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The Principal As
A Supervisor

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FOREWORD

CONSTRUCTIVE supervision is a characteristic of progressive school systems. Everywhere superintendents are building up efficient supervisory organizations. Principals are turning more and more from routine duties to the challenging problems of instruction. Special supervisors are finding great opportunities in research and experimentation with teaching methods. Such rapid development of supervision is a fine thing, but it should not overlook two basic principles.

(1) Supervision is a cooperative enterprise. Superintendents, principals and supervisors do not supervise in isolated compartments. Many instructional problems require the attention of both line and staff officers. Mutual respect, understanding and a desire to work together are paramount. Only cooperative supervision can unite with the individual teacher's efforts in making classroom work most effective.

(2) The highest form of cooperative supervision is between competent persons. The success of a cooperative project depends on how well each individual carries his share of the responsibility. Incompetents must drop out or have their burdens borne by others. The change in school supervision puts this question squarely up to all principals: Are you qualified to assume your share of the supervisory program? Each principal must answer for himself.

This Bulletin will do much in helping principals meet their growing supervisory responsibilities. The citations to current professional literature and the descriptions of practice offer material for group discussion. Perhaps the most valuable contribution of this Bulletin is the appeal that each principal be more critical of his own work. None of us can be easily satisfied when the opportunities for better work are so readily available.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
National Education Association.

Introduction

THE conception of the principal as a supervisor of instruction is being widely accepted. Superintendents, college teachers and principals everywhere are welcoming the opportunity to magnify the principalship.¹ But general approval of the ideal does not automatically qualify each principal to deal wisely with practical instructional problems. Field observations reveal that there are at least three types of principals: (a) those who are neither willing nor prepared to be supervisors, (b) those who are willing, but poorly equipped to do supervision, and (c) those who are both anxious and trained to do supervisory work.

All three of the above types could profit from some form of professional study. Even the best prepared need to experiment, to evaluate and to be self-critical in such a rapidly developing field as supervision. It is for these students of their own professional problems that this Bulletin has been prepared.

How the Bulletin was prepared—The following chapters comprise a summary of research, theory and current practices in school supervision. Material has been gathered from a number of sources, including current professional magazines, educational books, theses and field observations.

Perhaps the most fruitful source of information has been the publications of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association. For more than seven years this Department has done pioneer work in establishing the "supervisory function" as a prerogative of the principalship. The publications of this Department are rich in practical and inspiring suggestions.

A second source of information has been the accumulated experience of the Research Division. Each year this division receives inquiries from principals asking for help on specific problems. In meeting these requests the Division has developed many bibliographies and in turn has received much valuable experience. In cooperation with the Department of Elementary School Principals the Research Division has sent a research worker to

make observations in outstanding school systems. The data from these observations have proven to be unusually suggestive of best practices.

Data from recent research studies have been taken from publications. Many of the current professional magazines have been searched for articles written by successful principals. Several useful books on education have furnished valuable material. All such sources of information have received due recognition in the footnotes and lists of selected references.

Drafts of the Bulletin were submitted to a number of practical workers for critical reviews. Many practical suggestions were secured in this way and incorporated in the final revisions. While many of the merits of this Bulletin are due to the volunteer helpers, the responsibility for the final form belongs to the Research Division.

Careful attention was given to large sections of the original manuscript by George C. Kyte, University of Michigan, and John Thomas, Clippert School, Detroit, Michigan. Single chapters were reviewed by: I. Jewell Simpson, Assistant State Superintendent of Maryland; Leonard Power, Assistant Superintendent, Dallas, Texas; Helen B. Shove, Longfellow School, Minneapolis, Minnesota; W. Q. Brown, Kennedy School, Cincinnati, Ohio; Agnes W. Carroll, Fitzgerald School, Detroit, Michigan; F. H. Duffy, Harding School, Steubenville, Ohio; Nathaniel G. West, Andrews School, Rochester, New York; C. E. Stephens, Shaw School, Saint Louis, Missouri; George Taylor, Anthony School, Rochester, New York; John Spargo, Ashland School, East Orange, New Jersey; and W. T. Longshore, Greenwood School, Kansas City, Missouri.

The Research Division gratefully acknowledges the sincere criticisms and constructive suggestions made by these co-workers.

What this Bulletin emphasizes—First, supervision is a cooperative activity. All superintendents, principals and special supervisors have responsibilities in the supervisory program. Each must do his own work well. But

¹ The 1930 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence will be devoted to problems in school supervision. This volume may be obtained in February, 1930, by writing to the Department of Superintendence, 1201 Sixteenth St. N. W., Washington, D. C.

it is equally important for each to coordinate his activities with those of his fellow supervisors. Without cooperation, supervision tends to exert a disorganized and confusing influence upon the classroom.

Second, specific supervisory technics are only means to ends. Rating teachers, observing classes and holding teachers' meetings are not activities which automatically improve instruction. They are merely fact-finding and preparatory steps. More important, are the follow-up measures which bring about constructive changes in classroom practices. It takes a capable principal to *follow through* in supervision.

Need for recording results—There are at least 20,000 assistant, teaching and supervising principals in city school systems.¹ Few of the many talented persons in this large group have adopted this suggestion:

Principals should not become so absorbed in routine activities as to fail to set down in writing the procedures and results of research. The necessity of describing experiments in concise and understandable statements is excellent personal training and tends to clarify thinking.²

There is a demand now for much clear-thinking on the use and value of specific

supervisory technics. Who can study and report the problems of the principalship better than the principals themselves?

How to use the Bulletin—It is hoped that this Bulletin will prove useful in professional meetings of principals. Some groups will find it stimulating to make critical reviews of each chapter. But most good will come if such critical discussions materialize into group experimentation.

Individual principals will find great value in checking their supervisory practices against this Bulletin.³ Sometimes this self-survey will be illuminating. Many will not be satisfied until they have examined some of the original references, tried out the suggestions and made their own evaluations.⁴

In no sense does this Bulletin pretend to be final. Nor will it suggest panaceas for all situations. It presents what is believed to be suggestive material and cites many supplementary references. Each principal should make such use of these suggestions as his school situation demands. The Bulletin challenges uncritical thinking. It shows the importance of a philosophy of life and of education.⁵ It places this question squarely before every principal: Am I carrying my *share* of the supervisory program?

¹ This estimate is based upon figures reported in "Salary Scales in City School Systems in 1928-29." *Research Bulletin 7: 105-72*; May, 1929, National Education Association. Other estimates, using a broader definition of the principalship, have reported approximately 30,000 principals.

² See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 350.

³ Many readers will find it advantageous to ignore the footnotes during the first reading of this Bulletin.

⁴ When references are not given in complete form in the footnotes, they will be found in greater detail in the selected references at the end of the chapter.

⁵ Most principals will find food for thought in such books as: Charles A. Beard's *Whither Mankind*; Walter Lippmann's, *Public Opinion*; Everett Dean Martin's, *The Meaning of a Liberal Education* and A. N. Whitehead's *Science and the Modern World*.

THE PURPOSE of the visit should be carefully planned. One ought not to be satisfied with sauntering into a room and draping one's self over a radiator for a few minutes. One ought to distribute visits according to a plan—a plan in which the strong and weak teachers, the experienced and inexperienced all receive consideration. Under some circumstances the principal may contemplate visiting by subjects; under other circumstances, by grades. Again, one may visit for the purpose of furthering some policy which the school has agreed upon. The facts which one collects will be affected by these considerations.—B. R. Buckingham, *Educational Research Bulletin*, The Ohio State University, May 1, 1929, p. 190.

The Principal in a Program of Supervision¹

The practice of placing heavy supervisory responsibilities upon elementary school principals is raising many problems. Is the principal the final supervisory authority in each school? Should special supervisors work under the direction of the school principal? What status do directors of instruction assume upon entering a particular school? How may the work of assistant superintendents, special supervisors and principals be coordinated so as to make a unified attack on classroom problems?

