we have worked out book reports corresponding to each class of reading material.

BOOK REPORT FORM

Title -----

Author -----

Dates of beginning and finishing this book -----

1. Write a brief review of this story using the following outline as a guide:
 - a. When did this story take place?
 - b. Where did this story take place?
 - c. What events took place before this story that made it possible?
 - d. How does the story begin?
 - e. What person or persons take the leading parts?
 - f. What was the most important and exciting part of the story?
 - g. How does the story end? Do you agree with the way the author ends the story?
2. In a short paragraph tell why you would like your friends to read this book.

Working out one of the book reports after reading a volume crystallizes the knowledge gained and offers a very good opportunity for correlation with English. The reports also enable the teacher to keep a definite check on the child's progress in reading. In addition to our sets of individual readers we have also other sets of books which we use for both oral and silent reading. To vary our reading program we have audience reading, group reading, silent reading and testing, or any other reading device which brings the desired result. Our purpose is enough drill upon the mechanics to enable the pupil to read any kind of material within his experience understandingly and intelligently. We still continue remedial work, as even our most Utopian reading schemes must be built upon a firm foundation in order to bring about the desirable results which we feel that we have attained. The following points of improvement are becoming increasingly noticeable as time passes:

1. A spontaneous enthusiasm for reading.
2. Increased reading ability.
3. A more discriminating appreciation of the fine things in literature.
4. Increased vocabulary.
5. Self-motivated reading.
6. The ability to use leisure time to good advantage and to *gain* and to *give* enjoyment by reading.
7. A growth of ability to concentrate.

Arithmetic—Our revitalized arithmetic has also been placed upon an individual basis. The assignments are arranged to suit the varied levels of intelligence which exist in our groups, regardless of how careful we may be in classifying them. We have endeavored to have our assignments follow the principles of good lesson planning; namely, that they shall provide for readiness, exercise and effect. We have selected the best material that we could find in a wide variety of modern textbooks and have provided for individual adjustments on a minimum, average, and maximum basis. The reader will note in the following unit that the minimum provides for the learning of new material and provides motivation and study helps for the pupil. The average is enrichment material in which the principles taught in the minimum are used. The maximum provides opportunity for originality and freedom of thought, as well as training in choosing the most desirable unit for the individual to do.

One of the usual questions asked about our assignments is how they may be marked. We allow a mark of 80 on a correct minimum, and 10 additional points each for average and maximum work. By fixing a date when the several parts of the assignment are due it is possible to keep the class working together. We find, in general, that within the given amount of time, the upper third of the class will do the entire assignment, the middle third will do the minimum and the average work, while the lower third will accomplish only

the minimum. When we feel confident that any individual pupil in the lower third of our group has mastered the work, but is handicapped in any way, for instance, by being a very slow worker, we adjust his marks on a 100 point basis. This adjustment is fairer and offers encouragement to the pupil.

We believe that the following good has developed from the use of our arithmetic assignments:

1. A greater degree of individual motivation.
2. More independent work.
3. A genuine liking for arithmetic.
4. Greater skill in use of essentials.
5. Better working attitude.

SAMPLE ASSIGNMENT IN ARITHMETIC

GRADE VI

ASSIGNMENT II

PERCENTAGE—UNIT II

If you master the first work in percentage, it will help you all through the year because a great deal of the work is based on percentage.

All percentages are decimals or fractions with the denominator written another way. Percentage is the business way of using $\frac{\quad}{100}$, or hundredths.

100 100

Minimum:

On page 164 in your new arithmetic there is a table of percent equivalents. They are called equivalents because the fraction and the percent mean the same; as $\frac{1}{2}$ is the same as 50 percent, (Study Help). After studying the table cover the fractions and see if you can write the percents; then cover the percents and write the fractions.

Today you are going to test yourselves by doing the examples on page 238 in Hamilton's *Arithmetic*.

The new work is finding the percent of a number. (Study Help). K. S. R. page 157. Ask questions about any part that you do not understand. In order to find out whether you can use these study helps easily would you not like to do the work on pages 158-159 K. S. R.?

Now that you are sure that you can do this work, you can get extra practice by doing examples 1-24 in K. S. R.

K. S. R. page 150-151, Ex. 1-20.

Average:

You have had considerable practice in percentage; these examples will increase your speed and accuracy.

Hamilton's, page 243.

Gilmartin and Russell, page 39, Ex. 1-7.

Maximum:

Try your skill in making two attractive designs representing 50 percent and 80 percent. (Study Help). Hamilton's, page 239. Or Smith's *Graded Problems*, page 10, column 11.

Social studies—This year we are working out experimental assignments in social studies for the sixth grade. They are arranged in related groups of history, geography, and civic assignments.

SAMPLE ASSIGNMENT IN SOCIAL STUDIES

GRADE VI

ASSIGNMENT II

The Revolutionary War

How many of you know how to play checkers? It is a very interesting game as we always try to make a better move than our opponent can. Has it ever occurred to you that the part of the history of America that happened just before the Revolutionary War period is very much like a game of checkers? England made very strict laws regulating colonial trade—the colonists evaded these laws by smuggling goods. When the colonists smuggled goods the King's officers were given the right to enter people's homes in search of goods upon which no duty had been paid. When the colonies began to manufacture their own goods England forbade it in order to make the colonies trade with her. When England taxed the colonies they refused to pay the taxes as they said they were not given the right by England to lay those taxes or to help make the laws by which they were governed. When the King illegally quartered troops upon the people of Boston the people actively rebelled and caused the Boston Massacre. When the colonies joined in resistance to taxation the King dissolved their representative assemblies and appointed royal governors. The King injured the shipbuilding industry of New England by forbidding fishermen of the colony of Massachusetts to fish on the Grand Banks. The colonies retaliated by using their fishing boats as privateers to capture the cargoes of English merchant-ships. Can you not see the likeness to a checker game? Let us study the Revolutionary War by carrying on our game still further and finding out the moves and countermoves made by both England and the United States.

Section I. The War in New England.

Problem: How did the first clash of arms occur, and how did the people of New England organize for armed resistance to the King?

(List of references to be posted where pupils can consult it freely?)

UNIT I.

Minimum—Group I

Word study: Rebellion, evacuation, Loyalist, Tory, patriot, campaign.

Questions:

1. What were the purpose and effect of the Boston Port bill? How did the other colonies feel in regard to the trouble in Massachusetts?
2. Name two outstanding leaders of the people in Massachusetts? Find out all you can about them. How did General Gage propose to deal with them?
3. Who was General Gage? Why did he send troops to Concord and Lexington?
4. How was the countryside warned of the approach of the British? Read the poem that tells this story. Who were the Minute Men?
5. What did the events that occurred on April 19, 1775 show?
6. Tell about the battle of Bunker Hill. What effect did it have on the spirit of the Americans?
7. On July 3, 1775 Washington took command of the Continental Army at Cambridge, Massachusetts. Who gave him his commission as commander-in-chief? Tell about his difficulties in getting troops, supplies, and money.

8. What were the events of the war in the North, during the winter of 1775-1776? What were the events in the South?
9. Tell how the British were forced to leave Boston. Where did they go?
10. Find the main facts about the life of John Hancock and be ready to tell them briefly to your class.

Minimum—Group II

Class discussion of the material presented in the question exercise.

Minimum—Group III

Group work on preparing summaries.

Group I: Brief account of results at Lexington and Concord.

Group II: Results at Bunker Hill.

Group III: Results at Boston.

You may now prepare a brief summary of your own to cover the important events that have so far taken place in our study of the Revolutionary War.

Minimum—Group IV

Class Lesson:

Choose moves and counter moves in this game of war.

Connect the above moves with the problem in as many ways as you can

Test on *minimum*.

Average:

- I. Learn the Concord Hymn. When you are sure that you know it well, ask the teacher to test you.
- II. Make an outline map of New England. Locate Boston, Bunker Hill, Lexington, and Concord. Show British campaign in *red*. American campaign in *blue*.

Maximum:

- I. Write a letter on one of the topics given below:

1. Imagine that you are one of Washington's soldiers stationed near Boston. Write a letter home telling about your officers, army life, and your hope for an early end of the war.

2. Imagine yourself a young patriot living in Boston. Write a letter to a relative in Pennsylvania describing your experiences during the summer of 1775.

Try to make your letter so interesting that your classmates and parents will enjoy hearing it. What can you do to make it a true picture of the time about which we are now studying?

- II. Complete this table.

<i>Event</i>	<i>When</i>	<i>Interesting Facts</i>	<i>Results</i>
Lexington			
Concord			
Bunker Hill			
Boston			

Unit II. Geography of New England.

That part of our country now called New England was one of the parts of America that was claimed and settled by people from old England. They were forbidden to worship in the way they thought right in England, so they left their homes and came to the new land. It must at first have seemed very forbidding to them as the coast was rugged, the land covered with dense forests, and the climate much more severe than that of England. It was only after many years of toil and suffering that the people finally won comfort and safety. Since we have just

finished a unit in history describing the part of the Revolutionary War that took place in New England, would it not be interesting, since we live in New England to find out how it has developed since then, what changes have taken place, and what it has contributed toward making the United States of our day and generation?

Problem: What has New England contributed toward making the United States what it is today?

Minimum:

- I. Directed map study, p. 55. We will make from memory a sketch map of this group, showing state boundaries, chief rivers, mountains, and state capitals.
- II. Questions, Study Lesson.
 1. Where are the highlands and lowlands of New England?
 2. Why has New England many lakes?
 3. Why are these lakes useful?
 4. Why have the rivers of New England rapids and falls? For what are they useful? What are the important industries?
 5. Which river of New England is a *tidal* river? Explain what this means.
 6. Of what advantage is it to New England to have such a long coastline? Where are many sand dunes found? Why is *sand* binding done on Cape Cod?
 7. Find out why the climate of New England is so much more severe than that of England. How does climate determine what crops will grow?
 8. Compare the size and population of New England with that of Litchfield County.
 9. Why are the soil and surface of New England not favorable to agriculture on a large scale?

III. Class Study Lesson. (Group Work)

Since New England is a very busy industrial area let us collect all the information we can concerning agriculture, manufacturing, quarrying, transportation, and the lesser industries of our home states, particularly Connecticut. We will divide into six groups and choose leaders for each of them.

We will find all the information we can about the different industries, after each group has chosen the one in which it is especially interested. When the groups are ready to report, please tell the teacher.

IV. Socialized work by report groups.

Class summary on board.

V. Class lesson. (Question Box) Connect facts to problem.

VI. Final test.

Average: (Choose one)

- I. Make a product map of New England.
- II. Write out clearly in correct English the solution of the above problem.
- III. Write a paper of about 200 words on the manufactures of Connecticut.

Maximum: (Choose one)

- I. Make a New England booklet.
- II. Imagine yourself to be traveling in New England. Write a story about what you might see that is of interest in the following cities: Portland, Boston, Springfield, Worcester, Providence, and Hartford. Bring out *historical* facts. Arrange carefully your route and plan how you will travel.

Unit III. Civics: The Declaration of Independence.

Problem: How the thirteen colonies became states.

Minimum:

- I. Word study: Resolution, rebellion, revolution, declaration, document engrossed, copy, signature.

Questions:

1. When, where, and at whose call did the First Continental Congress meet? Which colony was not represented? Why? What did this Congress do?
2. Tell about the meeting of the Second Continental Congress. What were some of its important acts?
3. Why were Maine, Vermont and Florida not represented in either Congress?
4. How had the feeling of the colonies toward the mother country changed since the French and Indian War?
5. Quote the words (from any advanced school history) of the resolution introduced by Richard Henry Lee of Virginia into the Second Continental Congress.
6. What five men were appointed as a committee, by the Second Continental Congress, to draw up a statement of grievances and a declaration of the colonists' attitude? To which man is credit for writing the document given?
7. On what date was the resolution for independence adopted? When was it adopted by Congress? Who was the first signer and what was his office?
8. Where is the original document at the present time? How is it preserved?
9. How did the people get the news of the Declaration of Independence, and how did they respond? Do you think that all felt that the Declaration should have been made?
10. Why can we say that in 1776 the colonies changed from a rebellion to a revolution?
11. What reason is given in the first paragraph of the Declaration of Independence for issuing such a declaration?
12. In the second paragraph what rights that all people have are named?
13. What relation did the colonies consider they bore to Great Britain *after* the Declaration? Why did they call themselves "states"? What problem faced the Second Continental Congress after the Declaration?

- II. A history match on unit work.

- III. Outline for summary. Fill in the outline with statements that are informational.

I. First Continental Congress

- A. Where
- B. When
- C. Delegates present
- D. Measures adopted

II. Second Continental Congress

- A. Where
- B. When
- C. States represented
- D. Work accomplished

III. Declaration of Independence

- A. When adopted

- B. Where
- C. By whom written and signed.
- IV. Test on minimum (Compare and discuss tests)

Average:

- I. It would be interesting to know more about the lives of some of the leading men who signed the Declaration of Independence. Choose one from the list and write a brief story of his life.
 - 1. Thomas Jefferson
 - 2. Benjamin Franklin
 - 3. Roger Sherman
- II. Write statements telling why the following dates are important. May 10, 1775; July 2, 1776; July 4, 1776; August 2, 1776.

Maximum:

- I. Learn the first paragraph of the Declaration of Independence.
- II. Learn the poem "The Liberty Bell".

In connection with the assignments it is possible to make use of group effort, and the socialized recitation. A home-room group may resolve itself into a Social Studies Club, the group leaders being chairman in turn, and a secretary having been chosen. The class work usually begins with the reading of the secretary's report, which is of the nature of recall of previous learnings, the adoption of the report, and any new business. This simple business meeting serves for further motivation and a continuity of interest. The work on the assignment sheet should be carefully directed by the teacher, who works among the pupils most needing direction in order to be successful. As with any individual scheme, while the teacher does not appear on the assignment sheet, he is the factor on whom the success of the plan depends. The successful teacher in the new school is he who can most ably use his personality and skill, not to lead, but to guide and direct the progress and growth of young America.

Projects—For the past several years we have been experimenting with projects, not of the regulation type, but as the core around which much of our school work is arranged. Thus far we have chosen projects which require an entire year to develop. This done, we have carefully planned them, correlating all our school subjects if possible. If a large enough project is chosen this matter is not difficult. For instance, the planning, building, and furnishing of a home, the needs of man, or building a model town. Then the project is put into the hands of the class to carry out. At this point the originality, ingenuity, and purposing of the pupils come into play, leaders come naturally forward, and the project then acts as a motivating agent for all subjects involved. We have found that projects that offer some opportunity for construction work are very well liked by the pupils in this community. It begins a kind of training which is valuable in this particular place, and which is not provided for by the regular course of study. So we have turned

our home-rooms into workshops, the sound of the hammer has been heard abroad in the land, and each teacher has become the director of a lively group of unskilled workmen, whose eagerness to learn has quickly made up for any deficiencies in skill.

Projects have assisted in our effort to make the pupil the center of education in the following ways:—

1. Initiative, ingenuity, and leadership have been developed.
2. Project work engenders habits of purposeful planning.
3. Motivation of subjectmatter.
4. The spirit of cooperation has grown.
5. Many spiritual values, which cannot be listed, have been noted.
6. Projects lead to the development of knowledges and skills which are practical and valuable in adult life.

Writing and spelling—We use for writing and spelling the Washburne system of individual instruction. The writing system is used as originally planned, but the spelling has been adapted to the pupils' spelling needs. It is possible, by putting into use the weekly assignment on a basis of minimum, average, and maximum work, to adopt the spelling in a very practical way to the pupils' needs. The minimum list may be fifteen or twenty words chosen from misspelled words from written English, words chosen from subjectmatter, from project work, or from some standard spelling list of sixth grade words.

The marking of spelling may be done as in arithmetic. The average and maximum lists, consisting of ten words each, are given to the pupils in the room who are capable of mastering them. Everyone is required to learn the minimum list, so these words must be carefully chosen, the pupils must learn the usage in sentences, and they should become permanent parts of the individual's vocabulary. Frequent reviews are desirable, and the more variety used the better the results obtained.

Physical training and connected activities—In order to be effective our playground work must be well-organized as the play space is rather inadequate. Each teacher has her own section of the ground and takes charge of her own group of children. We have teacher committees who plan the work and activities week by week. In this way we are insured of a variety of physical training, free play, games, stunts, and contests. Interclass contests are scheduled for Fridays and intense interest is manifest. Since our ideal is "a sound mind in a sound body" we feel the supervised play period to be one of the most important parts of the daily program and worthy of our most careful planning.

Conclusion—A leading educator states, "Education is the process of so promoting happy living that conditions in the world and our own wants are changed to increase the fullness with which our desires, as a whole, may be satisfied." After all, the most important thing

in education is to have boys and girls *wanting* to learn. If they refuse to respond the best teaching is of no avail. Any educational procedure in which the majority of pupils really *want* to master their studies is infinitely better than any accredited method. Such a plan grips essential values in stimulating and guiding mental life. The desire and the ability to lay hold of a difficult task, to solve a difficult problem, to see the thing through, are invaluable traits which we believe are engendered by our present type of work. Our classes have been converted from a state of passivity to working groups. The work spirit has been created. Our teaching emphasis is now placed upon boys and girls, not upon subjectmatter. We believe that our school is now a more truly democratic institution and that our junior citizens are receiving the education necessary for a happy life in our great republic.

THE REPORT card presents the aims of the school to the home. It is a definite statement of school objectives, and is usually accepted by parents as the *ultimate* goal. Pupils come to look upon marks as means to approval from both parents and teachers. Obviously, such assumptions on the part of children and adults seriously affect instruction. The purpose of this article is to raise questions and to offer suggestions which principals need to consider in a supervisory program.—Olive G. Williams, Chapter V.

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CHAPTER VII
APPLICATIONS OF MEASUREMENT AND RESEARCH

THE TEACHER AND RESEARCH
SELECTED VS. UNSELECTED GROUPS IN READING
EVALUATING FOURTH GRADE READING
THE IMPROVEMENT OF STUDY TYPE READING
SUPERVISING A READING READINESS PROGRAM
ARITHMETIC PROBLEM SOLVING
A COOPERATIVE STUDY OF ARITHMETIC
IMPROVING THE ABILITY TO PUNCTUATE
IMPROVING INSTRUCTION THROUGH TESTS
STANDARD TESTS IN SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER VII

Recently, research has developed rapidly in educational practice. We are no longer content to visualize a general procedure, plan its details, and then set it going. Today we observe the scheme in operation, conjecture of the possibility of improvements, estimate relative values, measure the outcomes, and decide what should be done in the future. These new problems call for valid and reliable measures, skillful applications, and discrete interpretations.

The work of the elementary school can be benefitted by scientific technics. The progress of children in certain subjects may be measured, attitudes may be estimated, and traits rated. Administrative schemes may be evaluated in terms of standards which are fairly objective. Phases of supervision can be examined with more certainty when research attitudes and technics are utilized.

Chapter VII contains several articles on the applications of standard tests. Principals will recognize that such studies are limited because no test measures *all* that the school teaches. The checklists and other technics discussed also have their limitations. Yet the fact remains that these attempts toward more exact and impersonal evaluations are in the right direction as long as the research technics are *means* not ends.

The Department has shown an interest in tests, measurements, and the other research technics ever since the *First Yearbook*. Principals should review the following: *First Yearbook*, p. 25-119; *Second Yearbook*, p. 155-444; *Third Yearbook*, p. 290-321, 395-458; *Fifth Yearbook*, p. 323-28; *Sixth Yearbook*, p. 217-28, 294-302; and the *Eighth Yearbook*, p. 187-206, 240-49.

The references given at the end of Chapter VII are only a beginning to an extensive field. However, the bibliographies cited in each selected reference should reveal the most worthwhile sources.—*Editorial Committee*.

CHAPTER VII

APPLICATIONS OF MEASUREMENT AND RESEARCH

THE TEACHER AND RESEARCH

CLAIRE ZYVE

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UPON THE teacher in the classroom falls the ultimate responsibility for improving teaching procedures. She must learn to discover instructional problems and to study these difficulties in the light of objective evidence. One of the aims of supervision by a principal is that of helping the teacher to become "research minded" in so far as classroom duties permit. The purpose of this article is to show how the principal can produce this attitude in his faculty through a program of practical research.

A study of spelling methods—The controlled piece of research in this case was an investigation of spelling methods. The study included twelve teachers in grades three to seven. The problem was suggested by two teachers who wished to check their opinions on the value of certain elements in method. The investigation progressed somewhat as follows:

1. The teachers suggested the points which they would like to have measured objectively.
2. The principal read previously published articles in the field to check the value of such a piece of research. She planned the controls of the various factors involved, and the equalization of the learning load.
3. Teachers and principal met together and discussed the general plan of procedure. The principal demonstrated with children the various methods to be used by the teachers. She put into the hands of each teacher summaries of the discussions and of the plans for research as formulated.
4. Each teacher taught for a unit of time according to the plan prepared. This teaching was preceded by a conference with the principal to clear up any vague points and to review the teacher's part in the whole scheme.
5. The principal checked the results and did the statistical work necessary for the comparative measurement of results.
6. Principal and teachers together discussed and analyzed results at each temporary breaking point in the experiment and planned the succeeding steps.
7. The principal made the final analysis and summary of results.

The above investigation extended over eight five week periods. Several elements, basic to the successful completion of any unit of such length, were as follows: (1) the teachers wished to have the solution of the problems, (2) the results were of immediate value, (3) the results were definitely measurable and could be graphically portrayed, (4) results were checked at short enough periods so that the interest of the teachers did not lag, (5) the teacher had the

stimulus of cooperative work with a group of teachers on a common problem, and (6) the problem was solvable under normal teaching conditions.

Research leading to further research—Perhaps one of the most important attitudes for the principal to have is that of the importance of problems which teachers initiate. The teachers must come to realize that while the supervisor is interested in helping with the technical phases of research, and the actual experimental procedures, final credit belongs to each teacher. In the spelling study described above every effort was made to make the teacher "open-minded" and curious about problems for further investigation. Undoubtedly, this plan accounts for these subsequent studies:

1. The extent to which the child follows activities suggested by the teacher as compared to the extent to which he follows the ones he initiates himself.
2. The degree to which the same activities and attitudes are developed through several units of work.
3. The effect of individual versus teacher-directed study of spelling in a seventh grade.
4. The available sources and uses of educational film materials.
5. The effect of types of flooring on children's arches.
6. The compilation of a local health and weight chart from data collected through several years.
7. The results from lantern vs. blackboard teaching of arithmetic combinations.
8. The effect of a regulated load and spaced reviews in the teaching of arithmetic combinations.
9. An objective measure of attitudes developed with children through the working out of a "whole-school" Christmas program.
10. A progress report card for children in the "transition" class.
11. A compilation of the arithmetic situations present in the first and second grades.
12. A study of the references of five and a half year old children to nature study or science material.
13. A study of the individual reactions toward certain personal and home relationships as evidenced in the ill-adjusted and the well-adjusted adolescent child.
14. A study of the problems brought to a teacher by third grade children when given an individual "appointment" time each week.
15. A study of the value of original song writing for music reading.

In addition to the studies listed above there are numerous smaller investigations of units of work. One of such studies will require two years before the results can be measured. The writer has noticed that the best results are obtained in changing the teacher's procedures when the settings for research are those of the classroom, and when the resulting changes are not too extensive. When the teacher is able to see the next step and the relation of research thereto she feels a vicarious interest in scientific analyses of other situations. From this growing insight she brings to her own work and encourages in that of the children open-mindedness, originality and an understanding for the need for verification of outcomes.

Summary and conclusion—The research of most value in the elementary school is that which may be analyzed under normal conditions. We need most now research data which will lead to practical improvements of the best present procedures. In the gathering of such results the teacher is an indispensable factor.

The development of problems for study and the growth in curriculum can come only when the teacher is research-minded. On the other hand her first interest now and the one which will always be first for her is the teaching of children. Yet, she must appreciate the conditions of sound research enough so that she will know what is happening and why it is happening. This attitude must find a place in her consciousness and be exemplified in her school day without interfering with her guidance of children.

The above paragraphs describe an atmosphere in which teachers felt an intellectual curiosity from the stimulus of a cooperative piece of research suggested by teachers and controlled by the principal. The problems which have been isolated since are being largely controlled by teachers. The identity of the person starting the classroom research is not an essential point, provided the problem be legitimately a part of the teaching program. The teacher needs to have an objective viewpoint and an understanding of the meaning of controlled conditions. She has a right to expect that the principal have a thorough grasp of the whole field and of the technic of research to insure a worthwhile problem and valid results.

AN ATTEMPT was made to secure by means of stenographic reports a cross section view of reading from first to sixth grades. A good stenographer from the office of district superintendent made possible the realization of the plan. This article will evaluate some phases of the work in its supervisory aspects. Sections of the stenographic reports are introduced and discussed from the viewpoint of the principal's supervisory functions.—Claude L. Williams, Chapter IV.

SELECTED VS. UNSELECTED GROUPS IN READING

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THE development of standard tests during and immediately after the World War gave great impetus to testing in schools. Many educators joined the "crusade" of measuring pupil abilities and predicting educational outcomes. Everywhere so-called "homogeneous groups" of pupils were formed so as to solve forever all difficulties of instruction. Blind "followship" and uncritical thinking were rampant.

Recently, there have been some attempts to analyze the homogeneity of class groups.¹ There is now reason to believe that "homogeneous groups" contain pupils with many sharp and significant differences. While ability grouping has certain practical values to teachers and principals, the practice is not a panacea. The purpose of this article is to show some of the conditions under which grouping succeeds or fails.²

How the groups were formed—Three fifth and three sixth grades were grouped according to their October reading scores on the *Stanford Achievement Test*. Twenty-five pupils were placed in the lowest group, 30 in the highest, and the four middle groups ranged from 33 to 39 members. A teacher was chosen for the slowest group who was known to have been very successful with slow groups in the past. The brightest group was given to the teacher whom the principal considered the best teacher of reading in his school. The teachers of the four middle groups were regular fifth and sixth grade teachers who varied in ability as reading teachers.

In order to check on the progress of the individual pupils, control groups were formed as part of the experiment. For every child in the fifth and sixth grade homogeneous groups another child was found in the school system with exactly the same chronological age and the same reading score. The members of this control group were divided into classes of mixed reading abilities. Teachers of these heterogeneous groups were given no special instructions.

The experimental and control groups were organized in January and were given the reading part of the *Stanford Achievement Test*. A special examiner was called to give the tests. The tests were scored and results compiled by the research department of the San Jose school system. It was found necessary, at this stage of the

¹For example: "A Comparison of the Achievement of Superior Children in Segregated and Unsegregated First Grade Classes" by August Dvorak and J. J. Rae in the *Elementary School Journal*, January 1929, p. 380-86.

²The writer acknowledges the advice and encouragement of Dr. John C. Almack, Stanford University, California.

experiment, to transfer some of the pupils who had been grouped according to the results of the tests taken in October. That did not effect the control groups for they were not segregated according to test results. It meant only a slight shifting of a few pupils either up or down one group in order to make the experimental groups as nearly homogeneous as possible.

The experimental procedures—The teachers who were assigned to the experimental groups were enthusiastic about the work. They were told that all possible assistance would be given in adapting the reading instruction to the needs of the special groups with which they were working. The six experimental groups were called X, YA, YB, YC, YD, and Z.

The type of instruction given to the Z group (the slowest group) was entirely different from that given to the X group (the best readers). In the Z group special attention was given to the individual needs of each child. Those who had not mastered the mechanics of reading were given special help with phonetics. Flash cards and strips containing short questions were used. The questions or statements on the strips were lengthened as the eye span was lengthened. The group was given much simple reading material of interesting content.

The YD group was given remedial work and simple material. The YC group, the "near average" class, was given instruction not greatly different from that ordinarily available to unselected average groups. The YB class received similar treatment to YC. The YA group contained superior readers who did more than the average amount of reading for the semester. These children were permitted to read single copies of library books or books brought from home. They read to the class and frequently told parts of stories they had read.

The X group, composed of the best readers of the six groups, quickly completed the reading ordinarily covered by an average class in a semester. They then read additional books that were considered difficult for sixth grade children. They read library books, books brought from home, magazines, and current event papers. Encouragement was given to memorize several selected poems read during the semester. Opportunity was given for stories to be told or written, after the individual had completed the assignment for the day. A few pupils attempted, with some success, to write short poems.

The results and their significance—At the end of the semester, a second form of the *Stanford Achievement Reading Test* was given by the same examiner and the results were compiled by the research department. It will be noticed that wherever possible, the elements were kept constant. The same tests were used (a different form),

the same examiner for all groups, the same scorers. The two important variables were teachers and grouping. The variation in ability of teachers is partly offset by the large number of teachers whose pupils become a part of the experiment. There were six teachers directly involved in leading the six experimental groups but there were more than a dozen teachers whose pupils were included in the control classes.

Table 1 shows the improvement (by quartiles) made by the experimental groups as compared with the improvement made by the control groups. It should be recalled that the control groups were made up of children who had been matched on the basis of chronological age and October reading scores with pupils in the experimental groups.

Table 1 shows that in all three quartiles the X experimental group had advanced further than the comparable control group. The same is true of the YA group as compared with its control group. The YB group was exceeded on all three quartiles by the control group. This reversal is probably due to the fact that the teacher of the YB group made very little attempt to take advantage of the "homogeneity" of her class. She taught the group just as she would have taught a heterogeneous group. Since this group corresponded to what might be termed an "average" group in reading ability, it would seem that in this case the children who were not segregated actually improved more during the semester than did those who were segregated. This result seems to show, in this one case at least, that *mere segregation* of children according to reading ability does not guarantee an outcome of greater improvement in reading ability. If the teacher element could have been eliminated in this particular case the heterogeneous group actually would have had an advantage. Since the teacher element could not be eliminated, it is possible that this may have been the reason for the greater improvement of the control pupils as compared with the experimental class. It must be noted, however, that the amount of improvement made by the YB class compares favorably with the amount of improvement made by the X and YA groups.

TABLE 1—COMPARISON OF IMPROVEMENT OF FINAL READING SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

	BRIGHT		AVERAGE GROUPS								SLOW	
	X	Control	YA	Control	YB	Control	YC	Control	YD	Control	Z	Control
Q1	13.0	11.4	12.0	10.5	10.6	14.5	12.4	13.3	18.3	12.6	11.5	17.8
Median	6.0	4.0	9.0	4.3	8.8	11.0	9.3	6.0	14.3	6.3	7.5	11.0
Q3	2.0	2.5	2.6	3.5	7.0	8.3	3.4	2.8	7.8	1.5	1.8	1.8

In all except the first quartile, the YC class made a greater improvement than its control group. The YD's show greater improvement in all three quartiles than the control pupils.

A study of the improvement of the slower children shows that in the first and second quartiles the control group improved more than did the Z class. In the third quartile progress was equal. The failure of the Z class to show greater advances is difficult to explain. The teacher of the Z group, as stated before, had been especially successful with slow groups. She used all of the "technic" that she was able to obtain from authoritative sources. Yet the comparison shows that the heterogeneous group, whose members did not receive the special instruction, made greater improvement in the semester than did those who were segregated and given special instruction. It should be noted that, because of change of residence and sickness, there were only 15 members of the Z group who could finally be compared with their counterparts in the control class. This number of pupils is not sufficiently large to draw any final conclusions. It might be possible that those left in the Z experimental group were the poorest readers. Also, the control group might have contained several children of normal reading ability who were measured and classified correctly. Yet the outcome suggests that further study may demonstrate conclusively that the slower children in heterogeneous groups do learn from the brighter pupils.

In all of the interpretations above, only comparisons of *reading ability*, as measured by the standard tests, have been considered. Nothing has been said as to the possible gain, or loss, in social development or mental attitude of children placed in classes with others of approximately the same reading ability.

Conclusions—While the experiment described in this article needs to be repeated many times, the writer advances the following tentative conclusions:

1. When children are grouped according to reading test scores and the teachers develop a special technic of instruction for the type of child with which they are working, there will be more improvement in reading ability during a semester than if the children were left in a heterogeneous group.

2. Unless a teacher does recognize the fact that she is teaching a specially selected group and adapts herself and her methods of teaching reading to the needs of this special group, the mere fact that they have been placed in segregated groups will not guarantee that these children will improve in reading skill more than will children of equal reading ability in unselected groups.

3. There is a possibility that those lowest in reading ability, as measured by a standard test, may show more improvement in one semester if left in a heterogeneous group than if segregated into a Z group.

EVALUATING FOURTH GRADE READING

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SUPERVISORY procedures should be based upon facts. Among the fact-finding tools available to principals are standard subject-matter or achievement tests. The purpose of this article is to show how a district superintendent, principals and teachers used standard tests in studying fourth grade reading conditions in a Chicago district.¹

In organizing the elementary school curriculum it is commonly assumed that fourth grade pupils have mastered reading well enough to begin the content subjects. Is this assumption sound? Upon what basis, other than the opinion of third grade teachers, are pupils promoted to the fourth grade? Is it possible to set up test standards for promotion to the fourth grade?

Extent and organization of the survey—Twenty-eight schools cooperated in the survey of low fourth grade reading ability. These schools represented every type from the large metropolitan building in congested areas to smaller schools in the suburbs. The children were from American, colored, and foreign families of every economic level.

Tests were given to 1253 pupils who had been in the low fourth grade for nine weeks. The tests used were Form 1, Types A, B, C, and D of the *Gates' Silent Reading Tests*.²

The teachers and principal of each school scored the papers. Reports showing the scores made by each pupil were sent to the district superintendent's office. Only enough of these data are included in this article to bring out certain supervisory implications.

Teacher evaluation of the pupils—Before the reading tests were given the teachers grouped the pupils in X, Y, and Z groups. The X pupils included those who were ready for fourth grade reading in the opinion of the teachers. The Y group was made up of the doubtful cases, and those individuals about whom sufficient data were lacking. The weak or "incapable" pupils were classified in the Z groups.

Table 1 shows how the teachers grouped the 1253 low fourth grade children. Why have the fourth grade teachers accepted only 64 per cent of the pupils as ready for their work? Have these pupils been

¹The authors acknowledge the help of District Superintendent William Hedges, Chicago, Illinois.

²Prepared by Arthur I. Gates and published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

judged correctly? To what extent did the principals supervise the promotions? Can supervision reduce this apparent difference of opinion between third and fourth grade teachers?

TABLE 1—THE FOURTH GRADE PUPILS CLASSIFIED INTO X, Y, AND Z GROUPS
ON THE BASIS OF TEACHER OPINION

Group	Number	Percent of Total
X	801	64
Y	198	16
Z	254	20
Total	1253	100

The pertinency of the foregoing questions is emphasized by the grouping in the individual schools. Two schools had no Z pupils, while another reported 42.5 percent of its pupils in this group. One school, that stood very high on test scores, reported 39 percent of its pupils in the Z group. Several schools with low test scores reported as low as 10 percent of their pupils in the Z group. Four schools reported no Y pupils and others reported as high as 21 percent. The school that stood highest on test scores placed 27.5 percent of its pupils in the Y group. The range for the X group was from 50 percent to 90 percent. There was little apparent relation between the number of pupils placed in the X group by the various schools and the test scores. The type of neighborhood did not have any marked effect upon the proportion of children placed in each group.

Some conclusions to draw from the above figures are: (1) teacher opinion in the evaluation of pupils varies widely from school to school, (2) taking into account that third grade teachers promoted pupils for social and economic reasons does not explain the wide divergence between the opinions of third and fourth grade teachers, (3) reading standards are by no means uniform throughout the district, (4) there is urgent need of a supervisory technic to determine objectively when pupils are ready for fourth grade reading.

Distribution of test scores—Table 2 summarizes the test scores of the 1253 pupils on Tests A, B and C. It is interesting to note that the scores on every test range from zero to a perfect score of 24. In other words these children range in ability from the first to the eleventh grades. On every test a number of so-called superior X pupils scored lower than both Y and Z pupils. The medians of the X group on all tests are above the 42 standard norm for the grade. The Z group medians were below the standards in all four forms of the examination.

Among the supervisory problems for further study suggested by the data are: (1) Why do certain children score above the eighth grade standard? (2) What further instruction should be given to these pupils with superior abilities? (3) How did it happen that a

number of the weakest pupils were promoted to the fourth grade? (4) Why did the fourth grade teachers consider the Z pupils unfit for the work? (5) How well does the Gates' test measure the abilities which the Chicago schools attempt to develop in children?

TABLE 2—NUMBER OF PUPILS IN X, Y AND Z GROUPS OBTAINING EACH SCORE ON TESTS A, B, AND C

Score ¹	TEST A				TEST B				TEST C			
	X Pupils	Y Pupils	Z Pupils	Total	X Pupils	Y Pupils	Z Pupils	Total	X Pupils	Y Pupils	Z Pupils	Total ²
24	4			4	10			10	2			2
23	4			4	12		1	13	2			2
22	4			4	7			7	3			3
21	6			6	12	1		13	1			1
20	1	1		2	7	1	1	9	7			7
19	10			10	9		1	10	6	1		7
18	14			14	14	3	1	18	13			13
17	11			11	16	1	1	18	23	1		24
16	33		1	34	23	1		24	18	2	1	21
15	35	2		37	31	4		35	33			33
14	45	3	2	50	36	1	3	40	47	6	1	54
13	63	8	5	76	52	6	5	63	67	4	1	72
12	85	13	5	103	49	5	4	58	84	9	7	100
11	105	18	8	131	74	12	4	90	64	9	6	79
10	102	30	20	152	60	6	10	76	71	10	6	87
9	69	19	21	109	65	15	16	96	60	14	14	88
8	51	19	27	97	71	16	18	105	67	17	13	97
7	34	21	27	82	61	31	22	114	48	34	29	111
6	39	19	22	80	56	25	31	112	59	18	25	102
5	33	15	22	70	56	21	35	112	43	18	36	97
4	26	12	25	63	34	18	28	80	35	20	22	77
3	16	10	27	53	24	7	28	59	20	14	32	66
2	6	2	21	29	14	18	23	55	17	9	21	47
1	1	2	9	12	5	7	18	30	8	11	27	46
0	4	4	12	20	1	1	4	6	4	3	15	22
Total	801	198	254	1253	799	200	254	1253	802	200	256	1258
Median	10.7	8.2	6	9.58	9.7	6.6	5.25	8.05	10.06	6.71	4.81	8.13
B Score ³	4.8	3.9	3.5	4.5	4.4	3.6	3.3	3.9	5.0	3.9	3.4	4.2

¹Number of exercises answered correctly.

²The total on Test C differs from totals on Tests A and B because of absences of pupils.

³The B scores are estimated from Gates' tables.

Rank of schools on median scores—Table 3 gives the ranking of the different schools in terms of the median scores. It must be remembered that the median score merely indicates the midpoint of the distribution of scores. A more complete comparison of the various schools would require a study of the quartiles, the range, and other measures.

TABLE 3—RANK OF THE TWENTY-EIGHT SCHOOLS IN TERMS OF THE MEDIAN SCORES

School	TEST A		TEST B		TEST C		TEST D	
	Rank	Median Score	Rank	Median Score	Rank	Median Score	Rank	Median Score
A	1	12.8	1	17.5	6	11.6	5	23.2
B	2	12.5	2	12.5	8	11.5	4	24.0
C	3	12.2	3.5	11.5	4.5	11.7	13	20.0
D	4	12.0	6.5	10.6	4.5	11.7	6	21.9
E	5	11.5	9.5	9.5	13	9.2	7.5	21.5
F	6	11.3	8	10.5	9	10.5	7.5	21.5
G	7.5	10.9	5	10.7	7	11.6	3	25.5
H	7.5	10.9	17	7.7	1	13.2	2	25.8
I	9	10.8	6.5	10.6	19	7.4	11	20.8
J	10	10.7	24	6.4	2	11.9	20	18.7
K	11	10.5	3.5	11.5	3	11.8	1	37.5
L	12.5	10.2	14	8.4	15.5	7.7	17	19.5
M	12.5	10.2	13	8.9	15.5	7.7	21	18.5
N	14	9.7	15	8.2	11	9.4	10	21.0
O	15.5	9.5	11.5	9.2	10	10.4	17	19.5
P	15.5	9.5	19.5	7.3	25	6.2	14	19.8
Q	17	9.1	11.5	9.2	21	7.2	12	20.5
R	18	9.0	21.5	6.8	24	6.5	19	19.1
S	20	8.9	9.5	9.5	12	9.3	17	19.5
T	20	8.9	18	7.5	14	8.2	9	21.2
U	20	8.9	16	8.1	17	7.6	15	19.6
V	22	8.2	19.5	7.3	22	7.0	24	16.2
W	23	8.0	25	5.7	26	5.9	26	14.1
X	24	7.8	21.5	6.8	20	7.3	23	16.5
Y	25	7.4	23	6.6	23	6.9	22	17.0
Z	26	7.1	26	5.5	18	7.5	25	15.5
YY	27	5.6	27	5.2	27	4.7	27	10.7
ZZ	28	5.1	28	4.1	28	2.8	28	10.4

Read table: School A ranks first on Test A with a median score of 12.8, first on Test B, sixth on Test C, and fifth on Test D.

It is interesting to note in Table 3 that the schools differ rather widely in their medians. For example, on Test A the medians range from 12.8 to 5.1, or from 5.8 to 3.3 in terms of grade scores. If the schools are grouped according to the semesters in which the medians place them we have the result shown in Table 4.

Referring again to Table 3 we can note several supervisory problems of particular interest to the district superintendent. Obviously, such instructional problems must be faced ultimately by the principal and teachers in each school. For example: (1) When the pupils in several schools differ widely in reading ability how can

transfers be made with the minimum of lost time? (2) Should all schools in the district attempt the same courses of study in the content subjects? (3) What can be done to help the third grade teachers prepare pupils for more successful fourth grade accomplishments? (4) What place do and should non-school factors of custom, economic pressure, and social demands have in determining promotions? (5) How much reliance can be placed upon standard tests as measures of what the schools are teaching? (6) What is the significance of the fact that a school may rank high in one test and low in another?

TABLE 4—NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN EACH GRADE LEVEL ACCORDING TO THE MEDIAN SCORES

Grade Represented by Median Score	Test A	Test B	Test C	Test D
8B		1		
7A				
7B				1
6A			1	
6B				
5A	4	1	7	
5B	2	2	2	
4A	7	4	3	
4B	8	6	9	12
3A	5	10	4	12
3B	2	4	1	3
2A			1	
Total.....	28	28	28	28

A study of individual pupils—For each pupil in the survey a card was filed in the district superintendent's office with records of the scores for the four tests. A study of these cards suggests several very important supervisory problems. Among these are the following: (1) What factors contributed to the highest scores? (2) How can we account for the low scores of many X pupils? (3) How can we explain that many Z pupils made comparatively high scores? (4) Do pupils make about the same B-scores on all the tests?

Of the above problems the first is particularly interesting and important. Table 2 shows many pupils making very high scores on each of the tests. The cards indicate that in general these high scores were made by the same pupils on all the tests. There were a few striking exceptions. One pupil, for example, made a B-score of 11.5 on Test A and scores of 4.5 or below on the other three tests. Such facts as these should warn supervisors against evaluating pupils on one test only. On the other hand there were 15 pupils who made a B-score of 9.0 or above on at least three of the four tests. Case studies should be made of these pupils to determine the factors which pro-

duced this remarkable reading ability. If the controllable factors could be made a regular part of the teaching then we might be able to make rapid advances in reading instruction.

The second problem is concerned with the low scores of X pupils. Twenty-seven pupils on Test A, 44 pupils on Test B, 49 pupils on Test C, and 51 pupils on Test D rated as X pupils by teachers made scores as low as the lower quarter of the Z pupils. These 171 scores demand study. Do these scores come from a few or many schools? Are they made by many or by a few pupils? There are approximately 800 X pupils in the 28 schools. Two schools having 48 X pupils contributed 64 of the 171 low scores. Five schools having fewer than 150 X pupils contributed 104 of the 171 low scores. There were nine zero scores. Eight of these zero scores came from the two schools first mentioned. Investigation after the test revealed that the teacher in one of these schools was new. This fact indicates that there is a close relationship between test scores and the evaluation of pupils by competent teachers. The tests undoubtedly could be used with a fair degree of reliability in placing pupils unknown to the teacher.

The point just made is further emphasized by a detailed analysis of the B-scores. Space does not permit recording all the B-scores of the 171 X pupils who made low scores. However, the following scores will illustrate the point:

	<i>Test</i> A	<i>Test</i> B	<i>Test</i> C	<i>Test</i> D
Pupil RR -----	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8
Pupil SS -----	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.8
Pupil TT -----	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.9

When pupils take four tests with results so consistently low as in the cases of pupils RR, SS, and TT, then the teacher marking these pupils as ready for 4B work should furnish specific evidence for her evaluation. A follow-up of some of the children here under consideration resulted in the teachers concerned deciding that they had ranked the pupils too high. The above evidence and similar facts led us to conclude that any pupil making a B-score of 3.0 or lower on any one test should not be promoted to 4B without further testing. If a pupil makes B-scores of 3.0 or lower on three of the four tests, it is reasonably certain that he is not ready for 4B work. Those making B-scores of 3.0 to 4.0 should be studied very closely before being promoted to the work usually required in the fourth grade.

The third question, suggested at the first of this section, has to do with the relatively high scores of certain Z pupils. On the four tests from one to ten pupils made B-scores of 6.0 or higher. An analysis of the tests of these pupils shows that nearly all of the children were above 4.2 on at least three of the tests. These pupils come from twelve schools. Ten of these twelve schools reported a high proportion of Z

pupils. Of the schools reporting no Z pupils none is included among the twelve. These high Z pupils may be accounted for largely by these three factors: erratic reading habits of pupils, mistaken teacher judgment, and unreasonable high standards in forming Z groups.

The final question, suggested by the scores of the individual pupils, relates to the correlation of scores. Space does not permit an extended discussion of this question. The data indicates that though there is a high correlation among the scores on the tests, there are so many exceptions that no pupil should ever be evaluated on the basis of one test score. When all four tests are taken, it is quite likely that at least three of the tests will yield B-scores fairly close together.

Conclusions—The following are the more important conclusions to be deduced from this experiment:

1. The schools should develop a supervisory technic which will determine objectively the readiness of pupils to use reading as a study tool. Since economic and social factors often determine promotions, the fourth grade curriculum must be adjusted to the varying reading abilities of the pupils in that grade.

2. The reading norms developed by Gates with New York children are about the same as the median scores of the Chicago pupils on the number of exercises correct. The norms are too low for the percent of correct answers.

3. The *Gates Silent Reading Tests* may be used with a high degree of reliability in ranking schools and in determining the reading grade of pupils. In no case should schools be ranked or pupils evaluated on the results of one test. Pupils making a B-score of 3.0 or less on the first test given should not be promoted to the fourth grade until given further tests. Pupils making 3.0 or lower on three tests are not likely to succeed in content reading. Care should be exercised in promoting to the fourth grade those making from 3.0 to 4.0 on three tests.

4. There may be found in the fourth grade many pupils with a reading ability equal or superior to that usually expected of elementary school graduates. Curriculum making both with reference to reading and the content subjects should take account of this fact.

5. There is value in extensive and intensive testing surveys of several schools. Superintendents, principals, and teachers can discover from the test results many instructional problems. The experiment described in this article illustrates the possibilities of co-operative supervision.

EACH chapter of this yearbook has a selected bibliography. Consult the Table of Contents for page numbers.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF STUDY-TYPE READING

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AS A NEW course of study in reading for fourth, fifth, and sixth grades was to be issued the following term, the Department of Research was assigned the problem of proving the value of the specific technics suggested in this new course. The previous course of study made no provision for training in study reading. Following is a statement of an experiment as conducted in five elementary schools of Philadelphia.¹

The problem and the experimental plan—Our experiment set out to obtain an answer to this question: To what degree will seventeen weeks of intensive instruction in study-type reading based on the provisions of the new course of study in reading for the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades secure better results than those ordinarily obtained?

All pupils in grades 4A and 5B in two schools were selected for experimental subjects. A control group was chosen, consisting of grade 4A and grade 5B pupils in three other schools. Pupils in these schools were closely similar to those of the two experimental schools with respect to the intelligence of the pupils and general environmental factors. At the beginning and end of the experimental period, both experimental and control groups were given the same tests. The control group, however, was given no special method of instruction in silent reading, but fulfilled the requirements of the old course.

The *Stanford Test in Paragraph Meaning* and the *Sangren-Woody Reading Tests* were administered at the beginning and end of the seventeen weeks. Improvement in the experimental group was compared with improvement in the control group.

The record of each child in the experimental group was paired with the record of a control group child who was (1) in the same grade, (2) in approximately the same type of neighborhood, (3) of the same chronological age, and (4) of the same ability in reading, as shown by the initial reading score. A child's initial reading score was based on the average of the two tests. There was a total of 282 pairs, 154 in 5B and 128 in 4A.

As a result of the careful pairing, each grade group in each experimental school had the same mean and variability in chronological age and in initial reading ability as had the group in the control school or schools with which it was to be compared. As far as could be determined, therefore, the only significant factor affecting the experi-

¹Reported in Bulletin 170, Division of Research, Philadelphia Public Schools.

mental group and not the control group was the special method of reading instruction.

The initial records of the chosen pairs were compared with the final records of exactly the same pupils. Hence any differences could not be credited to any change in the constitution of the group.

Time allotment—The time allotment given to reading for study in the new course in reading was followed, i. e., two thirty-minute lessons per week in grade 4A and one thirty-minute lesson per week in grade 5B. The first ten minutes of each lesson were devoted to systematic practice exercises in silent reading.

Approximately 25 percent of the time allotted to history and geography was devoted to the improvement of study habits in each of these subjects according to the suggestions in the new course. This time allotment totaled, for the seventeen weeks of the experiment, 270 minutes in history, and 420 minutes in geography for 4A; and 420 minutes in history, and 420 minutes in geography for 5B.

Supervision and conferences—During the course of the experiment, the principals of the two experimental schools met every three weeks with a member of the Division of Educational Research in order to plan the experiment, to discuss immediate problems, and to determine what should be done during a given period of time. Each principal used the experiment as the subject for one general faculty meeting, and in addition held three meetings with the 4A and 5B teachers concerned. In these meetings were presented:

1. The general plan, with a statement as to the evaluation of the experiment together with the use of individual pupil record cards.
2. An explanation of different types of study reading material and the provision of class sets of mimeographed material.
3. Methods of training pupils to read to:
 - a. Answer questions
 - b. Follow directions
 - c. Discover central thought
 - d. Decide upon total meaning
 - e. Organize thought in various forms
 - f. Improve reading rate

In addition to these meetings, an occasional conference of the principal with an individual teacher was devoted to the discussion of a particular lesson plan in reading before it was actually carried out in the classroom. Principals made frequent observations of reading lessons. These were followed by written constructive criticisms which furnished a basis for further discussion and resulted in improving the technic of the teacher in this special field.

After diagnosing the reading proficiency of her class, each teacher tabulated her pupils according to the reading standards. The improvement of each individual child's record was stressed by comparison with his former records rather than by a comparison with the

records of his classmates. Library reading was encouraged. Teachers assisted in the selection of books to insure an appropriate degree of difficulty.

Types of lessons—The experimental groups were given three general types of lessons, as follows:

1. Practice lessons. In accordance with the emphasis that the new course places on improvement of comprehension, systematic practice exercises in silent reading were used twice a week in grade 4A and once a week in grade 5B with a view to carrying out in part the suggestions in the course. An individual record of growth was kept.
2. Study-type lessons (exclusive of history and geography). In these lessons particular attention was given to activities involving comprehension of material; the selection, evaluation, and organization of ideas.
3. Study lessons in history and geography. A study-type reading lesson in a content subject was considered but one of a series of lessons on a given topic. Certain aspects of the work were used to emphasize development, appreciation, review, and drill.

As incentives to read with comprehension teachers and principals cooperated in constructing various types of instructional tests on the content material in history and geography texts and readers.

Attention of teachers was directed especially to the use of teachers' questions as suggested in the course:

- a. Make definite the pupil procedure.
- b. Aid the pupil in determining the main idea.
- c. Assist in the interpretation, organization, and summarization of data.
- d. Help pupils to determine relative importance of different facts.
- e. Prove or disprove statements.
- f. Test comprehension by requiring pupils to indicate that they have understood what has been read.

In testing pupil outcomes and attitudes, the question serves to:

- a. Stimulate wider reading in search of further information.
- b. Develop an appreciation of shades of meaning, niceties of distinction, and accuracy of expression.
- c. Create definiteness of opinion.
- d. Encourage desirable attitudes toward reading.

Remedial work—As special attention is directed to the diagnosis of reading difficulties, the problem of providing sufficient time for individualized remedial work became necessary. During the experiment, no regular school time was devoted to individual remedial work, although the need of this type of teaching was keenly appreciated. In one experimental school, on three mornings each week, the brief period before the opening of the school session was devoted to some form of silent reading exercise and the individual instruction of pupils in matters that presented particular difficulty.

Pupil records—In accordance with the emphasis placed by the course on individual records, each child kept his record of all exer-

cises given throughout the testing period. These served as guides to the teacher in planning remedial instruction and also as incentives to stimulate the pupils to continued improvement.

Material used—In general, the material consisted of the text and supplementary books already in use. In addition, standardized practice exercises in silent reading were used because of their value in providing timed material which gave a measure of continued progress.

Additional mimeographed material was prepared and furnished by the principals for the purpose of assisting the teacher to analyze textbook material for presentation to pupils in objective test form.

Results—Both control and experimental groups made improvement, but the results were significantly better for the experimental pupils in both schools in both grades. Table 1 shows the comparison of the experimental group with the control group by separate grade-sections.

The first line of the table is to be read as follows: In grade 5B, School X-A with 62 pupils had an average T score on the initial tests of 50.8 T. When the final tests were given, the school's average T score was 56.1 T. This score represents an improvement of 5.3 T. The corresponding control school, C-A had an initial average T score of 50.8 T, exactly the same as that of the paired 62 pupils in school X-A, a final score of 52.8 T representing an improvement of 2.0 T. The difference between the improvement in school X-A and the improvement in school C-A is 3.3 T in favor of the experimental school.

Likewise when the pupils in school X-B are compared with the pupils in its control schools C-B, it will be seen that there is an improvement of 6.9 T in the experimental school compared with an improvement of 2.9 T in the control group, a difference in favor of the experimental group of 4.0 T. For both schools together the improvement is 6.2 T in the experimental group as compared with 2.6 in the control group, a superiority of 3.6 in favor of the experimental group. In every case the standard deviation of the difference between the improvement of the experimental group and that for the control group is so small that the superiority is beyond doubt a real superiority.

A similar superiority for grade 4A in both experimental groups will be noted by reference to the lower half of Table 1.

Tables were available by which it was possible to turn the results into approximate grade scores, which are more meaningful to the teacher. In grade 5B, the improvement in the entire experimental group was approximately 12 school months as compared with three school months in the control group; while in grade 4A the improvement in the experimental group was approximately seven school months as compared with three school months in the control group. In both cases the normal growth to be expected is four months.

TABLE 1—COMPARISON OF READING SCORES AND IMPROVEMENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS

EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOLS						CONTROL SCHOOLS					
Grade 5B	AVERAGE T SCORE				Im- prove- ment	AVERAGE T SCORE				Im- prove- ment	Difference in favor of Experi- mental Group
	No. of School Pupils	Ini- tial ¹ Tests	Final ¹ Tests	No. of School Pupils		Ini- tial ¹ Tests	Final ¹ Tests				
	X-A	62	50.8	56.1	5.3	C-A	62	50.8	52.8	2.0	3.3
	X-B	92	58.8	65.7	6.9	C-B ²	92	58.9	61.8	2.9	4.0
	X Total	154	55.6	61.8	6.2	C Total	154	55.6	58.2	2.6	3.6
Grade 4A	AVERAGE T SCORE				Im- prove- ment	AVERAGE T SCORE				Im- prove- ment	Difference in favor of Experi- mental Group
	No. of School Pupils	Ini- tial ¹ Tests	Final ¹ Tests	No. of School Pupils		Ini- tial ¹ Tests	Final ¹ Tests				
	X-A	52	39.9	46.0	6.1	C-A	52	39.9	43.0	3.1	3.0
	X-B	76	50.1	53.9	3.8	C-B ²	76	50.3	52.3	2.0	1.8
	X Total	128	46.0	50.7	4.7	C Total	128	46.1	48.6	2.5	2.2

¹Average T score for the combined *Sangren-Woody Reading Test* and the *Stanford Test in Paragraph Meaning*.

²Group labelled "School C-B" includes pupils from two different schools, closely similar to school X-B in environment factors.

It will be seen that School X-B was superior to School X-A in both grades at the beginning of the experiment. Likewise, of course, School C-B was superior to school C-A. In view of this it is significant that both the experimental schools made improvement greater than their corresponding control schools. Both made greater improvement than the normal growth for the four months period. Progress of a class or individual should always take account of the factor of initial ability. Even though final achievement falls short of a given standard, if improvement has been normal or superior, that improvement is the significant fact.

The results of this controlled experiment showed the undoubted value of definite attention to the teaching of study-type reading in accordance with the new course of study. They also indicated the efficacy of constructive supervision on the part of the principal.

SUPERVISING A READING READINESS PROGRAM

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THE CINCINNATI fifth-year plan of student teaching depends largely for its success upon the intimate supervision under which the student teacher works during the fifth or final year of her training. Student teaching centers are established in various schools throughout the city. Each center is under the supervision of a cooperating teacher who regularly has under her charge two classrooms staffed by four student teachers each semester of the school year. The student teacher is not thrust into the fifth year's work without proper preparation. The first two years of college work are liberal arts in character; the last three are professional. An official description of this phase of the work shows that supervision plays a great part in the plan:

During the three professional years, students are presented with concrete materials of teacher-experience, employing the case method for the study of teaching observation, and special teaching demonstrations in public school classrooms of the demonstration schools, finally under the cooperative fifth-year student teaching plan, entering the city schools on pay and having actual charge of pupil groups with teaching efforts supervised and supplemented by cooperating teachers, conferences, practice in discussions and advanced courses in education.

Since training centers are located at various schools, student teachers become acquainted with different types of community situations with their distinctive problems. Several centers are located in schools which serve downtown congested districts. The center at Raschig School is planned to train teachers for meeting such situations. Students in this group have full kindergarten training, which gives them a splendid background for first grade work.

In the first grade center, one of the greatest problems has been that of failures in first year reading. It is recognized that this problem is in no wise peculiar, but is one which has been faced by almost every teacher in beginning reading. In meeting the situation, the cooperating teacher, working with the student teachers, attempted to approach the problem through experimentation and investigation. Although the results may not be looked upon as conclusive, they will bear inspection by others. In brief form, the plan followed is given herewith:

1. The first question faced was "Could reading method be the thing at fault?" In as objective a manner as possible, over a period of years, three different methods were tried, in order to ascertain which would go farthest in eliminating reading failures in the first year:

- (a) Nursery rhyme method—involving presentation of nursery rhymes as complete thought units.
- (b) Visual aid method—i. e. flashing the picture on the board, asking the children the story of the picture and writing same on blackboard.
- (c) Activity or experience method—using the children's interesting activities, experiences, excursions, etc., for board reading.

After each of these methods had been given fair trial, the results for comparative purposes were entirely unsatisfactory. It seemed evident that:

- (a) Children learned more quickly when the reading was taught as a thought-getting-thought-giving process.
- (b) Children who otherwise were ready to read succeeded regardless of the method.
- (c) Children who seemed not ready to read failed to do so regardless of the method, and
- (d) Failure must have been caused by some reason other than method.

2. The second question was: "Could readiness be the cue to solving the problem?" In 1926 and 1929-1930, two splendid pieces of research were reported by the Reading Readiness Committee of the International Kindergarten Union. "Readiness" was herein defined, not as readiness for reading instruction, but for more opportunities for reading experiences in a richer reading environment. These reports recognized the fact that preceding the reading act and leading to it are a series of "readinesses" or "arrivals" which are periods in the child's development.¹ As indicated in the Raschig School investigations, it seemed that readiness to read was accompanied by success regardless of method and that a lack of readiness met with failure. There is nothing original in these observations since there had been published valuable discussions on this topic in current literature.

3. The next step was to determine, by some means, the stages of children's readiness for reading upon entering the grade or at some later time during the year when satisfactory progress was not being made. This plan involved the construction of a technic, applying it and noting carefully the results, all of which was done through the student teacher. The remainder of this paper will be taken up with a discussion of the development and use of the plan as evolved.

Constructing the reading readiness checklist—A careful survey of existing literature was made to determine whether or not there was available a method or technic for determining stages of reading readiness. Although several sources of information contributed much to the plan which finally was used, no technic was found whose application would enable a teacher objectively to determine any meas-

¹See "Points of View on Reading Readiness," International Kindergarten Union Committee, 1929-30.

ure of readiness. Of the references mentioned, the first¹ was used as a basis for attempting to develop a very informal checklist by whose application it was attempted to determine stages of reading readiness. We are referring to Gray's six prerequisites² for rapid progress in silent reading, which are:

1. Wide experience.
2. Reasonable facility in the use of ideas.
3. Ability to speak with ease and freedom.
4. Vocabulary enough to recognize meaning of word or word groups.
5. Accuracy in enunciation and pronunciation.
6. Desire to read.

The original informal checklist was constructed in the fall of 1928. This technic is called checklist rather than a scale, since in no way does it approach a mathematical or scientifically constructed measuring device. Subsequent revampings and reconstructions have taken place during each succeeding semester. In its present form it represents the growth through four semesters of use. The form of the checklist given herewith is that used during the spring of 1930. The list has been checked with the findings of the Committee on Reading Readiness of the I. K. U. which reported the following factors as being necessary for readiness.³

1. Background of experiences.
2. Mental factors.
3. Physical factors.
4. Emotional factors.
5. Social adjustments.
6. Expression and interpretation of symbols.

In addition to the suggestions received from Gray on reading readiness, several items were included which would give some cue to factors so necessary in understanding congested city conditions. They were:

1. Number of days present.
2. Number of days absent.
3. Daily performance. (Fluctuations due to environment)
 - a. Bad home conditions:
 1. Crowded, no privacy, insufficient sleep.
 - a. Whole family of seven or eight living in one room.
 2. No provision made for encouraging reading at home—no picture books.
 3. Lack of cleanliness in the home and improper care. No warm clothes, not enough to eat, not right kind of food, no doctor when needed.

¹Gray, William S. "Six Prerequisites in Reading." *Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chapter III, page 27* (1925).

²Ibid, p. 27.

³International Kindergarten Union, National Committee on Reading Readiness, *Findings*, 1926.

4. Divided home conditions:
 - a. Lack of harmony, one or both parents employed and away from home all day.
 - b. Parents who move often. No religious training. Father and mother with no sense of responsibility. No standards or ideals. Father in jail. Older brothers or sisters in reform school.
 - c. Parents who are separated.

The items of the list were also checked with the criteria established for satisfactory case-study technics and their interpretations.¹ A satisfactory case-study should have the following characteristics in order effectively to perform the functions required of it in educational and social service.

1. Completeness of data.
2. Validity of data.
3. Continuity.
4. Confidential recording.
5. Scientific synthesis and interpretation.

Since this experiment was carried on in a teacher training center, all application of the checklist was done through the student teacher. The supervising teacher reorganized the 1930 form of the checklist with the student, gave demonstrations as to the method of recording, held conferences on the interpretation of the items recorded, demonstrated remedial measures, but allowed the student considerable freedom in determining specific remedial measures. In using the March, 1930 form, one student teacher who previously had had a semester of student teaching in a kindergarten center, kept in her pocket at all times a notebook. In this she would note observations made of that phase of the checklist on which she was making observations. It is not fair to assume that a particular division of the checklist was applied to all children of the group before another was taken up. Frequently it required days before a satisfactory notation could be made on one phase for all of the children. Although there existed a certain amount of overlapping in the application of the checklist, the service of the notebook kept the efforts straight.

The student teacher² was able quickly to grasp the situation and to make analytical observations. At all stages of the application of the scale, conferences were held by the supervising teacher and the student teacher. The classroom was a veritable laboratory in which first grade reading failures at the half-year were subjected to an experimental technic by a student under supervision. The outcomes were more than satisfactory, as to pupil growth, improvement of

¹Maxfield, Francis. *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, March, 1930, p. 117-122.

²Miss Dorothy Turpen, Cincinnati, Ohio.

reading, and student teacher growth. The application of the checklist called attention to factors which were not cared for by any of the reading methods used. Although the checklist is still very much in an experimental stage and will undergo subsequent change and reorganization, it has proved its worth in determining that failure to read is largely due to a lack of readiness.

Presented herewith is a copy of the checklist, with sample cases as determined by the student teacher in her application of the experimental reading readiness checklist. It should be pointed out that the data in items dealing with age, attendance and intelligence were taken at the end of the first semester. The major divisions of the checklist describe the child's stage of readiness in terms of comprehension, command of English, wide experience, and similar items. It may be seen that a wide variety of comment is allowable under each item since each student is a distinct problem. Following are given three case studies selected for their typical nature.

THE READING READINESS CHECKLIST
(MARCH, 1930)

(Pupil's Name)	(Disposition of Case)
Days present -----	
Days absent -----	
Chronological age -----	
Mental Age -----	
I. Comprehension II. Sufficient command of English and good speaking vocabulary III. Wide and varied experiences IV. Desire to read V. Interest VI. Mental efficiency VII. Physical efficiency VIII. Social attitudes IX. Enunciation and pronunciation X. Traits and characteristics XI. Daily performance XII. Achievement	

CASE OF UNDER-AGE CHILD MAKING GOOD AFTER INTENSIVE
REMEDIAL INSTRUCTION

Paul

Days present -----	84
Days absent -----	13
Chronological Age -----	5-11
Mental Age -----	6-6
I. Q. 110-----	Stanford-Binet

- I. Comprehension—good
 - Gets thought
 - Memorizes
 - Answers questions
 - Short attention span
 - Was pushed into school a year too soon by parents who concealed his correct age. I. Q. of 110. Has made first grade requirements. However, is too immature for the grade.
- II. Sufficient command of English and good speaking vocabulary. Speaks with ease and freedom. Does not have ideas to express to the group. Understands English.
- III. Experiences
 - Did not go to kindergarten
 - In handling books, parents trying to force the reading situation
 - No knowledge of pets or animals
 - Language training
- IV. Desire
 - To learn to read
 - To gain information
 - To have others read
 - To possess a book
- V. Interest
 - In learning to read
 - In contents of book
 - In stories
 - In seeing and hearing others read
 - In printed words
 - In all reading activities
- VI. Mental efficiency
 - Mental alertness but immature
- VII. Physical efficiency
 - Does not appear strong
 - Muscular coordination
 - Correct vision
 - Correct hearing
- VIII. Social attitudes
 - Courtesy
 - Cooperation
 - Responsibility
- IX. Enunciation and pronunciation good
- X. Traits
 - Persistence
 - Receptive attitude
 - Adaptability
 - Industrious
 - Honest effort
- XI. Daily performance—fair
- XII. Achievement—slow *gain*

CASE SHOWING LANGUAGE HANDICAP. MENTALLY SLOW. MENTAL AND
PHYSICAL IMMATURITY

Haralanbos

Days present -----	88
Days absent -----	9
Chronological age -----	6-4
Mental age -----	4-9
I. Q. 75-----	Pintner-Cunningham

- I. Comprehension
 - Gets thoughts slowly
 - Language handicap (Greek) immature
 - Answers questions
 - Follows simple directions
 - Short attention span
- II. Insufficient command of English and limited vocabulary
 - Does not speak with ease
 - Never expresses ideas to group
 - Understands simple English
- III. Experiences
 - Did not go to kindergarten
 - Little knowledge of stories and rhymes
 - No experience with books
 - No home training—terrible conditions
 - No language training
- IV. Desire
 - To play—is too immature for first grade
 - Have others read
- V. Interest
 - In affairs at school
 - In playing
 - In seeing and hearing others read
 - In pictures
 - In games
- VI. Mental efficiency
 - Mentally slow
 - Mental imagery—slight
- VII. Physical efficiency
 - Apparently well
 - Poor living habits
 - Correct vision
 - Correct hearing
- VIII. Social attitudes
 - Courtesy
 - Cooperation
 - Not very responsible
- IX. Enunciation and pronunciation fair
- X. Traits and characteristics
 - No persistence
 - No self-reliance
 - Enthusiasm
 - Not enough effort to master things
 - Immature
- XI. Daily performance, very irregular
- XII. Achievement—Not ready for simple book reading until March (language).
Gaining now

CASE SHOWING PHYSICAL IMMATURITY AND BAD HOME CONDITIONS

Lorraine

Days present -----	79
Days absent -----	18
Chronological age -----	6-3
Mental age -----	7-1

I. Q. 113-----Pintner-Cunningham

- I. Comprehension—good
 - Gets thought
 - Memorizes
 - Follows directions
 - Concentrates
 - Recalls
- II. Sufficient command of English and good speaking vocabulary
 - Speaks with ease and freedom
 - Could express own ideas. She is so small and such a pet with the other children that they do everything for her and she is spoiled.
 - She never has to do anything for herself
 - She understands English and speaks well, although her mother and grandmother were born in Italy
- III. Wide and varied experiences
 - Went to kindergarten
 - Knows rhymes and songs
 - Knows children's games and activities
 - Knows stories
 - No knowledge of pets and animals
 - Studies professional dancing and performs at entertainments.
 - This associates her with many adults who give her gifts and spoil her
- IV. Desire (lack of)
 - To learn to read
 - To know the story
 - Only wants to play
- V. Interest
 - In affairs at school—flowers, pets, excursions, new experiences, etc.
 - In hearing others read
 - No interest in reading activities
- VI. Mental efficiency
 - Mental alertness but very immature
 - Mental imagery—fanciful—unreal
- VII. Physical efficiency
 - Not strong
 - Was hit by truck causing leg fracture and nervous shock
 - Fine muscular coordination
 - Normal vision
 - Normal hearing
- VIII. Social attitudes
 - Courtesy
 - Lack of proper ideals at home. Mother arrested for shop-lifting.
- IX. Enunciation and pronunciation—good
- X. Traits and characteristics
 - Self-reliance
 - Receptive attitudes
 - No persistence
- XI. Daily performance—fluctuates
- XII. Achievement—not ready for simple book reading in March. Gaining now.

The follow-up—Application of the scale provided an analytical picture of each child's reading status. Generally speaking, if a child showed an unsatisfactory record from the application of the check-list, it was assumed that he was not ready for reading. In the case of Paul, who was 5 years 11 months old, we have a pupil who was under age. In March he was considered a reading failure, but made good after intensive remedial instruction. The boy was "salvaged" and by June, 1930, was ready for promotion, and the following September entered the second grade.

Each program of instruction to provide "readiness" was planned so as to meet the needs as indicated by a pupil's record on the check-list. This program must necessarily be very flexible since what is needed by one child may not be needed by others. Herewith is sketched the general scheme. It is frankly admitted that this contains little original material, but its application under the circumstances as stated may be worth noting.

DEVELOPING A READINESS FOR READING

I. Provide vivid and worthwhile experiences

- (a) To give child interesting things to talk about, to encourage self-expression
- (b) To increase spoken vocabulary
- (c) To encourage completion of units of work using other mediums of expression; materials such as sand, clay, easel, crayons, etc.
- (d) To deepen impressions and keep continued interest
- (e) To participate in games, rhythms, stories told by teachers and children.

II. In every way try to create a desire to read within the child by:

- (a) Holding his attention by securing his interest in experiences
- (b) Providing an attractive library corner with table and abundance of materials such as picture books based on a unit of work which he is experiencing
- (c) Reading interesting stories and then placing them on library table
- (d) Giving assistance to those who voluntarily use library table
- (e) Encouraging dramatization
- (f) Exposing child to printed labels in phrase and sentence for first grade, notices on bulletin board, etc.

III. Reintroduce blackboard reading, based on cooperative composition between teacher and children

- (a) Making reading a thought-getting, thought-giving process
- (b) Exercising care as to simplicity, brevity and repetition of important phrases, sequence of ideas, etc.
- (c) Allowing formation only of desirable reading habits, eye-sweep from left-to-right and down, eliminating word calling, etc.

IV. Introduce chart reading by charting interesting blackboard reading, etc., and later through the chart form present first story of pre-primer, and provide duplicate sentences and phrases for matching purposes.

V. Use all available opportunities for supplementary materials

- (a) Through the use of board or charts:
"It is clean-up time," etc.
- (b) Through child's own stories

- (c) Through use of bulletin board:
"Shall we buy a pet today?"

VI. Build confidence in children by

- (a) Never telling him he can't read
- (b) Recognizing his correct efforts
- (c) Correcting wrong impressions as soon as they appear
- (d) Spur each child on to greatest efforts

This program has resulted in three things:

- (a) A love for reading
- (b) A real desire for reading
- (c) Sometimes, a real ability for reading

Results from use of the checklist—The most important feature about any experimental work or study is the results. At each stage of the development of the readiness checklist it was criticized in terms of the results it produced. This list, as used in March, 1930, was productive of some most satisfactory results which may be stated in terms of (a) pupil growth, (b) student teacher growth, (c) causes of reading failure, and (d) carrying-on possibilities. These may profitably be given in turn and are included in the conclusions which follow.

(a) *Results in terms of pupil growth:*

From the application of the checklist and follow-up procedure

- (1) Children were given time in which to make necessary adjustment.
- (2) A rich background for reading experience was built up, enabling them to become readers.
- (3) Efforts were made at all times to establish only good reading habits.
- (4) A number of so-called "failures" were enabled to go to the second grade at the end of the year.

(b) *Results in terms of student teacher growth:*

The student teacher was placed in the center of a most active program and gained, among others, the following beneficial experiences:

- (1) Through observation, study and practice, she learned to regard teaching early reading as an art.
- (2) Through intensive diagnostic and remedial work, she saw how certain children, who might otherwise have failed in a "lock-step" procedure, were sufficiently ready to be promoted to the second grade.
- (3) She began to realize that there was such a thing as a "readiness for reading."
- (4) She found that there was a real need to help children to build up a sufficient background for the enjoyment of thoughtful reading.
- (5) She found that vital school problems could be approached objectively,—i. e., she found that it was possible to devise a suitable checklist and apply it in an actual classroom situation, in an attempt to solve a difficulty.

(c) *Results in terms of the causes of reading failure:*

Original Problem: "Why are there so many first grade failures in reading?" Our results agree fully with previous research workers who have found through experiment—

- (1) That children are not ready to be taught to read until they are at least six years old mentally.

- (2) That many first grade children are physically and emotionally unfit and are therefore not "ready to read."
- (3) That children who are not "ready" need time in which to adjust themselves and build up sufficient background for the enjoyment of real reading experiences.
- (d) *Results in terms of carrying-on possibilities:*
 - Because of the experimental stage in which the present investigation still remains, it should be indicated that—
 - (1) The checklist devised for indicating readiness to read should be compared with scales which may have been proven successful and should be a real help to the teacher of young children in diagnosing individual cases in the classroom.
 - (2) The investigation should be extended to include case-studies as to signs of "readiness" in children in the kindergarten as well as the first grade stages of development, and in suburban districts as well as congested city districts.

ONE OF the best ways for a principal to master his work and to get his ideas before his teaching force is to have his plans written down where they may be examined. Often, one can master a supervisory or administrative problem by attempting to put it into print. This process brings the principal in contact with the literature of his field and with the many plans which are used by the staff of his school. A principal who can write enthusiastically about his program will be able to advance faster than one who keeps his ideas to himself and his own faculty.—Butler Laughlin, Chapter VIII.

ARITHMETIC PROBLEM SOLVING

EDNA ROLKER

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TEACHING children to solve problems is one of the difficult tasks which the elementary teacher has to perform. Since success in fundamental operations is no guarantee of satisfactory results in problem solving, and since there is relatively little literature on the subject of teaching arithmetical problem solving, the duty of supervising officers is to assist the teacher in the instruction.

Getting the facts—In the experience of the writer one of the most practical ways of locating teaching difficulties has been through standard tests. First, the writer gave the *Buckingham Scale for Problems in Arithmetic*¹ and the *Stevenson Arithmetic Reading Test*.² The scores of the individual pupils were entered on an analysis sheet which showed each pupil's record by grade level in total scores. The pupil records were arranged to bring out pupil difficulties in relation to the items: "Facts Given," "Facts to Find," "Reasonable Answer," and "Process" of the Stevenson test. Thus the teacher and the supervising officer could tell at a glance the pupils who needed special attention, and in what factors help was needed. An average low fifth class frequently showed a range from grade three level to above grade six level. The problem naturally arose as to how the pupils on various grade levels should be treated.

Revealing problems to teachers—As a first step a "content sheet" was made up by several teachers and the supervisor. This form gave in outline the elements of a good problem, the procedures that a teacher could use in the teaching of problems, the causes of failure in problem solving, and certain remedial suggestions.

In order to understand the reason for the remedial measures one must understand the essential causes of failures in problem solving. The *Second Yearbook* of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics¹ states these causes as follows:

- a. The language used in the problems is too difficult. It is beyond the reading standard for the grade in which it occurs.
- b. The pupils have not had sufficient training in interpreting thought from silent reading.
- c. The pupils lack understanding of the technical terms involved.
- d. The situations described by the problems are not understood by the pupils because they are outside the range of the pupils' experience.
- e. The fundamental combinations, facts, or process called for in the solution of the problems have not been habituated.

¹Buckingham, B. R. *Scale for Problems in Arithmetic*, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.

²Stevenson, P. R. *Arithmetic Reading Test*. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

- f. The pupils are unable to see the relations between the steps called for in the solution of the problem.
- g. The pupils are so burdened with undue labeling and elaborate indications of steps that their minds are diverted from the real process of solution.

In a general teachers' conference the "content sheet" was fully discussed. Teachers were asked to use the guide in analyzing all pupils whose scores were below grade standards. In some cases the teacher was unable to diagnose the trouble. With these children the supervisory officer gave special help by working with each child individually, usually getting a clue to his method of work through his oral solution.