Such questions must be answered by school systems in terms of their local conditions. The number and type of special supervisors, the exact status of the principalship, the supervisory objectives, and similar specific problems cannot be settled by any general panacea. But certain general facts and principles do bear upon all local problems. Some of these are found in this section which asks this question: Mr. Principal, just what is your place in the local supervisory program?

What is supervision?—There have been many attempts to formulate a definition of supervision in terms of specific technics, intermediate purposes and ultimate ends.

Supervision can be said to be visiting classes, conferring with teachers, rating instruction, holding teachers' meetings and similar activities. But definitions in terms of technics or means are not complete, for supervision is more than a miscellaneous collection of procedures. Specific supervisory procedures may become administrative by a change of emphasis.²

The current tendency is to define supervision in terms of purposes, as the following:

The coordination, stimulation, and direction of instruction,³ or, the improvement of instruction.⁴ Such definitions are of practical value in giving principals perceptive in this field.

The ultimate end of supervision is the development in each teacher of the power of efficient self-direction. The development in teachers of the ability critically to direct their own work requires much concrete help and close direction by the principal. But sometimes there must be opportunities for teachers to experiment with the minimum of guidance by administrators.⁵ Such freedom in teaching, accompanied by a democratic philosophy of supervision, does much to capitalize the personal qualities of the individual teacher.⁶ Supervision in the fullest sense becomes: helping teachers to enjoy the freedom and satisfaction of functioning upon a high level of self-direction within a professional teaching group.⁷

Development of supervision—School supervision of a primitive type,⁸ began in the United States with the New England school committee.⁹ The members of these committees often inspected the schools.¹⁰ According to Suzzalo, knowledge gained through inspection was first used in 1753 by the school committee to improve the teacher's work.¹¹ But professional supervision, as we understand it today, probably began with the appointment of school superintendents.¹²

The rapid growth of cities in the United States hastened the appointment of city superintendents to care for the increases in complexity of school organization.¹³ Some of the earliest superintendencies were Buffalo in

¹ See the 1930 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence (available February, 1930) and *The Organisation of Supervision* by F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, Appleton, 1928.

² See *The Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 182-203.

³ Scott, Charles E., *Educational Supervision*, p. 9. (Footnote.)

⁴ See "The Principal Studies His Job," *Research Bulletin*, 6: 92-102; March, 1928. National Education Association.

⁵ Nutt, H. W., *The Supervision of Instruction*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920, p. 12, 89, and 93.

⁶ See "The Principal Studies His Job," *Research Bulletin*, 6: 98-99; March, 1928. National Education Association. Also, *The Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 340.

⁷ See Chapters I and II of the 1930 Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, dealing with supervision. This Yearbook will be available February, 1930.

⁸ Showalter, Benjamin R., "The Development of Supervision of Instruction," *Educational Administration and Supervision* 10: 481-94; November, 1924.

⁹ Wilson, Julia S., *History of Supervision*. Unpublished M. A. Thesis, University of California. 1925. p. 21-22.

¹⁰ Scott, Charles E., *op. cit.*, p. 9.

¹¹ Suzzalo, Henry. *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*. Teachers College, Columbia University. 1906. p. 145.

¹² Cubberley, E. P., *Public School Administration* (Revised Edition). Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929, p. 149-257.

¹³ Wilson, Julia S., *op. cit.*, p. 22.

1837, Louisville in 1837, and Providence in 1839.¹ Boston, New York, San Francisco, Chicago and Saint Louis appointed school superintendents between 1851 and 1854. By 1870 there were twenty-nine such superintendents of schools.¹ Recently the number of city superintendents of schools totaled approximately 3,000 according to the directory prepared by the United States Bureau of Education.²

Cubberley has discussed the development of county school superintendencies under state influence.³ At first the county superintendent was largely a clerical officer representing the state in relations with the local units. In some states, such as Maryland, the county superintendent has assumed a position of genuine professional leadership.

While the position of superintendent of schools was coming into being, the elementary school principalship, even in the largest communities, had not freed itself from heavy teaching duties. In 1857 the prescribed duties of principal teachers in Boston did not include any real supervisory work.⁴ Beginning about 1857, city school reports show superintendents making efforts to release the principal teachers from some teaching responsibilities. The following quotation made by Superintendent Wells of Chicago in 1859 is typical of several that could be cited:

In several of the new school buildings the number of teachers and pupils is so large that a considerable portion of the principal's time is consumed in attending to matters of general oversight, and in giving such aid to the other teachers as may be necessary to secure uniformity and efficiency in all the different parts . . . I would suggest that it may be desirable to make some special provision by which the principals of the larger schools will be relieved from the immediate charge of their own rooms during a portion of each day for the purpose of attending to the general interests of their respective schools.⁵

In large communities the changes in school organization made the head teachers into teaching principals with general supervisory powers. In time, some of the teaching principals, freed entirely from regular teaching duties, became building or administrative principals. Sometimes building principals were called supervising principals so as to emphasize their obligation to direct the teaching in their own schools. All of the types discussed in this paragraph exist in communities of the United States at the present time.⁶

Now, a constructive program of supervision is looked upon as a necessity in progressive school systems. While the importance of supervision is generally recognized by superintendents,⁷ principals,⁸ and supervisors,⁹ the places of these various officers in the supervisory program has not been finally settled. There is a need at the present time for further study, experimentation and dissemination of knowledge so that all supervisory officers may gain a proper perspective of their functions.¹⁰

*Types of supervisory organization*¹¹—The number and kinds of supervisory officers, the authority of each, and similar factors all exert influence upon the principal's supervisory program. The next section will present a brief summary of school organization as set forth in current professional literature. The alert principal will be anxious to study his local school system in terms of these standards so as to coordinate his efforts with those of the superintendent and supervisors.

According to Ayer and Barr¹² there are in practice three general types of supervisory organizations: the dualistic, the line-and-staff and the coordinate divisional plan.

The dualistic is represented by the system in which principals and supervisors both have direct administrative authority over the work of teachers. This plan fails to delimit author-

¹ Cubberley, E. P., *op. cit.*, p. 74-75.

² U. S. Bureau of Education, "Educational Directory." *Bulletin*, 1929. No. 1, p. 37-55.

³ Cubberley, E. P., *op. cit.*, p. 44-54.

⁴ The development of the elementary school principalship has been traced in the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928, p. 160-67.

⁵ See p. 163 of the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 168-81, 285-92 and 560-61.

⁷ See "The Status of the Superintendent," *First Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, 1923, p. 15-16, 123-42.

⁸ See "The Elementary School Principalship," *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1928, p. 182-209, 228, 249.

⁹ See "Educational Supervision," *First Yearbook*, National Conference on Educational Method, 1928, p. 105-22.

¹⁰ Hoile, James F., "A Balanced Program in Supervision," *Educational Method* 8: 443-49; May, 1929.

¹¹ See Chapter IV, "Types of Supervisory Organization" in *1930 Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association. Available February, 1930.

¹² Ayer, Fred C., and Barr, A. S., *The Organization of Supervision*. D. Appleton and Company. 1928. p. 210-48.

ity. It hinders cooperation between the two supervising officers, and places the teacher between the cross-fire of different viewpoints.

The second general supervisory organization has been called the line-and-staff system. Ayer and Barr have pointed out that this plan may exist in several types:

(1) The line-and-staff organization with special supervision subordinated. Under this scheme special supervisors are eliminated¹ or reduced to minor supervisory roles.

(2) The non-divisional line-and-staff organization with special supervision vertically organized. Under this plan special supervisors have advisory powers along instructional lines, but do not have administrative control over the teachers. All administrative and supervisory authority centers with a deputy superintendent.

(3) The divisional line-and-staff organization with special supervision vertically organized. This plan does not differ essentially from (2) above, except that authority and activities head up under divisional heads in charge of elementary schools, junior and senior high schools.