The teachers discussed in conference the essential criteria of good problems. They agreed that "good" problems contain these elements: actually or might occur, resemble life conditions, contain practical numbers, and give figures in the way in which they should be dealt. Problems should deal with interesting situations and should prompt children to want to solve them. The language should be within the comprehension of the pupils. The teachers then were asked to check according to these criteria the problems which they asked pupils to solve.

Changing class procedures—After the careful selection of problems by the teacher was cared for, definite help was given in the technics of teaching. These procedures varied with the purpose of the lesson. One plan to meet individual needs was to group children according to their needs, such as: work on technical terms, the approximation of answers, and the selection of the process. Specific help was given each group. On other occasions problems were assigned to the entire class to work for about fifteen minutes, the problems immediately checked, and difficulties noted for further emphasis in the succeeding lesson. Another period called for a separate assignment sheet according to each pupil's needs. At other times, oral lessons were used to see how pupils actually worked.

The supervisor gave the teachers a bibliography of available books on the topic with suggested pages for reading. The recent pupil's texts were examined for exercises which might prove helpful. Teachers were asked to contribute any exercises which they found helpful in the teaching of problem solving. Following are some which were given to teachers as the result of both teachers' and supervisor's assistance. These exercises definitely aimed to meet individual class needs which in turn followed the "causes of failures" as previously disclosed by the content sheet.

¹National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. *Second Yearbook*. New York: C. M. Austin, 1927.

To help in the language difficulty the teachers were asked to check for the following: (1) reality, (2) interest, and (3) language. These three criteria were previously explained.

Several new type tests on technical terms were prepared. These were made in the multiple choice form and the *incorrect* statements given in the test in many cases were obtained from replies actually made by pupils. The following are examples:

Annually means

1. something that happens often
2. on time
3. pay received every month
4. happening once every year

Other tests were made up for such terms as: perimeter, remainder, product, area, total, profit, loss, gain, selling price, difference, acre, balance, compare, debt, decimal, cost, deducted, gallon, improper fraction, income, estimate, check, fraction, ton, zero, increase, value, daily, integer, dozen, sum, invert, left, length, percent, and discount.

The above exercises were used as pre-tests. If pupils failed to know the term, it was given in content through about five problems. After the pupils read the problems the term was discussed. An exercise to check the meaning of the word similar to the pre-test was given. The process was discussed and finally the pupils were asked to solve problems using the term. One teacher developed a very interesting matching game which pupils enjoyed working. Below are a few of the terms to be matched:

total	multiply
cost with gain or loss	each
apiece	whole amount
denominator	the number below the line in a fraction
times	selling price

Exercises were also developed by the teacher and supervisor to help pupils associate process with terms. For example, the pupils were asked to place the proper sign or signs before such words as the following to show the process that should be used: (1) sum, (2) average, (3) balance, (4) profit, (5) total.

Various exercises were used to assist children in seeing the relations between the steps called for in the solution of the problems. Sample sets were based on the *Stevenson Reading Tests* to select from four possible answers on each of the following: (1) facts given, (2) facts to find, (3) reasonable answer, and (4) process. Problems were given without numbers in which pupils were asked to tell what was necessary to find in each problem, for example, "What must you know in order to find out the total weight of several hams?" Exercises were given with some omitted fact and the child was asked to supply the missing fact. Problems without numbers were selected from

various textbooks and used with children who had difficulty in selecting the process.

Completion exercises were also assigned to those pupils who had made low scores in selecting the proper process in the Stevenson test. A sample is here given:

A radio was bought for \$250 and sold for \$235. To find the loss, I-----.

Pupils receiving low scores were also given definite exercises on the approximation of answers. Here is an example:

Mildred's mother bought $1\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of tea at 65 cents a pound. She gave the storekeeper a dollar bill. How much change did she receive?

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| a. about 8 cents | c. about 40 cents |
| b. about 2 cents | d. about 60 cents |

Many pupils were arranging problems on paper incorrectly. To direct pupils' attention to overcoming this difficulty and to make them conscious of the weakness, exercises of the following nature were given:

Check the correct solution.

One copy book cost four cents. What will two copy books cost?

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{(a) } \$4 \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

\$.8

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{(b) } \$0.4 \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

\$.08

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{(c) } 4c \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

.8

The fundamental combinations were cared for through systematic short drills during the first ten minutes of every arithmetic period.

All exercises¹ referred to above were made by teachers or the supervising officer. Several exercises were made by the supervising officer because of difficulties seen during class visits.

Basic teaching standards—At a conference the teachers and supervisor set up various standards to observe in the teaching of arithmetic problems. The self-rating scale was the outcome of this discussion. The rating form was used by teachers in checking their own work and also by the supervisor during class visits. The conferences following observation were based on this self-rating scale.

A GUIDE FOR TEACHING ARITHMETIC PROBLEMS

I. Teaching Procedure

- A. A thorough knowledge of the subject content and the course of study.
- B. A thorough knowledge on the part of the teacher of the specific aim of the lesson.
- C. A clear presentation of new subjectmatter.
- D. A thorough knowledge on the part of the teacher of the individual needs of the pupils.

¹Samples of these exercises may be had by applying to Miss Edna Rolker, Intermediate Grade Supervisor, Baltimore Public Schools, Baltimore, Md.

- E. A thorough preparation on the part of the teachers to meet these through:
 - 1. Different types of exercises varying in difficulty.
 - 2. Material varying in kind and difficulty.
- F. Provision on the part of the teacher to have children see their individual difficulties.
- G. Provision on the part of the teacher to create in the child a desire to improve.
- H. Provision on the part of the teacher to have the children feel the need for things to be learned.
- I. Sufficient drill on facts to be learned to make their processes automatic.
- J. Provision to have the growth of the pupils in subjectmatter checked.
- K. A further analysis of work by teacher to be used as the basis for following lessons.

II. Subjectmatter

- A. Organization of the materials used in teaching the lesson.
- B. Choice of the material as regards:
 - 1. The relation to life
 - 2. The comprehension of the pupil
 - 3. Quality of assignment.

III. Pupil Procedure

- A. Definite pupil participation in the lesson.
- B. A definite knowledge of the progress made by the pupils.
- C. The development of good habits of work on the part of the pupils.

Results—After fifteen weeks of two 40 minute periods devoted to problem solving, pupils were retested with a different form of each of the two tests. The Stevenson Group showed an average gain of 6.34 and the Buckingham Group an average gain of 4.96. Since the gain from one grade to the other in Stevenson is about four points, the gain approximates a growth of a year and a half. The Buckinghams show a variance of from 7 to 11 points in grade level which makes the result more difficult to interpret in terms of grade level. Not only was there definite gain on the part of the pupils, but teachers themselves are more critical of their teaching of problem solving.

THE POSSIBILITIES of the teachers' meeting as an aid to supervision were noted by the apprentice. The faculties of the three schools met every other Wednesday immediately after the close of school. The meetings were carefully planned by the principal, an outline having been prepared and a copy placed in the hands of each teacher not later than the day before the meeting.—Walter F. Karst, Chapter VIII.

A COOPERATIVE STUDY OF ARITHMETIC

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AT A DISTRICT meeting of elementary school principals¹ the question was raised: In what length of time should second grade pupils complete a given test of number facts with the maximum of accuracy?

Such questions as the following were raised: Two pupils may be equally accurate, but their time for the same number of problems may be quite different. How should their work be judged? Too little time allotted will result in inaccuracy; too much will result in counting. Should the time standard be the same for all the pupils, or should we recognize the fact that almost any class will contain fast, medium and slow pupils, and that members of each group will do accurate work? Some pupils are naturally slower than others but not necessarily less accurate.

Curriculum makers often set time limits on tests with little evidence as to the actual performance of typical children. Since evidence was lacking the group of principals decided to study the 3400 children in the second and third grades of the district.

Among the problems outlined for attack were the following: (1) grade placement of the number facts to be taught, (2) tests upon the number facts taught in each grade, (3) a method of recording results which would take account of both time and accuracy, (4) a plan for giving these tests in a standardized manner throughout the district, and (5) a summary of the results, with conclusions.

Grade placement—There was a general understanding in the district that the easier 50 addition facts were to be taught in 2B, and the harder 50 in 2A. The corresponding subtraction facts were to be taught in each half year. The easier multiplication facts were to be taught in 3B and the harder in 3A. The corresponding division facts were to be taught in 3B and 3A respectively.

But these terms "easier" and "harder" were vague and indefinite and capable of different interpretation in different schools. There was no definite guidance to be had from the course of study in Chicago because it was in the process of revision.

The committee undertook a study of various efforts to arrange the 100 addition, 100 subtraction, 100 multiplication and 90 division facts in their order of difficulty. They consulted various reports including Buswell's summary of the investigations dealing with this

¹The committee selected to direct the study included Aaron Kline, Pullman Public School; Alice Hogge Baer, Kohn School; and the writer of this article. The committee acknowledges the expert help of District Superintendent William Hedges.

problem.¹ It was finally decided to use the order of difficulty as determined by Clapp, and to assign definite facts to be taught in each half year, based upon Clapp's investigation.² The grade placement finally decided upon was as follows:

- 2B First 50 addition facts. (Clapp's order of difficulty) The corresponding subtraction facts
- 2A The remaining 50 addition facts, and corresponding subtraction facts
- 3B The multiplication facts whose product was 40 or less, numbering 64 facts
The corresponding division facts, numbering 64
- 3A The remaining multiplication facts whose product was more than 40, numbering 36 facts
The remaining division facts numbering 26

Some explanation of the above grade placement is necessary to make clear just what is included for each half grade. Since the committee agreed that addition and subtraction should be taught together, it was necessary to define the term "corresponding" subtraction facts and list them. It is obvious that for each addition fact, except the addition of two like numbers and the zero combinations, there are two subtraction facts. For example:

Addition Facts	Corresponding Facts
$4+4=8$	Subtraction
	$8-4=4$ (1 fact)
$4+0=4$	$4-0=4$ (1 fact)
	$14-6=8$ }
$8+6=14$	$14-8=6$ } (2 facts)

The first 50 addition facts were listed and opposite them the "corresponding" subtraction facts. This list of corresponding facts was then compared with Clapp's arrangement. It was found that all but 16 of the "corresponding" facts were included in Clapp's first 50 subtraction facts.

The committee therefore recommended that the facts to be taught in 2B included Clapp's first 50 subtraction facts, plus 16 other facts included because they were among those that corresponded to the 50 addition facts taught in 2B. Thus the subtraction facts to be taught numbered 66.

The remaining 50 addition facts and the remaining 66 corresponding subtraction facts were assigned to 2A.

It will be noted that some of the 66 facts assigned to 2B are re-

¹Buswell, Guy T., and Judd, Charles H. *Summary of Educational Investigations Relating to Arithmetic*. Supplementary Educational Monograph, No. 27, University of Chicago, 1925. Chapter V, p. 58-90.

²Clapp, Frank L. "The Number Combinations; Their Relative Difficulty and the Frequency of their Appearance in Textbooks." University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Educational Research, *Bulletin No. 2*. July, 1924.

peated in 2A. An illustration will make clear why there is necessary duplication.

If we take the addition fact

$$\begin{array}{r} 7 \\ +2 \\ \hline 9 \end{array}$$

+2 assigned to 2B, with its two corresponding

subtraction facts	9	9
	—7	—2
	2	7

and the addition fact

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ +7 \\ \hline 9 \end{array}$$

+7 which is the reverse addition fact, assigned to 2A, with its two

corresponding facts as noted above, it will be found that these subtraction facts are identical.

In arranging the grade placement of the multiplication facts, the committee departed somewhat from the Clapp order. For example, Clapp includes 0×0 and 9×9 among the easiest facts. The committee placed all zero combinations in the 3A semester for the reason that zero as a factor in multiplication is a *concept*, and that all applications of it should be grouped together for teaching purposes. It was found practicable to assign to 3B all combinations whose product was 40 or less, and to 3A the remaining facts of the 100 multiplication combinations. This plan allotted 64 combinations to 3B and 36 to 3A.

Thus: 6×5 was placed in 3B
 6×9 was placed in 3A

In this arrangement the larger and more difficult products of the so-called "tables" were allotted to 3A.

The corresponding division facts for 3B and 3A were listed and compared with Clapp's order of difficulty. The degree of correspondence justified the placing together of the multiplication facts as stated above and their corresponding division facts in 3B and 3A respectively.

This arrangement of the facts to be taught in each semester was accepted by the district superintendent.¹ Copies were mimeographed, and supplied to each school early in the semester, with the expectation that tests upon them would be constructed and given throughout the district.

Tests based upon number facts taught—Having decided upon the

¹Copies of the allotment of number facts to each grade will be sent to interested principals upon written request to the author.

facts to be taught in each half grade, the committee set about the construction of tests which would measure the results of the teaching, and which would shed some light upon the question of time allotment for a given test. It was thought desirable to make three forms of each test, the three to be of equal difficulty.

How could the tests be constructed so that they would approximate equality of difficulty? The committee found no ready made material on this problem. One member undertook the difficult problem of weighting each fact according to its position in the Clapp list. It was recognized that the first 50 facts were easier than the second 50, but the first 50 were unequally difficult, as were the last 50, and their arrangement in the table indicated a sequence of increasing difficulty.

The method of weighting may be illustrated as follows: 50 facts were numbered consecutively. Each fact was assumed to have the value of its place in the table but this does not imply that the 50th fact is 50 times as hard as the first.

Since three forms of equal difficulty were desired, the facts were lettered a, b, c, consecutively. The *a facts*, *b facts*, and *c facts* were listed in three columns and the sum of their place numbers found as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1—METHOD OF ALLOTING 50 NUMBER FACTS SO AS TO DEVELOP THREE TESTS OF APPROXIMATELY EQUAL DIFFICULTY

Place Numbers of a Facts	Place Numbers of b Facts	Place Numbers of c Facts
1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9
10	11	12
13	14	15
16	17	18
19	20	21
22	23	24
25	26	27
28	29	30
31	32	33
34	35	36
37	38	39
40	41	42
43	44	45
46	47	48
49	50	
425	442	408

Since from these groups three tests of equal difficulty were to be made and each fact was to appear *twice* in the three tests, the facts were grouped as follows:

Test A includes a and b facts

Test B includes b and c facts

Test C includes a and c facts

The sum of the place values of a+b facts= $425+442$ or 867 Test A

The sum of the place values of b+c facts= $442+408$ or 850 Test B

The sum of the place values of a+c facts= $425+408$ or 833 Test C

It will be seen that as so arranged the sums of the place values in the three groups are not the same, and that only Test B has the correct sum, i. e. $2/3$ of 1275 ($425 + 442 + 408$) or 850.

Therefore it was necessary to equalize Tests A and C by an interchange of two facts. To Test A (a + b facts) was added fact No. 3, and fact No. 20 was subtracted.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 867 \\
 \text{(sum of place values)} \\
 +3 \\
 \hline
 870 \\
 -20 \\
 \hline
 850
 \end{array}$$

To Test C (a + c facts) fact No. 3 was subtracted, and fact No. 20 was added.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 833 \\
 \text{(sum of place values)} \\
 -3 \\
 \hline
 830 \\
 +20 \\
 \hline
 850
 \end{array}$$

By this interchange of facts No. 3 and No. 20 between Tests A and C, the sum of the place values in each of the groups becomes 850. The same method of weighting was applied in the construction of three tests of equal difficulty in subtraction, multiplication and division. Subsequent use of the tests showed that this method of weighting the facts and arranging them in three groups produced three tests of approximately equal difficulty.¹

Before directions were sent out to the district the committee conducted various experiments in their own schools. In order to have some data on time allotment, the following procedure was tried out: a teacher was asked to divide the class into three groups upon her

¹The author has a limited supply of these tests for interested principals. However, most readers will be able to construct and to mimeograph satisfactory copies of their own.

general knowledge of their ability in arithmetic. These groups were designated as fast, medium and slow. The test papers were passed out and the pupils were instructed to stand as soon as the test was finished. When the teacher thought that most of the "fast" group were standing, their papers were collected and the fast group time recorded.

In the same way the time for the medium group was recorded. The "slow" group was allowed to finish its papers unless it exceeded ten minutes. In general, the "slow" group included the inaccurate and those who resorted to counting but there were also "slow" pupils who were accurate and did not obtain their results by counting.

The purpose of this preliminary work was to find out by some means not wholly arbitrary about how fast the children made their responses and also to seek corroboration of the committee's opinion that *one* time limit could not be set for an entire class. It was felt that the ordinary procedure of setting *one* time limit for the whole class and collecting all papers when this limit was reached gave the fast ones too much time and did not reveal what the slow group would do if given time to finish.

It was finally decided to have each pupil bring his paper to the desk as soon as he had finished and the time was recorded upon each paper as it was handed in. It was found practicable, if both principal and teacher were present, to record the time in 10 second intervals.

Giving and recording the tests—As the tests were new to the district and the method of administering untried and unstandardized, a complete rehearsal of the procedure was held. The principals were assembled and rehearsed as a group of pupils. One of the committee acted as teacher, and another as principal. The third member illustrated on the blackboard the method of recording the results graphically. Various members of the group were instructed to make certain errors, so that the papers would include all types of errors and omissions likely to be made by pupils. These errors were discussed and the method of dealing with them determined and agreed to. In this way the method of administering and scoring was more nearly standardized than would have been possible by printed instruction only.

The results of the test papers handed in by the principals acting as pupils were recorded graphically, so that the method would be made clear. Following this rehearsal, the complete directions for administering the tests and recording the results were printed and sent to each principal. These directions were as follows:

DIRECTIONS FOR GIVING

1. Distribute test sheets face down.
2. Instruct the children not to turn them over until told to do so.
3. Have each child write name, grade, room number and date on the blank side of the sheet.
4. The examiner should make clear to the children that this is a test in addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division facts as the case may be. Use the following illustrative examples:

	Form A		Form B		Form C	
2B Add.	3	3	2	1	2	4
	2	6	8	5	9	3
2B Sub.	9	6	10	8	9	6
	4	1	4	2	5	2
2A Add.	8	7	7	3	5	7
	4	5	4	4	2	6
2A Sub.	7	6	7	8	11	8
	2	4	5	6	5	3
3B Mult.	6	5	2	3	8	4
	3	4	7	4	2	4
3B Div.	5)30	4)28	6)24	2)16	4)12	7)21

5. Tell each child to bring his paper to the teacher as soon as he has finished
6. Have the teacher record the time of each pupil on his paper as he hands it in. The time is to be recorded in 10 second intervals.

e. g.	Min.	Sec.
	0	30
		40
		50
1		0
		10
		20 etc.
2		0
		10
		20 etc.

7. Every pupil should be allowed to finish except the very slowest who may resort to counting.
8. Have all of the children begin the test at the same time.

NOTE: The test is to be administered by the principal. He should make sure there are no blank papers and that any indistinct figures are made clear before the tests are distributed.

DIRECTIONS FOR SCORING

1. Every paper is to be included.
2. The score is the number of correct answers.
3. Be sure that the time is on each paper.

DIRECTIONS FOR RECORDING

Use graph paper (5 squares to the inch)

At the top give:

School _____ Date _____ Test (e. g. 2b Add) _____ Form A, B, C

No. problems in test

No. pupils taking test

Across the top write at head of each column the number of problems missed

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 etc.

On left hand margin enter the time in 10 second intervals.

Min. Sec.

0 30

40

50

1 0

10

20

30

40

50

2 0

10

20

30

40

50

3 0

Prepare a graph sheet for each grade and each form. Combine the results of the test for each grade in the proper columns. Find the total of each column. The sum total of the columns equal number taking the test. There should be twelve sheets, six for each form of the tests. Send graph sheets to the District Office.

After much experimenting and discussion the directions for administering the tests and recording results were ready. The method of recording the results was most ingenious. As there were two factors to be included, i. e. time and accuracy, a sheet of graph paper was used. In the left hand column the time intervals were written, and across the top were numbers indicating the numbers missed as shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1—TABULATION RECORD SHOWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF LOW SECOND PUPILS IN TERMS OF ACCURACY AND SPEED ON ADDITION TEST, FORM B IN MARCH, 1930.

Time in Minutes	Number of Mistakes										
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6-10	11-18	19-25	26-30	Over 30
0 to 1½	54	9	4	1	1	0	5	1	3	0	0
Over 1½ to 3	241	77	33	29	25	11	28	24	18	7	1
Over 3 to 4	70	52	28	18	19	6	28	19	8	5	1
Over 4 to 5	30	12	9	7	7	6	15	11	4	2	4
Over 5 to 6	8	9	5	2	7	4	9	15	3	2	1
Over 6	5	4	10	1	3	4	13	22	13	8	4

As the tests did not all have the same number of problems the sheet numbered in this way could be used for all the tests. Zero missed was therefore the best possible score on each test and 34, 43, 44, 45 missed, as the case might be, was the lowest possible score, depending upon the number of combinations in a given test. Forty-five was the largest number of combinations given in any one test.

It will be noted that lines have been drawn so far as to separate Figure 1 into four quadrants, which are designated as A, B, C and D. The boundaries of the quadrants are the vertical line *5 missed*, and the horizontal line *4 minutes*. The committee did not have sufficient data to determine where these lines should be drawn, nor whether they should be the same for each test. The lines are therefore drawn arbitrarily, and serve to classify the pupils as follows:

Quadrant A includes the pupils who are the quick—accurate

Quadrant B includes those who are the quick—inaccurate

Quadrant C includes those who are the slow—accurate

Quadrant D includes those who are the slow—inaccurate

Such a graphic record as Figure 1 shows at a glance what the class situation is, and the number who are either too slow or too inaccurate to be included in the desirable Quadrant A. The teaching is directed toward getting the largest possible number into Quadrant A which includes those whose accuracy is increasing and whose time is diminishing.

Summary of results—At the end of the semester there were in the office of the district superintendent 24 graph sheets (similar to Figure 1) from each school. That is, in each of the following grades, 2B, 2A and 3B two tests had been given, and three forms of each test. Forms A and B were given in March, Forms B and C in June. Form B was given at both testing periods so that improvement could be accurately measured and the results of the three forms could be compared.

The superintendent then compiled the results for the district, and at our first district meeting in September the summary of the tests was presented to the principals. In presenting this summary to the district, the superintendent said:

We obtained scores in March which were low because the work had not yet been taught while the scores in June compared with the scores in March indicate quite definitely the results of instruction.

The tabulations (Table 2) speak for themselves. I believe it is quite conclusively shown that the work can be done without too great an effort and that we are not asking too much of the pupils of those grades.

It is shown quite definitely that the work done in subtraction is not so successful as the work in addition. It appears that pupils of the third grade are

not so successful with multiplication and division facts as the second grades are with addition and subtraction. Possibly this is due to the difficulty of the work, but probably it is due to traditional ideas of what can be expected.

Table 2 shows the percent of pupils in Quadrant A in the March and June tests. It will be remembered (as explained above) that Quadrant A includes pupils who made five or fewer mistakes within a time limit of four minutes. Note in Table 2 how the percent of children meeting the standard increased between March and June.

TABLE 2—NUMBER AND PERCENT OF PUPILS IN QUADRANT A IN SEVERAL TESTS OF NUMBER ABILITIES

Test	Date of Test	Number of Pupils Within Quadrant A	Total Number Taking Test	Percent Within Quadrant A
2B Addition.....{	March	693	1,085	64
	June	899	1,107	81
2A Addition.....{	March	734	1,579	46
	June	1,209	1,510	80
2B Subtraction.....{	March	87	1,037	8
	June	359	1,055	35
2A Subtraction.....{	March	183	1,313	14
	June	685	1,535	45
3B Multiplication.....{	March	172	1,070	16
	June	624	1,112	56
3B Division.....{	March	120	1,069	11
	June	504	1,072	47

Conclusions—What benefits have resulted from this cooperative supervision of a phase of arithmetic instruction?

First: The clarification of thinking which has resulted in a re-definition of such loosely used terms as "order of difficulty," number *facts* as distinguished from number *processes*, and number *problems*. It was brought home to teachers and supervisors that number *facts* need to become automatic; that the element of thinking has no place here; that the teaching is directed toward automatic responses.

Second: It was proven by the large number of cases included that these facts can be taught in the grades to which they are assigned. However, since complete mastery is not expected in the grade in which the facts are taught, they should be constantly reviewed in succeeding grades, with increasing accuracy and decreasing time.

Third: The impetus given to the search on the part of the teachers for the most economical teaching procedure and the best learning situation was most marked. A successful teacher was invited by

her co-workers to illustrate her methods to the other teachers in the same building. The feeling of working together on a common problem in which there was an element of research was stimulating and valuable.

Fourth: The permanent results are more difficult to evaluate, but every teacher has had a strong impetus to clarify her thinking, to revise her methods and to keep graphic records, rather than percents, as a basis of comparison and a measure of improvement. When most of her pupils are in the upper left hand corner of the graph, (See Figure 1) she knows that the teaching has been effective. If at the end of the semester they are scattered over the page, the teaching has been ineffective and wasteful.

OUR TESTING program helps to keep supervision impersonal, centered on the child's development and the teaching effectiveness. The interest of pupils and teachers in the test results is keen, and an important motivating factor. Adaptations, experiments, an open-minded attitude toward new and different methods characterize the teachers who cooperate in our work from year to year. Such a program as this can be put into effect by small schools in isolated units, without unduly taxing the teachers' time and energy, and should be of definite value in improvement of teaching.—
R. N. Chenault, Chapter VII.

IMPROVING THE ABILITY TO PUNCTUATE

W. A. HERR

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THE PROJECT in cooperative supervision described herein had its inception in the comparison by the principal of the themes written by pupils of the ninth grade in April to note the extent of improvement over efforts of September. The themes demonstrated increased facility in expressing thought, better paragraph organization, and a richer vocabulary. Errors in mechanical details of composition, however, persisted with undesired frequency. In order of prevalence these errors were: over punctuation, the run-on sentence, the "comma splice," failure to capitalize proper adjectives and nouns, and omission of the sign of the possessive.

How could the frequency of errors be diminished?—Obviously, the problem called for the principal's supervisory technics. The school had no department head in English nor a general supervisor of English in the system. Though the school year was approaching its close the principal decided, rather than to issue a ukase on how to attack the problem, to work with the teachers in the effort to secure a mutual understanding and a cooperative attack.

The necessary steps in the supervisory procedure seemed to be the following:

1. The demonstration to the teachers of the nature of the problem.
2. The motivation of the teachers in attacking the problem.
3. The measurement and analysis of the difficulties of the pupils.
4. The discovery of defects in the teaching process.
5. The study of available professional literature for remedial measures.
6. The application of remedial measures.
7. A final measurement of pupil improvement.

The possible causes of weakness in mechanical elements of composition were considered: Past preparation of pupils, defective teaching procedure, lack of sufficient teaching and drill material, and lack of proper emphasis upon punctuation in the course of study. The two possible causes, whose correction would be most likely to remedy the situation, seemed to be defective teaching procedure and lack of use of proper drill and teaching material. Three means of securing information concerning the teaching procedure were available; namely, lesson plans of preceding class work, classroom visitation, and individual conferences.

Examination of the lesson plans—Lesson plans of each teacher for the preceding three months were carefully reviewed. Effort was especially made to locate reference to the mechanical details of written composition, including punctuation and capitalization. This examination revealed that lessons in punctuation had been presented

by most teachers in accordance with the course of study for the grade. The plans, however, did not reveal just how the punctuation lessons were presented. One teacher revealed that attention was being given to the errors in mechanics characteristic of groups or of individuals. None revealed how the errors in mechanics in themes were attacked.

The conclusion formed by the principal as a result of the examination of the lesson plans was that in obtaining greater facility in the expression of thought, better paragraph organization, and richer vocabulary, the teachers gave the mechanics only a minimum of attention. In carrying out the letter requirements of the course of study, teachers were not recognizing the extent of the deficiencies, or tying up the ability to punctuate with knowledge of sentence structure.

In order to check upon the conclusions obtained from the lesson plans, the teaching of punctuation was discussed at conferences with individual teachers. Discussion centered upon the detailed class activities which ordinarily were used in connection with lesson plans. The principal wished to confirm the impressions gained from sample lesson plans and to attain greater insight into teacher viewpoints on the teaching of punctuation.

Typical practices of teachers—During the assignment period the teacher usually presented illustrations of the use of the particular punctuation mark. The principle or rule governing its use followed the illustrations. A textbook assignment on the use of the mark was made together with an exercise from Ward's *Sentence Book* or other drill material. The exercise was corrected in class. One teacher noted weaknesses characteristic of individuals and could show from her records which pupils displayed marked deficiencies in punctuation and capitalization. Two teachers paid no further attention to the particular mark except the general marking of errors in themes. One teacher had pupils who scored low in the first exercise do a supplementary exercise. No comprehensive reviews of punctuation principles had been made by any of the teachers. No effort was made to tie together skills in handling related marks.

During the weeks of the above conferences, classrooms were visited to note actual procedures in handling the mechanics in written composition. The supervisor's notes on several previous lessons in mechanics were reviewed because a single lesson alone may appear to possess merit. The value of lessons may be lost, however, when lessons are not properly coordinated or deficient mastery left uncorrected. Often the supervisor found that the application of principles to themes and the specific difficulties presented by a single mark were left untouched. The carry-over of the mastery of a punctuation principle to its application in theme writing had not been properly coordinated.

Having satisfied himself that the lesson plans revealed defective selection and organization of subjectmatter, and defective teaching

procedure, the principal took the first step in his active program of cooperative supervision; namely, to acquaint teachers with the specific nature of the punctuation difficulties of pupils and to motivate the teachers in eliminating the errors.

A departmental meeting—At the meeting the principal presented the results of his examination of the themes. He showed the character and extent of the errors in punctuation in tabular form. The prevalence of over-punctuation, particularly in the use of the comma, was pointed out as the result of lack of care in presenting the uses of the comma in restrictive and non-restrictive clauses.

Following the presentation of the most characteristic errors, the principal then reported the evidence from the lesson plans, individual conferences, and classroom visits. It was agreed that the following defects were characteristic of the teaching:

1. The teaching had not included adequate reviews of punctuation principles in practical exercises of pupil power.
2. There was no check upon individual mastery of the elements of form.
3. There was inadequate emphasis upon the general punctuation of themes.
4. Pupils had not been adequately trained to apply their knowledge of punctuation in theme writing.

The ensuing discussion led to the formulation of the following plan of attack:

1. The *Briggs' English Form Test* should be given to locate the specific pupil difficulties. While this test did not cover all of the work of the ninth grade, it was generally rather useful.
2. While the test was being administered and the results tabulated, all available references on the teaching of punctuation should be consulted for the purpose of noting constructive suggestions on the teaching of punctuation.
3. A general review of the principles dealing with elements of form should be conducted in all classrooms.
4. Teachers were asked to assemble sentences for incorporation into an informal test which would include the elements not found in the *Briggs' English Form Test*.

The results of the *Briggs' English Form Test* were tabulated so that the summary of errors revealed those made by each pupil, each class and the entire grade. A general summary is shown in Table 1.

The test results reveal that the "run-on sentence" element and the element of the terminal question mark were points where the percentage of error greatly exceeded the norms.

Table 2 shows the results of the informal test. While no norms were available, the use of the comma for non-restrictive clauses resulted in the greater percentage of error.

Special material on the teaching of punctuation was assembled in the office, so as to be available to all teachers. All agreed to make notes upon what were considered the most helpful suggestions and

bring them to the next weekly meeting at which the results of the Briggs' test would be considered. Among the most helpful books were the following:

Books

- Chubb, P. *The Teaching of English*, Macmillan Company, 1927.
Morrison, H. C. *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, The University of Chicago Press, 1926. p. 487-497.
Stormzand, M. J. and O'Shea, M. V. *How Much English Grammar?*, Warwick and York, 1924. Chapters II and III.
Ward, C. H. *Pilot Book for Sentence and Theme*, Scott, Foresman, and Company.
Webster, E. H. and Smith, D. V. *Teaching English in the Junior High School*, World Book Company. 1927.
Wohlfarth, Julia H. *Self-Help Methods of Teaching English*, World Book Company, 1925.

PERIODICALS AND COURSES OF STUDY

- Baltimore, Maryland, "Course of Study in English for Junior and Senior High Schools," 1924, Sections on technical details.
- DuBreuil, A. J. "Teaching Sentence Structure," *The English Journal*, Volume XVIII, No. 4, April 1929, p. 315-320.
- Hudelson, *Twenty-Second Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, 1923. Public School Publishing Company, Chapter II.
- McCorkle, J. N. "Eliminating Guess Work from Sentence Punctuation," *The English Journal*, Volume XV, November 1926, 673-680.
- Pressey and Conkling, *Student's Guide to Correctness in Written Work*, Public School Publishing Company.
- Pressey and Conkling, *Teacher's Manual for Student's Guide*, Public School Publishing Company.
- University of Iowa, *Extension Bulletin*, No. 147, College of Education Series, No. 22, May 1926. "Courses in English in Junior High Schools."
- Wiswall, Z. E. "Improvement in Sentence Structure," *The English Journal*, Volume XVI, September 1927, p. 518-527.
- Wiswall, Z. E. "A Study of Sentence Structure in Eighth-Grade Composition," *The English Journal*, February, 1926. Vol. XXVI, p. 441-48.

TABLE 1—PERCENT OF ERRORS IN THE BRIGGS' ENGLISH FORM TEST

TYPE OF ERROR	CLASSES										
	9-1	9-2	9-3	9-4	9-5D	9-5M	9-6	9-7	9-8	Entire Grade	Grade Standard
Initial capital	1.43	.57	0.0	.49	0.0	0.0	1.2	5.26	5.8	1.4	1.0
Terminal period	0.0	4.56	0.0	.49	0.0	2.0	1.2	4.21	0.0	1.3	2.1
Terminal question mark	3.33	16.0	11.5	1.95	8.0	7.0	13.0	8.42	4.1	7.7	1.5
Capital for proper noun or adjective	39.5	54.3	49.4	33.1	21.3	21.0	61.0	37.8	32.5	40.0	52.7
Run-on sentence	26.7	39.0	48.2	31.2	8.0	42.0	51.0	48.4	40.0	37.0	29.8
Apostrophe	54.9	59.0	65.3	50.0	26.0	57.0	58.0	52.6	52.5	54.0	58.4
Comma before "but"	6.2	9.7	4.1	6.83	26.6	1.0	12.0	15.7	6.83	7.0	20.9

TABLE 2—THE RESULTS OF THE INFORMAL TEST

Type of Element	Percentages of Errors in Entire Grade
Comma for non-restrictive clauses -----	22.3
Comma for adverbial phrase out of order -----	18.6
Comma in series -----	8.4
Direct quotation -----	11.3

Results of the second meeting—The results of the Briggs test as shown in Table 1 were explained to each teacher. This table reveals that classes varied in the type of element of form which presented the greater difficulties. The "terminal question mark", however, was a source of error higher than the grade norm in every class, and the "run-on sentence" in every class but two. Teachers agreed to pursue the following plan in remedial instruction:

1. Each pupil is to be informed of his score in the elements of the Briggs' test. In those elements in which the pupil made a percentage of error equivalent to or greater than the grade norm special exercises were to be given. If an error persisted the pupil should be given special instruction and a second exercise.
2. Those who scored below the class median on the informal test were likewise to be given a special assignment and exercise.
3. During a portion of the English period for three days a week an element of punctuation form and a brief exercise was planned. Papers were to be immediately corrected by the pupils. Pupils with one or more errors should hand to the teacher upon the following day a paper containing correct illustrations of the use of the particular punctuation form.
4. The procedure outlined by Miss DuBreuil in the April, 1929 *English Journal* was followed. (See bibliography above).
5. A portion of a period each week should be used in the correction of errors in compositions and reports of pupils in other subjects. Each class was to be divided into groups of three or four pupils. A pupil strong in ability to punctuate should be made chairman of each group. The group should consider every error in the form made in all papers and should review the principle involved.
6. At the end of three weeks of the above program a second general informal test was to be given.

Each teacher followed the program as outlined. The principal endeavored to visit each class at least once during the three-week period. Many special conferences were held during which such matters as peculiar difficulties of individual pupils and more effective methods of presenting distinctions in comma usage were discussed.

An informal test involving all of the elements of the *Briggs' English Form Test* and the elements scheduled for the ninth grade was given at the end of the period. This test revealed greatly improved mastery. The results were used on an individual diagnostic basis. Time was taken in class for every pupil making an error on any element to review the principle and do another exercise involving the elements failed.

One week after the informal test the final testing involved the use of the *Pressey Diagnostic Tests in English Composition*. The results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3—RESULTS OF PRESSEY TESTS IN DIAGNOSTIC COMPOSITION

Division	Punctuation Test	Capitalization Test
9-10	21.0	23.0
9-20	20.0	23.0
9-3L	18.0	21.0
9-4M	20.0	23.0
9-5M	19.0	22.5
9-5D	15.0	21.0
9-6S	14.0	23.0
9-7D	13.0	19.0
9-8K	18.0	23.0
Grade Median	19.35	22.8
Grade Standard	14.0	21.5

Table 3 shows the grade median in both tests as above the grade standard. All but one class scored equal to or above the grade standard in the punctuation test and all but two divisions in the capitalization test.

Further evaluation—The supervisory procedure showed results apart from those of the standard tests. The additional values were revealed in the remarks of the teachers:

Henceforth my teaching of punctuation will not be made up of sporadic lessons following the course of study.

Now I know that there is more to teaching punctuation than rules and exercises.

I formerly had no adequate conception of the close connection that punctuation and knowledge of sentence structure bear to each other. They cannot be taught apart.

GROWTH comes from doing. As principals we may spend our time with the routine school demands. Growth comes from such work in that we become good housekeepers, clerks, or petty administrators. How then can the principal develop along more proper lines? The purpose of this article is to urge principals to avoid the "bag of tricks" in supervision and to go deeply into the intricacies of the learner's environments.—F. B. Snavely, Chapter VIII.

IMPROVING INSTRUCTION THROUGH TESTS

R. N. CHENAULT

Director, Hardy Memorial School, Richard City, Tennessee

STANDARD tests are tools to be used by the principal in studying this school. Test results often show the weaknesses of the educational procedures as well as the difficulties of children. This article presents briefly the beneficial influence of standard tests upon the instruction in the Richard Hardy Memorial School.

The school situation—Our school is located in the small industrial community of Richard City, Tennessee. Most of the pupils come from homes of employees of the cement corporation whose southern plant is located here. The present school organization includes kindergarten, elementary grades and junior high school.

The average daily attendance in 1929-30, the year of this project, was 307 pupils. The school gives much attention to individual pupil guidance and development. Since the public funds are supplemented by the cement corporation it is possible for us to have the teaching materials, equipment and other facilities for an unusual educational program. Nearly all the teachers are college graduates with experience and training for their particular work.

The preliminary and final test results—The experiment outlined below meets all the requirements of scientific procedure. It is presented as a practical example of the use of the results of standard tests in the improvement of instruction in a small school, without unduly burdening teachers with clerical and statistical work. The director of the school gave the tests, worked out the tables, and graphs and the teachers scored the papers.

In December 1929, group intelligence tests were given to all pupils from the first grade through the eighth. The following tests were used: *Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test* in the first grade; *Detroit Primary Intelligence Test* in the second and third grades; *National Intelligence Tests* in the fourth through the eighth grade. Table 1 shows the pupils' mental ages.

At first inspection Table 1 seems to indicate (1) a rather wide range of intelligence in grades two, three, four, five, and seven, and (2) grades four and five are relatively "slow," while grades six and eight are selected. The high mental ages in the first grade did not check with previous test records or teachers' judgments. Obviously, there were supervisory problems here for further study.

Achievement tests were given first in December and then in April, In the first three grades we used the *Pressey Attainment Scale*. The *Stanford Achievement Tests* were used in the four grades above the fourth.

Table 2 shows the number of pupils at, above or below grade standards in December, 1929 and April, 1930. Splendid progress was

shown in the first and second grades. Only the third grade lost ground in terms of the standard tests.

TABLE 1—DISTRIBUTION OF THE MENTAL AGES OF PUPILS

Mental Age	GRADES								Total Number of Pupils
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
15-0							1	6	7
14-6							2	2	4
14-0							1	3	4
13-6						1	1	3	5
13-0						4	6	1	11
12-6					2	6	8	3	19
12-0		2			2	5	5	1	15
11-6		1	1	1	3	3	4		13
11-0		1	1		4	3	2		11
10-6		3	3	3	7	2	1		19
10-0		1	1	2	4	2			10
9-6		2	4	1	6				13
9-0		2	6	7	2				17
8-6		6	14	4	2	1			27
8-0	6	6	4	5	2				23
7-6	10	4	3	2					19
7-0	11	1	3	2					17
6-6	9	3	1	2					15
6-0	4	1		2					7
5-6	5								5
5-0									
Total.....	45	33	41	31	34	27	31	19	261

TABLE 2—NUMBER OF PUPILS AT, ABOVE OR BELOW GRADE STANDARDS IN DECEMBER AND APRIL

GRADE	DECEMBER, 1929		APRIL, 1930		NUMBER	
	At or Above Standard	Below Standard	At or Above Standard	Below Standard	Gaining	Losing
First.....	9	29	33	5	24	
Second....	23	11	26	8	3	
Third....	32	8	15	25		17

Table 3 shows the number of pupils making or not making progress in the upper grades. Table 4 presents the average progress by subjects. Table 5 gives the distribution of the total scores in terms of grade standards. In looking at Table 4 it should be remembered that .4 would be normal progress between December and April.¹

¹Norms in December are 4.3, 5.3, 6.3, 7.3, and 8.3 for grades four, five, six, seven, and eight respectively. By April these norms are raised .4 for each grade.

TABLE 3—NUMBER OF PUPILS MAKING PROGRESS BETWEEN DECEMBER AND APRIL

AMOUNT OF GAIN	NUMBER OF PUPILS IN EACH GRADE					
	Fourth	Fifth	Sixth	Seventh	Eighth	Total
1.0	1	1	15	4	1	22
.4	15	13	6	13	8	55
Less than .4	7	9	3	5	2	26
No gain	4	7		3	1	15
Total....	27	30	24	25	12	118

TABLE 4—AVERAGE GRADE SCORES OF EACH GRADE BY SUBJECTS

GRADE	Date	Read.	Arith.	Science	Hist.	Lang.	Spell.	Total Test	Average Gain
Fourth Grade.	Jan.	4.0	4.3	4.1	3.9	4.2	3.7	4.0	.3
	April	4.2	4.6	4.4	4.5	4.3	4.3	4.3	
Fifth Grade...	Dec.	5.3	5.0	5.1	4.6	4.9	4.7	5.0	.3
	April	5.7	5.6	5.2	5.3	5.2	4.7	5.3	
Sixth Grade...	Dec.	6.1	6.8	6.4	6.0	6.5	5.9	6.3	.8
	April	7.1	8.0	6.4	7.5	6.8	7.1	7.1	
Seventh Grade	Dec.	7.3	8.0	7.5	7.0	7.1	6.4	6.9	.9
	April	7.8	8.4	7.9	8.0	7.5	7.1	7.8	
Eighth grade..	Dec.	7.7	8.3	8.2	7.9	7.6	7.9	8.3	.5
	April	8.1	9.1	8.6	7.8	8.4	8.3	8.8	

Note: The fourth grade was tested in January instead of December.

The normal for this grade, therefore, was 4.4, and normal gain .3.

How the test results were used—The purpose of the tests was to improve instruction by adapting it to the evident needs of individual children. Graphs showing each child's rating compared with the grade norm in each subject were made and given to the teachers. Lists of pupils below grade standards in each subject and class record graphs were also furnished. Each teacher was impressed with his or her responsibility for taking the children where they were and directing their growth most effectively during the rest of the school term. Pupil development was emphasized as the principal test of the teaching procedure.

The improvement of pupils shown by the second test was due largely to the fine spirit shown by teachers in facing their problems of improving their methods of teaching and adapting the instruction to the specific needs of the children. Our professional library was

searched for help in working out definite problems, rather than for general inspiration or improvement. Professional effectiveness has been distinctly increased because of this study of instructional problems.

TABLE 5—NUMBER OF PUPILS ATTAINING EACH GRADE SCORE

DECEMBER						APRIL						
Grade Score	GRADES					Total	GRADES					Total
	4	5	6	7	8		4	5	6	7	8	
10.0											1	1
9.5				1		1				3	4	7
9.0					3	3			2	2	1	5
8.5			1	1	3	5			3	3	1	7
8.0				4	1	5			2	4	3	9
7.5			3	4	3	10			4	3	1	8
7.0			3	5	1	9			6	5	1	12
6.5			5	6	1	12		1	3	3		7
6.0		1	6	4		11	1	7	2	1		11
5.5	1	10	3			14	1	7	1	1		10
5.0		2	1			3	3	4				7
4.5	5	10	1			16	7	9				16
4.0	7	5				12	9	1	1			11
3.5	4	2	1			7	3	1				4
3.0	10					10	3					3
Total..	27	30	24	25	12	118	27	30	24	25	12	118

A few special devices might be listed. In grades four, five, and six, pupils were re-grouped for class work in reading, arithmetic and English, placing those of approximately the same level of achievement together. Special periods for remedial work were arranged for pupils below standard in language usage, arithmetic and reading in grades seven and eight. Classroom libraries on geography and history subjects were provided, brighter pupils were given special assignments and stimulated to do an unusual amount of independent work. These assignments made possible more careful supervision and closer attention of the slower pupils. Also, judging by results, the new devices were more effective with brighter pupils than the former methods had been.

A careful study was made of the environment, health, previous records and other significant factors of several children who ranked a full grade or more above the class norms. These pupils were tentatively selected for double promotion at end of the year, and their work was planned to that end.

We found there was notable improvement in the interest and attitude of pupils toward their work. They were interested in their progress measured objectively, and were inspired to greater effort by a tactful use of their test ratings. Definiteness is a great help in stimulating pupil improvement.

The results of the tests have been used in revising our curriculum. It seemed evident that we were giving too little attention to some subjects, and possibly too much to others. Readjustment has been made, and we believe these weaknesses will be avoided in the future.

Conclusion—We feel that we have gained much by making specific and definite our problems of instruction and professional study. This year's work is based on the progress of former years, and we believe the 1930-31 survey will show consistent, marked improvement throughout the five year period during which this procedure has been carried on.

Our testing program helps to keep supervision impersonal, centered on the child's development and the teaching effectiveness. The interest of pupils and teachers in the test results is keen, and an important motivating factor. Adaptations, experiments, an open-minded attitude toward new and different methods characterize the teachers who cooperate in our work from year to year. Such a program as this can be put into effect by small schools in isolated units, without unduly taxing the teachers' time and energy, and should be of definite value in improvement of teaching.

THE SUGGESTION has been made recently in professional courses and educational literature, that principals should cooperate in developing supervisory procedures. One method of cooperation suggested is the "visiting plan" or directed observation by a small group of principals. In this plan, six or eight principals visit classrooms together, make individual evaluations of the lesson, and then meet for a discussion of their observations.—Bess Campbell, Chapter VIII.

STANDARD TESTS IN SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

F. M. MATHIS

Principal, Gary and Bonner Schools, Tyler, Texas

UNTIL recent years, the activities of the elementary principal were those of a regular teacher and clerk, having numerous reports to make without the assistance of office help. If he were even fairly successful in such work, his contact with his teachers and a majority of the children was casual and his influence limited.

Before the principal can be a successful supervisor, he must know details about each pupil, such as: name, street address, phone number, home conditions, outside influences, associates, mental ability, mental habits, and educational standing. A knowledge of all these points by the principal is very essential, but to the writer the last is the most necessary, that is, some kind of *measurement* of the *ability* and *educational progress* of the school children. In meeting this need for exact facts the standard test has an unique place.

The purpose of this paper is to make a study of the use of standardized tests in the elementary grades of the small city school systems of Texas.

Results of questionnaires to small school systems—An inquiry was sent out to 42 towns in Texas ranging in size from ten thousand to twenty thousand in population. Replies were received from 18 small school systems. The information received gives a fair sampling of what is being done in places of this size. Out of the 18 towns from which reports were received, 10 were making use of standardized tests. Eight of the 10 were using tests rather extensively.

The replies from the 18 small school systems may be summarized, as follows:

1. Do you use standardized educational tests in the elementary grades of your school?

Yes	10
No answer	8
2. Do you use intelligence tests?

Yes	7
No	3
No answer	8
3. What is the annual expenditure?

For education tests: range from \$10 to \$80
For intelligence tests: range from \$5 to \$30
4. Check the purposes for which tests are used.

Survey, 8; studying school efficiency, 8; diagnosis, 6; classification, 6; basis of promotion, 4; predicting pupil success, 4; incentive to teacher and pupils, 4; rating teachers, 3; prognosis, 2; educational and vocational guidance, 2.
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5. To what extent are tests given to improve instruction? (some typical answers)

I give a standardized test the third week of each term and towards the close of the term.

We use these tests for the purpose of diagnosis, survey, to determine the quality of teaching, to rate teachers, to study the efficiency of the schools, and as an incentive to pupils and teachers.

I have used the *Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test* since 1922. Children are classified the first year according to it. It is the basis for any special promotion during their stay in the grades. It is a child's defence against any teacher who decides a certain child is not able to do certain work. The results of the tests are always used to help the child—improvement of instruction—never in a way of demotion. Our permanent record cards keep this information where it can be easily found.

We have given the achievement test to the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades once each year for the past three, but the benefits derived from the giving of them is so negligible when compared to the cost of them, we can reasonably say that no results were obtained other than the satisfaction of knowing that our children were able to make a very creditable showing on the test. The fact, that such few results were obtained, is not due to the use of the test, but rather to the abuse of it. It was given, graphed, and stacked away with our vanity fanned a bit and our curiosity aroused yet not satisfied.

6. What tests have you found most serviceable for the purpose of improving instruction?
 - 3 schools use Stanford Achievement Tests
 - 3 schools use Monroe's Reading Test
 - 2 schools use Texas Diagnostic Arithmetic Tests
 - 2 schools use Thorndike-McCall Reading Test
 - 1 school uses Pressey's Achievement and Diagnostic Tests
 - 1 school uses Nation-Wide Survey Test
 - 1 school uses Haggerty's National Intelligence Test and Reading Test
 - 1 school uses Woody-McCall Arithmetic Tests
 - 1 school uses Ayres' Writing and Spelling Scales
 - 1 school uses Detroit First Grade Intelligence Tests
 - Others are mentioned as having been used.
7. In what subjects have you received the most satisfactory results?
 - 7 schools say in reading
 - 6 schools say in arithmetic
 - 2 schools say in history
 - 2 schools say in English
 - 2 schools say in spelling
 - 2 schools say in writing
 - 1 school says in geography
 - A few others include nature study and physiology.
8. Do you always follow with remedial work? Yes, 5. No, 4. No answer, 9.
9. Can you furnish me with the results of tests followed with remedial work? Yes, 3. No, 7. No answer, 8.
10. In carrying on a testing program, how many subjects are studied at a time?
 - One subject ----- 5
 - Battery tests ----- 3
 - No answer ----- 10
11. After you have tabulated results, in what way do you use them to stimulate teachers and pupils?
 - Post them in classroom, 3; publish results in local paper, 1; teachers use them to study individual pupils, 10.
12. What do you do with the results of intelligence tests?
 - Put on record in office, 6; give results to teachers, 8; give results to pupils, 1; no practical use made of results, 0.

Interpretation of questionnaire replies—The replies show that both educational and intelligence tests were given. However, there is very little expenditure for them. It appears that the tests are most generally used for survey, diagnosis, and classification. There is not much indication that the tests are being used for the improvement of instruction.

From replies given there is no indication that any particular tests are being found more useful than others. Twenty-five different kinds of tests are reported as being used. The most satisfactory results appear to be found in reading and arithmetic. There are a few schools that list English, spelling, and writing among the subjects from which satisfactory results are being obtained.

Concerning the use made of results of educational tests, ten schools report that they are used to study individual pupils. The results of intelligence tests are put on the office record, given to the teachers, and in one school given to pupils.

One principal was very frank to say:

I would be unwilling to accept any standardized test as a basis for promotion. They are too general, cover much ground that is valuable, but wholly insufficient for promotion purposes. I believe that should the new-type test be used earnestly and thoroughly all the year, then at the end of the year, in addition to giving your regular test, you could use good standardized tests for comparative purposes. If you have pupils enough for three or four sections, you might use them as a basis for classification but not for promotion, if any attention is to be paid to the local or state course of study.

Another principal makes this report: "We quit using the standardized tests three years ago." Another remarked that his superintendent does not believe very strongly in standardized tests and, therefore, will not provide funds to purchase them.

If we should form our judgment concerning educational tests according to the questionnaire replies, a recommendation to dispense with them would be in order. Two of the three reports given above, however, offered no reason why the tests are not used. Condemnation of the use of such measures cannot be made upon reports of that nature.

Use of tests in Tyler, Texas—It costs the Tyler school system from \$40 to \$60 for a pupil in the elementary grades to stay in school an entire year. In 1929-30 the *Stanford Achievement Tests* were given to the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh grades of our schools. The results of these tests, the teacher's estimate of the child's ability, and the supervisor's records of tests she had given recently revealed 45 children in the two schools of which the writer is principal, who were capable of doing the work of the next half grade very satisfactorily. The cost of giving the tests to the entire system was met in the saving which was brought about by placing these children in the next higher grade because they will be able to complete school one half-year earlier.

A still greater saving to the system in dollars and cents was effected when remedial work followed the giving of tests, for many boys and girls who would have failed were helped to pass their grades thus saving the cost of reteaching them.

We also compiled a list of the pupil errors so as to give the proper remedial work. Texts and current literature on the elimination of pupil learning difficulties were studied by teachers individually, in groups, at grade meetings, and at institutes. Outlines were worked out, printed and distributed. Conferences with other interested teachers, supervisors, and principals were held for discussing specific weaknesses and possible courses of procedure for presenting clearer ideas, giving suitable drills, and stimulating interest and effort. Since most achievement tests furnish information of a diagnostic nature, the wise teacher readily perceived the individual and class difficulties. Knowing the specific needs, a teacher can do far more effective work with less waste than one who is equipped with less information. Starch has said:

One of the striking discoveries of experimental investigations is the very rapid progress in specific functions when the practicing is done on the particular connections to be established. A surprisingly large percentage of pupils make little or no progress in an entire year's work in such subjects as reading, writing, and the like, while the remaining pupils make only a part of the progress that they could make if their efforts were squarely directed at the material to be learned or at the associations to be established.¹

Starch has said in another connection that "the difficulty with the material of school subjects is that we do not and in some instances cannot specify with sufficient definiteness just wherein improvement is to be made."² The use of standardized tests furnishes a means for locating or pointing out these weak spots where improvement is needed.

Achievement scores and intelligence ratings were compared. This study gave a further aid toward fitting the instruction to the needs and understanding of the various individuals. When pupils fail to reach accomplishments which their abilities seemed to warrant, such pupils were made objects of careful study. Home conditions, health, interests, former preparation, effort, and the like were investigated, and in many instances helpful adjustments were made. Instruction and results were greatly improved. Records from a number of classrooms in our city show that pupils who have had specific remedial instruction following tests improved in a half term as much as standard scores indicated as a year's work.

¹Starch, Daniel. *Educational Psychology*, p. 159.

²Starch, Daniel. *Ibid*, p. 162.

Conclusions and suggestions—There are a number of conclusions that the writer should like to draw from this study:

1. There is not much use being made of standardized tests in small city school systems.
2. Where the tests are being given, the practical value is not given extensive use.
3. The indications are that in most of the schools where tests are being used, the work is in a more or less experimental stage.
4. There is apparently not enough general knowledge of standardized tests among teachers, supervisors, and principals to encourage an intelligent use of them.
5. If standardized tests are to be used extensively in elementary grades, the principals are going to have to make a more thorough study of the whole subject of standardized and informal tests and instruct the teachers of their buildings in the practical use of the results.

Tests properly used enable the teacher and the supervisor to diagnose both the pupil and the teacher difficulties. Until this is done effectively, we shall not be able to make a practical use of standardized tests.

The time should come when every school system the size of these included in this report should have a research department making a definite check on the work of the schools through the use of standardized and informal tests. Such a department, by the saving of failures, would more than pay for itself.

The principal must be a leader in this work in his own school, and he, through his knowledge of and enthusiasm for the work, must stimulate the work of his teachers and pupils. Every schoolroom should become an experimental laboratory where the teacher is striving to find her own weaknesses and the pupil difficulties thereby improving instruction.¹

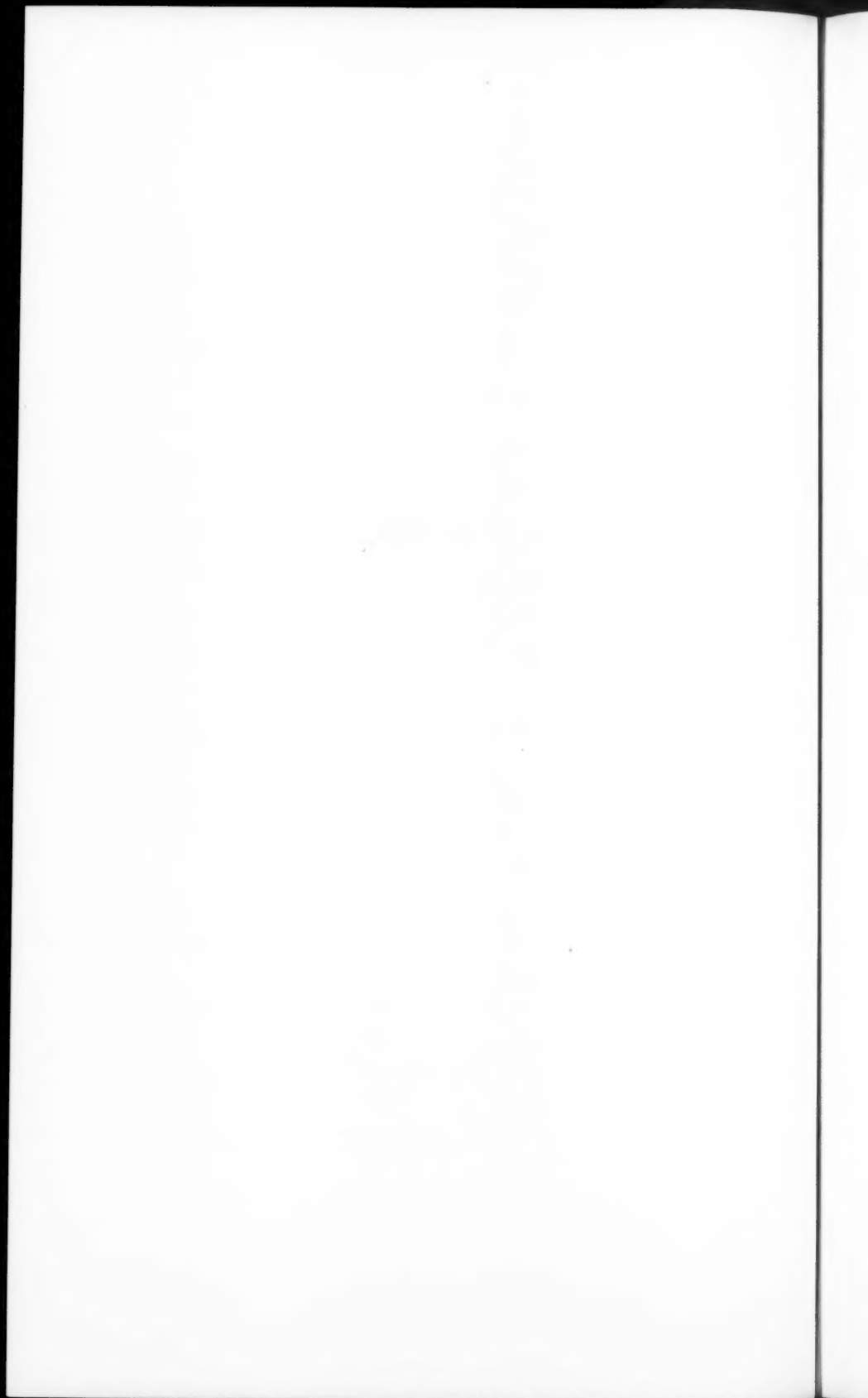
¹The writer acknowledges the help of Mrs. Pearl Robertson, Primary Supervisor in Tyler, Texas, and Dr. G. O. Clough, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas.

EVER since the first school mastership was created principals have done much to improve instruction. At first the principal's influence on classroom activities was general and largely indirect. Recently, the demand has been for close, direct, and practical supervision.—Elizabeth K. Peeples, Chapter VIII.

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HAVE you consulted the index at the back of this year-book? Perhaps the topic in which you are interested may be found through the index in the 1930 volume.



CHAPTER VIII
TRAINING THE PRINCIPAL THROUGH SUPERVISION

PARTICIPATION IN MAJOR ACTIVITIES
A PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE PLAN
CONFERENCES FOR PROFESSIONAL STUDY
PLANNING THE SUPERVISION
AN APPRENTICESHIP FOR FUTURE PRINCIPALS
THE PRINCIPAL AS AN AUTHOR
GROUP VISITS BY PRINCIPALS
ESTABLISHING SUPERVISORY TECHNIQS
GROUP COOPERATION IN READING SUPERVISION

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER VIII

One of the characteristics often cited for an educated person is the capacity to grow. Similarly a fundamental quality in a principal is the attitude of a learner. He must associate with persons interested in educational problems, engage in research and experimentation, prepare professional articles for publication, and read with discrimination current publications.

For years the national Department has invited principals to contribute to its yearbooks and bulletins. In a real sense the present policies of the Editorial Committee offer "in-service training" opportunities to principals who care to write.

In the *Fifth Yearbook* (1926, p. 333-43) Longshore reported the practices and activities of local principals' clubs. The *Seventh Yearbook* in 1928 summarized on pages 351-66 the programs of local and state principals' associations. Every yearbook since 1923 has contained a list of local and state principals' organizations.

Chapter VIII reports some of the typical means used by principals to improve the level of their supervisory skill. Discussions, conferences, research committees, and group visiting, as well as individual activities, seem to be effective. Other suggestions for improving the principal for and through supervision will be found in the selected references at the end of the chapter.—*Editorial Committee*.

CHAPTER VIII

TRAINING THE PRINCIPAL THROUGH SUPERVISION

PARTICIPATION IN MAJOR ACTIVITIES

F. B. SNAVELY

Principal, School No. 8, Buffalo, New York

GROWTH comes from doing. As principals we may spend our time with the routine school demands. Growth comes from such work in that we become good housekeepers, clerks, or petty administrators. How then can the principal develop along more proper lines? The purpose of this article is to urge principals to avoid the "bag of tricks" in supervision and to go deeply into the intricacies of the learner's environments.

Practices in Buffalo keep the principal free of routine—We are fortunate in Buffalo that certain practices tend to keep the principal free from details. The procedures may be described briefly as follows:

(1) The principal in Buffalo is the head of his school, both theoretically and practically. There is no division of authority in administrative or supervisory functions. If the school head needs help with teaching problems there are competent specialists to whom he can turn for help. The small number of such specialists attached to the central office staff is such that aid can be had only in unusual cases. Each year the superintendent reminds the principals that one-half their time should be spent in classroom supervision which is about all the supervision the teacher can expect.

(2) If the principals had to train a large number of new teachers each year supervision could not possibly be of the highest type. In Buffalo the training of newcomers is cared for by the so-called "center schools" of the school system. Upon entering Buffalo the new teacher is assigned to a center school. Here he is under the direction of an advisory teacher who is responsible for about five appointees. It is the adviser's duty to give the new teacher every possible assistance to grow and perfect himself in the position. The adviser decides when the candidate is ready to be assigned to a regular school. Meanwhile, the new teacher is on the regular salary schedule and the time in the center school is included in the three year probationary period.

Needless to say the center school plan is a wonderful help to principals. The new teacher comes to the school prepared to handle a class independently. He knows the courses of study, the routine of reports, an economical way to plan his lessons, the use of the

blackboard, and the city regulations. The principal now is in position to begin with the fundamental problems and philosophy of teaching. Where should the supervisor begin? What problems or devices in teaching should supervision require? How can the principal keep in sight the really important problems in teaching so as to grow most in his own supervision?

Avoid petty problems—The growth of the principal will depend much on that to which he gives attention. If, for example, he picks out the details of housekeeping to the exclusion of other facts and situations he will no doubt become skilled in the observance of clean floors, neat desks, and properly hung pictures. If he specializes in the details of administration, giving out supplies, passing papers, and the passing of pupils, he will become conscious of these matters.

If he gives attention to the more vital phases of the teacher's work and the learning situation, his growth will follow the same lines. Meanwhile, the details will be largely subordinate as means to an end. Children and teachers both appreciate details when they understand them as essential steps in a necessary process. Growth for the principal and the school comes when all are striving for the complete education of the child not when isolated details of learning are emphasized to a place of pseudo-importance.

We have unwittingly encouraged piecemeal teaching in our attempts to be scientific. The science of education has evolved many definite and psychologically sound technics in teaching. Among these are the technic of study-lesson, and the way to use flash cards. Other well-developed devices will suggest themselves to the reader. The principal is expected not only to know the various devices, but how to apply them. He must be able to recognize them when used in a classroom. He must know the nomenclature of these technics when he talks to the teacher in conference. In placing the emphasis on technics and on the exact analysis of abilities, there lies a very real danger.

How details may blind the principal's supervision—Let us suppose that the principal visits a lesson in arithmetic. In his plans the teacher has indicated his intention of drilling on the higher decade additional facts and then having an improvement-test lesson. The principal finds that the teacher gave ten examples from the basal text in arithmetic the previous week and today the children are to improve the scores they made at that time. The lesson is completed in a satisfactory manner. The routine is excellent. The principal notes that the pupils had errors in 20 percent of the problems. He asks the teacher for a conference.

In the conference the teacher says that her record shows the errors to be only 17 percent. Who is wrong? A period of deep thought and arrested action ensues. The teacher explains that Helen, who

missed every example, had worked on the wrong page. If these ten errors are disregarded the records of the principal and teacher check. The principal suggests dividing the class so that the weaker pupils may receive special help for one or two periods a week.

The conference ends and the teacher leaves with suggestions for meeting a present difficulty. She is willing to follow the principal's suggestions, but she still doesn't understand what it is all about. Anyway the conference is finished and the long breath she draws as she leaves the room sounds suspiciously like a sigh.

If the teacher leaves with an unsatisfactory attitude then little of the big task of teaching has been accomplished. So far as the teacher is concerned the suggestions of the principal are just "new tricks" from the bag which seems to be inexhaustible. The teacher has been given a new technic for a situation which may not occur again. In most cases the teacher has not understood the principal's advice as a part of the complete educational scheme.

What could the principal have done before the above classroom visit? Did he find out whether this was an isolated lesson taught because the special supervisor asked at the beginning of the year for periodic improvement lessons? Surely we should expect the principal to know the teacher's purpose for the lesson. What does arithmetic mean to this teacher? The principal can find out by visiting the classroom and by talking to the teacher about the work. He can discover the educational philosophy of the teacher. What is the teacher trying to teach the children under her care? Is it the course of study? Is it the work of the textbook? Is it simply drill to meet the city examinations? Examinations are necessary to maintain academic standards. Yet too many tests may kill all interest, over-stimulate drill, and emphasize the learning of isolated facts. A wise man said, "Let others write the courses of study and the textbooks. Let me write the examinations and I shall control what is taught in the schools." If the teacher is merely trying to meet arbitrary standards, or if she does not understand why certain skills are taught, who should discover these facts? Undoubtedly, this is a field to challenge the principal's best efforts!

The teacher's philosophy—The teacher needs a sound philosophy of education upon these basic viewpoints on discipline, marks, and the relative importance of subjectmatter. When a teacher is complacent, the content may become formalized and the principal himself may get into a rut. When teachers have an aggressive and curious attitude toward teaching the principal is placed in a learning environment. He has to keep growing in order to keep up with the staff. A teacher with background may ask such questions as these: Why give diagnostic tests? What will you as the supervisor do with the results of the tests? How will these tests help me to teach Mary? How can I help Henry to meet life? When the

teacher asks such questions the principal will have grown quite a bit. He will have made a long stride forward in the building of a progressive position for himself.

During the time the principal is working to attain the above desirable attitude on the part of the teachers he will also consider the personalities of his staff members. The importance of the personality of the teacher is not likely to be overestimated. It is the deciding factor in the choice of most teachers unless they are employed entirely through written examinations. Superintendents consider personality to be of such importance because "weak" personal qualities often lead to teaching failures.

What is personality? Some consider that the word defines the *unchangeable* qualities which differentiate individuals. Others believe that the qualities of personality can be acquired if the teacher devotes a reasonable amount of time to the quest. The facts so far as we see them seem to indicate that personality includes both changeable and unchangeable qualities. We believe also that the unchangeable factors can be modified by intelligent effort. The *Buffalo Teachers' Hand Book* gives a page to the subject and advises the teacher to develop the best and finest in her personality. She is advised that her habits are the criterion of good form in the minds of her pupils: that fitness of dress and care of the details of the toilet are essential to a pleasing personality. She is advised further to be:

1. Just, patient, and courteous.
2. Helpful and loyal to your associates.
3. In character what you want your pupils to be.
4. A neat school housekeeper.
5. Enthusiastic.
6. Physically fit. (Take time to play.)
7. Mentally alert. (Take time to read good books.)
8. Proud of your profession and your position in it.

Example is more powerful than precept—The above seems to be a fairly comprehensive definition and listing of the important personal qualities. How are we to make sure these qualities radiate from the teachers on our staffs? The problem calls for hard work and common sense. The subject is so delicate that the principal is in danger of hurting the feelings of his associates and doing more harm than good. Certainly whatever the principal does along the line of the teacher's personalities must be closely associated with the teaching act. It is absurd to pursue many social qualities found on typical rating scales because they intrude in a non-teaching field.

The faculty meeting is not a good place in which to discuss personal qualities. In most meetings the suggestions that affect our neighbors are received with acclaim while those that apply to us

are disregarded or considered as annoying personalities. Often the people who could profit most by a suggestion offered at a general meeting are the ones who give least heed to what is said. The most effective work will be done by meeting the individual members by appointment, casually about the building, or in the classrooms. Teachers are usually much more responsive where they have the support of familiar surroundings; where they meet you on the "home field" one might say. Certain phases of personality could easily be discussed in a general meeting, but the specific attitudes are not likely to be affected under such conditions.

The most convincing method the principal can select to impress upon his staff that he is sincere would be to consider his own strengths and weaknesses first and seek their correction diligently. Example is surely a powerful teacher. The truism that "as the principal so is the school" vividly describes the power of example. The teachers and the pupils catch the true spirit of the principal in an uncanny way. If the principal wishes to succeed in such work as personality development he must be willing to judge himself by the standards which he sets for others.

Summary—We grow by doing. The principal grows in a supervisory way by working with the fundamentals of the teaching process. But this process is not a jumble of isolated items to be measured, twisted, and turned according to the exigencies of the moment. Education is a longtime process with an essential characteristic of unity. The principal and the teacher will recognize this unity, and will thereby participate in worthwhile activities. Only in this manner can proper growth be attained.

THE PRINCIPAL must be a leader in this work in his own school, and he, through his knowledge of and enthusiasm for the work, must stimulate the work of his teachers and pupils. Every schoolroom should become an experimental laboratory where the teacher is striving to find her own weaknesses and the pupil difficulties, thereby improving instruction.—F. M. Mathis, Chapter VII.

A PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE PLAN¹

DOUGLAS B. MILLER

Principal, Maxwell Park School, Oakland, California

OAKLAND has committed itself to two definite policies of supervision. First, the status of the supervisors has been radically changed. In former years the supervisor was responsible to the superintendents for instruction and had the authority to rate teachers. Now, the supervisor is the expert adviser. He visits schools only upon the request of the principal and because the teachers need specific help and expert advice. The above shift of emphasis has completely changed the attitude of teachers from fear of the supervisor as such to that of regarding his visit as an inspirational and helpful experience. The teacher now receives the technical advice in a spirit of wholehearted interest.

Second, Oakland has placed supervision on the shoulders of each principal as the duty of first importance. Each principal is fully responsible for his school. While this viewpoint is not a new ideal, it has not been realized often because of the amount of administrative detail incident to the principalship. Oakland frees the principal from much detail and now is educating him to supervise better the instruction in his school. The Principals' Conference Plan is the medium through which this educating process is taking place.

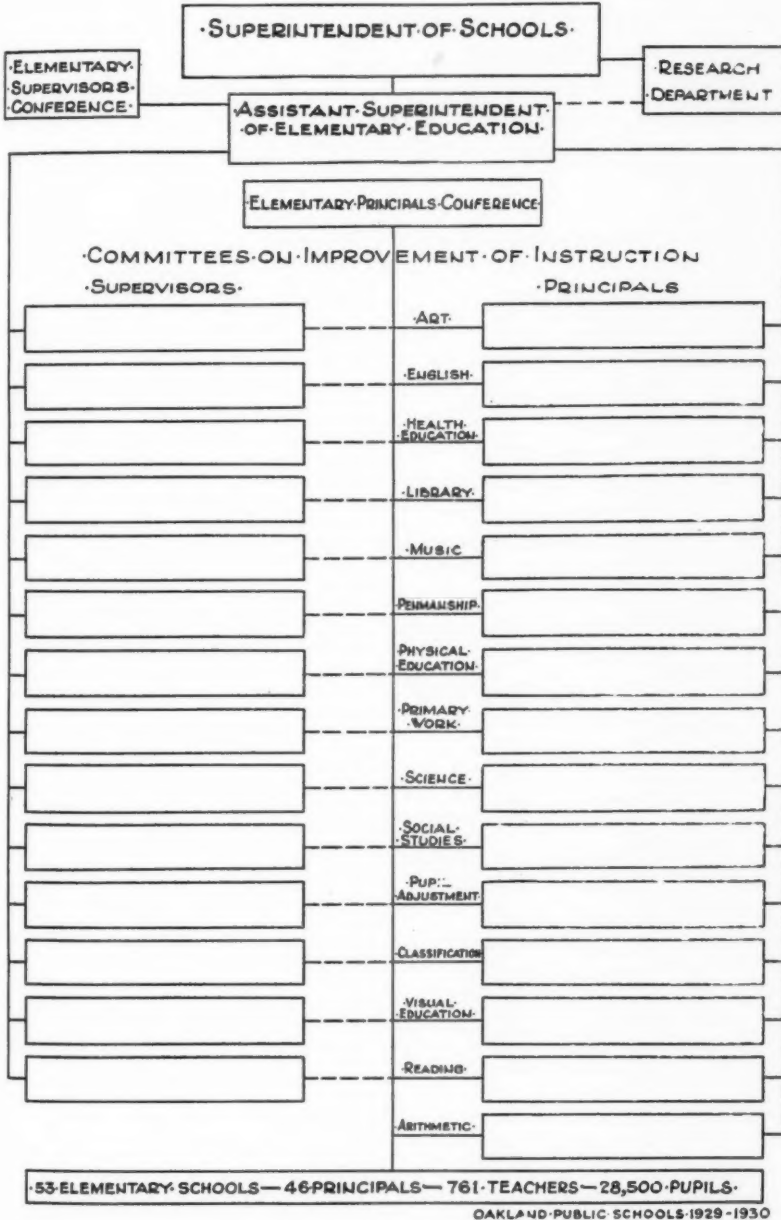
The organization of the principal's conference—Stated in the words of a recent superintendent's bulletin:

The Elementary Principals' Conference, which is made up of all the elementary principals in the city, with the Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Elementary Education as chairman, meets to transact such administrative business as may be necessary; to pass on the recommendations of its committees concerning the improvement of instruction in the elementary schools; to recommend to the Superintendents' Council policies and programs for the improvement of instruction covering such matters as course of study development, testing programs, textbook selection and supplementary materials; to formulate and recommend to the Superintendents' Council needed changes in the administration of the elementary schools, and to adopt and carry out programs for professional improvement.

A glance at Chart I will aid one in understanding the organization. The forty-six principals are all members of the conference and as such meet for one-half day each month with the assistant superintendent to discuss problems in connection with supervision. The members are further organized into "Committees on Instruction", consisting of three or four principals each, and the supervisor of the subject or function concerned. Each committee is required to study, to make research, to experiment, and to present to the conference such recommendations as will improve instruction in its

¹The writer acknowledges the approval of Assistant Superintendent R. D. Lindquist in the preparation of this article.

CHART 1—PLAN OF ORGANIZATION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS CONFERENCE



particular field. There are fifteen of these committees, embracing the fields of art, English, health, libraries, music, penmanship, physical education, primary work, science, social studies, pupil adjustment, classification, visual education, reading, and arithmetic.

It should be emphasized that in the hands of the supervisors still rests much of the responsibility for initiating needed improvement of content practice and technic. Now the supervisor must convince the committee of principals, of which he is a member that a given improvement is desirable. Usually the committee devises ways and means of placing the program into practice. When procedures have been tried and proved successful, the committee is then in a position to present it to the conference with appropriate recommendations.

Special mention should be made of the expert service which is rendered by the Department of Research and Curriculum Development. Under the guidance of the director, the services of this department are readily available for doing research in any of the fields of instruction. Valuable advice as to proper procedure is thus afforded all committees in their research problems.

One should not infer that any final administrative authority is vested in the above committees. Their functions are strictly advisory in character and cannot pass beyond the point of recommendations. Reports are made at different periods of the year. Projects, results of experiments, procedures, and reports are made by the respective chairmen. The proposals may or may not be used except in the case of procedures approved for general use throughout the city. The latter require a majority vote, which even then becomes only an expression of the opinion of the conference. Final action is always subject to the approval of the superintendent and his council.

It is incumbent upon each committee to create a consciousness on the part of all other principals of the best devices and practices for its special subject. The committee is thrown upon its own resources for finding ways and means of doing this. Aside from the reports and recommendations presented to the conference, some committees arrange demonstrations at schools where principals may observe good work. These demonstrations are followed by periods of discussion led by the chairman. Other committees arrange for extension courses, exhibits, programs, lectures and the publication of bulletins and courses of study. The spirit of emulation has caused friendly professional, and competitive activity to acquaint each other with the best thought in theory and practice.