The third general type of supervisory organization has been called the coordinate divisional system.² The feature of this plan is that cooperation between administrative and supervisory officers is deliberately provided for under the direct control of assistant superintendents. It is the business of the assistant superintendent to see that these two services function effectively as separate units and cooperate together as parts of a larger program. Such a scheme emphasizes and facilitates a cooperative type of supervision.

Cooperation in supervision—The function of supervising is not lodged in one person. Superintendents, assistant superintendents, general supervisors, directors of instruction, special supervisors and principals all have supervisory powers. Cooperation between

these officers makes supervision a constructive influence on the classroom.³

Progressive theory⁴ and practice⁵ give the principal supreme administrative powers in his own building. Yet principals are ultimately responsible for good administrative practices to the head administrator, the superintendent. In the same way, principals are finally responsible to the superintendent for a constructive supervisory program. When a principal ignores or refuses to adopt the suggestions of supervisors or other expert advisers he makes himself accountable to the superintendent. Gosling has stated this point as follows:

Just as the supervisor is the technical adviser of the superintendent so should he be the technical adviser of the principal. Both superintendent and principal will do well to lean heavily on their technical advisers. As the superintendent may disregard the supervisor's advice because he is convinced that there is a better way to proceed than the one suggested, so may the principal disregard the advice of the supervisor. It should be clearly understood, however, that when the principal fails to accept the advice of the supervisor on those matters in which the supervisor is acting on the instruction of the superintendent, the obligation rests on the principal to explain his procedure and to show that his way is the better.⁶

Supervision, like other cooperative activities, is likely to have inarticulations and difficulties. General and special supervisors may differ as to teaching aims. Principals and supervisors are not always in agreement on classroom methods. Some of these problems arise more from personal than professional differences. Yet in spite of the frailties of human nature, cooperation in supervision can be improved through the following:

(1) *Tolerance*—Since supervision is a function of superintendents, principals and supervisors, each may ask himself such questions as these: Do I give the other supervisors a fair chance with their programs? Do I ever oppose them for personal rather than professional reasons? Is my attitude making the teaching of children less effective?

¹ Illustrated by T. W. Gosling in his article "Supervision Without a Supervisor," *Journal of Educational Method* 1: 306-11; April, 1922.

² See the description of the Seattle system by Ayer and Barr in *The Organization of Supervision*, p. 230-48.

³ See such articles as: Burton, W. H., "Evaluating the Efficiency of Supervisory Programs," *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 371-75; May, 1926. Wilson, Estaline: "Can the 'shun' be taken out of Supervision?" *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 379-83; May, 1926.

⁴ McGaughy, J. R., Quoted in the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 245-47.

⁵ See the majority opinion of superintendents, *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 228.

⁶ Gosling, T. W., Quoted in the *Seventh Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 244.

(2) *Defining authority*—Special supervisors are sometimes added to the supervisory organization without a clear definition of their authority. Rulebooks and handbooks of city systems are often so general as to make administrative conflicts unavoidable.¹ The initiative for assigning supervisory responsibility rests largely with the superintendent of schools.

(3) *Talking it over*—Even where individual attitudes are right and authority clearly defined there is value in conferences between supervisors. Detroit² and San Antonio³ use group conferences between special supervisors and principals. Maryland⁴ uses state and sectional meetings in promoting morale and understanding between rural school supervisors.

These meetings are ideal for the frank discussion of controversial subjects. Special supervisors and principals have a chance to influence the instructional program through objective evidence.⁵ No problem should be dropped until all types of supervisors are ready to present a united front toward classroom difficulties. Without this basic cooperation supervision has difficulty in winning the respect and support of the teacher.

The Principal in a Program of Supervision

1. AYER, FRED C., AND BARR, A. S. *The Organization of Supervision*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1928. 397 p.

Practices, research, and expert opinion on the functions of superintendents, principals, and supervisors in a program of cooperative supervision.

2. BARR, A. S., AND BURTON, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1926. p. 27-72.

Summarizes the basic principles on the organization and administration of a city-wide supervisory program. Many examples of practice.

3. COLLINGS, ELLSWORTH. *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. 1927. p. 3-118.

General theory on the value and function of supervision.

4. COURTIS, S. A. "Problems in the Appraisal of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 269-78; April, 1929.

Differences in the functioning of supervisory programs.

5. CRANDELL, C. W. "The Relationship Between Principals and Supervisors." *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1929. p. 169-78.

Points out overlapping between the activities of principals and supervisors. Attributes inarticulations to faulty supervisory organization.

6. GIST, ARTHUR S. "Next Steps in Supervision from the Standpoint of the Elementary School Principal." *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1929. p. 179-86.

Shows that principals cooperate with supervisors who do not misuse administrative authority.

7. HOSIC, JAMES F. "A Balanced Program in Supervision." *Educational Method* 8: 445-49; May, 1929.

Discusses importance of integrating the activities of all supervisors.

8. HUBBARD, FRANK W. "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Educational Method* 8: 496-99; June, 1929.

Describes the progressive principal in a program of cooperative supervision.

9. HUNTER, FRED M. "The Principal and the Educational Expert." *Fourth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1925. p. 369-84.

Urges the principal to cooperate with the various officials attached to the superintendent's office.

10. KEYWORTH, M. R. "A Program of Appraisal Under Functional Supervision in Hamtramck,

¹ Hubbard, Frank W., "Do School Systems Need a Principal's Handbook?" *Elementary School Journal* 29: 590-93; April, 1929.

² Birkham, George, Quoted in the *Seventh Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 241-42.

³ Neal, Elma A., "A Program of Supervision for San Antonio." *First Yearbook*. National Conference on Educational Method. 1928. p. 91-104.

⁴ Maryland State Department of Education. Staff report on "The Plan of Supervision in Maryland." *First Yearbook*. National Conference on Educational Method. 1928. p. 38-40.

⁵ Spain, C. L., "The Detroit Plan of Supervision." *First Yearbook*. National Conference on Educational Method. 1928. p. 82-7.

Michigan." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 290-300; April, 1929.

General discussion of supervision in operation.

11. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. *First Yearbook*. 1928. 270 p. *Second Yearbook*. 1929. 207 p. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

These yearbooks summarize much of the objective evidence on the value and use of specific supervisory technics. Chapters describing cooperative supervision as a practice in certain states and cities.

12. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Department of Elementary School Principals. *The Seventh Yearbook*. 1928. Chapters VIII and IX.

Opinion and practices making for cooperation in specific activities between superintendents, supervisors, and principals.

13. NEWLON, JESSE H. "Reorganizing City School Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 2: 404-11; June, 1923.

Discusses relationship of principals and supervisors in a city school system.

14. NUTT, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond. 1928. Chapters I through X.

Typical practices in the organization of supervision in cities of varying sizes. Examples to show that typical board rules do not distinguish clearly the duties of principals and special supervisors.

15. REEVES, C. E. "The Principal as a Supervisor." *American School Board Journal* 78: 51-2; 138, 140; February, 1929.

Why the principal is an important supervisor.

THE SUPERVISOR must be an adviser and sympathetic helper, working in full cooperation with the principal and the teachers if she is to succeed in her position. The relationship between a teacher and a good supervisor is most delicate and is subtly affected by conditions of apparently minor importance. The supervisor who is in a position to make demands or to exercise authority is at once placed under a serious handicap as an inspiring, constructive adviser and helper of either principals or teachers. It is in this sense that a "conflict" between a supervisor and building principal is completely impossible under a sound plan of organization. In the administrative sense, the principal can never be wrong.—J. R. McGaughy in the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 247.

General Problems in Supervision

The previous chapter dealt with the principal's place in a cooperative program of supervision. Attention has been called to the supervisory functions of the superintendent and the other supervisors. Supervision has been defined as a cooperative enterprise making for better teaching by increasing the individual teacher's power of self-direction. The principal has been urged to examine critically the organization and persons of the local school system so as to evolve a sane and balanced conception of his place in the supervisory program.

This chapter directs the principal's attention away from his supervisory environment. Instead, it emphasizes the principal himself and his general supervisory procedures. Our problem now is to study the individual principal in action. What does he do? How does he do it? Why does he do it?

Types of principals—An effective program of supervision demands that the principal have wide knowledge of teaching devices, measurements, methods, and curriculums. Some principals seek guidance with these problems by uncritically adopting current suggestions which bear the signs of authority. Such acceptance of unsubstantiated information encourages an ignorant enthusiasm for the science of education.¹ At the other extreme there are those who have an enthusiasm for sentimental appeals, hearsay and tradition. People of both types bring supervision much undeserved criticism.

Chart I, on pages 290-91, compares types of principals engaged in supervisory procedures.² It will be noted that all types use the same general supervisory agencies, although they are functioning on different levels of proficiency. Such tabular comparisons are valuable insofar as they make one more critical of his own supervisory technics.

The first type of principal performs a rudimentary form of supervisory work. He may be harsh or sentimental, severe or weak, but in any case his procedures and knowledge of conditions are relatively superficial. Often, he directs attention away from his own weaknesses by doing things to keep the teacher guessing. Inspection is his over-worked technic. In genuine teaching helps and personal enthusiasm he is usually seriously lacking. He might be called a *snooper-visor*.

The second type of supervising principal engages in a mechanical form of supervisory work. He has an unshaken faith in the fool-proofness of current statistical procedures. He accepts experimental evidence without critical evaluation of its sources. Frequently his intense, high-power manner commands temporary respect from his fellow-workers. His misuse of legitimate technics makes him a leader with a false or *pseudo-vision*.

The third type of principal is a true professional worker. His technics are reliable, his manner sympathetic and his motives impersonal. He has an honest desire to help his teachers function upon a high professional level. Difficulties are studied and remedied in terms of the personal and teaching differences of the school staff.³ Teachers are encouraged to accept the maximum of self-direction.⁴ Strict uniformity in teaching technics is required only when such demands can be supported by objective evidence. The particular abilities of each teacher are developed fully through many cooperative procedures. Persons qualifying as this type of supervisor stimulate general approval for the supervisory program.

The time allotment—Probably the principal's time allotment to supervision is one of the most tangible problems to attack. Supervising and teaching principals will find much

¹ Judd, Charles H., "Can High School Supervision be Made Scientific." *Proceedings*. National Education Association. 1928. p. 733.

² Compare with: Morrison, Robert H., "Qualifications Leading to Appointment as School Supervisors and Administrators." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 12: 505-11; November, 1926. Taylor, J. S., "Some Desirable Traits of the Supervisor." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 9: 1-8; January, 1923.

³ Waples, Douglas, "Teachers' Difficulties as a Basis for Supervision." *Educational Method* 8: 399-403; April, 1929.

⁴ Neal, Elma A., "What the Supervisor Can Do to Encourage Scientific Attitude in the Classroom." *Educational Method* 6: 372-76; May, 1927.

of the available research on this problem summarized in earlier publications.¹

On the basis of this research it has been suggested that supervising principals and teaching principals should divide their time approximately as follows:

Activity	Teaching Principals	Supervising Principals
Supervision	35.0	50.0
Administration	17.0	30.0
Teaching	30.0	5.0
Clerical	8.0	5.0
Miscellaneous	10.0	10.0
	100	100

The above percents, although based on the suggestions of more than 1000 principals, are provisional. There are many local conditions which are bound to influence the individual allotment. Under ideal circumstances a supervising principal might be provided with enough help so as to eliminate most of the clerical work from his program. Perhaps, the platoon school principal and those in larger communities would not find it wise to assume any teaching responsibilities. So it is well to recognize that many individual variations will legitimately exist.

But these local and personal factors are poor excuses for not giving a fair share of the day to supervision. Every principal owes it to his school to avoid time-consuming, routine tasks.² Administrative procedures should be used to free him for study and research of classroom instruction.³ The initiative for undertaking such a program lies chiefly with the individual principal.

General steps in improving the principal's supervision—All principals engage in some form of supervision. Progressive principals may be distinguished by continuous effort to improve their supervisory programs. A principal's program of supervision can be raised to a higher level by improving its *quantitative* and *qualitative* aspects.

The quantitative phases of the supervisory program have to do with the amount of time

given certain factors in a supervisory program. Quality in supervision has to do with skill, adaptability, appropriateness, and discernment with which the factors of a supervisory program are manipulated.

Perhaps the distinction between these two aspects may be brought out more clearly by the discussion in connection with Chart II. It will be noted that in Column 1 is listed a number of factors which may be involved in a supervisory program. Under the Columns 2 and 3 are given the quantitative and qualitative interpretations of the factors in Column 1.

For example, Principal A is anxious to improve his supervisory program. He selects teachers' meetings as a factor requiring examination and adjustment. If Principal A has been holding genuine supervisory teachers' meetings,⁴ he may increase the *number* of these meetings. Such a step would be improving his supervisory program by emphasizing the quantitative aspects. On the other hand, Principal A might not increase the number of meetings, but simply provide *better* meetings. Such qualitative improvements would require attention to such factors as: adapting topics to teachers' needs, obtaining services of outstanding experts, giving each teacher a chance to participate in the meetings, checking up the meetings through classroom visits.

A third emphasis would be to adjust both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the supervisory program at the same time. Probably, in most situations principals will find that these two aspects require mutual consideration and adjustment.⁵

Specific steps in improving the principal's supervision—An analysis of the supervisory situation shows that the potent factors are (1) the principal, (2) other supervisors, (3) the teachers, (4) the pupils, (5) the curriculum, and (6) the various supervisory procedures.

Basic to all improvement of supervision is the realization by the individual principal that improvement is necessary and possible. Not

¹ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals. *Seventh Yearbook*. 1928. p. 142, 146, 204-209, and 289-292. Research Division. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin* 6: 89-91; March, 1928.

² Morrison, J. Cayce, "One Day With Fifty-three Principals." *Bulletin* 6: 67-73; January, 1927. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

³ National Education Association, Research Division. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin* 6: 103-7; March, 1928.

⁴ Social and administrative teachers' meetings are not considered a part of a supervisory program.

⁵ Hubbard, Frank W., "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Educational Method* 8: 496-99; June, 1929.

CHART I—DEGREES OF SKILL IN SUPERVISION. ARE YOU A SNOOPER-VISOR? A PSEUDO-ADVISOR? OR A SUPERVISOR?

Agency	Snooper-vision	Pseudo-vision	Super-vision
Rating Scales	Use rating scheme as a "club" to compel adherence to supervisor's pet schemes. Emphasize personal qualities and irrelevancies, while neglecting to rate the important, intangible factors of teaching technic. Never show ratings to the teachers.	Use rating card made by administrators only. Encourage statistical treatment of petty personal and instructional items. Place an unusual emphasis upon ratings because of their statistical nature. Defend these mathematical symbols of subjective opinions as being infallible and final.	Develop score cards in cooperation with teachers. Design items on rating card so as to diagnose teaching difficulties. Use rating as a means to better teaching, not as an end in itself. Show all ratings to the teacher and indicate steps in self-improvement.
Class Visitation	Drop in for short, irregular visits. Count the number of open windows. Note the neatness of the floor. Smile at the pupils. Scowl at the teacher. Exit hurriedly with a mystical expression.	Visit according to a get-in-to-every-room schedule. Take copious notes. Make teacher realize that he is being critically examined. Interrupt instruction to leave copy of notes. Tell teacher that you expect improvement before your next visit.	Visit according to previously thought-out purposes. Observe often and long enough to form reliable judgments. Observe mainly teaching technics and pupil behavior; not persons. Confer on lesson at time when teacher may ask questions and offer suggestions.
Teachers' Meetings	Call all meetings unexpectedly. Permit long-drawn-out discussions on insignificant topics. Discuss petty routine details of school organization. Scold the whole faculty for the mistakes of the few. Show authority by dominating the meetings.	Require meetings for intensive professional study. Discuss topics remotely connected with the needs of the particular group of teachers. Ignore the extension work and professional interests of the staff. Encourage promiscuous and uncritical experimentation.	Professional meetings arise from a constructive supervisory program. Attendance is voluntary because attractive programs make compulsory rules unnecessary. Discussion and critical evaluation of current experimental literature are encouraged. Teachers report on their own research and experimentation.