Advantages of the conference—Many advantages have become apparent in the conference plan:

1. It brings together in a single group all those who have been charged with the responsibility of supervision. Here supervisory

policy may be presented by the superintendent and those who are chiefly concerned have a voice in expressing their practical opinions.

2. It organizes the members in such a way that a small group is charged with the intensive study of only one major field, yet each principal receives the benefit of the best thought of all the others.

3. It provides an excellent safety valve where the causes of friction and inefficiency may be presented before they have had a chance to become rooted.

4. It can truly be said that the competition, enthusiasm, and friendly feeling which has come out of the conference plan has caused a most unusual amount of professional growth, increased efficiency, feeling of cooperation and loyalty, and interest in the whole problem of education.

5. It provides a really democratic plan whereby the principals may initiate recommendations to the superintendent. Problems are presented at the time they arise. This plan acquaints the superintendent with the problems and offers suggestions from the conference as to their solution. At the same time, the tone and character of the group has never been such as to bring any undue pressure to bear in order to force its recommendations.

The Principals' Conference has passed through the period of experiment and now stands as a successful device for the encouragement of the solution of practical supervisory problems. Its development may well be watched by those who would use modern devices that have shown their value.

THE SCHOOL organization of today will probably not be the organization a quarter of a century hence. Changes will be brought about in the future as in the past. The nursery school, the junior college, and the variations in internal practice which are now taking place are all prophetic indications that a new organization must be evolved to properly meet the new demands. Will not these innovations effect marked modifications in the organization for supervision?—Fred Engelhardt, Chapter III.

CONFERENCES FOR PROFESSIONAL STUDY¹

ROBERT B. ABBOTT

Principal, Heaton School,

IRWIN O. ADDICOTT

Principal, Jackson School, Fresno, California

DURING the past year, the elementary principals of Fresno have held bi-weekly professional meetings. These gatherings have been held during school hours and have been carried on by the "group-conference" method.

In building an organization and method of holding these professional principals' meetings, two ideas were used as pivots, and the plans were organized around them. These ideas were: First, that to be of most worth, meetings should be "round-table" discussions rather than lectures or presentation of material either by one of the members, or by an outsider; and second, that it is best to discuss things we are doing rather than abstract ideas or books or educational theories in general. From a discussion of what one member is doing or what several principals are doing comes a better understanding and better appreciation of educational goals, theories and methods than can be achieved by reversing the process.

How the conference was organized—The machinery for carrying out the program can best be described chronologically. At one of the first business meetings of principals of the year a committee was appointed to outline a plan for professional meetings. With the two ideas described as a basis the committee recommended that a chairman be chosen for the meetings and that he be allowed to guide the program of the meetings rather than make a set program beforehand. It was suggested that the theme of the year be "Educating children for responsibility" or at least that we begin with this theme.

The group included the superintendent of schools, the assistant superintendent, and the special supervisors. Since a limited group is necessary for profitable discussion the principals were divided into two groups—the supervising principals and the teaching principals. Of the former there were ten, of the latter six members. The superintendent, assistant superintendent, and supervisors met with the former group. The chairman met with both groups but did not act as chairman of the teaching principal's meeting. The supervising principals met every other Friday morning between eight and ten o'clock; the teaching principals met every other Tuesday afternoon. The division into two groups had an added advantage in that each group faced and discussed slightly different practical problems.

¹The round-table procedure discussed in this article suggests an in-service training procedure for local principals' clubs.—*Editorial Committee.*

The meetings began with descriptions by members of each group of activities that tended to develop in children responsibility and other worthwhile character traits. The first topic, for example, was a presentation by one member of his plan for developing responsibility through the traffic squad. This talk was followed by descriptions and discussions of pupil councils, organization of games, care of corridor traffic, and pupils' lunchroom. Emphasis was placed, not upon the organization and administration point of view, but upon the question: "How can we use and organize these activities so that children may gain the greatest possible education from them?"

As mentioned above, one principal served as chairman at each meeting. It was his business to start and to steer the discussion, but not to talk too much himself. The three general aims of each meeting and the chairman's technic may be summarized as follows:

Aim 1: Participation by all members of the group.

- a. Watch members to see when they are on the point of talking, or disagreeing or agreeing with reservations, and call on them.
- b. Chairman guided the discussion but tried to reserve his opinion. His talking should take the form chiefly of presentation of a topic; summary of it, or bringing the discussion back to or around to a worthwhile topic.
- c. Discussive talkers are curbed by watching for openings to call on someone else.

Aim 2: To make the discussions or topics as worthwhile as possible.

- a. See (b) above.
- b. Chairman need not feel that a topic should be thoroughly covered before being dropped. If the discussion leads to something worthwhile let it come back to the original problem later when this new field has been explored.
- c. Policy of presenting two or three topics near the end of each meeting for the group to decide which should be discussed at the next meeting.
- d. Planning meetings—to the extent of having some members ready to present what they are doing along the line of the topic selected.

Aim 3: To make the meetings of practical value to principals.

- a. Discussion based on practice.
- b. Later reports on what was done by the members after discussion. This takes on the nature of an assignment, or rather serves to give credit to those who do carry out programs suggested in the meetings.
- c. Having principal's administrative devices presented or an "extra" for each meeting. How Mr. A uses his filing cabinet, or how Mrs. B. uses the magazines that come to her building, or some individual idea or plan that one principal is carrying out.

Summary of a typical meeting—As the discussion proceeded at each meeting the chairman took notes which were duplicated for the members. The summary given below shows how the various ideas were brought out in the conference. Needless, to say these sample notes are much more organized and stilted than a typical discussion.

SUMMARY OF DISCUSSION ON HOW TO DEVELOP RESPONSIBILITY
IN THE CLASSROOM

- I. Organizing classroom administration such as passing paper, closing windows, collecting papers, cleaning boards, etc.; so that committees of pupils take charge of them.
 - A. Serves to simplify teaching and learning.
 1. Speeds up classroom work.
 2. Prevents many problems of control.
 3. Develops pupil responsibility.
 - B. Suggested rotation of committees.
 - C. Suggested listing on chart of these committees.
- II. Developing in pupils, responsibility for classroom work.
 - A. Attitude of pupil should be: "this is my program," or "my job," or "my work," not "this is the teacher's program" and "I will do it if she insists."
 - B. Development of a "we" feeling in the classroom—the teacher a member of the group.
 1. Suggestion that teacher and class plan day's or week's program together.
 2. Suggestion that teacher let pupils know something of her plans, where they go next; what they will learn next, e. g. songs to learn; arithmetic processes to be learned.
 3. Utilize interest of children in language lessons by writing an article for the newspaper; in reading, look up plays for program.
- III. Pupil Responsibility for Tool Subjects (suggestions arising during discussion).
 - A. It seems expedient at present to separate tool learning and socializing learning.
 - B. Goal, that of getting pupils to assume responsibility for learning tool subjects. In spelling for example, the goal is not simply to get one hundred percent on today's lesson but to want to spell correctly whenever writing.
 - C. Individualize instruction and learning progress—because we cannot keep pupils together—each has own difference and own rate of speed.
 - D. Test, to discover each pupil's needs, which process he should work on in arithmetic, etc.
 - E. Provide material so organized and self-administrable that pupils may select material that fits their needs.
 - F. Retest often to determine child's progress. (He corrects his own practice material.)
 - G. Classify on social age or chronological age, since the socializing education demands that and tool subject education does not.
 - H. At beginning it is well to divide the day into tool subject and socializing periods, not that it is not necessary eventually. Each child or group plans own time.
 - I. Each teacher is responsible for her own widely varying pupils.
 - J. No opportunity teacher is the ideal.
 - K. The tools learned should be actually used, put to use, in the socializing period, e. g. a California pageant would use oral and written language, spelling, writing, music, art, P. E. (dancing), arithmetic, in a situation on the child's level and full of interest to the child.
 - L. Pupils must check out on fundamentals before graduating.

IV. Questions raised:

- A. Can pupils plan the use of their time in classroom situations?
- B. Can teacher really give pupils responsibility for doing and learning tool subjects, without further motivation than K. above?
- C. Is there not a danger that the teacher will come to place greater emphasis on subject mastery than on child growth, since she must spend so much of her time on preparing material etc. for this side of her job?
- D. Is there not danger of losing the teacher's ability to inspire, to interpret.
- E. Is there value of keeping group discussion and interest in formal lessons?
- F. Is there a place for group instruction?
- G. Should teacher review kind of process child is using, mental process, he is giving them?

Another outcome of the conferences—A result of the discussion on standards in the primary grades was the adoption by the principals of a plan for the development of each child at his own rate, without attaching the stigma of failure to those children who cannot move rapidly. The plan which follows is really a statement of policy rather than a change in requirements.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SUBJECT STANDARDS FOR THE PRIMARY GRADES

Your committee reaffirms the policy of six years of elementary education for every pupil in the city schools. To make this possible of administration, it is necessary to remove some promotion standards that have stood in the way of teachers accepting the idea of giving a child each year all that he can handle and then passing him on regardless of his accomplishments in the tool subjects.

In considering the report of this committee, it should be kept in mind that these standards are recommended, not as fixed rules for all to follow, but as a means for clearing away obstacles. If there are no standards of accomplishment set in reading for the low first grade, then there is no need for a junior first grade, because a child may be promoted to the high first without having accomplished a set number of books. If, however, there is a group that is ready for a reading program immediately the teacher may give these children all the reading they desire and hold them to high standards of accomplishment. Continuing the idea, though note reading in music is not listed in the second grade, a teacher strong in music may teach note reading in that grade. The entire plan is to permit the individual teacher and principal to act upon each case on its individual merits, yet to remove from the teacher the fear that if she permits a child to develop slowly the next teacher will criticize her for not fulfilling the requirements of the course of study.

The following are the recommendations:

Handwriting: No formal requirements for the first grade. If part of the class is ready for seat writing the writing habits should be carefully guarded. If, however, there is no call for seat writing the children should use large board writing with crayolas or chalk. Formal writing to begin in the second grade.

Music: All technical requirements in music to be lifted to the third grade. First two grades to work on tone quality, note singing, music appreciation and so forth.

Spelling: The beginning of formal spelling requirements is shifted to the high second grade.

Arithmetic: Formal arithmetic work, check out on combinations to begin in the third grade. The work in the early grades should be rich in number situations.

Whenever the use of numbers is needed in the first two grades care should be exercised that correct habits of handling are established.

Reading: The program of the first three grades to be as full of reading as it is possible to make it without any unnecessary forcing. The committee does not recommend any particular place for the first measure of reading ability to be given. As a measure entails the expenditure of funds for tests, this matter should be taken up between the individual principal and the superintendent. Reading will thus become the important tool of the first three grades but any barrier to allowing the child to advance three grades in three years is removed.

Results—The most important results of these conferences were intangible yet very real. A changed attitude on the part of many principals, toward the newer trends in education was particularly noticeable. This changed viewpoint was exemplified mainly in a growth in willingness to try new methods. While one perhaps should not say that some “came to scoff and left to praise”, it can be said that some who came to criticize anything new, left with a determination to find out for themselves. As a result of these conferences a number of experiments in organization were started by principals within their schools, as follows:

1. Some principals are working toward a reorganization of their schools to eliminate retardation and cut down acceleration through the grades. Our policy is six years in elementary school for each child. Some principals are trying a modified form of age groupings rather than grade groupings to achieve this policy.
2. School playgrounds have been more widely used than heretofore, because of organized efforts to see that more children participate and that maximum use of play space is achieved. Scheduled games and scheduled use of apparatus has made this possible.
3. Responsible adults have usually learned habits of responsibility in childhood. Developmental activities are just as important, and perhaps more important than tool subjects as a means of educating boys and girls. Discussion of the problem of pupil responsibility and participation in the conduct of the school in our conference has led to many attempts to practice responsibility.
4. The placement of lunchrooms under more direct pupil control in many schools has resulted from discussions regarding this problem. Some schools which had not been furnishing hot lunches to pupils made a start in this direction after these deliberations.
5. Safety of life and limb is always a problem in elementary schools. Discussion of this problem has led to reorganization of pupil safety and traffic squads in many schools.

However, as has already been stated, the most important results of these conferences are intangible but nevertheless vital and real. We consider that the broadened visions and more open-minded attitudes established on the part of many principals are results enough to justify the time and effort expended on our principals' conferences.

Have you read the Preface on page 133?

PLANNING THE SUPERVISION

ELIZABETH K. PEEPLES

Principal, Brightwood School, Washington, D. C.

EVER since the first school mastership was created principals have done much to improve instruction. At first the principal's influence on classroom activities was general and largely indirect. Recently, the demand has been for close, direct, and practical supervision.

Can we supervise without planning?—The demand for a high type of supervision has found many principals ill-prepared. Little does it matter that the executive has behind him long years of teaching experience. Should one impose the prejudices of past experience upon the teachers of the present?

Whether we admit it or not skill in supervision does not necessarily follow upon long years of teaching. We cannot expect to hurry from classroom to classroom, sprinkle bits of ancient tradition, and hurry back to the administrative demands in the office. Such "supervision" had its day. It cannot be inspiring and stimulating to the well-trained teacher of the present.

The basic contention of this article is that principals must "think through" a supervisory program. By what right do we ask teachers to write outlines and plans of lessons, if we fail to prepare *written* supervisory programs? Furthermore, the mere writing out of a plan for improving instruction helps to clarify the principal's thinking. One may not be able to carry out all of the procedures or activities included in the outline, but there will be fewer "waste motions" if the plan has been set down in definite form.

Aims of a supervisory program—There is value to the principal having a definite aim for each year's work. The writer set as the general aim for supervision:

To afford the pupils of Brightwood School the fullest possible educational opportunity.

While the general aim has inspirational value we have adopted a specific aim for each year. These specific aims tend to keep before the teachers the goal which demands particular attention for the year. Of course, this special emphasis does not mean that all phases of the school's teaching procedure will not receive some supervisory attention. Our specific aims for the past five years have been:

1926-27. To familiarize teachers with the psychological principles underlying child activity and child freedom with responsibility.

1927-28. To familiarize ourselves with current thought on the teaching of elementary school subjects as presented by some of the leading journals of education.

1928-29. To familiarize teachers with the plan of integrating subjectmatter into units of work.

1929-30. To aid teachers to make intelligent use of the newly adopted courses in the social studies with subjectmatter organized into units of work. To familiarize teachers with the help available to them through *The Classroom Teacher* and similar reference books. To prepare the teachers of the seventh and eighth grade classes for transfers to the junior high school without loss of morale and efficiency.

1930-31. To aid teachers in carrying on the experimentation with units of work. To keep abreast of current movements in character education. To improve written and oral English in all grades.

The basic procedures in supervision—The aims of the principal's program determines to no small extent the types of supervisory techniques. The reader should note the statement of the aims above in connection with Charts 1 and 2.

Charts 1 and 2 are brief outlines of the basic procedures used by the principal in guiding and influencing instruction. In no sense are these charts complete. Any competent supervising principal ought to be able to suggest additions to the charts. However, the important point for this article is that the laying out of a definite program of supervisory devices is necessary. Also, this planning helps the principal to visualize and to evaluate his work.

CHART 1—OUTLINE OF A FIVE YEAR SUPERVISORY PROGRAM

Year	Teachers' Meetings	Individual Conferences	Class Visits
1926-1927	<i>Subject:</i> Child psychology. <i>Text:</i> <i>Psychology of Childhood</i> by Norsworthy and Whitley. <i>Method:</i> Talks by faculty or principal followed by discussion.	Follow-up of teachers' meetings. Practical applications of child psychology.	<i>Inspection:</i> Special rooms. <i>Follow-up:</i> Topics discussed in teachers' meeting. <i>On call:</i> Various special projects.
1927-1928	<i>Subjects:</i> Reading and arithmetic. <i>References:</i> Current professional magazines. <i>Method:</i> Reports by teachers followed by discussion.	Follow-up of classroom visits.	<i>Scheduled visits:</i> Special attention to reading and arithmetic.
1928-1929	<i>Subject:</i> Integration of subjectmatter. <i>References:</i> <i>The Child-Centered School</i> by Rugg and Shumaker and <i>Making an Elementary School Curriculum</i> by Lincoln School Staff. <i>Method:</i> Reports and discussion.	Follow-up of classroom visits.	Observation of integrations in subjects. Study of the place and contribution of extra-curriculum activities.

Conclusion—We believe that our five year program of supervision has had the following results for the staff of the school:

- (1) Establishment of school control on basis of child activity and responsibility, under guidance of teachers.
- (2) Enthusiastic acceptance by faculty of the activity program based upon units of work.
- (3) Increased knowledge on part of faculty of modern methods of presenting subjectmatter and sources from which such knowledge may be obtained.
- (4) Increased cooperation of classroom and special teachers through collaboration on units of work.

Our procedure and results fall far short of our ideals, but we realize that more progress has been possible under a definitely organized plan of supervision than would have been made without it.

CHART I—(CONTINUED) OUTLINE OF A FIVE YEAR SUPERVISORY PROGRAM

Year	Teachers' Meetings	Individual Conferences	Class Visits
1929-1930	<i>Subjects:</i> How to plan and to carry out units of work in primary reading and English. General elementary methods. <i>Texts:</i> <i>The Classroom Teacher</i> by Hillegas, et al, and <i>Principles of Teaching and Learning</i> by Mossman. <i>Method:</i> Reading of texts, reports and discussion.	Follow-up of general meetings and classroom visits.	Observation of problems and topics discussed in teachers' meeting.
1930-1931	<i>Subjects:</i> How to plan and to carry out units of work. Character education. <i>Texts:</i> (See 1928-29 and 1929-30) Bulletins of the U. S. Office of Education. <i>Method:</i> Committees of teachers in charge of each meeting.	Follow-up of classroom visits.	Observation of character education work. Study of units of work in progress. Observation of oral and written English.

CHART 2—OUTLINE OF A FIVE YEAR SUPERVISORY PROGRAM

Year	Directed Observation	Directed Teaching and Demonstrations	Surveys and Tests
1926-1927		Demonstrations given in reading in the fourth and fifth grades.	
1927-1928	Teachers sent to demonstration school to see lessons in reading and arithmetic.		
1928-1929	Visits to bring out the integration of subjectmatter.	Teachers tried out various units of work under principal's direction.	
1929-1930	Teachers sent to observe lessons in reading, English and social studies.	All teachers tried out units of work in the social studies.	
1930-1931	Visits to other schools to see character education activities and units of work.	Attempts to emphasize character education. Testing of various units of work.	Collection twice each month of the best, average, and poorest papers in English composition.

IN GIVING assistance to teachers in their more difficult problems of teaching procedure, the principal found it necessary to give greater emphasis to the individual conferences. In addition to the already existing practice of granting conferences whenever possible, and holding short informal teacher conferences during recess periods, noon periods, before and after school, the principal set Wednesday afternoon as a regular teacher conference day. This day was chosen because there were no meetings of teachers or principals called by the administrative staff of the central office.—Jay D. Conner, Chapter IV.

AN APPRENTICESHIP FOR FUTURE PRINCIPALS

WALTER F. KARST

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SUPERVISION has in recent years come to be the most important single duty of the elementary school principal. It has been suggested that a supervising principal should spend approximately half of his time in supervisory activities, the remainder of his time to be divided among such duties as administration, teaching, clerical, and miscellaneous duties.¹ This plan indicates the need for good training in supervision on the part of those taking up the duties of an elementary school principal.

The apprenticeship plan—A great number of elementary school principals entering upon their new duties have had experience as teachers. A considerable number have had courses in administration and supervision. A far greater number than those contained in either of the preceding groups have not had any actual experience in administration or supervision.

This article is to be an account of the manner in which a graduate student in education attending the University of Chicago secured experience of that type through serving an apprenticeship to the principal of one of Chicago's larger elementary schools. The opportunity to secure this experience while attending the university was furnished through the cooperation of the superintendent's office of the Chicago school system, the University of Chicago, and the principal of the school in which the apprentice served.

The period of the apprenticeship extended over the months of January and February, 1930. It was brought to an unexpected conclusion when the apprentice accepted a position as principal of a new elementary school in a suburb of Milwaukee.

The apprentice spent every morning and one afternoon of the school week at the school, or at its two branch schools. At the beginning of the apprenticeship it was suggested by the principal that a program be worked out whereby the apprentice might be of help, and at the same time learn as many of the duties of an elementary school principal as possible during the apprenticeship. The program, as it was worked out, provided for the carrying on of the duties of the principal as they would naturally arise during the school year. A number of these responsibilities could be performed by the apprentice. Other duties were learned by observation and by having them described by the principal. A description of the manner in which some of these duties aid in the improvement of instruction is presented in the following paragraphs.

¹National Education Association, Research Division. "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Research Bulletin* 7:289; November, 1929.

Types of instructional supervision—One of the first things which the principal pointed out was that one must have a definite purpose in mind when making supervisory visits. He indicated that supervision may be by grade or by subject, depending upon the problem to be solved. In one situation an investigation of arithmetic throughout the whole school might require the attention of the supervisor. In another situation an adjustment of content between several classes of the same grade level would make the visitation of a particular grade most effective.

Inspection visits with definite points in mind—The item to be observed should be made as specific as possible. For instance, in a lower grade the development of number sense on the part of the pupils could be watched for, while in the upper grades the ability to solve problems might be the item to be observed.

Survey tests as aids to supervision—An opportunity to learn the value of testing and surveying of achievement as a technic in supervision was presented by the drawing to a close of the first semester. The achievement in the fundamentals throughout the grades was tested by the principal and the apprentice.

Spelling was the first subject to be surveyed. Two types of spelling tests were worked out by the apprentice. One type contained the words of the regular spelling list, the other test contained words chosen from the *Ayres Standard List*. These tests were given in the school and its two branches, and in all grades from second through eighth. The medians were found and plotted on graph paper. These were compared to the "norms" on the Ayres scale. The results were to be used as a basis of follow-up and remedial work during the second semester.

The next step in the survey testing was that of testing the arithmetic fundamentals in the school. The medians were determined for each room and the results plotted. In this manner it was possible to compare the rooms in each grade, and to compare each grade with scores made in previous years. The principal also administered a test in arithmetic reasoning in the eighth grade. The test was given to check the results of devoting particular attention to this phase of arithmetic in that grade.

The *Pressey Standard Attainment Tests* were administered in the second and third grades of these schools. The results indicated that these grades were above the standard in all cases.

The *Los Angeles Reading Test* was given in grades four and five of the same schools. The results of this test indicated a problem in reading in these schools. In a 5A grade the *Thorndike-McCall Test in Reading* was administered to verify a low score. The results checked. These test results were sent on with the class to the next grade teacher, so that a division of the class might be made, and

remedial work with the poor readers might be started. In each grade a list was formulated in which the readers above standard were separated from those below the standard. Follow-up tests were also administered in the largest branch school and remedial work suggested.

Checking teacher's service other than teaching—Some valuable aids to supervision were found as the apprenticeship continued. One of these was that of checking upon certain duties assigned to the teachers; for example, the time distribution of the subjects by each teacher and the schedule of classes of each teacher. These reports were to be turned in at the beginning of the new semester. Inspection visits throughout the semester were pointed out to be of value in checking heat and ventilation, neatness of rooms, pupil discipline, class management, and other routine details.

Teachers' meetings as aids to supervision—The possibilities of the teachers' meetings as an aid to supervision were noted by the apprentice. The faculties of the three schools met every other Wednesday immediately after the close of school. The meetings were carefully planned by the principal, an outline having been prepared and a copy placed in the hands of each teacher not later than the day before the meeting.

One type of meeting held during the apprenticeship was that of the reading circle. At this type of meeting recent and outstanding professional books were reported by the teachers. A part of the meeting was taken up by a report of a reading course given at the University of Chicago, and which was attended by one teacher from each elementary school in Chicago. In this manner the results of the latest reading investigations were brought to the elementary school teachers of Chicago.

Another type of meeting was one at which a problem in instruction was taken up and discussed by the faculty. One meeting was held to discuss character education preparatory to placing some emphasis upon it during the coming semester. An outline of types of character education and some suggested methods of procedure had been prepared by the principal before the meeting. A character report card was being worked out, and its use was to be discussed at the meeting.

Administration of visual education material and assemblies as aids to instruction—The organization of the teachers to handle the various types of instruction was found to aid the supervisory program. The visual education program was organized by two room groups, with the eighth grade girls in charge of the slides. Under this plan slides were quickly procurable for visual education purposes. The radio programs were organized by two room groups in the same manner as the visual education program. The assembly programs were organized by class groups. The programs were planned and handled

by a teachers' committee. A program of an instructional nature was held once a week. A music assembly was held once each month.

Demonstration teaching—The demonstration lesson was observed to be an aid to supervision. The apprentice observed the principal give three demonstrations in reading lessons. Teachers desiring or needing help in particular subjects were frequently excused from teaching duties in order to be able to attend demonstrations in a nearby demonstration school.

A project for the improvement of instruction in geography and history—A problem undertaken by the apprentice, and worked out in cooperation with the fourth grade teachers of the school, proved to be of great value to him. The problem undertaken was that of the improvement of instruction in geography in the fourth grade. It was worked out in steps in somewhat the following manner:

1. Classes in fourth grade geography were visited for several days to secure a knowledge of the teachers' methods of teaching.
2. The Chicago course of study for the fourth grade was studied by the apprentice.
3. A study of recent methods of teaching geography was made by the apprentice.
4. A conference of the fourth grade teachers was called. Some of the following points were brought up in discussion:
 - a. The use of the reading results
 - b. The value and use of the textbook
 - c. The question was raised as to whether the problem method might not be tried profitably in the school:

There was a feeling on the part of the teachers that a program of this type was worthwhile, but that certain difficulties presented themselves in the school.

The suggestion was made that, inasmuch as the problem method was worth trying, each one at the conference think of, and jot down, specific suggestions as to the "ways in which the problem method might be introduced into the school."

5. A follow-up meeting was held. The suggestions by the teachers were discussed and later summarized.
6. The teachers made a beginning on the new method.
7. Classes were visited to note the progress made.
8. Plans were made to demonstrate the project to the other teachers.

Conclusion—As before mentioned this apprenticeship was brought to an unexpected close. In going to the first administrative and supervisory position to be held by the apprentice, it is the writer's belief that the training received during the apprenticeship proved of value as follows:

1. It sent the apprentice to his new position with a feeling that he was to carry on work with which he was already familiar.
2. It was possible to begin more quickly upon a supervisory program. The attention of teachers and principal was directed toward several problems, of which the following may serve as examples:
 - a. A study of arithmetic throughout the grades—ways in which it might be coordinated, results improved, and instruction improved.

This problem was suggested by the teachers.

b. The working out of assembly programs for instructional purposes.

c. A study of the ways in which the school library might be correlated to a greater degree with the classroom teaching.

d. A study of the special help period for pupils—length of the period, placement of period, etc.

3. Finally, the apprenticeship impressed upon the mind of the apprentice that a program in supervision must be carefully planned and as carefully carried out. A constructive program cannot be initiated and then forgotten about. The follow-up procedure is an indispensable part of supervision. With these principles in mind, the supervisory problems begun in the spring will be carried through this school year. The results of the program, whether successful or unsuccessful, should then be apparent.

DURING the noon hour, children move about the building as they please. Many of them go to the auditorium and put on entertainments extemporaneously for their own amusement, while others choose the playground. Between classes there is, of course, considerable talking and pupils moving in every direction. There is, however, no disorder. Although this order of things would not please the military eye, we believe that we have succeeded to some degree, in making children responsible for their part in school activities, and that we have shifted from teacher-control to the social-control of the pupils themselves.—Guy A. Durgan, Chapter III.

THE PRINCIPAL AS AN AUTHOR

BUTLER LAUGHLIN

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ONE OF the best ways for a principal to master his work and to get his ideas before his teaching force is to have his plans written down where they may be examined. Often, one can master a supervisory or administrative problem by attempting to put it into print. This process brings the principal in contact with the literature of his field and with the many plans which are used by the staff of his school. A principal who can write enthusiastically about his program will be able to advance faster than one who keeps his ideas to himself and his own faculty.

Curriculum construction—The curriculum is a very important factor in any school system. The principal must be the leader in formulating and compiling the principles on which the curriculum is to be established. He will do well to make a careful study of the principles of curriculum construction and publish these along with the conclusions of his own research. Such published material will help the teachers when they are at work on the curriculum with the principal. This suggestion does not mean that the principal is to write the curriculum for his school, but the teachers have a right to his views on the subject so that they may take advantage of them.

When planning the curriculum it is necessary that someone with a grasp of the whole educational program help determine the solution of such problems. Our curriculum at present has, in most instances, no scientific background. The principals of the elementary schools need to make a careful study of curriculum problems and get ready to solve some of the difficult ones. One principal will never be able to deal with more than a very few of the most difficult situations. However, if each principal would deal with one curriculum problem each year and publish his results there would soon be a wealth of material available.

It is necessary that the work of the college professor be supplemented by publications by the principals of the schools. The principal should not in the last analysis be responsible for all the materials on curriculum which are worked out according to his plan. After a principal has formulated his curriculum principles it is a very good plan to work with one or more of the superintendent's staff in order to further elaborate on the principles laid down. Actual formulation of the content in terms of the basic principles is a project for the teachers and the executives to work out together.

Materials of instruction—The principal must be responsible for getting materials which are to be used in the course of study for his system. It is necessary that the materials of instruction which chil-

dren use in order to have the necessary experiences for development be collected and organized by those in close contact with the children. The principal may not know the fine technic which must be used to teach a lesson in reading or arithmetic, but he is able to see the child as part of the community better than anyone else because he is constantly passing from one grade to another. A teacher committee does not have such contact and a college professor generally has a limited contact with large groups of children. The principal should study the child, the curriculum, and the materials at hand in order to know what to produce.

The weakest point in our school organization of today is the quality of materials used to put over its program. It is true that textbooks have improved much during the past few years, but only a few fields have been really touched by careful research workers. While reading materials in the early elementary grades have been fairly well developed the other grades are not so well provided for. Much work needs to be done with arithmetic materials in the middle grades. What content should be used in grades four, five and six in the field of arithmetic? If one attempts to get well-graded material from the textbooks which are on the market today he will find that the content in most cases is not suited to the type of environment in which he works. It is true that much of the existing material has been gathered by principals in cooperation with other people, but much of it needs to be gone over several times before we make adequate content for the more important social situations.

When collecting materials for a given aim as set up by curriculum makers there must be kept constantly in mind what this material will do for the growing child. What materials are necessary to give a boy of thirteen the experiences which are essential in developing the correct attitude toward taxation? What material must a teacher have in order to give the children of grade three the experiences which they should have when trying to develop a citizenship program? The existing materials which are available in the field of the social sciences for the elementary grades are meager and poorly organized.

In a large city, where the curriculum is worked out for the entire school system, it must be written in more or less general terms. In such cases the principal must interpret the course of study and collect materials which will suit his community. The materials which will work in a colored neighborhood may not work well in a Polish neighborhood. Authors have not come to the point of producing materials which suit a particular school. It is very necessary, therefore, that the principals start to be authors, if for no other purpose than to furnish materials for such children.

The principal of the school must assume responsibility for producing materials of instruction in order to put over the aims and objectives set up in his curriculum. College professors and edi-

Conclusion—Principals do not help one another very much. Each of such a nature that they cannot be solved by any one principal, but by an organized effort, much may be done. works away at his own school and does not publish the results of his work. As a result each must cover the same ground. With a live national principals' organization it is possible to organize so as to stimulate the principal to publish the products of his research. If this were generally done the growth of the principalship would be quite noticeable. It is not necessary that such publications be books of several hundred pages but they could come out as monographs on a certain phase of the subject of supervision. If one examines most of the books on supervision one will have to admit that in most cases the 450 pages given to the books could have well been put into one third of the space. Books of this type are either very thin in quality all the way through or there are three or four good chapters and the remaining pages are put in so as to get a book large enough to sell. Why not save the time of the reader by publishing the best part of the book?

The principal in training does not have available practical material on supervision because of the limited amount published. If more effective materials on supervision were published it would be much easier to train our future supervisors. Did you ever attend a university class in supervision and see the professor hunt around for materials of instruction? The reason is that the people who really have the material for such training courses have not produced the same in print. The time is now ripe for the principalship to assert itself and publish materials which will help its own professional growth.

SCHOOL organization was also studied from the standpoint of its contribution to pupil control. The school cafeteria proved to be a fruitful place for better organization. A plan of pupil "hosts" and "hostesses" worked wonders toward improving the discipline in the cafeteria and transformed this feature of the school into a real training ground for good habits of table etiquette and practical application of the rules of courtesy.—Jay D. Conner, Chapter IV.

GROUP VISITS BY PRINCIPALS

ELEANOR WORCESTER, MARGARET E. McGRATH AND HELEN C. O'NEIL

Elementary School Principals, Spokane, Washington

DURING 1929 several Spokane principals decided to visit schools as a group. It was believed that this plan would have the following results: (1) evaluation of the technics of supervision, (2) training in effective supervisory leadership, (3) training in the proper use of the visiting technic, and (4) discussion of the mutual problems of principals.

The plan—The visiting principals were requested to assemble at eight o'clock at the school visited. A checklist of the grounds was issued to each, with the request that they observe and check, thus making a rapid survey of the premises before the opening of school.

No. 1—CHECKLIST ON PLAYGROUNDS¹

1. Were the grounds clean?
2. Was there evidence of satisfactory janitor service?
3. Were the grounds landscaped?
4. Was there sufficient shrubbery?
5. Were the grounds adequate?
6. Was there directed activity among the pupils?
7. Were the pupils cooperative?
8. Did they enter the building quietly?
9. Did they meet visitors naturally and politely?
10. Did the pupils feel responsible for their conduct on the ground and in the building?

Promptly at eight forty o'clock the group assembled in the office of the principal and were furnished with a type plan for the day's observation. During the observation period each member of the visiting group was requested to use checklist No. 2 freely with the understanding that she would be able to justify her opinion by concrete examples. After each period of observation a conference was held at which the favorable or adverse reports were given and followed at this point by discussion and constructive criticism. Each member of the group was expected to make a written report (No. 3—Rating Record) of the visit, which reports were submitted to the superintendent, who, by his progressive leadership, had encouraged us to make this experiment.

Though written reports were made of every phase of the work, the reports at the after-conferences were given orally so as to allow for freedom of discussion.

¹Taken from a *Workbook for Principals and Supervisors in Elementary Schools* by Robert H. Lane, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles. Now published by Macmillan, New York.

No. 2—BRIEF CHECKLIST FOR OBSERVATION¹

	Yes	No.
1. Were the physical needs of the children cared for?-----		
2. Was the teacher a good manager?-----		
3. Was the discipline formal or socialized?-----		
4. Were the children industrious, happy and in earnest?--		
5. Did the situation provide for life and growth?-----		
6. Did the lesson have a clearly-defined aim?-----		
7. Did the subjectmatter fit the aim?-----		
8. Did pupils know what was expected of them?-----		
9. Was the lesson type suited to the aims and materials?--		
10. Did the pupils assist in planning, organizing and judging values? -----		
11. Did the teacher observe the laws of learning?-----		
12. Did the pupils and teacher reach the goal set with satisfaction? -----		

Procedure noted -----

Commendation -----

Improvable -----

Suggestions -----

No. 3—RATING RECORD

Name ----- School ----- Date -----

1. Knowledge of subject content.-----

2. Plan and presentation of the lesson.-----

3. Attention and response of pupils.-----

4. Attention to individual needs.-----

5. Growth of pupils in subjectmatter.-----

6. Personality and cooperation.-----

General impressions of several lessons—The 1B class in School A was selected for the first visit. This class was in charge of a teacher who created a wonderful atmosphere of cheerful, active, interested

¹From *Workbook for Principals and Supervisors in Elementary Schools* by Robert H. Lane.

group living. Each question and every answer established the impression that every child had something to contribute. The room was an artistic delight with full length pastel curtains, plants, and pictures. It was a delightful primary room with movable equipment, lifesize play-bed, usable book-cases, and practical bulletin boards. Ideal conditions for growth of good citizenship, stronger character, and social courtesies existed and flourished under the wise guidance of this alert teacher. Life conditions were the basis of all seat work, centering around the actual purchase of material, cookie-making and baking apples for a Hallowe'en party that afternoon. Much reading was accomplished in small groups because those who were studying were completely absorbed in purposeful activity. Creative literature was an outstanding feature. At least fifteen original class poems about nature, pets and other interesting topics were printed by the teacher and read as concert work. Altogether it was an exceptional demonstration of a live, highly-trained teacher of 1B group.

A 2B grade next claimed the attention of the group of principals. It was an attractive room in charge of a pleasing, alert teacher. Window decorations not only lent color, but served also as a device to check attendance. Nearly all the furniture had been made by the children. Chairs made of apple boxes, attractively painted and cushioned, were used in recitation. The reading table, with its neatly-piled books and vase of bright flowers, invited when lessons were finished. The pupils carried out their work with much informality, during the study period. The hum of business prevailed. Instructions on what to do were specific. When one thing was finished, something else was provided through several choices. Pupils moved freely about, wrote, read, worked, consulted, and compared while the reading class was completely absorbed in their circle with the teacher. The teacher developed phrases, drilled phonics, and heard her pupils read undisturbed because the rest of the room was provided with much that seemed desirable. A well-prepared, well-taught lesson.

A teacher in a fourth grade gave a very interesting lesson in the development of long division. This development was logical, simple, and clear, and was grasped by all the pupils in this large class, having an unusual range of chronological and mental ages. The teacher, efficient and alive, made the enterprise seem delightful. The methods used in the development follow:

OBSERVATION OF FOURTH GRADE ARITHMETIC, 11:00-11:30

- A. Aim—To teach long division by two numbers as 21, 31, 41, etc.
- B. Apperceptive basis—The children can divide by one figure using the long division method.

- C. Preparation.
 - 1. Work example 4887 divided by 9.
 - 2. Develop need for knowing how to divide by two numbers.
- D. Presentation.
 - Explain use of guide figure.
- E. Steps.
 - 1. Our guide figure is ---.
 - 2. Cover and find quotient.
 - 3. Multiply (think it out).
 - 4. Look at numbers.
 - 5. Subtract.
 - 6. The remainder must be smaller than the divisor.
 - 7. Bring down 1 number.
 - Repeat, using the new dividend.
- F. Emphasize the importance of steps 4 and 6.

A well-planned, logically developed lesson in 7A history was observed by the principals. The class was divided into three groups, the one having the least ability under the direct leadership of the teacher. Basic facts growing out of discussion resolved themselves finally into a plain, clear understanding of what the Monroe Doctrine meant. This particular topic was discussed in relation to similar topics, which had preceded it, thus interpreting new historical ideas in terms of the pupils' previous experiences. Before the close of the class the groups were called together and the background gained under the careful guidance of the teacher was enriched by colorful reports.