CHART I—DEGREES OF SKILL IN SUPERVISION. ARE YOU A SNOOPER-VISOR? A PSEUDO-ADVISOR? OR A SUPERVISOR?—CONTINUED

Agency	Snooper-vision	Pseudo-vision	Super-vision
Demonstration Lessons	Emergency demonstrations while visiting classrooms. Demonstrator usually poorly prepared for the lesson and not acquainted with the teacher's most pressing problems. Teacher chagrined and criticized before the class. Children confused and ill-at-ease. No opportunity for the teacher to raise questions.	Many intensive demonstrations by highly skilled specialists. Lesson given before many persons and under otherwise unnatural surroundings. Failure to apply the principles of the demonstration to classroom problems. Failure to recognize the danger of discouraging, fatiguing, overawing, or confusing teachers.	Demonstration lessons in natural situations under regular teachers. Aims of lesson attainable and understood by observers. Observation of lesson guided by outlines. Small group discussions following the lesson with applications to typical classroom conditions. Teachers encouraged to improve upon demonstration lessons.
Pupil Adjustment	Pupil maladjustments generally ignored. Teachers urged to settle difficulties in their own way. Most serious cases transferred, punished or otherwise avoided. No careful case studies of pupils. Teacher's suggestions and parental cooperation ignored or misused. Principal's judgment final and infallible.	Principal ferrets out and magnifies minor pupil maladjustments. Pupils measured statistically and adjusted according to formulas. No recognition taken of pupil achievement, interests, or health. No recognition of teacher's judgment of pupil. Uncritical dependence upon current statistical procedures.	Teachers assisted in studying pupils objectively. Pupil guidance and adjustment based upon complete data, including pupil's health, parental opinions, and teacher judgment. All individual placements tentative and adjustable in terms of subsequent developments. Emphasis upon prevention of maladjustments.
Individual Conferences	Teacher made to feel that he is "on the carpet" for inferior work. Blanket praise without emphasis upon specific skills. Blanket criticisms without suggestions for improvement. A one-sided conversation with the teacher listening to impractical and unsympathetic advice.	Teacher shown test scores and other statistical data without instruction as to the meaning of these terms. Professional reading assigned without emphasis upon specific pages of particular value. Professional courses advised without consideration of the teacher's classroom problems, personal health, or previous training.	Conference based upon previous teachers' meeting, testing program or class visit. Suggestions made in terms of the individual differences of teachers. Appreciation of teacher's specific skills clearly indicated. Joint agreement with teacher on necessary steps to overcome weaknesses and develop strong points of classroom procedure.

until the Prodigal Son was shocked by the depths of his depravity did he make effective efforts to improve his condition. Few principals need to be so thoroughly shocked. Yet, many must make applications to themselves of the principle, that real growth results from inner urges and cannot be imposed by outside authority.¹ Progressive principals will subject themselves to close scrutiny as they ask: Am I trained for supervision? Do I keep myself abreast of the best educational practices? Is my attitude toward the teachers cordial and impersonal? Is my philosophy of education broad, progressive and constructive? Am I giving my teachers a tolerant and sympathetic leadership?

Under many city schemes of supervisory organization the principal is not the only person with supervisory functions. It is true

that superintendents usually hold the principal *responsible* for the supervision within a particular building, but this does not deny the existence of other supervisors.² Experience shows that several types of supervisors are necessary. Therefore, one basic problem is to adjust the work of the various supervisors so as to influence teaching with a unified and constructive program. All principals may well ask themselves such questions: Is my attitude toward supervisors entirely fair? Do I give the supervisors a genuine opportunity to bring their experience to bear upon my school's problems? How can I cultivate among my staff a friendly attitude toward supervisors? How can I make better use of the supervisor's visits to my building? In what projects can I cooperate with the supervisors?

CHART II—THE QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE ASPECTS OF SUPERVISION

Factor (procedure, technic or agency)	Quantitative	Qualitative
1	2	3
Principal's Time Allotment	Gives a large proportion of his total school day to supervisory activities.	Devotes supervisory time only to the most helpful supervisory technics.
Teachers' Meetings	Holds many supervisory meetings.	Adjusts meetings to teachers' needs. Follows meetings with classroom visits, conferences and bulletins.
Teacher Rating	Rates teachers frequently. Encourages teachers to rate themselves frequently.	Rates teachers only upon factors which bear directly on teaching. Discusses ratings with the teachers.
Classroom Visits	Visits rooms frequently. Increases the length of visits.	Observes pupil activities and teachers' technic in terms of planned observation points.
Visits of the Special Supervisors	Encourages supervisors to visit more frequently. Increases the length of the supervisor's visits.	Uses the supervisor's visits for demonstrations. Encourages supervisor to criticise school program, use of materials and so forth.

¹ Pinkston, Eva G., President's message in the *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1929. p. 135-36.

² Newlon, Jesse H., "Reorganizing City School Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 2: 404-11; June, 1923.

Supervision, revolves around the teacher. If what the principal does helps the teacher to do better work with her pupils,¹ then the supervision is good and constructive. Therefore, supervision is not good *simply* because it employs standard tests, teachers' meetings, rating scales, conferences, bulletins and other recognized procedures. These activities have little value in themselves. They are tools whereby the supervisor analyzes teaching problems, diagnoses situations, proposes solutions and evaluates outcomes. Much of the effectiveness of such tools may be lost because the principal is not sensitive to the ultimate influence upon the teacher.² Activities may be started with enthusiasm, but not carefully followed through. Sometimes this enthusiasm for supervisory technics makes one oblivious to the individual differences of teachers. It is well for the principal to ask such questions as these: Do I use supervisory activities indiscriminately or with intelligent adaptation to the needs of the individual teacher? Do I follow up my technics until I see objective evidences of improvement in teaching? Am I so sensitive to the teachers' attitudes that I modify my supervision when it tends to arouse antagonisms?

Sometimes, the principal overlooks the pupils as an important factor in the improvement of the supervisory program.³ The pupils are the center of the learning process. Teaching technics are valuable insofar as they set up favorable learning environments. Therefore, it is a doubtful form of supervision to compel teachers to use a particular teaching device without considering the physical and mental peculiarities of the pupils. Here is where the principal must be careful not to demand unreasonable conformity to his viewpoint. Every principal may ask himself these questions: Do I know the mental ability of this class? Do I know the achievement of the class in this particular subject? Is my teaching technic

sound in terms of the mental ability and accomplishment of this class? Should I permit the teacher to modify my proposal in terms of his knowledge of these pupils?

The three main factors in the classroom situation are: the pupil, the curriculum and the teacher. General supervisory suggestions have been given above for the pupil and the teacher. The curriculum offers another approach in improving the classroom instruction.⁴ Principals may ask themselves such questions as these: Should the city curriculum be adapted in terms of my community? What changes need to be made in the courses of study to meet the needs of certain pupils? How can I help teachers to use the printed courses? How can I make the objectives of the curriculum function in the classroom activities?

The improvement of supervision in connection with the sixth factor, that is supervisory technics, has been touched upon above in connection with the *quantitative* and *qualitative* aspects.⁵ Other facts bearing upon the supervisory procedures will be discussed in subsequent paragraphs under appropriate headings. Sufficient at this point are certain general questions: What are my typical supervisory procedures? Do I make these technics ends in themselves or means to larger objectives? How can I subordinate the day-to-day activities so that the larger supervisory problems will be emphasized? What are the larger problems of my supervisory program?