OBSERVATION OF HISTORY LESSON IN HIGH SEVENTH GRADE, 9:00-9:45

- A. General Aim—To teach America's policy of democracy.
- B. Specific Aim—To teach the Monroe Doctrine.
- C. Analysis.
 - 1. Old Knowledge—Policy of former presidents in regard to foreign powers.
 - 2. New Knowledge—Policy of United States as set down in Monroe Doctrine.
- D. Sources and references—Halleck, Gordy, Beard and Bagley, and the *World Book*.
- E. Presentation
 - 1. Need for Monroe Doctrine.
 - a. Holy Alliance.
 - (a) Its purpose.
 - (b) Its effect on the New World.
 - 2. Monroe Doctrine.
 - a. Three points of the Monroe Doctrine.
 - (a) Attitude toward European affairs.
 - (b) Extension of European systems.
 - (c) European interference with American Colonies.
 - 3. Consequences of Monroe Doctrine
 - a. Effect upon United States.
 - (a) Venezuelan boundary dispute, Maximilian in Mexico.
 - b. Attitude of Europe as shown in—
 - (a) Spanish American colonies.
 - (b) Russia's and Great Britain's boundary dispute.

An eighth grade reading class proved an interesting observation. The teacher had taken into account differences in understanding, tastes, and interests of the pupils by dividing the lesson into four groups—(1) dramatization, (2) art, (3) characterization, and (4) socialized reading, with different and distinct outlines for each group. Each pupil chose the work in which he was most interested. The pupils of each group seemed absorbed, happy, growing. Work in groups is a natural life situation, and when supervised by an observant and adroit teacher, arouses and quickens appreciation and comprehension. A stimulating worthwhile lesson taught by an interested, far-seeing teacher. The outlines given below illustrate the method of group-assignment.

Group 1—Dramatization

1. Select part of reading for dramatization.
2. Select pupils for parts.
3. Prepare and practice.

Group 2—Art

1. Write five ideas for illustration.
2. Illustrate one idea with the materials provided.

Group 3—Characterization

1. Write character study of two men.
2. Keep in mind these points.
 - a. Helpfulness to others.
 - b. Respect for rights of others.
 - c. Honesty.
 - d. Industry.
 - e. Respect for authority.

Group 4—Socialization

1. Write five questions each.
2. Choose a leader.
3. Ask and discuss questions.

Conclusion—Our experiment convinced the group of principals that our plan of visitation will lead to a fuller appreciation of the very high type of instruction and administration generally practiced. Studying as a unit has opened for us more fully the way for sharing information, for solving specific problems confronting us, for exchange of helpful suggestions. This experience should lead us to a clearer, more perfect technic of supervision. We hope to develop power in evaluating the more progressive methods of teaching in elementary schools.

SEND to the Editorial Committee for information on the preparation of articles for the 1932 yearbook. Address communications to the Department of Elementary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

ESTABLISHING SUPERVISORY TECHNIQS

BESS CAMPBELL

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THE suggestion has been made recently in professional courses and educational literature, that principals should cooperate in developing supervisory procedures. One method of cooperation suggested is the "visiting plan" or directed observation by a small group of principals. In this plan, six or eight principals visit classrooms together, make individual evaluations of the lesson, and then meet for a discussion of their observations.¹

How observations were made—The nine principals in our group assembled at the building as early as possible and spent the time before school looking over the grounds, the building, observing the pupils as they entered, looking over the classrooms, and noting physical conditions, and arrangements. Special attention was paid to the spirit of the building, the principal's attitude toward teachers and children, the teachers' attitude toward the principal, the teachers' attitude toward children, and the children's attitude toward one another and toward school procedure in general.

In every school it was the aim of the principal to show varied activities in different grades, as well as different types of teaching. In one building we might see an assembly program; in another, the assembly might be omitted for an art lesson. Reading, arithmetic, geography, history, physical training and music all came in for their share of observation. In most cases the teachers visited volunteered to help us.

At first, until we had agreed upon points to look for, our class observations were based on questions suggested by Lane² as follows:

1. Were the physical needs of the children cared for?
2. Was the teacher a good manager?
3. Was discipline formal or socialized?
4. Were the children happy, industrious, and in earnest?
5. Did the situation provide for life and growth?
6. Did the lesson have a clearly-defined aim?
7. Did the subjectmatter fit the aim?
8. Did the pupils know what was expected of them?
9. What was the type of lesson?
10. Was the lesson type suited to the aim and material?
11. Did the pupils assist in planning, organizing, and judging values?
12. Did the teacher observe the laws of learning?
13. Did pupils and teacher reach the goal set with satisfaction?

¹Our group acknowledges the fine leadership of Velda C. Bamesberger, Director of Elementary Education, Toledo, Ohio.

²Lane, Robert. "The Principal's Group Visit as an Effective Device in Supervision." *Educational Method*, October, 1929. p. 28.

A second list of "Questions for Evaluating Work," was also used as a check. Some of these questions are:

1. Does the experience satisfy us (as teachers) or is it vital to the pupil?
2. Are the typical enterprises suggested and directed by the pupils?
3. Are the steps in working out a class activity clearly understood by all the pupils?
4. Are pupils developing in ability to find and use materials with a minimum of help?
5. Are the problems pupils are attempting suited to their level of development?
6. Are the activities they are working on closely related to life around them?
Are these activities helping them interpret life?
7. Do pupils take an active part in suggesting how to solve problems? Make things?
8. Are pupils gaining in critical thinking?
9. Do pupils raise questions and offer suggestions voluntarily?
10. Do situations call for independent judgment frequently?
11. Are correct attitudes toward work set up?
12. Are pupils eager to carry work further?
13. Are pupils helpful to each other?
14. Are the pupils developing a wholesome, cooperative attitude?
15. Are pupils making personal gains in independent thinking? Alertness?
Accuracy?
16. Do pupils show evidence of initiative and self-reliance?
17. Are pupils able to apply learning to new situations?
18. Are pupils proud of their work and their room?

As we observed the lesson and thought about the above questions we tried to note points of: (1) general procedure, (2) commendation, (3) criticism, and (4) suggestion. Visits were usually made on Wednesday mornings. Conferences followed a week later on Wednesday afternoons. The discussions were always general and frank, but as impersonal as possible. The next few paragraphs of this article present brief summaries of several typical observations.

A general assembly—All grades were present. The words for the songs were thrown upon the screen. The songs were different from those we usually found on these occasions. The success of a banking project that took in the entire building was the subject for this particular assembly. Papers were read by the pupils explaining the entire procedure of the drive. Results for each classroom were announced. A spirit of happiness and satisfaction which comes only from something well done pervaded the assembly.

The classes assembled in their respective places in the auditorium. Pupils who came after the program commenced remained outside. There was a marked spirit of enjoyment, free, but well-controlled.

An arithmetic period—Here was a class carrying on its work with the idea of doing as much as possible in the time allowed. The work was so organized that each pupil went along at his own gait. Those more successful were busy helping the slower ones. The teacher gave her attention to urgent cases. The class was free, happy, and at ease, while at the same time frowning upon anything not perfectly proper.

What can a principal or supervisor do for such a teacher? He can stay with such a teacher, encourage her to go on, and try to find new fields for her to conquer.

An English lesson—This particular lesson gave us the privilege of starting out with the new venture and then observing the outcome several weeks later. The class was engaged in writing an original play. If the play were successful enough to give in the auditorium at some future date, the proceeds were to be used to buy books for the school library.

Every department in the junior high organization had some part in the enterprise. Scenery was made in the art classes, music was taken care of by the music department, history classes worked up the historical incidents, the science episodes were prepared in the science classes, and the ensemble with its literary features was prepared in the English classes. The beginning was crude and unsatisfactory and a final judgment on teacher or work would have been very unfair.

However, the finished product was given as a dress rehearsal for our group that had seen its meager beginnings. To watch an enterprise develop, grow, and culminate in a successful, satisfactory way is one of the vital phases of supervision. A principal must keep before him not just the present work but the thing it is leading toward. Surely the result of this united effort was one of which principal, teachers and children had every reason to be proud.

Some faults observed—Now the reader may be saying: "Was all the work satisfactory? Is supervision that simple a process?" Not by any means. In no class did we find conditions that could not be remedied or helped. Some were very slight and others more serious. For instance, we visited a third grade reading class. The lesson was skillfully planned, beautifully given and the results were all that could be expected of teacher and children. On the other hand the study group in the same room was doing a type of seat work that was of no value except to keep the pupils busy. Here was a chance to help a fine teacher to correct a decided weakness.

A work period in a first grade claimed our attention for a class period. Children were doing many things, cutting out and making clown suits, painting paper feathers for Indian head dresses, playing store, and building bird houses. Some few children were busy all of the time while others wandered around or stood by during the entire period. What could be the aim of such an activity? There was none apparent. What was accomplished? No results were visible. This teacher must be made to see that activity if worthwhile should grow out of classroom situations and should lead on to further interests.

We found teachers using poor English, the blackboards contained misspelled words and sentences grammatically incorrect. There were

children who did not know what to do because of indefinite assignments.

Summary and outcome of visits. Out of the conference periods of the group grew common problems which need to be solved. The most vital of these are:

1. Seating arrangement for primary grades.
2. Equipment for primary and intermediate grades.
3. Suggestions for filing reports and other valuable classroom materials.
4. Proper seatwork for primary grades.
5. The establishing and building-up of a worthwhile library for an elementary school.

The group divided itself into three committees for the study of these problems and out of the study grew comprehensive reports. All classes visited were carefully and thoroughly discussed in the conference period. Criticisms, both constructive and destructive, were frankly given and suggestions for remedies or help where needed were kindly offered.

Our group visited about fifty classes in nine different schools. At the end of that time, though we differed on details, there was agreement that the principal's supervisory program had to be specifically directed, definitely organized, scientifically checked, and democratically managed.

IF OUTLAYS for materials and salaries were adequately allocated one would find in many school systems a surprisingly high expenditure and unit cost for clerical service and a relatively low unit cost for supervision. Those who are interested in the improvement of instruction will accomplish much when they are in a position to define functions and allocate activities and through such an analysis point out the actual cost of the services which are being rendered by supervisors, and the extravagant unit cost of clerical services when paid at a rate corresponding to salaries of staff members.—Fred Engelhardt, Chapter III.

GROUP COOPERATION IN READING SUPERVISION

HAROLD C. TALLMAN

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A GROUP of nine Portland elementary principals had met weekly for several years for the purpose of studying various educational problems.¹ They came to the conclusion that if many of the existing instructional problems were to be solved, the subject of reading should be investigated first.

With this firm conviction in mind, two years ago the study group set about to perfect a logical plan for a reading survey in the nine respective schools in grades four to eight, inclusive.

Basic authorities selected—Bibliographical material was examined. Three books were selected as guides: *The Teaching and Supervision of Reading* by Gist and King, *Group Study Plan* by E. R. McGuire, and *The Improvement of Reading* by Arthur I. Gates.

The pupils in each school of the above grades were given the most recent tests obtainable. In addition to the comprehension and reading rate abilities, the following abilities were considered:

1. Ability to appreciate the meaning of general material.
2. Ability to foresee the conclusion of material partly read.
3. Ability to read and comprehend precise exposition.
4. Ability to pick out details.

After a thorough knowledge of each pupil and his reading ability had been determined, the children were segregated into groups. Each group was made up of children who possessed similar abilities and reading problems. Usually a room was divided into five groups of eight children per group.

The selection of reading materials was based upon the following facts:

1. Graded material
 - a. One grade below each classification
 - b. On the grade of pupil classification
 - c. One grade in advance of pupil classification
2. The material contained an abundance of:
 - a. Narration
 - b. Poetry
 - c. Exposition
 - d. Geography
 - e. Plant life
 - f. Social life
 - g. Literature

¹The following Portland principals formed the cooperating group: Chairman, W. A. Dickson, H. W. Ager, N. A. Baker, H. B. Blough, H. B. Dorman, Jesse McCord, C. E. Perry, and Harold C. Tallman.

Sets of eight readers of a kind were obtained. Generally there were about six or seven sets in each room to accommodate the five groups. With a few exceptions the reading type reader was used. Pupil leaders were selected from within the mediocre and upper groups. The slower groups were led by pupil leaders from the more advanced classes.

Comprehension must precede oral reading—The major objective which each teacher had in mind was to bring about rapid thought-getting from the printed page. It was assumed that silent reading must precede oral reading. Oral reading is not successful until after comprehension is highly developed, because a child must give his entire attention during oral reading to getting the thought over to his audience.

The intermediate objectives in the accomplishment of the major objective were to:

1. Create a desire to read.
2. Develop an appreciation of good literature.
3. Develop necessary skills to enable the child efficiently to use reading as a means to satisfy his desires for pleasure reading, informational reading and inspiration.

Sometime before each class lesson, the pupil leaders prepared questions under the supervision of the teacher which not only caused the individual pupil to read objectively but also tested comprehension. Much group discussion gave the children an opportunity to use the exact words of the book. This plan contributed a great deal toward better oral expression and vocabulary building.

Children being naturally critical insisted upon exact answers from their group mates. It was not long before a very noticeable improvement in the ability of the children to analyze the contents of a paragraph was brought about. The added interest in the group method of reading gave the necessary impetus to the project to carry it through. Since each pupil of normal intelligence was given an opportunity to be a group leader, many an unassertive child developed confidence and actually came into his own. Group reading proved to be highly social in value as well as very helpful to the end of analytical reading.

Where the traditional individual reading recitation did well to allow each child to read one paragraph orally during a class period, the group plan allowed each child to read with a definite purpose in mind all of the paragraphs read by the group during a period of forty minutes.

Reorganization of groups based on tests—Simple tests were given at first to test only accuracy of comprehension. Upon the results of the last tests the groups were reorganized from time to time. The pupils were soon checking their own progress and the battle for in-

dividual improvement was on. If any one factor might be pointed out which contributed more to the success of the reading project than any other, it was the new born interest in reading on the part of the children.

Speed follows comprehension—Later in the project, when the ability to comprehend could be handled with ease, the teachers through their pupil leaders injected the factor of speed into the thought-getting process. The reading tests which followed included the item of reading rates. However, comprehension was at all times emphasized as the most important accomplishment in reading.

Group work develops concentration—One unused to the group type of organization upon entering a room might at first have the feeling that there is a lack of organization. There is a distinct breakdown of the traditional "straight jacket" organization. Close observation, however, would reveal the fact that each group is quite unaware of the other, and concentration within the group itself is practically immune from distractions.

It was found after several months of group reading that many pupils advanced from the slowest uncomprehending groups to the most capable group. Their progress, of course, depended very directly upon their intelligence and the breaking up of undesirable reading habits.

Effective supervision possible—The group organization gave opportunity for the teacher to do effective supervisory work in reading. She watched each pupil as he or she read silently in search of the answer to the question which the group leader had asked. In the slower groups, especially, lip readers were found who could read no faster than their vocal manipulation would allow. The teacher would also seat herself in a position where she might watch and count the number of eye fixations to the printed line. The word readers were discovered in this manner.

The teacher removed the individuals one at a time from the group who presented bad reading habits and used special remedial methods with them. It was not long until the problem readers were making a conscious effort to overcome lip reading and word naming (or both).

Care used in selecting material—Throughout the time when group reading was used, the teacher made certain that the material was easy for the group to handle. It was assumed that children would only become confident readers when they were able to handle with considerable ability the material which had been placed in their hands.

In some cases it was found that the pupils of the upper groups could cope with reading material more than a grade in advance of their classification. Often the children of the slower groups were given material two grades below their level before they could handle the material in an unflinching manner.

As inferred before, pupil ability found in the other subjects was directly proportional to their ability to read. In this respect it was somewhat surprising to discover that the children in the higher and lower grades were improperly classified in relation to their grade.

Since it was not within the scope or the discretion of the various principals to re-grade the pupils on the basis of reading ability (because reactive parents would not understand), it was necessary to use much remedial effort with the slower groups. An enriched course in reading was given to the best readers. The mediocre groups were, of course, more nearly on the course of study and simply had to continue making steady progress.

Pupils developed ability to read more—The experiment as a group reading organization was continued for one year for three days each week. In most class situations it was found that comprehension and reading rate were so much improved that the children should have more opportunity for purposeful silent reading. Therefore, the study group of principals began to look for some organization which would provide a greater silent reading opportunity for each child.

The belief was very general that children who began the formal study of United States history in the seventh grade did not have ample background for a thorough appreciation of the history of our country. With this thought in mind the study group of principals decided to select well graded reading material by the grade on particular background historical subjects. Classroom reading libraries were purchased in each of the nine schools. These libraries averaged about fifty copies of graded material bearing on the particular subject which was selected for the reading in the respective grade. During the week three periods out of the five were devoted to silent reading using the classroom libraries. The other two days were spent in various types of reading activities in connection with the basal reader.

The bases for the selection of the reading material for the grades used in the reading background subjects were as follows:

1. Fourth grade—America before the white man
2. Fifth grade—Ancient history—Early Biblical period to the Greek civilization
3. Sixth grade—
 - a. Greek myths and legends
 - b. Stories of the Roman Empire

The broad aim of the reading course in each grade was broken up into unit subjects. A list of these reading units or questions was posted in the room together with the sub-unit reading questions.

The teacher would first encourage a desire on the part of the class members to know more concerning the major unit of the general reading subject. The children, so far as practicable, were then allowed to select their own sub-unit question for their reading work.

The pupils were encouraged to read with the definite purpose of making a specific contribution to the socialized recitation which generally followed each series of reading assignments.

The organization of this silent reading program, using historic material for a future background for the study of United States history, was carried out very much as Mary G. Kelty has outlined it in Chapter VIII of *The Supervision of Elementary Subjects*.¹

The direct advantages for reading growth in the second part of the reading projects presented themselves in the form of:

1. Increased ability to interpret well-graded material accurately.
2. An attitude appropriate to proper reactions to material read.
3. Increased development in the technic necessary in reading from the various phases of the subject.
4. An attempt to read for specific information in the particular subject.
5. An ability to retain information because of the greater contact and familiarity with the material studied.
6. Increased ability to appreciate thoughts well expressed from the point of literary value.

The incidental advantages of this type of unit study became a part of the pupil in the greater use of:

1. Words for vocabulary building.
2. Books as sources of information.
3. Proper methods for care of books.
4. Library facilities.
5. Judgment in determining relative bearings of readings upon the project or study unit.

Group reading was used only long enough to allow the pupils sufficient opportunity to master the mechanics of reading and to enable them to become objective minded. Much graded reading material covering the social science subjects was made accessible for the children as they read to support the various subject assignments.

The history background material was used as source material for composition work in the language class. Cover designs depicting the nature of the compositions were worked out in the art department.

A particular reading assignment in the sixth grade for one semester was the geography of Europe. The culminative objective was a fair, the scene of which was Paris. The fair was staged in the auditorium of the school before the patrons of the sub-school district. Booths were built around the rear of the stage and sides of the auditorium which represented the various European nations. The pupils representing the various delegates to the fair were dressed in the styles of their country; they sang native songs, danced the dances, told of

¹Burton, W. H. (and others) *The Supervision of Elementary School Subjects*. Appleton, 1929. Chapter VIII.

the products and industries peculiar to their country and expressed a spirit of good will toward all of the other nations.

Business men, in particular, were very enthusiastic when they realized that geography in their schools was something more to their children than mere fact memory work.

Oral reading not neglected—As intimated earlier in this article, children must be able to glean the thought from the printed page very easily and readily before they can hope to be successful audience readers. How true the above statement may be, the children in the nine schools, which used the project, were not without considerable opportunity for oral reading. This opportunity was furnished in the home-room two days per week when the basal text was used. The oral expression department and library supplemented with audiences before which the pupils read orally.

Results measured by comparative tests—Objective tests were prepared covering the general subject of the sixth grade reading project, Greek myths and legends, and stories of the Roman Empire.

The tests were given to the sixth grade children of the nine schools. In order that the results of the sixth grade test might be comparable, the same tests were given to the eighth grade pupils in the respective schools. It was not difficult to anticipate the comparative results, since the eighth grade children had never done any intensive reading on the subject used by the sixth grade classes.

The average grade made by the sixth grade classes was 94 percent, while the average grade earned by the eighth grade classes was 72 percent. Whether or not the difference in knowledge, which decidedly favored the sixth grade classes has sufficient merit to offset the possibility that the sixth graders might forget enough in two years to cause them to turn in no better papers than the original eighth grade groups, could not be measured at the time. It is a true statement of fact to say, that the sixth grade children became keenly interested in their project, and their exposure certainly was more concentrated and definitely organized than that received by the present grade children who were sixth graders two years ago.

A gratifying result—The final and most gratifying result was the wholesome attitude on the part of the children toward the subject of reading. This attitude became a habit. Teachers of other departments, where content material was used, began to say things which showed that reading truly is the key and approach tool for every content subject.

It was possible for the nine schools where the emphasized reading work occurred, to raise the standard of accomplishment in every subject which required reading for its proper interpretation.

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Part IV suggests problems and practices for local study groups of principals.

PUPILS are severe critics. If they were free to voice their criticisms and make themselves understood, the teacher, ignorant of her subject or unskilled in its presentation, could not endure. It is evident that the principal can do much before the day school is convened to minimize his supervisory responsibilities and to have his teachers invite supervision. Such an opportunity is open to the principal who assigns teachers in terms of their interests.—E. A. Brown, Chapter III.

CHAPTER IX
EVALUATING THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK
BASIC CRITERIA FOR THE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM
EVALUATING THE PRINCIPAL'S PROGRAM
AN EXPERIMENT IN MEASURING THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK
RATING OF PRINCIPALS IN CHICAGO

INTRODUCTION TO CHAPTER IX

Perhaps there will never be an adequate evaluation of the principal's total contribution to education. Who can place a value on a conference with parents which results in ten years more of schooling for children? Who can measure the new courage and wise guidance given to a teacher by a principal? In a thousand ways the principal guides, inspires, stabilizes, and improves the environment in which children grow.

Yet there is value in a critical examination of the principal's specific procedures. Even though this evaluation is nothing more than self-rating no principal should avoid critical and searching examinations of his work. Only in this way can ineffective, or even destructive practices, be eliminated in favor of progressive movements.

The Department has given some attention before to rating schemes. Burris proposed a self-rating scale in the *Second Yearbook* in 1923. In 1925 in the *Fourth Yearbook* McClure summarized the current methods for rating principals. On pages 412-20 of the *Fifth Yearbook* Willard discussed the efficiency of principals. Chapters 19 and 20 of the *Seventh Yearbook* in 1928 present facts on local and state standards for the principalship.

The problem of evaluating the principal's work is one demanding the attention of local associations. There is a need for experimentation with checklists whereby the following groups can evaluate the principal's work: (1) superintendents, (2) principals, (3) teachers, (4) special supervisors, (5) pupils, and (6) parents. Surely, these groups view each principal's activities from somewhat different angles.

Chapter IX is simply a beginning on a problem which will merit considerable attention in the near future. After reading the contributions in this section readers should turn to the selected references.—*Editorial Committee.*

CHAPTER IX

EVALUATING THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK

BASIC CRITERIA FOR THE SUPERVISORY PROGRAM

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THE principal who carries on a successful, efficient supervisory program possesses certain qualifications. He has those personal and social traits which are necessary to secure the confidence and cooperation of his staff, such qualities as tact, sympathy, initiative, enthusiasm, adaptability, and resourcefulness. The principal who assumes the professional leadership of his school possesses professional scholarship, insight and imagination. He is devoted to the cause of education and has a well-formulated philosophy in harmony with the progressive generally accepted theories of education. He is a source of inspiration to his teachers because he has a comprehensive knowledge and appreciation of progressive theory and practices in his particular field. The successful principal is a student of human affairs, has a well-rounded social philosophy and a thorough knowledge of human psychology. He is not content with the present state of his knowledge and attainments, but has a definite program of self-improvement involving constant study and research.

The effective principal budgets his time—The principal who has the correct attitude toward his work recognizes that his chief responsibility is that of procuring for the children of his school the greatest possible growth. Opportunities for growth are provided through the cooperative efforts of pupils, teachers, special supervisors, the community and the principal himself. The principal who is able to guide and coordinate the activities of these different groups organizes his time and energies according to a definite plan. He sets a goal in terms of the proportion of time he expects to give to supervision, study, administration, community service, and clerical work. Provision is made for delegating as many routine matters as possible to his clerical help, in order that he may have a maximum amount of time to devote to supervision.

The effective principal understands the aim of supervision—The principal who has a sound progressive philosophy of education, in all probability has an equally sound and equally progressive philosophy of supervision. He recognizes that the aim of all supervision as far as pupils are concerned is child growth and the improvement of instruction, and as far as teachers are concerned, is the improvement of teaching. A principal who is able to carry on a professional type of supervision embodying the spirit of service and cooperation will find that this spirit is reflected in the lives of the teachers and pupils.

The effective principal has a well-formulated plan for his supervisory program—To be effective a principal's supervisory program must be carefully and definitely planned in advance. Without a plan of procedure designed to extend over a certain period of time, supervision will be haphazard, vague and meaningless. A planned program indicates that a principal has thought his situation through, analyzed it and selected for attention the weak spots. A carefully prepared plan insures definite organization of professional activity directed toward the achievement of certain objectives. A well-formulated plan includes the following items: (1) a statement of objectives; (2) a clear-cut outline of means, devices and procedures to be utilized in the attainment of the goals; (3) a list of formal and informal checks or tests to be applied to the results of supervision to determine the success or failure of the program.

The objectives of the effective principal's supervisory program are well chosen—The objectives of a judiciously planned program are determined by the principal in cooperation with his staff after a careful study of all significant factors which affect learning conditions as these relate to the pupils, the teachers and the community. The results of survey and diagnostic tests are analyzed to ascertain the status of pupils at each level of development: pupil activities are studied, pupil opinions regarding curriculum material are collected, psychological factors are taken into consideration, and behavior problems are investigated. When the principal has obtained all the available information regarding the progress already made by pupils in the different phases of their school life, and when he has compared the achievement of his pupils with certain standards, then he is able to formulate the objectives for his supervisory program in such a manner that individual differences may be taken into account.

If the principal enlists the cooperation of his teachers in setting up the objectives for his supervisory program, more satisfactory results will be obtained. The successful principal obtains an intimate knowledge of the work and ability of each of his teachers and adjusts his program to the varying personalities and abilities of each member of the group. A survey of the social and economic conditions of the community in which his school is located provides valuable information for the principal who aims to adapt the work in school to the needs of his pupils.

The effective principal is able to provide the means for realizing the objectives of his supervisory program.—When the principal has a carefully worked out set of objectives, the next step is the organization of effective means, devices and procedures to be utilized in the attainment of these goals. The means will necessarily be dependent upon the specific objectives listed, but in carrying through any effective supervisory program it is necessary for the principal to provide for teachers some or all of the following services: (1) supply-

ing and interpreting materials of instruction, (2) assisting teachers in the use and interpretation of tests, (3) diagnosing errors, planning and executing remedial work, (4) assisting teachers in planning and carrying on experiments, (5) providing illustrations of successful teaching procedures, (6) assisting teachers in the improvement of their technics of teaching, (7) acquainting teachers as fully as possible with the results of scientific inquiry, (8) providing teachers with standards for judging their own efficiency, (9) assisting teachers in discovering and dealing with individual differences, (10) assisting teachers in matters of classroom organization, (11) making suggestions for the economical use of time, (12) providing the guidance necessary to contribute to the professional, civic, social and spiritual growth of his staff.

The above types of assistance are not provided for teachers by any one technic. A variety of ways are open to the principal and often one way proves more effective than another. Among the technics which the successful principal employs in carrying through his supervisory program are the following: (1) teachers' meetings, (2) classroom visitation, (3) conferences with individual teachers, (4) demonstration lessons, (5) interclass or school visitation by teachers, (6) supervisory bulletins, and (7) the use of other agencies of the school system. Each of these technics will be discussed briefly in the next paragraph in terms of certain criteria for judging their effective use in the principal's supervisory program.

The effective principal is able to make use of teachers' meetings as means of improving instruction—Teachers' meetings within a school may be meetings of all the teachers, all the teachers of a certain grade, or all the teachers dealing with a given subject. Any type of meeting is profitable in the improvement of teaching only to the extent that the principal or person in charge organizes and conducts the meeting with that definite purpose in view. The efficient principal plans the program for each meeting in cooperation with his teachers, giving careful consideration to the recognized needs of teachers and pupils. During the meeting opportunities for the active participation of all teachers in attendance is provided. There may be free interchange of ideas and viewpoints, but the topics for consideration at any one meeting are limited in number and scope in order to give intensive thought to certain specific problems. General teachers' meetings called for the purpose of disposing of matters of organization and administration such as assignment of teachers to corridor duty, distribution of supplies and preparation of reports of various kinds are reduced to a minimum by the efficient principal for very often these matters may be taken care of by the bulletin board or by written notices.

The effective principal makes use of classroom visitation as a technic for the improvement of instruction—Classroom visitation by the

principal may be on invitation by the teacher, at a scheduled time, or at any time that the principal may wish to "drop into" a room. Visits of any kind will prove effective in the improvement of instruction if the principal's purpose is to help the teacher to diagnose difficulties, to make suggestions, or to demonstrate accepted procedures. The principal should visit in the spirit of service, to guide and encourage, and to offer constructive criticisms, never for the express purpose of criticizing a teacher's work destructively. He should visit teachers to discover whatever strength or skill they possess and seek to lead them on to greater development along these lines.

The principal who is of the greatest assistance to his teachers makes definite preparation for the classroom visit. He discusses with the teacher the type of work to be observed, lists certain points he expects to look for particularly and gathers as much data as possible relating to the pupils, to the instructional materials and to the methods to be used by the teacher during the period of observation. This preparatory step, together with points noted during the lesson, provides a definite basis for discussion during the conference between teacher and principal which should take place soon after the lesson.

The effective principal makes use of conferences with individual teachers—Conferences with individual teachers may take place in such instances as the following: to assist a new teacher in making adjustments to her assignment; in response to a teacher's request for assistance in some new undertaking or problem situation. The helpful principal is always prepared for the individual conference to the extent that he knows the training and experience of his teachers, knows their educational needs, and is thoroughly familiar with the conditions under which each teacher works. Specific preparation for conferences preceding and following classroom visitation has been described above.

The types of problems discussed during individual conferences may include all those already listed under services which the successful principal offers his teachers. The individual conference provides the best possible opportunity for presenting and solving specific problems in detail and for the free interchange of ideas. The effective principal analyzes the problems of classroom instruction in such a manner as to discover both their strength and their weakness, then he is able to give teachers definite assistance in improving their teaching technic. By means of the individual conference, the principal aims to help teachers to develop the power of self-analysis and self-appraisal and to create a desire for self-improvement.

The effective principal uses demonstration teaching to produce teacher growth—The demonstration lesson is one of the most important technics used by a principal who carries through an effective supervisory program. By this technic teachers may be given concrete illustrations of procedures, devices, methods of classroom or-

ganization or other problems with which they need help. Demonstration lessons by superior teachers also convey the standards of good teaching desired by the principal. Demonstration lessons will prove more valuable if the teachers observing are provided with a list of important points to look for in the lesson and if the discussion following the lesson is centered about these points.

The effective principal directs teachers' visits—Intervisitation in which teachers visit one another in the same building, in the same school system, or in some other system, is a technic used by the efficient principal in conducting his supervisory program. If a teacher is to derive the greatest amount of benefit from her observation of another teacher, it is necessary for the principal to take certain steps to make this possible. In addition to selecting wisely the teacher who is to be visited and giving her any assistance necessary, the principal must take the following steps for the teacher who is to visit: (1) discuss the type of assistance she needs and will receive from her visit, (2) work out with her a set of definite points to be observed, (3) hold a conference with her following the visit, (4) visit her in the classroom to assist her in putting into practice the points observed.

The effective principal makes use of supervisory bulletins—The successful principal finds many occasions when the distribution of bulletins within his building provides a valuable method of increasing the effectiveness of his supervisory program. The purpose for which the bulletin is prepared determines its type and contents, but at some time throughout each school year the efficient principal issues bulletins for such purposes as the following: (1) to set before each teacher in a concise manner the generally accepted educational philosophy of his group; (2) to present summaries of helpful articles or books dealing with current educational problems; (3) to give descriptions of accepted teaching procedures; (4) to report the results of experiments carried on within his building or in other parts of the school system; and (5) to provide teachers with helpful material preparatory to or following the observation of demonstration lessons.

The effective principal invites the cooperation of different school agencies—The successful principal realizes his own limitations and invites the cooperation and assistance of all available agencies in carrying through his supervisory program. In Detroit, the principal may obtain the assistance of a district principal, a group of special subject supervisors, the psychological clinic, the departments of research, attendance, placement and visual education and the school doctor, dentist and nurse. To insure economy of time and effort on the part of the agency from which assistance is sought, the efficient principal gathers and analyzes all available data pertaining to the problem situation or the project to be undertaken before enlisting the assistance of others.

The effective principal's attitude toward the evaluation of his supervisory program is scientific—The progressive principal recognizes the need for attempting to measure the results of his supervisory program, but it is much easier to set up goals and to make use of devices for attaining these goals than it is to apply objective methods for evaluating the results of supervision. Evidence of the value of supervision may be found in terms of changes in pupil achievement, changes in teaching procedures and changes in learning situations. The technic used most commonly by principals to evaluate the effectiveness of their supervisory program is the measurement of pupil growth by standard achievement tests. However, the successful principal realizes that these tests measure only a small part of the total possible outcomes in learning situations. Such outcomes as attitudes and appreciations cannot as yet be evaluated adequately by objective measures, but are nevertheless important values to be emphasized in any supervisory program.

When a principal's supervisory program provides an opportunity for each teacher and each child in the school to attain the greatest possible growth through the exercise of his talents and abilities under expert professional guidance and encouragement, then may the principal's supervisory program be said to be progressive.

THE USUAL teacher conference is a few words crammed in at recess time before or after a class visit by a principal or supervisor. Both teacher and principal are in a hurry, harassed by the presence of children, and fearful that the bell will ring before they have really started to discuss their problems. Such conferences are naturally ineffective. It is difficult to really deal with the problems of teachers; to get some teachers to sense that they have any problems, in a hurried conference of ten minutes for which neither principal nor teacher are prepared. While frequently less time will be used, at least a half-hour should be set aside for each conference.—Irwin O. Addicott, Chapter IV.

EVALUATING THE PRINCIPAL'S PROGRAM

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THERE is a tendency among laymen to challenge the cost of education. Those responsible for the preparation of school board budgets, and those vested with the power of approving, modifying, and reducing these budgets, are becoming more and more concerned over the costs of what is generally known as "overhead." Parents, taxpayers, as well as municipal and state authorities, recognize the fact that as the school population increases, more teachers are required. To a somewhat less extent, they admit the necessity of providing additional facilities and services made necessary by the constantly broadening curriculum and enriched program.

Much has been said and written to convince school people and parents that supervision is necessary, and that the returns from supervision justify the expense. On the other hand, there is among school people much diversity of opinion as to what constitutes an adequate supervisory program. It is well then for the Department of Elementary School Principals, with characteristic courage and enterprise, to face the problem of evaluating the principal's supervisory program.

What are the principal's major functions?—The chief function of the public school is to provide the best possible instructional and training facilities for children. It follows that the chief purpose of the principal, as an administrator and supervisor, is to obtain the best possible teaching conditions for his faculty, and then to guide his teachers, as individuals and as a group, so as to secure the best instructional program.

It is difficult to distinguish definitely between administrative and supervisory acts. It may even be questioned whether a fine distinction is necessary. Effective administration and supervision should be so coordinated that they may be said to merge, at least in action, along the line of improving the technic of teaching, promoting the growth of teachers in service, and coordinating teaching with the non-school agencies.

For convenience, however, administration in relation to the teaching staff may be considered as including all attempts on the part of the principal to obtain the best possible faculty, and to maintain good school working conditions. Supervision would then include all those acts of the principal along the line of developing the instructional skill of teachers, increasing faculty interest in learning problems, fostering professional enthusiasms, encouraging high standards of preparation, and helping teachers to capitalize their classroom talents.

Such a coordination of the administrative and supervisory work of the principal would probably include:

1. Careful selection of teachers for the position which they are to fill and the work which they are to perform.
2. Careful, helpful, inspiring, encouraging supervision of all teachers, new or experienced.
3. The development of a professional spirit and loyalty on the part of the school faculty, getting them to realize that the situation constitutes a challenge to their highest personal and professional ability.
4. Organization and maintenance of special service agencies, such as psychological examiner, visiting teacher, study coach or remedial teacher, and a wide variety of remedial and corrective services on the part of the school nurse, health counselor, and health education teachers.
5. Use of a wide variety of individual and group tests, special methods of instruction, and various devices for motivating work, such as the problem, project, and contract plans.
6. Adaptations for individual differences, such as ability groups either as separate sections or as groups within a section.
7. Organization of special classes or groups to meet special conditions.

Since the principal must work with and through his faculty, he should share in the responsibility for the selection and assignment of his teachers. They have a right to expect that his supervisory program and other means employed by him for the improvement of the technic of instruction and classroom procedure, will result in the individual and collective advancement of the teachers in personal ability and professional standing. The educational progressiveness and the professional spirit, and solidarity of the faculty are, to some measure, traceable to the professional standing of the principal and his ability as an educational leader.

Evaluating the supervision—If the place which supervision has in the educational program is justified, and the expense entailed warranted, the results should be appreciable and to a more or less extent measurable. The reputation or regard which the school has attained in the community is another measure of the success of the school. For example:

1. If fighting, boisterous and objectionable language have been reduced, and the pupils as a whole are thought of as being courteous, quiet, orderly, with a regard for the rights of others and a respect for public and private property, the principal and his faculty may be encouraged in their work and know that something is being accomplished.
2. If the standard of cleanliness, neatness, and good order of the pupils is commensurate with what should be expected for the type of community, it may be considered that the school's program for promoting cleanliness and good health habits is succeeding.
3. If the children are prompt, and unnecessary absence reduced to a minimum, it is safe to assume that the children are being taught their personal responsibility for promptness and reliability.
4. If a spirit of goodwill and cooperation exists between pupils and teachers as evidenced by a mutual respect and courteousness and a desire on the

part of faculty and students to work together in an effective, harmonious fashion, it is evident that a desirable *esprit de corps* has been developed.

5. If parents, visiting teachers, and others are received in a friendly cordial manner, and have their needs met in a courteous way, it can be judged that training for effective living in our complex social order is receiving due consideration.
6. If it can be shown by standard and other forms of diagnostic or inventory tests that the classes and individuals are measuring well up to what can be expected within their mental range limitations, it is reasonable to assume that the principal has brought together and developed a faculty with adequate training, sound educational standards, and fine professional spirit.
7. If the procedures and policies devised by the principal with the approval of the superintendent are meeting the individual needs of children as evinced by the approval of parents, the satisfaction of the teachers, and the progress of the pupils, it indicates that this phase of supervision through administrative devices is reasonably successful.
8. If the members of the faculty are growing in classroom technic, instructional skill, and the professional feeling, the principal has a right to be happy in the success of that phase of the supervisory program.
9. If, for the most part, the pupils are succeeding in their school work, and after leaving the elementary school the pupils seem to enjoy coming back to visit former teachers or attend programs of the school, both the teachers and principal are justified in thinking that their work has not been in vain.
10. If educational policies, administrative procedures, and supervisory methods of the school are being adopted by others, the faculty has a right to feel encouraged.

Many of the evidences of success just mentioned can be judged by observed results or expressed opinions of parents, visiting teachers, interested laymen, and others. It is somewhat harder to judge of the success of a principal's supervisory program for the improvement of professional growth of the faculty. It is made more difficult because of the fact that the faculty is made up of teachers who have had different types of training and different lengths and quality of experiences. The natural shifting of teachers and their various lengths of stay in any one school are other factors which increase the difficulty of measuring professional growth. A conscientious principal, willing to face facts, can gain some idea as to the success of his supervisory program by asking himself such questions as the following:

1. How many of the faculty have been stimulated and encouraged to improve themselves professionally by systematic professional reading, attendance at conferences, institutes, and conventions?
2. How many have been encouraged to take extension courses, summer courses, and Sabbatical leaves of absence for the purpose of study and travel?
3. How many teachers have secured degrees or advanced certificates as a result of my encouragement and advice?
4. To what extent are my teachers chosen for committee service or asked to give demonstrations at institutes and conventions?
5. To what extent are teachers from other schools and visitors to the system sent to observe the work of the teachers?

6. What contributions have the teachers made to the work of curriculum revisions, and the preparation of courses of study, teaching materials, and classroom devices?
7. When teachers are being selected for promotion to junior high schools, to what extent have my teachers been found worthy of consideration and selection?
8. Have any of my teachers become so outstanding in their classroom techniques as to be selected for demonstration teachers or similar positions of increased responsibility?
9. Have any of my teachers been selected for difficult positions or assignments requiring special ability or strong teaching personality?
10. To what extent has my school furnished members of the supervisory staff of the system?
11. Has the superintendent called upon my school for candidates for promotion to primary supervisors, assistant principalships, and principalships?
12. Do progressive teachers express a desire for assignment to my school, and when promoted are they loath to leave?

The above questions are some which a principal might ask himself in an attempt to evaluate his supervisory program in terms of promoting the professional growth of his teachers. Happy is the principal who can answer a number of these questions in the affirmative. He may know then that the pupils entrusted to his care have had the advantages of superior teachers and teaching, and that he has had some part in this professional development. It would be folly for him to claim all the credit for this professional advancement, as many teachers will progress, succeed, and win promotion regardless of the attitude of the principal. On the other hand, a principal has a just right to a modest claim in the professional success of his faculty; and usually where a principal has succeeded in this phase of his supervisory program, his teachers recognize it and give him and the school due credit.

Relation between the principal and superintendent—The writer has approached the question of evaluating the principal's supervisory program from the viewpoint of the principal, and has endeavored to indicate the principal's responsibility for developing and evaluating his own program. The writer recognizes the fact that a principal's supervisory program as well as his other programs and policies must conform to the policy of the superintendent. In any well-organized educational system certain general policies and attitudes have been developed. Individual principals should not be permitted to go off on tangents, widely divergent from the general policy of the superintendent. In a large system, more numerous and various departments, bureaus, and agencies for the purpose of carrying on the administrative, supervisory and other functions of the system have become not only numerous but complicated. Even in small systems, administrative and supervisory machinery has been set up for the purpose of coordinating the educational program.

The principal in any system, regardless of its size, should be familiar with the functions and procedures of these various central office agencies. He must coordinate his program with theirs. He must know how to secure their cooperation and in this way keep the machinery of his own school, as well as the articulations with other schools and the other central office agencies running smoothly because they are "lubricated with the oil of mutual understanding and goodwill."

The superintendent both directly and through his staff of directors and supervisors has a responsibility to the system and to the community for the success of the supervisory program of the system as a whole and of each individual school. The individual principal must secure for his school the fullest possible advantages from the supervisory agencies of the system. In a certain sense the ability of the principal to coordinate with these various departments and supervisors and thus secure their friendly professional cooperation, is a measure of his success.

Conclusion—It should be stated that the superintendent and his staff of directors should help the principal evaluate his supervisory program. Since all are supervising the teachers within the individual school, it is only natural that they should all be concerned in securing the best possible teachers and teaching facilities for the pupils. A principal's supervisory program, consequently, is not wholly within his own control, and not only for him to evaluate. The supervisory plan is a cooperative program under the immediate direction of the principal, and requires careful coordination between the school and central office. The evaluation of the success of the principal's programs and policies is a joint responsibility of the superintendent and principal.

THE KEYNOTE of the whole program was the establishment of a great degree of confidence between the teacher and the principal. Conferences, often apparently casual conferences, promoted this feeling. The results of the plan prove that the old inspectional type of supervision is a thing of the past. In its place is a new type of helping hand that will bring about a union of forces and a greater spirit of cooperation.—Nettie Bonner, Chapter IV.

AN EXPERIMENT IN MEASURING THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK

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IN 1926 Dr. Charles L. Spain, Deputy Superintendent, appointed a committee of district principals¹ to develop methods for measuring and evaluating the effectiveness of the work of an elementary-school principal. This article reports the activities of the committee and the progress made thus far.

PROCEDURE

Collection of suggestions—At the outset a general meeting of the committee, the other district principals,² and Arthur Dondineau, Supervising Director of Instruction, was held to discuss the problem as a whole. At this meeting the difficulties which lay in the way of measurement of the work of principals were formulated and several suggestions were made as to possible methods of attack. At this time the following classification of the phases of the principals' work was adopted as the basis of discussion: (1) administration; (2) supervision; (3) community leadership; (4) creative effort. At the close of the general meeting the persons present were asked to take one of the four main phases of the principal's work, define it carefully and make such suggestions as to methods of measurement as might occur to them. These plans and proposed methods of measurement supplied the basis from which the committee proceeded with its work.

Planning—The committee at an early meeting agreed upon the following general plan of procedure:

1. To state the problem as the development of a procedure by means of which the work of an elementary-school principal may be described and evaluated.
2. To agree upon the classifications and the meanings of terms to be used.
3. To prepare digests of the relevant material which had appeared in periodical or book form.
4. To try out various forms of measurement and to select the ones which appear to be most appropriate, both for the total work of a principal, and for its major divisions.

¹James Baird, Guy Bates, George Birkam, Nora Egan, Paul T. Rankin, Director of Research, and Florence E. Geer, Chairman.

²Herman Browe, Inez Caswell, Jennie Fleming, Frances S. Hardie, Earl Laing, Rachel McKinney, Roy W. Stevens, John S. Thomas, M. Emmett Weatherby, and James Voorhees.

5. To develop a device for measuring and evaluating primarily the results of the work of the principal and the activities of the principal. The personal characteristics of the principal were to be included only to the extent that they are reflected in his activities and in the results which he secures.

6. To adjust standards as may be necessary to adapt the measuring device better to schools of different size and character.

7. Finally, to select out of all the elements of the scale a limited number, each of which is indicative of (highly correlated with) the total measure of the effectiveness of the principal's work.

Review of previous work—A detailed bibliography of some sixty articles and books bearing upon the problem was developed. Members of the committee read this material and prepared digests which were available for reference by the entire committee. Special attention was paid to keeping a record of all suggestions for methods of measurement which were made directly by the writer of the article or which came from the reader. Finally, all the suggestions for measurement were collected and studied by the committee as a whole.

One question which arose from this study was the degree to which the effectiveness of the principal may be considered to be reflected by the work of his school as a whole. The opinion of the committee was that the principal's effectiveness might be so measured if the measuring scale was sufficiently comprehensive and reliable and if the other important factors, such as ability of children and ability of teachers, were allowed for in some way.

Development of the scale—After consideration of various schemes of ranking and rating and of the use of paper tests and records of observation, the committee decided that the best lead for the present was the development of a scale or score card which would be made up of a number of items under each of the four heads which had been adopted. Each item was to be expressed as a statement of condition, such as:

19. *Organization of Conference.* The principal organizes his supervisory conference around a relatively few important points which are adjusted to meet the greatest needs and also the ability of the teacher, and summarizes satisfactorily the main ideas brought out in the discussion.

The degree of presence or absence of the condition described was judged on a two-step scale of yes or no, a three-step scale of poor, average, or excellent, and a five-step scale which included two additional intermediate steps. After considerable trial the five-step scale was adopted and the directions for judging a principal's work with respect to each item were finally phrased as:

Rate 1, if the condition or characteristic is conspicuously absent, or is of unusually low merit.

Rate 2, if the condition or characteristic is present to a degree less than average, or is of less than average merit.

Rate 3, if the condition or characteristic is present to an average degree, or is of average merit.

Rate 4, if the condition or characteristic is present to a degree greater than average, or is of more than average merit.

Rate 5, if the condition or characteristic is present to a marked degree, or is of unusually high merit.

Various stages in the development of the complete scale and score card were tried out experimentally by the committee under a wide variety of conditions in the schools. The typical procedure was to have the entire committee spend a day in a school observing the work of the principal and recording their estimates of its effectiveness with the aid of the scale as developed at that time. Each individual item of the scale was then discussed in the light of the ratings made by the different members of the committee, and modified where necessary in order to secure better agreement among the observers. By such a process the items of the scale were revised again and again.

The scale as finally arranged provides for subdividing each of the four major heads into a number of items. The work of the principal is to be rated in each item on a five-step scale from one to five, where five means best.

Then the various items were weighted in accordance with the committee's best estimate of their relative importance. Three factors were kept in mind in arriving at the weights which are being used. These are (1) the importance of the item in the educational process; (2) the degree of professional skill required to carry on the activities successfully; and (3) the desire to emphasize the place which the improvement of instruction has in the work of the principal.

The scale in its present form has been tried out by the Detroit district principals. Several modifications in the scale materials have been made as a result of this trial. The scale is now offered as a device to make possible a more just and objective measurement of the work of the principal and also to serve as a guide to the types of abilities which it is expected elementary-school principals will have.

THE PRODUCT

The materials which have been developed include the following: (1) the general directions for using the score card and scale for rating the work of principals of elementary schools; (2) the scale itself; (3) the score card for recording the rating.

In Detroit the scale is used by each district principal to record the ratings of the principals in his district. Further, each principal of an elementary school knows the standards which are expected, because he has the scale materials which concretely define his work.

SCORE CARD FOR RATING EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK

(Do not use without reference to detailed directions)

Date _____ Person rated _____ Person rating _____
 Admin. _____ Super. _____ Com. Lead. _____ Crea. Eff. _____ Total _____

	Rating					Weight	Score
<i>Administration</i>							
	1	2	3	4	5		
1. Physical conditions -----	—	—	—	—	—	x1	—
2. Health and safety -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
3. Educational supplies -----	—	—	—	—	—	x1	—
4. Instructional program -----	—	—	—	—	—	x5	—
5. Knowledge of educational status -----	—	—	—	—	—	x3	—
6. Use of research -----	—	—	—	—	—	x4	—
7. Reports -----	—	—	—	—	—	x1	—
8. Rating of teachers -----	—	—	—	—	—	x1	—
9. Organization of work -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
10. Spirit of building -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
Total for Administration							—
<i>Supervision</i>							
11. Adjustment to instructional needs -----	—	—	—	—	—	x3	—
12. Supervisory assistance -----	—	—	—	—	—	x3	—
13. Guidance in training -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
14. Teachers' meetings -----	—	—	—	—	—	x4	—
15. Spirit of cooperation -----	—	—	—	—	—	x3	—
16. Provision for discussion -----	—	—	—	—	—	x1	—
17. Control over method -----	—	—	—	—	—	x4	—
18. Analysis of lesson -----	—	—	—	—	—	x5	—
19. Organization of conference -----	—	—	—	—	—	x4	—
20. Transfer value -----	—	—	—	—	—	x3	—
21. Presentation of larger issues --	—	—	—	—	—	x5	—
Total for Supervision							—
<i>Community relationship</i>							
22. General attitude -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
23. Publicity -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
24. Child welfare -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
25. Community Service -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
Total for Community Relationship							—
<i>Creative effort</i>							
26. Attitude -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
27. Effort -----	—	—	—	—	—	x2	—
28. Achievement -----	—	—	—	—	—	x5	—
Total for Creative Effort							—
Grand Total -----							—

GENERAL DIRECTIONS FOR USING SCORE CARD AND SCALE FOR RATING PRINCIPAL'S WORK

Rating. Consider each item on the score card. Read the explanation of the item as given in the scale. Rate the person who is being marked by circling the proper number:

1. If the condition or characteristic is conspicuously absent, or is of unusually low merit.
2. If the condition or characteristic is present to a degree less than average, or is of less than average merit.

3. If the condition or characteristic is present to an average degree, or is of average merit.
4. If the condition or characteristic is present to a degree greater than average, or is of more than average merit.
5. If the condition or characteristic is present to a marked degree, or is of unusually high merit.

In a situation in which the principal is not the sole controlling factor, full credit should be given for earnest effort to secure the desired results. Do all writing on score card which accompanies these directions.

In the case of item 15 through 21, it should be stated that, whenever possible, the conference between teacher and principal should follow the lesson immediately or with but one period intervening;

Weighting. Since the items which make up the scale are of varying importance from the point of view both of the professional skill required and of their significance in the educational process, it is necessary to multiply the rating on each item by a figure which expresses that item's relative importance in the total work of the principal. Therefore, after all the rating is completed, multiply the numerical rating on each item by the weight as indicated on the score card and record in the space provided under weighted score. For example, if a person's rating on item 15 were "2", the rater would multiply the rating "2" by the weight "3" and record "6" under weighted score.

After weighting each separate item, the totals of the weighted scores should be obtained separately for the four major divisions of the scale and also for the scale as a whole. The highest possible score on Administration is 110, on Supervision is 185, on Community Relationship is 40, on Creative Effort is 45, and on the scale as a whole is 380.

SCALE FOR RATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK ADMINISTRATION

1. *Physical conditions.* The rooms, halls, and equipment are clean and orderly; the temperature, lighting, and ventilation are satisfactory; the grounds are in good condition and are reserved for the purposes for which they were intended.

2. *Health and safety.* The teachers are acquainted with Board of Health regulations and are alert to pupils' physical conditions; reasonable protection is afforded pupils at dangerous traffic situations; pupils generally display a working knowledge of health and safety.

3. *Educational supplies.* Books and supplies are in the hands of the teachers in sufficient quantity; they are stored and handled systematically.

4. *Instructional program.* Through group and individual conferences the principal furnishes educational leadership to his teachers and adequate opportunities for the explanation and discussion of courses of study, and of other instructional and administrative materials necessary to the educational program.

5. *Knowledge of educational status.* The principal guides teachers in the use of available tests and checks of their own pupils, and keeps data regarding the educational status of each class in the school with reference to the standards.

6. *Use of research.* The principal employs the scientific method in securing objective information regarding the condition of his school, in evaluating existing means of achieving its educational objectives, in developing policies and procedures, and in appraising results.

7. *Reports.* The principal makes systematic provision for the accurate collection of significant information about conditions in the school, and for its prompt transmission to the central offices. This includes both routine reports and special communications of various types.

8. *Rating of teachers.* The principal rates his teachers accurately and impartially.

9. *Organization of work.* The principal reserves for himself the formulation of the general policies of the school, and trains the assistant principal, whose entire time is not spent in teaching, in all phases of administrative and supervisory activities. As far as seems advisable, the principal delegates some responsibilities to other members of his staff.

10. *Spirit of building.* As a result of the principal's administrative and supervisory program, a good professional and social spirit prevails in the building.

SUPERVISION

11. *Adjustment to instructional needs.* The principal provides for adapting the general courses of study and standard methods to individual and group needs, as found in the locality of the particular schools, with respect to intelligence, achievement, language, control, home conditions, character traits, and physical traits.

12. *Supervisory assistance.* The principal employs outside supervisory assistance only in the solution of supervisory problems which he has not been able to solve, and for appraisal purposes.

13. *Guidance in training.* The principal studies his teachers and brings to their attention the opportunities for training which seem suited to their individual needs, and encourages them to continuous efforts along the line of further training when circumstances seem to make such efforts advisable.

14. *Teachers' meetings.* The principal exhibits educational leadership through frequent group and general meetings of teachers which are called for the purpose of considering routine matters or matters of special importance to teachers, and for the improvement of instruction through constructive discussion of methods, subjectmatter and correlations.

15-21. *Conferences:* upon the basis of observed lessons. The principal holds frequent group and individual conferences for the purpose of improving instruction. The conference is to be judged on the basis of items 15-21.

15. *Spirit of cooperation.* There is a spirit of cooperation between the teachers and the principal.

16. *Provision for discussion.* Suitable opportunities for the teacher to participate in the discussion are offered.

17. *Control over method.* The principal exhibits an intelligent understanding of approved methods and materials.

18. *Analysis of lesson.* The principal analyzes the lesson in the light of approved educational principles and methods. If needed, suitable remedial measures are discussed.

19. *Organization of conference.* The principal organizes his supervisory conference around a relatively few important points which are adjusted to meet the greatest needs and also the ability of the teacher, and summarizes satisfactorily the main ideas brought out in the discussion.

20. *Transfer value.* The points selected for discussion are tied up, when necessary, with the regular teaching program, and if possible with other teaching situations.

21. *Presentation of larger issues.* The principal challenges the resourcefulness of the superior teacher, who has mastered the approved methods, by the skillful presentation of one of the larger issues in modern education.

COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIP

22. *General attitude.* There is a spirit of cooperation between the school and the community.

23. *Publicity.* The principal is active himself and enlists the cooperation of his teachers in keeping the community informed through frequent contacts and through factual presentations of information as to the policies of the Board of Education and the activities and objectives of his school.

24. *Child welfare.* Principal analyzes his community to acquaint himself with all conditions which affect the well-being of the children and, in cooperation with the proper agencies, acts when advisable to improve conditions which affect the welfare of the children.

25. *Community service.* The school, and particularly the principal's office, serves as a source of advice and assistance to individuals in the community, whenever practicable, especially on problems of children's welfare.

CREATIVE EFFORT

26. *Attitude.* Principal recognizes that progress in education and child welfare is brought about chiefly by the creative efforts of those in the field and he stimulates and encourages his staff to such efforts. Progress in education may occur in any of the following fields,—administration, supervision, community leadership, research, or advancement of the profession.¹

27. *Effort.* Principal is at the time engaged in activities looking toward a contribution to the progress of some phase of education. (Merit here is to be judged chiefly on the degree to which his activity observes the principles of the scientific method.)

28. *Achievement.* Principal has made a significant contribution to the progress of some phase of education.

EVALUATION OF THE SCALE

The general reaction in the city to any such instrument as the one which has been described here is difficult to secure or to state. The scale and the accompanying materials, however, have certainly been of greater value than was the general teacher rating scale formerly used for the rating of principals also.

In the opinion of many principals and district principals the chief values have been somewhat as follows:

1. The scale defines the duties of the elementary principal concretely and comprehensively. Its use has resulted in a greater degree of clarity on the part of principals in the understanding of the work to be done.

2. The scale emphasizes the work of the principal in the improvement of instruction in his school. This shift in emphasis is in accord with the trends generally throughout the country.

3. The scale provides a reasonably objective measurement of the principal's success which is helpful to the superintendent and his administrative staff.

4. The scale is organized in such a fashion that it makes it possible for individual principals to judge more accurately their own work and to take steps to improve their work in those phases where they deem it to be necessary.

¹Advancement of the profession is interpreted to mean all activities which have for their purpose making teachers more professionally-minded, more closely linked together, and more respected.

RATING OF PRINCIPALS IN CHICAGO

CLARENCE A. LENTZ

Principal, Abraham Lincoln School, Chicago, Illinois

IN THE public schools of Chicago the responsibility for training teachers in the classroom and for directing and encouraging them toward the improvement of teaching methods, is placed in the superintendent of schools, six assistant superintendents, fifteen district superintendents, the principals and special supervisors. Each group influences, directly or indirectly, the learning situation in the classrooms and the standards of teacher and pupil achievement in the schools.

Rating by district superintendents—It is not the policy of the superintendent and assistants to prescribe for the district superintendents, the methods to be used in supervision. The methods used are determined by the experience and training of the supervisory officers and the interests of the teachers and principals in the various problems of education. However, the district superintendent is required to rate the efficiency of the principal, and the principals are required to rate the teachers.

The rating scale used by the district superintendent in rating the principal has three general divisions:

A—Administration	20 points
B—Supervision	60 points
C—Leadership	20 points

The character of the rating is subjective and is influenced by impressions gained from the visiting of teachers and individual and group conferences with principals. The practice in visitation is to make at least one short unannounced visit to each teacher in the district during each semester. Some of the district superintendents invite the principals to be present on these classroom visits. Others prefer to make the visits alone. After the observations, the district superintendent and principal often confer in regard to teaching problems in the school. It is the practice of some district superintendents to include the teachers in these conferences. One district superintendent holds conferences with teachers, individually and in small groups. It is during these conferences that the district superintendent gains the impressions which largely determine the efficiency rating of the principal.

One district superintendent reports that he gives numerous objective tests in spelling, arithmetic, reading and the social studies. The use of educational measurements to evaluate pupil and teacher progress, however, is not generally practiced by the district superintendents.

RECORD OF PRINCIPAL'S EFFICIENCY

PRINCIPAL'S NAME -----

SCHOOL -----

FOR SEMESTER ENDING -----

Total years and months this principal has served in the Chicago

Schools -----

(In this column put the sub-ratings for superior, or excellent, or satisfactory, or unsatisfactory, or inefficient. Add these for the total of sub-ratings.)

- A. ADMINISTRATION. Organization of school; successful unifying and rendering efficient the work of teachers; knowledge and use of official recommendations for increasing efficiency; success in placing responsibility; promptness and accuracy in reports; success in using educational equipment; care of buildings and grounds, as repairs, cleanliness; economy in use of equipment; cooperation with corrective agencies; specify other data if desired.

1 to 20 points

- B. SUPERVISION. Evidence of beneficial influence in the methods of teaching; effective instruction secured by the principal; success in using educational equipment; care of buildings and grounds, brought to the ability requisite for promotion to higher grades; success in testing and improving work; efficiency in judging teaching; efficiency in training teachers; efficiency in interesting teachers in educational problems; efficiency in realizing educational aims, efficient interpretation of course of study to teachers; specify other data if desired.

1 to 60 points

- C. LEADERSHIP. Spirit, initiative, and cooperation of teachers; securing in pupils correct standards of citizenship; tact and courtesy in dealing with pupils, parents, and teachers; leadership in community activities; specify other data if desired.

1 to 20 points

TOTAL OF SUB-RATINGS

- D. DEMERITS. Specify notable deficiencies if any, as of personal appearance, dress, health, absence, failure to follow what specific suggestions, excessive use of concert recitation, unproductive and wasteful methods, etc.

Number of points subtracted for demerits

FINAL RECORD

96 to 100, Superior; 90 to 95, Excellent; 80 to 89, Satisfactory; 75 to 79, Unsatisfactory; 0 to 74, Inefficient.

Dates and duration of school inspection made by the undersigned:

1.....	6.....
2.....	7.....
3.....	8.....
4.....	9.....
5.....	10.....

Copy has been given the principal.

Signature of Rating Officer.

In a number of districts the interest of principals and teachers is directed to some particular problem related to a method or the teaching of a subject. For example, in one district, the superintendent has arranged a series of demonstration lessons in reading. These demonstrations are given by the teachers in the district. They are attended by small groups of teachers who participate in the group conference which follows the demonstration. It is the opinion of the superintendent and a number of principals, reporting on the project, that the interest in the teaching of reading has been vitalized in a very satisfactory manner. At present there is no objective test data available to show the amount of improvement in each school due to the influence of the demonstration lesson. However, the superintendent is able to make a comparative subjective rating of the principal's effort as indicated by the responses of the teachers.

The educational leadership of the district superintendent is therefore intended to be inspirational in character and the evaluation of the supervision is mainly subjective. The method of supervision is progressive but non-technical; progressive, as it is constantly being improved by the application of the best known methods of teacher training, but non-technical in the sense that little use is being made of scientific educational measurements in evaluating the supervisory program.

Self-study of supervision—The Club's *Third Yearbook*, June, 1928, Part II, is a "Study of the factors that characterize superior teachers." The outcome of this study is a list of traits prominent in "superior" teachers, and the location of several important factors contributing to differences between "superior" and "just satisfactory" teachers. These characteristics have been used by many principals as the basis of rating teachers, and as objectives for teacher training.

The *Fourth Yearbook* of the Chicago Principals' Club, June, 1929, is a study of the use of tests to evaluate educational progress. This report represents the interests of Chicago principals in evaluating their own supervision, but it is more than just a "study" in supervision. It represents the general policy of the club to encourage its members to apply scientific procedures to the solution of educational problems for the improvement of educational practice. Dealing with educational measurements, the *Fourth Yearbook* is designed as a guide to the principal in using to best advantage, available measuring devices. It reports a study of the usefulness of many standardized tests and "homemade" objective tests on the material of the Chicago course of study.

The summaries and tables in the *Third* and *Fourth Yearbooks* of the Chicago Principals' Club constitute the most significant report on evaluation of supervisory methods which Chicago supervisors can claim to have practiced. Because these reports have been published, and more recent studies by Chicago supervisors are not complete,

the writer wishes to refer to these two reports as the best material collected in Chicago on the evaluation of teaching technics and supervisory procedures.

Summary—There is no specific system of supervision prescribed in the Chicago public schools. The educational leadership of the supervisors is intended to be inspirational in character and the evaluation of the supervision is mainly subjective.

The rating scale used by the district superintendents gives 60 points in weight, out of a total of 100 points, to supervision.

The *Third* and *Fourth Yearbooks* of the Chicago Principals' Club published in 1928 and 1929 constitute the most significant report on the evaluation of supervision practiced in the Chicago public schools.

The subcommittee on supervision is working at present on a problem in teacher training. One object of this research is to formulate a method for evaluating the supervision program.

IT IS PRETTY generally agreed by educational theorists that the elementary school is the foundation stone of our American school system. The principal is strategically placed to study and to guide the processes in the "melting pot" of American democracy. These responsibilities force the principals of the country to a professionalized position so as to justify the faith of the citizens. The principalship is becoming more and more important, and the principals themselves by their study and research must devise ways and means of helping each other to improve. The times are crucial; we must read and profit by the handwriting on the wall.—Joseph B. Driggs, Chapter IV.

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Deals with the basic problems in measuring the principal's work.
3. COURTIS, S. A. "Problems in the Appraisal of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15:269-78; April, 1929.
Discusses some of the perplexities in measuring the effects of supervision.
4. GIST, ARTHUR S. *Elementary School Supervision*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926. p. 268-97.
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5. JACOBSEN, EINAR. "The Faculty Helps the Principal." *American School Board Journal* 81:47; October, 1930.
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6. MCCLURE, WORTH. "The Rating of Elementary School Principals in Service." *Fourth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1925. p. 424-46.
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7. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Department of Elementary School Principals. *Seventh Yearbook*, 1928. p. 367-401.
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8. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. "The Evaluation of Supervision." *Fourth Yearbook*, 1931. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. p. 97-107.
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9. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Division of Research. "The Principal at Work on His Problems." *Research Bulletin* 9:93-156; March, 1931.
Parts I and II suggest means and references of self-analysis.
10. WADDELL, CHARLES W. "Some Criteria of Progressiveness for Elementary School Principals." *Elementary School Journal* 28:606-609; April, 1928.
Lists 32 questions by which the principal may judge his work.
11. WRINKLE, W. L. "The Improvement of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 16:641-48; December, 1930.
Gives a rating scale to be used by teachers in evaluating their supervisors.

OFFICIAL INFORMATION

LOCAL PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS

STATE PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATIONS

MEMBERS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

PRINCIPALS

INDEX

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

This section of the *Tenth Yearbook* contains a directory of 198 local organizations in which elementary school principals are active participants. These groups include principals' clubs, schoolmasters' conferences, and administrative associations. One hundred and thirty-one of these local groups are in cities over 100,000 in population, 63 are in cities of 30,000 to 100,000, and four clubs are in cities under 30,000 in size. Clubs in the largest cities average approximately 65 members who pay average dues of about \$2.50 per year. Groups in cities under 100,000 in population average 30 members who pay, on the average, dues amounting to \$.50 per year. The highest annual dues reported were: Chicago Principals' Club, \$40; Portland Principals' Association, \$15; New York Schoolmasters' Club, \$12.50; San Diego Principals' and Supervisors' Club, \$12.00; Newark Public School Principals' Association, \$10; and the Omaha Elementary School Principals' Club, \$10.

The Second Yearbook of the Department reported state principals' associations in Missouri and Texas. The *Eighth Yearbook* (1929) listed 18 groups. This 1931 yearbook reports 28 organizations for elementary school principals.

The *First Yearbook* in 1922 listed the names of 669 members. In 1929 the total membership was reported as about 4300 persons. The list at the end of this section contains approximately 4800 names. It is still true that about one-fifth of the *potential* membership is providing the organized national leadership for the elementary school principalship.—*Editorial Committee.*

LOCAL PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS

Akron, Ohio—Women Principals' Club

President, Harriet M. Jones, Crouse School
Secretary, Dorothea Derrig, Goodrich School

Albany, New York—Schoolmen's Club

President, Giles D. Clark, School No. 20
Secretary, Frederick Frey, Industrial High School

Albany, New York—Women Principals' Club

President, Mary S. Reiten, School No. 15
Secretary, Mary C. Delaney, School No. 8

Atlanta, Georgia—Elementary Principals' N. E. A. Club

President, Rusha Wesley, 995 W. Peachtree N. E.
Secretary, Mrs. R. B. Whitworth, 1233 McLendon Ave., N. E.

Baltimore, Maryland—Principals' Association

President, Mary F. Sultzer, 415 E. Lafayette Ave.
Secretary, Judson Hunt, 3210 N. Calvert St.

Battle Creek, Michigan—Principals' Club

President, Paul Rhemus, Battle Creek High School
Secretary, Doris D. Davis, Fremont School

Bay City, Michigan—Elementary Principals' Club

President, Helen MacGregor, 312 Tremont Ave.
Secretary, Anna T. Reardon, 306 N. Linn

Beaumont, Texas—Administrative Club

President, Effie Piland, Millard School
Secretary, Mrs. Annie Cruse, Millard School

Berkeley, California—Principals' Organization

President, Mrs. Ethel W. Tudbury, Washington School
Secretary, Arthur L. McLean, Thousand Oaks School

Binghamton, New York—Executive Council

President, H. E. Doty, Room 20, High School Building
Secretary, Frances G. Luke, High School Building

Birmingham, Alabama—Elementary Principals' Association

President, H. B. Norton, 501 South 80th St.
Secretary, Edgar Keenon, 1509 29th St.

Birmingham, Alabama—Schoolmasters' Club

President, Raymond D. Hurlbert, 5620 5th Court S.
Secretary, J. R. Gardner, Jr., 209 9th Court W.

Boise, Idaho—Elementary School Principals

President, R. F. Lynch, Lincoln School
Secretary, Coral M. Norton, Central School

Boston, Massachusetts—Elementary Principals' Association

President, Robert S. Atkins, Thomas N. Hart School
Secretary, Francis M. Morrissey, Solomon Lewenberg School

Boston, Massachusetts—Intermediate School Principals' Association

President, William T. Miller, Washington Irving School
Secretary, Hugh J. McElaney, John Winthrop School

Boston, Massachusetts—Principals' Association

President, Maurice J. Lacey, Jamaica Plain High School, Jamaica Plain
Secretary, Helen J. Gormley, Julia Ward Howe School, Roxbury

Bridgeport, Connecticut—Elementary Principals' Club

President, Katherine Fitzpatrick, Maplewood School
Secretary, Mrs. Luella Callahan, Read School

Brooklyn, New York—Principals' Council

President, George W. Patterson, Public School No. 145
Secretary, G. Loster Crabb, Public School No. 26

Buffalo, New York—Elementary Principals' Association

President, William C. Fayette, School No. 62

Secretary, Marie Mockler, School No. 12

Buffalo, New York—Schoolmasters' Association

President, Stewart Ball, 900 Genesee Bldg.

Secretary, Ferd Kamprath, 1500 Elmwood Ave.

Cambridge, Massachusetts—Grammar Masters' Club

President, E. J. Goulart, Kelley School

Secretary, John F. Lynch, Webster School

Camden, New Jersey—Principals' Association

President, Victor M. Heffelfinger, 3318 Mitchell St.

Secretary, E. Margaret Wicand, 6 Merrick Villa, Collingswood

Canton, Ohio—Principals' Club

President, M. E. Gilmore, 1422 25th St., N. W.

Secretary, Linna Roseborough, 615 Bellflower Ave., S. W.

Canton, Ohio—Women Principals' Club

President, Charlotte Da Hinden, 3033 Tuscarawas St., W.

Secretary, Neva Tidrick, 2915 Tuscarawas St., W.

Cedar Rapids, Iowa—Principals' and Supervisors' Club

President, Jemia Strahan, Tyler School

Secretary, Mrs. Elizabeth Dennis, Lincoln School

Charleston, South Carolina—Elementary Principals' Club

President, T. F. Mosimann, Windermere

Secretary, George D. Grice, 29 Pitt St.

Charlotte, North Carolina—Association of Principals and Supervisors

President, Gay Willis, 706 Worthington Ave.

Secretary, None.

Chicago, Illinois—Principals' Club

President, Irvin A. Wilson, 315 Plymouth Court

Secretary, John W. Bell, 315 Plymouth Court

Cicero, Illinois—Public School Principals' Club

President, Hobert Bolerjack, 3104 S. 54th Ave.

Secretary, Clyde Winkler, 2324 49th Ave.

Cincinnati, Ohio—Elementary School Principals' Club

President, H. L. Flessa, Taft School

Secretary, William A. Quirk, Guilford School

Cincinnati, Ohio—Schoolmasters' Club

President, Glenn O. Swing, City Hall, Covington, Ky.

Secretary, L. D. Peaslee, Pleasant Ridge School

Cleveland, Ohio—Elementary School Principals' Club

President, Laura A. Johnston, 2995 Scarborough Rd.

Secretary, Agnes McHugh, 9218 Miles Park Ave.

Colorado Springs, Colorado—Public School Principals' Association

President, O. C. Ecke, 112 E. Espanola St.

Secretary, Laura Ryan, 1828 N. Corona St.

Columbia, South Carolina—Wardlaw Club

President, J. A. Stoddard, Department of Education, University of S. C.

Secretary, E. R. Crow, Columbia High School

Columbus, Ohio—Elementary Principals' Association

President, Edna P. Adel, 25 N. 21st St.

Secretary, Anna Judd, 275 Lenape Dr.

Council Bluffs, Iowa—Elementary School Principals' Club

President, Josephine Clausen, 407 E. Broadway

Secretary, Maude Meyers, 401 Park Ave.

Covington, Kentucky—Schoolmasters' Club

President, James V. Wert, Fifth District School

Secretary, D. B. Hubbard, Sixth District School

- Cranston, Rhode Island—Council of Principals and Supervisors**
President, Russell D. Annas, 234 Smith St., Edgewood
Secretary, Mrs. Pearl W. Russell, 24 Verndale Ave., Providence
- Dallas, Texas—Principals' Club**
President, M. I. Miles, 525 South Willomet
Secretary, Mrs. Amy E. Stuart, 1833 Garrett Ave.
- Danville, Illinois, Cubberley Principals' Club**
President, L. M. Erickson, 202 W. English St.
Secretary, R. G. Seitzinger, 102 S. Crawford
- Danville, Illinois—Vermilion County Elementary Principals' Club**
President, George W. Clements, Armstrong
Secretary, B. H. Spicer, Sidell
- Dayton, Ohio—Principals' and Supervisors' Association**
President, Eva M. DeVanne, 1235 N. Main St.
Secretary, Besse L. Fouts, 115 N. Williams
- Dayton, Ohio—Schoolmasters' Club**
President, W. L. Carmack, 222 Santa Clara Ave.
Secretary, W. E. Reef, 121 Heaton Ave.
- Denver, Colorado—Administrative Women in Education**
President, M. Eugenia Walker, 749 S. Lincoln St.
Secretary, Lydia R. Cornish, Shirley-Savoy Hotel
- Denver, Colorado—Principals' and Directors' Association**
President, Genevieve Simpson, Moore School
Secretary, Helen Gurnlick, 414 14th St.
- Des Moines, Iowa—Principals' and Supervisors' Club**
President, Everett Davis, 1431 43rd St.
Secretary, W. C. Findley, 3504 1st St.
- Detroit, Michigan—Schoolmen's Club**
President, Earl L. Bidell, 153 E. Elizabeth
Secretary, B. S. Frost, 2330 Grand River
- Detroit, Michigan—Women Principals' Club**
President, Sophie C. Bachman, 1534 Putnam Ave.
Secretary, Marion M. Terry, 6781 Taft.
- Dubuque, Iowa—Elementary Principals' Club**
President, Ellen A. Jess, 570 W. 11th St.
Secretary, Augusta M. Frey, 1226 Rhombert Ave.
- Duluth, Minnesota—Principals' Club**
President, Anna B. Nelson, Cobb School
Secretary, Irene Higgins, Chester Park School
- East St. Louis, Illinois—Principals' Association**
President, May E. Young, Froebel School
Secretary, Carl J. Pearce, Jefferson School
- Elizabeth, New Jersey—Principals' Association**
President, Lilian M. Green, John Marshall School No. 20
Secretary, Florence S. Mason, Abraham Lincoln School No. 14
- El Paso, Texas—Elementary School Principals' Association**
President, Mrs. E. R. Payne, 211 W. Rio Grande
Secretary, Lillian Phillips, 514 W. Missouri
- Erie, Pennsylvania—Elementary Principals' and Supervisors' Association**
President, Emma L. Miller, 544 W. 7th St.
Secretary, Lenore Murphy, 142 E. 3rd St.
- Evansville, Indiana—Schoolmen's Club**
President, Carl Harmeyer, 645 Madison Ave.
Secretary, Curtis F. Brown, 1422 Parrett
- Everett, Massachusetts—Principals' Association**
President, Katherine E. Burns, 7 Fairlawn St.
Secretary, Mabel M. Gardner, 46 Forest Ave

Everett, Massachusetts—Schoolmen's Club

President, James E. Mahan, 48 High St.

Secretary, Frederick A. Ashley, 28 Walnut St.

Fall River, Massachusetts—Elementary Principals' Club

President, Julia A. Harrington, 593 Broadway

Secretary, Rosella G. Moran, 56 Madison St.

Flint, Michigan—Principals' Club

President, R. Bechtold, Longfellow School

Secretary, Mrs. Fannie Bradley, Kearsley School

Fort Wayne, Indiana—Principals' Club

President, Mona P. Hale, 1015 Crescent Ave.

Secretary, Bessie Meyers, Riverside School

Fort Worth, Texas—Principals' and Vice Principals' Association

President, N. E. Buster, Wm. James Junior High School

Secretary, Nora Langford, 4706 6th Ave.

Fresno, California—Elementary Principals' Association

President, Irwin O. Addicott, Jackson School

Secretary, Grace Fuller, Emerson School

Gary, Indiana—Administrative Women

President, Ethel Estabrook, West Pulaski School

Secretary, Grace Stafford, Board of Education

Gary, Indiana—Principals' Association

President, Charles D. Lutz, Horace Mann School

Secretary, Mrs. Elva Ruston, Horace Mann School

Grand Rapids, Michigan—High School Principals' Club

President, George B. Frazier, Jr., Davis Technical School

Secretary, Frank L. Janes, Harrison Park School

Grand Rapids, Michigan—Principals' Exchange Club

President, Mrs. Mina P. Drew, 341 Lafayette Ave., S. E.