How to proceed in supervision?—Supervision by subjects or by grades is advocated by many standard professional works.⁶ Sometimes these references imply that all good supervision must proceed in terms of subjects or grades. Yet, in practice principals find themselves engaging in supervisory activities which cannot be easily classified. Are such activities less valuable than those of subject and grade supervision?

¹ Armentrout, W. D., "Supervision and Educational Aims," *Journal of Educational Method* 2: 272-81; March, 1923.

² See such articles as: Foster, Velma, "Rural School Supervision as Seen by a Rural Teacher," *Educational Administration and Supervision* 10: 181-88; March, 1924.

Cook, Selda, "Teachers' Ideas of Helpful Supervision," *Educational Administration and Supervision* 9: 554-57; December, 1923.

Adair, Cornelia, "What Teachers Want in Supervision," *Proceedings*, National Education Association, 1928, p. 729-33.

³ See the sections of this Bulletin on pupil guidance and adjustment.

⁴ Alltucker, Margaret M., "The Principal and the Curriculum," *Bulletin* 7: 670-73; July, 1928. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

⁵ See earlier pages of this chapter.

⁶ Burton, W. H. (and others) *The Supervision of Elementary Subjects*. Appleton, 1929. 710 p.

Probably it will clarify thinking to discuss certain points in connection with Chart III. It will be recalled that the *ultimate end* of supervision has been defined as: intelligent self-direction by each teacher as a member of a teaching group. In Column 1 of Chart III are listed *three intermediate aims* of supervision: problem solving, prevention, and projection.

Problem solving has to do with the elimination and improvement of specific teaching prob-

lems. Prevention refers to the steps taken to eliminate the occurrence or recurrence of teaching difficulties. Projection activities seek to lift instruction above the "good enough" or "getting by" level. Projection procedures attempt to stake out new advances in teaching skill, even in fields where instruction exceeds the national norms of standard tests. Perhaps, the descriptions in Column 3 of Chart III will make problem solving, prevention and projection distinctions more concrete.

CHART III—TYPES OF SUPERVISION

Type	Central factor	Description of procedure
1	2	3
Problem solving	Subject	Standard tests, teacher's judgment and visits show principal that certain pupils cannot succeed with the regular arithmetic course. Subject content reduced, drill and diagnostic materials used. Teacher guided in the work.
	Grade	Several low second grades show poor progress. Teachers and principal use standard test to regroup on basis of ability. Grade outcomes revised in terms of new alignments. Group conferences to adjust teaching.
	Teacher	Visits show that teacher did not teach in terms of individual differences. Standard tests given to prove differences. Teacher shown how to form ability groups within class. Aid given in developing materials.
Prevention	Subject	Previous experience has shown a tendency in spelling not to complete the minimum essentials. Conferences with teachers brought out the difficulties. At a certain period each year meetings, conferences, and tests are used in keeping the work moving smoothly to completion.
	Grade	Last year's tests of the high sixth pupils revealed weaknesses in certain phases of composition. Conferences with teachers showed a lack of certain supplementary materials during second report period of term. Each semester thereafter teachers supplied with necessary materials.
	Teacher	Teacher X has a tendency to review too much at the first of every term. This habit results in neglecting essential work. Principal assists teacher to use standard tests and drill material in speeding up the work of the first weeks. Each year the teacher was able to avoid the early difficulty.
Projection	Subject	Conferences with teachers show that the history and civics course of the whole school needs to be enriched and revised. Committees, study groups, and teachers' meetings arranged as part of a curriculum revision program.
	Grade	Standard tests show the two low sixth grades near the national norm in reading. Both groups interested in contest to exceed the standard requirements. Principal and teacher studied individual difficulties, applied diagnostic measures, and stimulated morale. At end of period standard tests given to check the gain.
	Teacher	Teacher X shows signs of ability, yet her teaching skill is hardly average. Principal enlists her interest in the possibilities of the project method. Teacher's new enthusiasms tend to increase the general spontaneity of her work.

What supervisory technics should the principal use?—Close study of the descriptions in Column 3 of Chart III show that teachers' meetings, visits and other technics are used in all types of supervision. This flexible manipulation of technics is correct. It emphasizes not the technics themselves, but outcomes as shown by improved teaching and self-direction by teachers.

Sometimes a principal announces that his supervisory program consists of teachers' meetings, ratings, and demonstrations.¹ One may question: Why use these particular technics? Why not use conferences, standard tests, and class visits? Does a supervisory program consist of certain technics or is it merely carried out by these procedures? Are the specific supervisory acts ends in themselves or only means to ends?

The vital question for each principal is not: what are the best supervisory procedures, but, what technics will be most useful in meeting the problems of my teaching staff? The next question is: How shall I use these technics effectively in improving the teaching in this particular school?

Progressive principals discover the best technics for their supervisory programs by studying the classroom activities of their own schools.² Classroom activities may be studied directly through class visits; *semi-directly* studied through standard or informal tests; and *indirectly* studied through conferences with pupils and teachers.

Wise principals will mix the use of supervisory technics with a large measure of human understanding.³ The principal expects the teachers of his staff to apply sound psychological principles in using teaching technics. Is it expecting too much of principals to observe these same rules? Does the best learning take place when the learner develops a hatred for the teaching? Is there value in self-activity⁴ on the part of the learner? Such questions on teaching technics can only be answered in the affirmative for they recognize human qualities.

Similarly, many human qualities exert potent influences on the supervisory program.⁵ While principals usually find it best to make supervision as impersonal as possible, this does not mean that the traits of human nature can be ignored.⁶

General Problems in Supervision

1. BRUECKNER, L. T. "Developments in the Technics for Securing Factual Data Concerning Classroom Teaching." *Second Yearbook*. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. 1929. p. 13-34.

Brief summary of current supervisory procedures. Citations of many practical references in professional literature.

2. BURTON, W. H. "The Evaluation of Supervision." *First Yearbook*. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. 1928. p. 219-33.

Summarizes professional literature on the value and effectiveness of supervisory practices.

3. BURTON, W. H. (and Others). *The Supervision of Elementary Subjects*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1929. 710 p.

Chapters by L. J. Brueckner, F. G. Bowser, Laura Zirbes and others. Summarizes research and supervisory practices in reading, arithmetic, industrial arts, music, art, handwriting, spelling, nature study, geography, language, civics, history and health.

4. CUBBERLEY, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1923. p. 337-529.

Practical chapters on knowing the school, classifying pupils, using the course of study, cooperating with special supervisors, and helping the teachers.

5. GAMBRILL, BESSIE L. "A Critical Review of Researches in Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 279-89; April, 1929.

Brief review of current professional literature.

6. GRAF, LOUISE. "Improvement of Teachers in Service." *Sixth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1927. p. 282-85.

Emphasizes that constructive supervision gives each teacher freedom for self-expression.

7. GRAY, WILLIAM S. "Methods of Improving the Technic of Teaching." *Elementary School Journal* 20: 263-75; December, 1919.

¹ Morrison, J. Cayce, "Supervision from the Teachers' Viewpoint." *Journal of Educational Method* 1:131-38; December, 1921.

² Cook, Selda, "Teachers' Ideas of Helpful Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 9: 554-57; December, 1923.

³ Wright, Frank W., "Leadership in the Principals'hip." *Bulletin* 5: 140-46; April, 1926. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

⁴ Collings, Ellsworth, "The Meaning and Function of Creative Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 4: 404-09; June, 1925.

⁵ Crabtree, J. W., "Personality in Supervision." *Proceedings*. National Education Association, 1915, p. 516-19.

⁶ McSkimmon, Mary, "Characteristics of an Efficient Elementary School Principal." *Proceedings*. National Education Association, 1926, p. 694-700.

Help received from supervisors according to 200 classroom teachers.

8. HEFFERNAN, HELEN. "A Plan for Effective Rural Supervision." *School Executives Magazine* 48: 390-93; May, 1929.

Summarizes and integrates several practical activities.

9. HUBBARD, FRANK W. "Obtaining Time for Supervision Through a Teachers Handbook." *Elementary School Journal* 29: 748-53; June, 1929.

Describes a device for releasing the principal from troublesome, routine duties.

10. JOHNSON, ORLANDO H. "The Adjustment of New Elementary School Teachers in City School Systems." *Eighth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1929. p. 162-68.

Reports practices in making the new teacher an efficient unit of the school system. Evidence presented to show that the new teacher is frequently give no helpful supervision.

11. LANE, ROBERT H. *A Work Book for Principals and Supervisors*. School Publication No. 175. 159 p. 1929. Los Angeles City School District.

A handbook on many problems in administration and supervision.

12. LINDQUIST, R. D. "The Evaluation of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 301-10. April, 1929.

Some evaluation of the different supervisory activities of principals.

13. MCCLURE, WORTH. "The Rating of Elementary School Principals in Service." *Fourth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1925. p. 424-46.

Summarizes practices in evaluating the principal's work. Gives examples of several rating scales and check-lists.

14. MORRISON, J. CAYCE. "Methods of Improving Classroom Instruction Used by Helping Teachers and Supervising Principals of New Jersey." *Elementary School Journal* 20: 208-16; November, 1919.

Lists many useful supervisory technics.

15. MORRISON, J. CAYCE. "Supervision from the Teacher's Viewpoint." *Journal of Educational Method* 1: 131-38; December, 1921.

Points out some common and uncommon supervisory technics.

16. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Department of Elementary School Principals. *The Seventh Yearbook*. 1928. Chapters IV, V, VI, VII, XIII and XIV.

Duties and time allotments as reported by principals.

17. NUTT, H. W. *Current Problems in the Super-*

vision of Instruction. Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond. 1928. Chapter XI.

Summarizes supervisory procedures as found in typical school systems.

18. PARK, F. R. "Who Motivates the Teacher?" *School Executives Magazine* 48: 364-66; April, 1929.

The principal's follow-up puts supervision across.

19. REEVES, C. E. "The Principal as Supervisor." *American School Board Journal* 78: 51-52, 138 and 140; February, 1929.

Sixteen principles of supervision for principals.

20. RHODES, SARA L. "The Principal and a Democratic Regime." *Third Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1924. p. 371-79.

Suggests that principal should be friendly, tolerant, and cooperative with teachers. Teachers grow best when given freedom in the classroom.

21. RICH, FRANK M. "Analysis of Teachers' Work." *Sixth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1927. p. 178-96.

Gives an analysis of teaching by raising pertinent questions which every supervisor must consider.

22. SHOWALTER, BENJAMIN R. "The Development of Supervision of Instruction." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 10: 481-94; November, 1924.

Traces development of supervision in education.

23. STRAYER, GEORGE D. "Rise of Public School Administration." *School Executives Magazine* 49: 14-15; September, 1929.

The significance of the phenomenal development of administration and supervision.

24. STULTKEN, E. H. "The School Principal as Revealed by School Surveys." *Eighth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1929. p. 151-61.

The actual and the ideal principal according to school surveys.

25. TRUITT, W. J. B. "Distributing the Principal's Time." *School Executives Magazine* 48: 498-99; July, 1929.

Several practical suggestions for avoiding routine duties.

26. UNDERWOOD, F. M. "Analysis and Evaluation of Supervisory Activities in Saint Louis." *Sixth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1927. p. 162-67.

Suggests types and use of supervisory technics as developed under practical school conditions.

The Background for Supervision¹

The supervising principal must be well informed. Much of his academic and professional knowledge will be obtained from the teacher-training institution and from professional texts. But some of the most helpful knowledge for supervision must be obtained on the job. Such special information includes facts about the community, the course of study, the parents, the pupils, the teachers, and the school plant.

This chapter brings in brief review a number of fact-finding activities which bear indirectly upon supervision. Many of these procedures are in themselves administrative, clerical or research work. But the *interpretation* and *use* of the facts discovered may be the highest type of supervision.

Principals can profitably think through the many questions raised in the following paragraphs. Reflection brings out three necessities: (1) that the principal have a philosophy of life and of education, (2) that the principal know the policies of the superintendent and the school system, and (3) that the principal know the philosophy and objectives back of the local curriculum. Straight thinking based upon such fundamentals, is bound to make the major portion of the principal's work focus in terms of improved instruction.

Knowing the Community²

Progressive theory holds that a major responsibility of principals is to adjust the school to the local community. This means knowing the positive and negative factors which influence the child during the hours outside of the school day.

A nearby pool hall may seriously interfere with the attendance of several pupils. Not much can be done to improve the instruction insofar as it affects the absentees. Sometimes the irregular attendance may be such as to prevent the teachers and regular pupils from doing their best work. While the enforcement of attendance is an administrative duty it is of ultimate importance in the classroom. The

improvement of teaching may require the changing of negative learning conditions more than it does the teacher's technics.

On the positive side there are the community's libraries, museums, parks, factories, and recreational centers. The progressive principal will not overlook these neighborhood facilities in making classroom work more concrete and effective.

Let us consider the hypothetical case of Principal X who decides to enlist the community in the educational program of his school. The problem is discussed at a meeting of the school faculty. The teachers tried to answer this question: How can the community supplement the school? A few of the agencies suggested at the meeting are discussed in detail in the next paragraphs.

Public Library—Discuss with the central city library the possibilities of establishing a branch library in the school. If the branch idea is impossible, consider these problems: Will the central library supply small classroom libraries? Can pupils be permitted special privileges in securing and keeping books? Will the library set aside certain shelves on topics of particular interest to the school? Can the library staff give demonstrations at the school on the use of library facilities?

Museums—Arrange to secure from the museum any exhibits which correlate with classroom activities. Other problems: Can excursions be accommodated by the museum? Will the museum staff explain the exhibits to the pupils? At what hours would pupil excursions be given special attention?

Police Department—Obtain the assistance of the police department in safety instruction. Other problems: What safety and moral hazards exist in the community? What information can the police furnish to the civics classes? Are police officers available for talks and demonstrations in the school? Would class excursions to the police station be profitable?

¹ See Chapter VIII, "Training for Supervision," in 1930 *Yearbook*, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association. Available February, 1930.

² See Chapter X of the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1928, p. 249-54.

Fire Department—Obtain the assistance of the fire department in fire prevention. Other problems: Are firemen available to supplement the fire drill instruction, to give talks on fire prevention, and to demonstrate how to turn in alarms? Would it be worthwhile for civics classes to visit the engine station? Can firemen be obtained for first-aid classes?

Chamber of Commerce—Ask the Chamber of Commerce for publications and exhibits. Other problems: What factories are located in the district? What forms of industry will likely develop in the future? What maps, pamphlets and exhibits are available for classes? What conventions, industrial and agricultural shows are planned for the year?

Private Schools—Cooperate with private and special educational institutions of the community. Other problems: What cultural, travel, and musical programs are planned for the district? What are the educational purposes of the special schools? What cooperative enterprises could be undertaken with these special schools?

Women's Clubs—Establish contacts with the educational committees of the civic, improvement and women's clubs of the district. Other problems: What are these educational committees attempting to do? What can these organizations do in securing supplementary instructional materials, equipment, and exhibits? Can these groups supply workers to assist with certain special teaching? Can these groups help the schools in fighting vicious propaganda?

Colleges—Cooperate with schools of higher learning, particularly teacher-training institutions. Other problems: What use can our classes make of the library and other special facilities of the college? Can volunteer student teachers be secured for coaching pupils, curriculum revision, experimental studies, and other special work? Can the college faculty give lectures and special courses for the teachers of our school?