Secretary, Marguerite Knooihuizen, 322 Washington St., S. E.

Grand Rapids, Michigan—Schoolmen's Club

President, M. Schillinger, South High School

Secretary, B. J. Benkema, South High School

Hartford, Connecticut—Principals' Club

President, Annie Fisher, Henry Barnard School

Secretary, William C. Holden, Weaver High School

Haverhill, Massachusetts—Principals' Club

President, Florence I. Browne, 173 Kenoza Ave.

Secretary, Abbie C. Grover, 364 Main St.

Hazleton, Pennsylvania—City School's Principals' Club

President, W. A. Herr, 536 W. Maple St.

Secretary, D. J. Lewis, West Green St.

Holyoke, Massachusetts—Women Principals' Club

President, Anna F. Sheehan, 226 Pearl St., Springfield.

Secretary, Mary L. Bowler, 1083 Hampden St.

Houston, Texas—Principals' Association

President, R. C. Roebuck, 6710 Avenue H

Secretary, C. E. Godbey, 221 W. 19th

Hutchinson, Kansas—Principals' Club

President, Jane Hudson, 334 E. Sherman

Secretary, Lulu Beam Ricketts, 1926 North Ash

Indianapolis, Indiana—Council of Administrative Women in Education

President, Frieda Herbst, 966 N. Bellevue Pl.

Secretary, Mildred Weld, 1508 N. Alabama St.

Jackson, Michigan—Elementary Principals' Club

President, Elizabeth Julia Perrot, 417 W. Michigan Ave.

Secretary, Frances Cortright, 321 W. Washington Ave.

- Jersey City, New Jersey—Male Principals' Association**
President, H. M. Normandeau, Public School No. 6
Secretary, J. I. Henshaw, 2 Harrison Ave.
- Jersey City, New Jersey—Women Principals' Association**
President, Aline Gerow, 555 Bramhall Ave.
Secretary, Lillian Seay, 275½ St. Paul Ave.
- Johnston, Pennsylvania—Schoolmen's Club**
President, H. S. Weller, Union Street School
Secretary, Hugh Liggett, High School
- Kalamazoo, Michigan—Elementary Principals' Club**
President, George Walkotten, Roosevelt School
Secretary, Kate Schrier, Hillcrest School
- Kansas City, Kansas—Elementary School Principals' Club**
President, Minnie Martin, 1120 Haskell
Secretary, Lucy Jones, 633 Washington
- Kansas City, Missouri—Council of Administrative Women**
President, Helen McMillan, 712 E. 33rd St.
Secretary, Clara Falke, 806 E. 41st St.
- Kansas City, Missouri—Elementary School Principals' Association**
President, H. E. Robinson, Yeager School
Secretary Lida E. Harvey Van Horn School
- Kansas City, Missouri—Schoolmasters' Club**
President, J. W. Young, Central Junior High School
Secretary, J. K. West, Milton Moore School
- Knoxville, Tennessee—Supervisors' and Principals' Professional Club**
President, J. S. Humphreys, Lonsdale School
Secretary, D. C. Kyker, South Knoxville School
- Lansing, Michigan—Elementary Principals' Association**
President, M. Effie Kellum, 1219 Bement
Secretary, Mrs. Esther Brandt, 601 Kirby Dr.
- Lexington, Kentucky—Elementary Principals' Club**
President, E. E. Gatherman, 415 S. Broadway
Secretary, Jean L. Smith, 140 E. Maxwell St.
- Lincoln, Nebraska—Public School Forum**
President, R. S. Mickle, 5302 Walker St.
Secretary, Eunice Preston, 1630 H St., Apt. C-5
- Little Rock, Arkansas—Principals' Round Table**
President, J. R. Bullington, West Side Junior High School
Secretary, Gertrude Pitts, Oakhurst School
- Long Beach, California—Principals' Club**
President, A. N. Martin, Lincoln School
Secretary, Agnes Wolcott, Continuation High School
- Long Beach, California—Supervisors' Club**
President, Mrs. Leta S. Hiles, 715 Locust Ave.
Secretary, M. E. Hayes, 715 Locust Ave.
- Los Angeles, California—Council of Directors and Supervisors**
President, Vincent P. Maher, 384 Chamber of Commerce Building
Secretary, Albert Ernest Bullock, 384 Chamber of Commerce Building
- Los Angeles, California—Elementary Principals' Club**
President, Arnal B. Heacock, 709 E. Windsor Rd., Glendale
Secretary, Elizabeth Sands, 1136 Fair Oaks Ave., Pasadena
- Los Angeles, California—Schoolmasters' Club**
President, A. H. Clayton, Sheridan Street School
Secretary, John E. Wright, Miramonte
- Louisville, Kentucky—Principals' Club**
President, Evelyn Wells, Shawnee High School
Secretary, S. V. Noe, Eastern Junior High School

Lowell, Massachusetts—Masters' Club

President, W. W. Dennett, Morey School
Secretary, John E. Barr, Washington School

Malden, Massachusetts—Women's Elementary Club

President, Daisy M. Riley, Emerson School
Secretary, Minnie G. Thompson, Maplewood School

Manchester, New Hampshire—Schoolmasters' Club

President, Wilbur Rollins, 689 Maple St.
Secretary, Ralph Price, 3 Walnut St.

Memphis, Tennessee—Principals' Association

President, W. E. Miller, Snowden School
Secretary, Florence Pate, Lawler School

Miami, Florida—Dade County Principals' Club

President, L. B. Somers, Homestead
Secretary, Lula Cadle, Earlington Heights School

Milwaukee, Wisconsin—Principals' Association

President, Henry Speerbrecker, 422 26th St.
Secretary, Lillian Theis, 524 Stowell Ave.

Milwaukee, Wisconsin—Schoolmasters' Club

President, Reinhard Ruhnke, 1038 S. 19th St.
Secretary, William Darling, 118 E. Milwaukee Ave., Wauwatosa

Minneapolis, Minnesota—Principals' Forum

President, Mrs. Blanche C. Neville, Fulton School
Secretary, Caroline K. Barron, Kenwood School

Mobile, Alabama—Elementary Principals' Club

President, Adelia Williams, 1254 Texas St.
Secretary, Louise d'Ornellas, 1314 Chamberlain Ave.

Mount Vernon, New York—Principals' Discussion Club

President, Maurice F. Childs, Mount Vernon High School
Secretary, Luke C. Rhoads, Columbus School No. 10.

Muncie, Indiana—Schoolmen's Club

President, Paul Addison, 1800 S. Mulberry
Secretary, Lyell Bussell, Muncie

Muncie, Indiana—Women's Administrative Organization

President, Rosa Burmaster, 219½ S. Jefferson St.
Secretary, Esther Bartlett, 518 Beechwood Ave.

Muskegon, Michigan—Principals' Council

President, Jessie S. Albert, 320 Sumner Ave.
Secretary, Johanna Robinson, 1985 Addison Ave.

Muskogee, Oklahoma—Elementary Principals' Club

President, L. C. McCall, 2116 Boston
Secretary, Mary Shirley, 1114 Fremont

Nashville, Tennessee—Principals' Association

President, W. R. Manlove, 828 Meridian St.
Secretary, Jas. O. McKee, 10 Ivanhoe Court

Newark, New Jersey—Public School Principals' Association

President, John S. Herron, Lafayette Street School
Secretary, Harry F. Stauffer, Franklin School

Newark, New Jersey—Schoolmen's Club

President, J. Ernest Crane, Summer Avenue School
Secretary, Kenneth K. King, Morton Street School

New Bedford, Massachusetts—Primary Principals' Club

President, Emma L. Gartland, 9 Washington St.
Secretary, Sophie J. Anthony, 24 Maple View Terrace

New Bedford, Massachusetts—Principals' Club

President, Louis D. Cook, 2 Morgan Terrace
Secretary, Same as president

- New Haven, Connecticut—Principals' Club**
President, Elton E. Knight, 153 Bassett St.
Secretary, Ruth Doherty, 200 Alston Ave.
- New Orleans, Louisiana—Colored Principals' Association**
President, Archie E. Perkins, 2911 Milan St.
Secretary, George Longe, 3500 Hamburg St.
- New Orleans, Louisiana—Principals' Association**
President, Josephine Thomas, 3220 Cleveland Ave.
Secretary, Alice Molony, 3600 Camp St.
- Newport News, Virginia—Principals' and Supervisors' Club**
President, E. Voorhees Stowitts, Box 404, Hilton Village
Secretary, C. E. Hoster, 319 50th St.
- Newtonville, Massachusetts—Newton Men's Educational Association**
President, Frederick Hussey, 273 Cabot St.
Secretary, A. W. Steinhope, 100 Madison Ave.
- New York, New York—Association of Principals' of 8B Schools**
President, John J. McDonald, Public School No. 3
Secretary, Myer Padve, Public School No. 99
- New York, New York—Association of Women Principals**
President, Olive Jones, 61 Crammercy Park N.
Secretary, Sara L. Rhodes, Public School No. 184
- New York, New York—Association of Women Principals' of Public Schools**
President, Jessie B. Colburn, Public School No. 96
Secretary, Loretto M. Rochester, Public School No. 44
- New York, New York—High School Principals' Association**
President, Edward J. McNamara, 155 W. 65th St.
Secretary, James P. Warren, Bryant High School, Long Island City
- New York, New York—Principals' Association**
President, Margaret C. Mackintosh, Public School No. 140, Brooklyn
Secretary, Dorothy Bildersee, Public School No. 80, Manhattan
- New York, New York—Schoolmasters' Club**
President, Martin L. Cox, 281 Mt. Prospect Ave., Newark, N. J.
Secretary, Alson A. Upham, 445 3rd St., Brooklyn.
- Norfolk, Virginia—Principals' Association**
President, Clarence L. Robinson, 4213 Newport Ave.
Secretary, Lillian M. Johnson, 404 Chestnut St., Berkley
- Oakland, California—Principals' Club**
President, Edgar E. Muller, Westlake Junior High School
Secretary, William McMasters, Oakland Technical High School
- Oklahoma City, Oklahoma—Schoolmen's Dinner Club**
President, W. T. Leach, c/o Y. M. C. A.
Secretary, Reedy V. Jennings, 1919 N. W. 15th St.
- Omaha, Nebraska—Elementary School Principals' Club**
President, Mrs. Alice Peterson, Dundee School
Secretary, Mary E. Foster, West Side School
- Omaha, Nebraska—School Forum**
President, Andrew Nelsen, 2565 Whitmore St.
Secretary, F. Ethel McAfee, 4918 Cass St.
- Oshkosh, Wisconsin—Principals' Club**
President, C. I. Yule, 110 Grand Ave.
Secretary, D. H. Wright, 469 Jackson Dr.
- Pasadena, California—Assistant Elementary Principals' Club**
President, Edna L. Millard, 834 Santa Barbara St.
Secretary, Bessie Squires, 32 Bowen Court
- Pasadena, California—Principals' Club**
President, Boyd L. Sloane, 1421 Dominion Ave.
Secretary, I. Maude Glenn, 55 N. Merideth Ave.

Paterson, New Jersey—Principals' Association

President, Louis J. Schmerber, 897 E. 27th St.
Secretary, E. Mombert, School No. 14

Pensacola, Florida—Elementary Principals' Club

President, Mrs. J. C. Lee, 1512 W. Garden St.
Secretary, Eva Waters, 415 N. Spring St.

Peoria, Illinois—Principals' Club

President, Anthony Middleton, Harrison School
Secretary, George Harms, Webster School

Perth Amboy, New Jersey—Principal's Association

President, Royal L. Predmore, Public School No. 6
Secretary, Ingeborg Oksen, Public School No. 2

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania—Principals' Club

President, Raymond L. Chambers, Key School
Secretary, Frances L. Bowers, Wister School

Phoenix, Arizona—Rural School Principals' Association

President, J. J. Clark, Phoenix
Secretary, H. M. McKemy, Tempe

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania—Principals' Club

President, M. Elizabeth Wolf, 223 S. Pacific Ave.
Secretary, Bertha V. Law, 5318 Friendship Ave.

Pontiac, Michigan—Elementary School Principals' Club

President, Mary McGinnis, 226 Perry St.
Secretary, Nina Doty, 160 State

Portland, Oregon—Principals' Association

President, N. A. Baker, Arleta School
Secretary, Mrs. Alevia Alexander, Woodmere School

Portsmouth, Virginia—Schoolmasters' Club

President, A. J. Mapp, 317 Broad St.
Secretary, A. R. Musick, 3 Dahlgren Ave.

Poughkeepsie, New York—Central Hudson Valley Schoolmasters

President, W. J. Reagan, Oakwood School
Secretary, W. T. Archibald, High School

Providence, Rhode Island—Principals' Association

President, Francesca Cosgrove, Montague Street School
Secretary, Mary C. Dunne, Courtland Street School

Providence, Rhode Island—Schoolmasters' Club

President, Elected at each meeting
Steward, Arthur J. Dows, 81 Brown St.

Pueblo, Colorado—Administrators' and Supervisors' Division of Education Association, District No. 1

President, Henrietta Robinson, 417 W. 22nd St.
Secretary, Ethel Wentworth, 417 W. 22nd St.

Pueblo, Colorado—Elementary Principals' Club

President, Nirma Palmer, Hotel Maine
Secretary, Lulu D. Graham, 1117 Lake Ave.

Quincy, Massachusetts—Schoolmasters' Club

President, Stanwood S. Fish, 103 Putnam St.
Secretary, Frank E. MacDonald, 69 Glover Ave.

Racine, Wisconsin—Principals' Sub-Council

President, E. F. Jantz, Hotel Racine
Secretary, G. L. Ritter, 2911 Erie St.

Richmond, Virginia—Principals' Club

President, Clyde Busby, Booker T. Washington School
Secretary, Horace Echols, Robert Fulton School

Roanoke, Virginia—Board of Principals

President, Louise Dyer, Box 968
Secretary, Emma Smith, Box 968

- Rochester, New York—Council of Elementary School Principals**
President, Squire Snell, Concord School
Secretary, Mrs. Mabel Orr, Hamilton School
- Sacramento, California—Principals' Association**
President, S. A. Pepper, William Land School
Secretary, Minnie Roth, McKinley School
- Salt Lake City, Utah—Principals' Association**
President, H. B. Folsom, 1444 Harvard Ave.
Secretary, Margaret Layton, 314 Richmond Apts.
- San Antonio, Texas—Elementary Principals' Association**
President, Mildred Baskin, 724 Baltimore Ave.
Secretary, Ruby West, 609 Carson St.
- San Diego, California—Principals' and Supervisors' Club**
President, George H. Robison, 4616 Vista St.
Secretary, Irvin N. Cross, 1520 Van Buren
- San Francisco, California—Principals' Association**
President, Harry G. Hansell, 2694 23rd Ave.
Secretary, Carrie Daly, 556 Larkin St.
- San Jose, California—Elementary Principals' Association**
President, R. B. Thompson, Gardner School
Secretary, R. A. Lee, Lowell School
- San Jose, California—Santa Clara County Schoolmasters' Club**
President, A. H. Horrall, 6th and San Fernando Sts.
Secretary, Joseph E. Hancock, County Court House
- Seattle, Washington—Principals' Association**
President, G. N. Porter, Garfield High School
Secretary, Edgar Standan, Lawton School
- Seattle, Washington—Superintendents' and Supervisors' Association**
President, Vergil Smith, 850 Central Bldg.
Secretary, J. J. White, 850 Central Bldg.
- Sioux City, Iowa—Administration Club**
President, C. A. Bohner, Woodrow Wilson School
Secretary, Mabel Werner, North Junior High School
- Somerville, Massachusetts—Schoolmen's Club**
President, Joseph S. Hawthorne, Western Junior High School
Secretary, John Hayward, Somerville
- Spokane, Washington—Elementary Principals' Association**
President, Maude M. Stinson, Audubon School
Secretary, Maude N. Ailey, Young School
- Spokane, Washington—Schoolmasters' Club**
President, F. G. Nogle, Lewis and Clarke High School
Secretary, J. L. Purdy, Hillyard High School
- Spokane, Washington—Women Principals' Club**
President, Estelle Purinton, Holmes School
Secretary, Susan M. Lacy, Arlington School
- Springfield, Illinois—Principals' Club**
President, William A. Miller, 1725 S. State St.
Secretary, Ernest T. Jackson, 1800 S. Fourth St.
- Springfield, Missouri—Elementary Principals' Club**
President, Mrs. Maude Bradley, 764 Cherry
Secretary, Katharine Propst, 621 E. Lombard
- Springfield, Ohio—Schoolmasters' Club**
President, A. B. Shaffer, 628 E. Cassilly St.
Secretary, U. F. Hughes, 151 N. Kensington Pl.
- St. Joseph, Missouri—Elementary School Principals' Club**
President, Bettie Bolen, 312 North 20th
Secretary, Clarence Carpenter, 2821 Lafayette

STATE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ORGANIZATIONS

- Alabama**—Department of Elementary School Principals of the Alabama Education Association
President, Janie L. Rives, 5 High St., Montgomery
Secretary, Mrs. Bruce Brosins, Tuscaloosa
- Arkansas**—Department of Elementary School Principals of the Arkansas Education Association
President, Fred Moore, Pine Bluff
Secretary, Mary Fortner, Garland School, Little Rock
- California**—California Elementary School Principals' Association
President, P. C. McChesney, Newton Booth School, Sacramento
Secretary, Mrs. Gertrude Best Hammond, Hyde Park School, Los Angeles
- Colorado**—Elementary Principals' Section
President, Max D. Morton, Pueblo
Secretary, Mabel Cochrane, Greeley
- Connecticut**—Elementary School Principals' Association of Connecticut
President, Thomas H. Patterson, 131 Stearns St., Bristol
Secretary, Mary E. Murphy, 850 Lafayette St., Bridgeport
- Florida**—Department of Elementary Principals of the Florida Education Association
President, Nell Avery, Miramar School, Miami
Secretary, Katie Dean, Miami Beach Elementary School, Miami Beach
- Idaho**—Idaho State Elementary Principals' Association
President, R. F. Lynch, Lincoln Opportunity School, Boise
Secretary, Coral M. Norton, 1402 Franklin, Boise
- Iowa**—Department of Elementary Principals of Iowa State Teachers Association
President, Mary B. Hall, Rogers School, Marshalltown
Secretary, W. C. Findley, 629 3rd St., Des Moines
- Kansas**—Kansas Association of Elementary School Principals
President, W. A. Bonwell, 645 N. Volusia, Wichita
Secretary, C. H. Gleason, Cooper School, Newton
- Massachusetts**—Massachusetts Elementary Principals' Association
President, G. Winthrop Brainerd, Claflin School, Newtonville
Secretary, Helen L. Thompson, Cabot School, Newtonville
- Michigan**—Elementary School Principals' Department of the Michigan Education Association
President, Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, Buchanan School, Grand Rapids
Secretary, Elizabeth Welch, Fairview School, Flint
- Minnesota**—Elementary Principals' Section of the Minnesota Education Association
President, Maude Irle, 2198 Stanford Ave., St. Paul
Secretary, Anne Brezler, 721 S. E. 7th St., Minneapolis
- Missouri**—Department of Elementary School Principals
President, Isabel Tucker, Shenandoah School, St. Louis
Secretary, Leah Arnold, Liberty
- Nebraska**—Department of Elementary School Principals of Nebraska State Teachers' Association
President, Edna Reap, Long School, Omaha
Secretary, Florence Brooker, Adams School, Omaha
- New Hampshire**—New Hampshire Association of Elementary School Principals
President, Jean Keir, 12 Front St., Rochester
Secretary, Mrs. Kate M. Hatch, Exeter
- New Jersey**—Elementary Principals of New Jersey
President, Ann Troy, Park School, Nutley
Secretary, Mason A. Stratton, 272 Huron St., Absecon

New York—New York State Elementary Principals' Association

President, Hoyt D. Smith, Huguenot School, New Rochelle
Secretary, Berton Bean, Public School No. 63, Buffalo

North Carolina—North Carolina Elementary Principals' Association

Officers not reported for 1930-31

Ohio—Department of Elementary School Principals of the Ohio Education Association

President, W. C. Dyer, Indianola School, Columbus
Secretary, M. P. Watts, Daniel Worley School, Canton

Oklahoma—Elementary Principals' Division of Oklahoma Education Association

President, John B. Turner, 609 S. W. 26, Oklahoma City
Secretary, Mary Frazier, Enid

Oregon—Department of Elementary Principals of the Oregon State Teachers' Association

President, Elmer Brown, 759 E. 27th St., N. Portland
Secretary, Lewis E. Reese, Route 10, Milwaukie

South Carolina—Elementary Principals

President, E. R. Crow, 1811 Wheat St., Columbia
Secretary, Myrtle Venable, Pacolet Mills

South Dakota—Elementary Grade Principals and Supervisors (Affiliated with state teachers association)

President, Adah Minard, 141 6th St., N. E., Watertown
Secretary, Ruth Wagoner, 715 S. Wisconsin St., Mitchell

Texas—Elementary School Principals and Supervisors

President, Arvin N. Donner, 325 De Queen Blvd., Port Arthur
Secretary, F. M. Mathis, 212 W. Minnie St., Tyler

Utah—Principals' Section of Utah Education Association

President, Joseph B. Driggs, 2142 S. State St., Salt Lake City
Secretary, Zeta Morris, Oquirrh School, Salt Lake City

Virginia—Principals' and Supervisors' Section of Virginia Education Association

President, Claude Graham, High School, Greenwood
Secretary, M. R. Bruin, High School, Boydton

West Virginia—Elementary Principals' Division of the West Virginia State Education Association

President, L. A. Dent, Ronceverte
Secretary, J. H. Reed, White Sulphur Springs

Wisconsin—Elementary Principals' Association

President, Harold W. Peterson, Keefe Avenue School, Milwaukee
Secretary, Miss Lynch, Public Schools, Oshkosh

LIST OF MEMBERS

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

FOR THE YEAR 1930-31, CORRECTED TO MARCH 21, 1931

ALABAMA

Alvarez, Mabel L., 15 N. Reed Ave., Mobile, Ala.
 Austin, Mary B., 210 George St., Mobile, Ala.
 Calhoun, E. B., Norwood School, 3220 Norwood Blvd., Birmingham, Ala.
 Cowan, Ora V., 204 Dexter Ave., Mobile, Ala.
 Cox, George D., 2207 15th Ave., N., Birmingham, Ala.
 Daffron, Willie Mae, Greeley School, Rickey, Ala.
 Davis, W. C., 3420 Second Ave., N., Birmingham, Ala.
 Dodge, Olive J., Board of School Commissioners, Mobile, Ala.
 Dooley, Cora, 247 S. Eighth St., Gadsden, Ala.
 Duvall, Rufus A., North Birmingham School, Birmingham, Ala.
 Flock, Mrs. Elizabeth C., 7 N. Bayou St., Mobile, Ala.
 Gardner, J. R., Jr., Graymont School, Birmingham, Ala.
 Hall, W. R., 1305 N. 30th St., Birmingham, Ala.
 Henderson, Mary, 1004 S. Hull St., Montgomery, Ala.
 Hill, R. Voyt, Martin School, 1201 14th Ave., N., Birmingham, Ala.
 Johnston, Robert C., South Highland School, Birmingham, Ala.
 Jones, Lenore, 1606 Monterey Pl., Mobile, Ala.
 Kexley, T. M., Minor School, 2425 Ave. S., Birmingham, Ala.
 Krassin, Annie E., 14 Common St., Mobile, Ala.
 Lawson, Olivia, Alabama College, Montevallo, Ala.
 MacMillan, Emma, 120 Cramer Ave., Montgomery, Ala.
 Martin, Ralph, 125 N. 63rd St., Birmingham, Ala.
 Matzenger, Lena, 1058 Selma St., Mobile, Ala.
 Meigs, Mrs. Mary S., Noble Apts., Anniston, Ala.
 Moore, A. C., Supt. of Schools, Atmore, Ala.
 Norton, H. B., Robinson School, 8400 First Ave., S., Birmingham, Ala.
 Ozier, W. C., 2129 Pike Ave., Ensley, Birmingham, Ala.
 Richards, Henry G., H. C. Gilbert School, Florence, Ala.
 Rives, Janie Lou, 5 High St., Montgomery, Ala.
 Rodgers, G. T., Route 3, Box 60, Montgomery, Ala.
 Sapp, Ella F., 1711 Third Ave., Bessemer, Ala.
 Sheffield, Mrs. Frances L., 10 N. Ann St., Mobile, Ala.
 Snoddy, W. T., Acipco School, 1716 31st Ave., N., Birmingham, Ala.
 Vaughan, Joseph T., Bush School, 1112 25th St., Birmingham, Ala.
 Wiener, Florence E., 252 S. Ann St., Mobile, Ala.
 Wilder, L. Virgil, 610 MacMillan Ave., Birmingham, Ala.
 Williams, J. D., Avondale School, 4000 Eighth Court, S., Birmingham, Ala.
 Wilson, Josephine, 1203 Leighton Ave., Anniston, Ala.

ARIZONA

Ballfinch, Loy, 420 E. Fourth St., Tucson, Ariz.
 Carlisle, O. L., Supt. of Schools, Somerton, Ariz.

Court, Grace, 2005 W. Washington, Phoenix, Ariz.
 Curnutt, Lucille, 905 E. Ash, Globe, Ariz.
 Dyer, Mrs. Gussie, P. O. Box 545, Hayden, Ariz.
 Englund, Clara, 221 Live Oak St., Miami, Ariz.
 Harrison, Marion, Box 2001, Globe, Ariz.
 Johnson, Lindsay, Public Schools, Concho, Ariz.
 Keen, Julia C., Fairchild's Court, Tucson, Ariz.
 Kohn, Frederick A., District No. 4, Casa Grande, Ariz.
 McKinney, Willie, Washington School, Winslow, Ariz.
 Robertson, Ellen, 828 E. Fifth St., Tucson, Ariz.
 Thomas, J. Q., Supt. of Schools, Flagstaff, Ariz.
 Townsend, Salome, Roskrige School, Tucson, Ariz.
 Wickliffe, Chester, Liberty School, Liberty, Ariz.

ARKANSAS

Barton, Lillian, 415 E. Nettleton Ave., Jonesboro, Ark.
 Cohen, Flora L., 1109 Prospect Ave., Little Rock, Ark.
 Conte, Mrs. Lelia M., Route 1, Hot Springs, Ark.
 Cordell, Thyra, Rogers School, Ft. Smith, Ark.
 Day, J. A., Junior High School, Ft. Smith, Ark.
 Jennings, Egbert, Supt. of Schools, Foreman, Ark.
 Jones, Ralph B., Peabody School, Ft. Smith, Ark.
 Schader, Ernestine A., 800 Rector Ave., Little Rock, Ark.
 Shannon, Julia, 224½ S. Main St., Stuttgart, Ark.
 Thompson, A. G., Supt. of Schools, Carlisle, Ark.
 Washington, Ruby, Duval School, N. 14th St., Ft. Smith, Ark.
 Webb, Victor L., 1514 W. 20th, Little Rock, Ark.

CALIFORNIA

Abbott, Robert B., 704 Brown Ave., Fresno, Calif.
 Abrams, Henry, Dist. Supt. of Schools, Saticoy, Calif.
 Addicott, Irwin Oliver, Jackson School, Fresno, Calif.
 Alexander, Roxie E., 920 Virginia St., Vallejo, Calif.
 Allison, Loretta, Watsonville, Calif.
 Anderson, Emma C., 7830 S. Harvard Blvd., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Andreen, Earl P., Balboa School, San Diego, Calif.
 Andrews, Mary A., 810 S. Ross St., Santa Ana, Calif.
 Atkinson, Carroll, Fremont School, San Luis Obispo, Calif.
 Aultman, Mrs. Lela W., Main Street School, E. 52nd and Main Sts., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Badger, Abner A., 3524 Lavell Dr., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Baker, Alfred E., 744 65th St., Oakland, Calif.
 Baker, C. W., 5260 Oakland St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Baker, Ethel I., 1517 40th St., Sacramento, Calif.
 Baker, H. M., Route 6, Box 459, Bakersfield, Calif.

- Balch, A. E., 3718 Illinois Ave., Fresno, Calif.
 Banta, Mrs. Edythe R., Grant School, 29th and Summitt Sts., Oakland, Calif.
 Barber, Mrs. M. Ellen C., 1156 22nd St., San Diego, Calif.
 Barclay, Berthile, 2038 Bush St., Santa Ana, Calif.
 Bardardson, Otto W., Sunset School, Box 1701, Carmel, Calif.
 Barnard, Nora Margaret, 716 W. Commonwealth Ave., Alhambra, Calif.
 Barnes, Mrs. Jessie Baldwin, 419 E. State St., Long Beach, Calif.
 Bates, Elizabeth, 365 S. Highland Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Baxter, Bernice, Crocker Highland School, Oakland, Calif.
 Beach, Rachel Ann, 452 Holland Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Beaty, Jesse James, 826 Cleveland Ave., Oakland, Calif.
 Bell, Zell, Vista, Calif.
 Bender, Mrs. Cora F., 2615 I St., Bakersfield, Calif.
 Benner, W. A., 1670 Grand Ave., Piedmont, Calif.
 Benning, A. Irene, 155 Nieto Ave., Long Beach, Calif.
 Benson, Albert N., Hawthorne School, Oakland, Calif.
 Berard, Elvina, 336 Ashton Ave., San Francisco, Calif.
 Bernard, Lloyd D., 3910 Ardley Ave., Oakland, Calif.
 Berry, Bertha Irene, 1261 S. Mariposa St., Glendale, Calif.
 Bishop, Eugenio Karl, 326 N. Comstock Ave., Whittier, Calif.
 Blakemore, Edith E., 1030 W. Second St., Pomona, Calif.
 Blanchard, Alice C., 235 E. Alvarado St., Pomona, Calif.
 Blodget, Mrs. Viola, 2000 Baker St., Bakersfield, Calif.
 Blumb, Joseph L., 1015 Euclid Ave., Berkeley, Calif.
 Bonney, Wilbert H., 307 E. Alberta St., Anaheim, Calif.
 Borden, Nellie G., 2219 San Joaquin St., Fresno, Calif.
 Bowen, Wayne F., 403 S. Tamarind St., Compton, Calif.
 Bowman, Samuel H., 2320 E. 16th St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Bowring, H. F., 133 High St., Modesto, Calif.
 Bradley, Anne M., 412 63rd St., Oakland, Calif.
 Brauer, R. E., Roosevelt School, Dinuba, Calif.
 Breen, Ellen R., 1067 Lincoln Ave., San Diego, Calif.
 Brems, Edna M., 540 Laurel St., San Diego, Calif.
 Briscoe, William S., 690 Brooklyn Ave., Oakland, Calif.
 Brown, Bessie Olive, 4053 Irving Pl., Culver City, Calif.
 Brown, Guy E., Box 876, Livermore, Calif.
 Brubaker, D. E., 1015 W. 30th St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Bryant, Mrs. Ethel Stewart, P. O. Box 874, Gardena, Calif.
 Burnette, Estelle W., 927 Magnolia Ave., Burbank, Calif.
 Burr, Marjorie F., 308 Myrtle St., Redlands, Calif.
 Calder, Jessie, 3956 Burckholter Ave., Oakland, Calif.
 Campbell, Florilla, 825 N. Baker St., Stockton, Calif.
 Cardozo, Truman V., Box 396, Riverbank, Calif.
 Carnahan, Mrs. E. June, 1914 Maple Ave., Bakersfield, Calif.
 Carroll, Hazel, 11106 Landale St., North Hollywood, Calif.
 Carter, C. C., 3261 Illinois, Fresno, Calif.
 Catlin, Ruby, 816 Kern St., Kingsburg, Calif.
 Chamberlain, Clarence W., Banning, Calif.
 Chandler, Mrs. Myrtle B., 1234 3-4 W. Fifth St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Chase, Ethel E., 244 N. Verdugo Rd., Glendale, Calif.
 Christensen, Serena P., 661½ N. Berendo St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Church, Mrs. Edith Perry, 501 N. Cypress, Burbank, Calif.
 Clark, Mrs. Bertha H., 1034 Angeleno Ave., Burbank, Calif.
 Claypool, Mary F., 2427 W. 22nd St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Clayton, Mrs. Rose C., Marguerita School, Alhambra, Calif.
 Clemens, K. F., Box 25, Wasco, Calif.
 Cline, Helen R., P. O. Box 766, Covina, Calif.
 Coffey, Julia C., Emerson School, San Francisco, Calif.
 Colby, Ida Florence, Box 94, Fallbrook, Calif.
 Coleman, Ida Fulton, 1626 N. Kingsley Dr., Hollywood, Calif.
 Colerick, Mrs. Mabel S., 1633 E. 103rd Pl., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Compton, John L., 1814 Forrest St., Bakersfield, Calif.
 Cookman, Mrs. Grace Olive, 618 W. 49th St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Cooper, Elizabeth P., 1805 Eighth Ave., Oakland, Calif.
 Correll, Vincent I., 1838 McKenzie St., Long Beach, Calif.
 Cotrel, Lucy, 3240 Clay St., San Francisco, Calif.
 Cotter, M. Elsie, Lazear School, Oakland, Calif.
 Couchman, H. H., 717 W. 80th St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Cox, Mildred M., Hotel Palomar, Santa Cruz, Calif.
 Crane, Clarence B., 1546 La Loma Ave., Berkeley, Calif.
 Crane, R. L., Jr., 434 Wisnom Ave., San Mateo, Calif.
 Crapser, Jessamine, 1828 S. Mansfield Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Crawford, Mrs. Bertha T., 2371 Portland St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Creedon, Mrs. Elma M., 732 York St., Vallejo, Calif.
 Cross, Flora, 248 N. Towne Ave., Pomona, Calif.
 Cross, Irvin N., 1520 Van Buren St., San Diego, Calif.
 Culver, Harriet E., 1717 Seventh Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Curley, Laura, 1121 Trestle Glen Rd., Oakland, Calif.
 Dacre, Emma L., 45 Henry St., San Francisco, Calif.
 Dannemann, Matie, 437 E. Maple Ave., Orange, Calif.
 Davis, Barney J., Union School, Lakeport, Calif.
 Davis, N. Evelyn, 853 Atlantic Ave., Long Beach, Calif.
 Davy, Mrs. Mathilda, Horace Mann School, Bakersfield, Calif.
 Delmet, Don Thomas, Dist. Supt. of Schools, Norwalk, Calif.
 Des Roches, Pauline, 1323 Woolsey St., San Francisco, Calif.
 Dragomanovich, Francis L., Modoc County, Adin, Calif.
 Dreier, Grace M. Mogle, 2132 W. 74th St., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Earl, Claude Elwood, Lincoln School, Pasadena, Calif.
 Edgar, George A., Franklin School, Ninth Ave. and E. 16th St., Oakland, Calif.
 Elwood, Roby T., 201 S. Chapel St., Alhambra, Calif.

- Enfield, O. D., Eastman Street School, Los Angeles, Calif.
- Essert, R. F., Grammar School, Artesia, Calif.
- Estes, Charlotte, 2420 Gough St., San Francisco, Calif.
- Fagin, Mrs. Jean T., 346 W. Amerige Ave., Fullerton, Calif.
- Farnham, N. H., 1427 Eureka, Bakersfield, Calif.
- Farrington, Mrs. Rae Lee, 1708 Beverly Dr., Pasadena, Calif.
- Fenzell, Ruby Caroline, 29 Eureka St., Pasadena, Calif.
- Ferrell, Mrs. Grace, Route 1, Box 102, Calexico, Calif.
- Fikes, Edith E., 472 Ocean St., Santa Cruz, Calif.
- Finchy, Katherine, Elementary School, Palm Springs, Calif.
- Finney, J. J., Box 552, Suisun, Calif.
- Fitz-Gerald, Mrs. Mary M., Hotel Whitcomb, 1231 Market St., San Francisco, Calif.
- Flynn, Mary C., 1511 Micheltorena St., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Ford, Stephen W., P. O. Box 305, Sunnyvale, Calif.
- Fratris, Mrs. Sue L., 204 Wayne Ave., Oakland, Calif.
- Fuller, Grace M., Emerson School, Fresno, Calif.
- Gardner, Elizabeth M., 945 W. Ninth St., San Pedro, Calif.
- Gibson, Robert E., Elementary School, Walnut Creek, Calif.
- Gill, Mary, 2424 Chester Lane, Bakersfield, Calif.
- Gilmore, Edith M., 2877 Folsom St., San Francisco, Calif.
- Gist, Arthur S., President, Humboldt State Teachers College, Arcata, Calif.
- Glover, Mrs. Percy F., J. C. Fremont School, Fourth and Termino, Long Beach, Calif.
- Gough, Howardine B., 397 Riverside Dr., Chino, Calif.
- Graf, Louise, 2136 W. 28th St., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Graham, R. J., 818 Spruce St., Berkeley, Calif.
- Grant, Mrs. Belle G., Grammar School, Hemet, Calif.
- Greene, Lucy B., 418 Jefferson Ave., Pomona, Calif.
- Greening, Burton O., 2541 Third Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Grimshaw, M. Alice, 112 W. Broadway, Anaheim, Calif.
- Grimsley, V. H., 2150 47th Ave., Oakland, Calif.
- Hall, Lee Roy, 175 S. Greenwood Ave., Pasadena, Calif.
- Hamer, Joseph W., 1050 S. Gramercy Dr., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Hamilton, Mrs. Dorothy, 1004 N. Irwin St., Hanford, Calif.
- Hamilton, Nellie, 3750 Platt, Fresno, Calif.
- Hammel, J. C., 842 E. 19th St., Oakland, Calif.
- Hammond, Mrs. Gertrude Best, 7316 Crenshaw Blvd., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Hammond, Ida M., 3004 Champion St., Oakland, Calif.
- Hanson, Edith J., 1443 Martel Ave., Hollywood, Calif.
- Harker, Sara D., Lower Miss Harker's School, Palo Alto, Calif.
- Harris, Mrs. Caroline P., 326 Jefferson, Bakersfield, Calif.
- Harris, Ella M., 242 F St., San Bernardino, Calif.
- Harris, Maude K., 1612 Huntington Dr., South Pasadena, Calif.
- Hauselt, Elisabeth E., 2199 California St., San Francisco, Calif.
- Hayes, C. K., 931 Fresno Ave., Berkeley, Calif.
- Havvard, Lucy M., 324 La Paloma Ave., Alhambra, Calif.
- Heacock, A. B., 709 E. Windsor Rd., Glendale, Calif.
- Heath, Virginia D., 2376 Pacific Ave., San Francisco, Calif.
- Heisser, Della B., Dist. Supt. of Schools, Turlock, Calif.
- Helms, W. T., Supt. of Schools, Richmond, Calif.
- Hendrick, Orra Leta, 2129 S. Alsace Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Henselmeier, F. W., 306 Orange Ave., Pico, Calif.
- Hewitt, Mrs. Ida F., 8627 John Ave., Los Angeles, Calif.
- Higginbotham, E. M., Union Grammar School, McFarland, Calif.
- Hill, Mrs. Edna, Brentwood-Deer Valley School, Brentwood, Calif.
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