The above paragraphs describe some of the ways in which the principal and his faculty may become acquainted with his school community. A few examples have been given to

show how this knowledge may be used to benefit classroom instruction. Other ways will suggest themselves to the alert principal who participates in a community survey. Besides improving instruction the re-direction of local interest may serve to stimulate the publicity, public relations, administration, and clerical phases of the principal's work.¹

Knowing the Curriculum²

Improving instruction involves almost immediately the purposes and contents of the local course of study. What is expected of the teachers and pupils? How are they supposed to attain these objectives? How well are they succeeding in terms of the printed requirements? Do our courses need revision? Are we recognizing the recent contributions of curriculum research? What adaptations should be made to fit the local courses to my particular community?

The principal plays first a passive role in relation to the curriculum. He must know what others in authority prescribe or recommend for the local school system. The sources of such information are: (1) the state authorities, (2) the local curriculum bulletins, (3) the specialists of the staff, and (4) the superintendent of schools.

In the second place, the principal's relationship with the curriculum offers opportunities for valuable, creative work. Curriculums need revision and adaptation to meet local needs. Research and experimentation in this field is particularly adaptable to the principal's supervisory program. Teachers respond quickly to one who is informed on content, devices, and teaching technics.

State authority—In some states the state law specifies the subjects to be taught in the elementary school. Sometimes the exact time allotment is stated for health and physical education. A few states have passed laws forbidding the teaching of certain kinds of information. Often the rules of the state board of education may be as effective as laws passed by the state legislature.

Generally speaking educators do not approve numerous and specific laws in regard to the

¹See such references as: Boyer, Philip A., *The Adjustment of a School to Individual Needs*. University of Pennsylvania, 1921 141 p.

Kyte, George C., *The Reorganization and Administration of an Elementary School to Meet the Needs of a Community*. University of California Press, 1925, 144 p.

²See Chapter VII, "Curriculum and Course-of-Study Making as Factors in the Improvement of Instruction," 1930 Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association. Available February, 1930.

school curriculum. Education changes so rapidly that even up-to-date legislation becomes antiquated and tends to restrict the school's work. This restricted influence has been discussed in connection with the California Curriculum Study as follows:

The effect of the numerous requirements in California has been undeniably detrimental. To comply with the letter of the laws that were on the statute books in 1923 unquestionably meant an unsound educational program. To develop an appropriate program meant ignoring or even violating the law. These are alternatives between which teachers should not be forced to choose.¹

Although state laws tend to restrict the educational program, it is the principal's duty to be informed as to the requirements. In improving the instruction of his school he should endeavor to carry out the general educational objectives set forth in the state laws.

In many states principals are finding the state departments particularly useful in supplying supervisory aids. Chief among these helps are the curriculum bulletins, the statistical reports, the summaries of research, and the personal visits by state officers.²

Local curriculum bulletins—City and county authorities have done much in recent years to reduce the curriculum to bulletin form. These pamphlets offer concrete material for the principal's supervisory program. One of his major responsibilities is to help in putting curriculum revisions into practice. This means constantly referring to the objectives, content, and methods of the local bulletin so as to judge classroom progress.

Local specialists—Many city and county school systems employ specialists in the individual school subjects. The methods of these persons must be secured through conferences, bulletins, and group meetings. Principals are fortunate to be able to call upon experts in solving the supervisory problems of the particular school.

Superintendent of schools—Alert principals follow the superintendent's curriculum policies

through bulletins, speeches, annual reports, and personal conferences. See the next center heading of this chapter for further details.

Curriculum revision—The revision of the curriculum in progressive school systems is no longer a scissors-and-paste activity. Nor are school authorities satisfied with courses of study devised entirely by theorists and experts. The current plan is to enlist teachers, principals, supervisors and experts in a cooperative revision project.

Here is where the principal has an opportunity for active and creative leadership.³ He is in immediate touch with the teachers and classroom problems. On the other hand, he is in touch with the research and experimentation reported in professional conventions and current educational literature. Curriculum construction activities are closely allied with those of teacher direction as indicated in a recent article on secondary school supervision:

The very same objectives which the curriculum maker should recognize are the objectives which supervisors need to recognize. It is the business of the former to collect suitable subject-matter. It is the business of the latter to oversee the successful presentation of these materials in classroom instruction. Sometimes this double responsibility might rest with one and the same individual, sometimes with more than one, depending upon the administrative practice necessitated in the local situation.⁴

Knowing the Superintendent's Policies

Under generally accepted schemes of school organization the superintendent is the chief supervisor. Much of his contribution is made in the general school policies and objectives. He points out the subjects needing particular emphasis, organizes special types of instruction and provides facilities for certain school work. Often such activities bear directly upon the classroom work in each school.

The alert principal will follow the leadership of his superintendent as shown in speeches,

¹ Bagley, W. C., and Kyte, G. C., *The California Curriculum Study*. University of California Printing Office, 1926, p. 16-17.

² Outstanding work is being done by state departments in such states as: New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Texas, Maryland, California, and others.

³ Alltucker, Margaret M., "The Principal and the Curriculum." *Bulletin 7*: 670-73; July, 1928. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

⁴ Clement, J. A., "Supervision of Instruction and Curriculum Making in Secondary Schools as Complementary Processes." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 13:170-77; March, 1927.

bulletins, and annual reports. Particular attention should be paid to the annual reports such as issued by the Rochester¹ and the Montclair schools.

In the Montclair report we find this statement which should influence the supervisory work of the principals:

It is imperative, as one may already have guessed, that the courses be sufficiently flexible and sufficiently inclusive to make of education a real experience for little children. I am hoping that we may soon arrive at that point where first grade is not synonymous with teaching children to read. Some children should read in the kindergarten, while others ought not to be taught reading until they are in the second or third grades.²

A number of school systems issue printed and mimeographed bulletins from the superintendent's office. Many examples could be cited to show the instructional significance of these weekly or monthly messages, but two will make the point clear:

We believe that our teachers should have all of the information that it is possible for them to secure concerning the subjects which they teach, but it is more important for them to have all the information possible about the nature and needs of children. They should have a sympathy broad enough to reach each child and deep enough to enable them to love all those with whom they work. Are you a beloved leader and a scientific guide?³

Even in the past, the teacher whose influence counted most was not the one who saw formal subject-matter as the only goal of her endeavors. It was, and is, a center of attention, but we have come to realize that education means vastly more than subject-matter to be learned and tested.⁴

Knowing the Parents

It is an excellent thing when the principal knows the parents of problem children. Information as to parental occupations, interests, emotional tendencies and financial con-

ditions aid in eliminating many maladjustments. Yet, why should this knowledge of parents and homes be limited to problem cases?

Let us consider a school located in a crowded Italian community. Would the regular hygiene course of study need adaptation to district conditions? Could the pupils be expected to buy many supplementary books and periodicals? Should the music classes be increased in length and variety of activities? Could training in wise use of leisure be given more than usual emphasis?

Not all elementary schools are located in foreign communities. But the occupations, the attitudes and the financial status of the parents are factors which exist in all districts. Moreover these forces are often active enough during out-of-school hours to hinder, if not to nullify, classroom instruction. Principals and teachers cannot ignore these home influences. Sometimes classroom instruction can be so adapted as to capitalize upon home conditions.

With the help of his teachers a principal may secure the following information: (1) birthplaces of parents, (2) citizenship of parents, (3) occupations of the district, (4) number of children in each family, (5) financial status of the homes, and (6) the moral and social status of the homes.

Schools will find it advantageous to place the above facts upon the cumulative record of each pupil.⁵ Sometimes it will be best to collect and maintain the information upon standard record forms.⁶ In all cases the data should be readily available to the teachers. Principals often find that the summarized tabulations offer profitable material for teachers' meetings. In other ways cumulative records may be interpreted and used so as to benefit instruction.

Information on the topics listed above may be secured from many sources:

Interviews with parents—Principals have occasion to talk with parents in the home and in the school office. Such interviews give new insights into the ambitions which parents have

¹Weet, Herbert S., *The Work of the Public Schools*. Rochester Public Schools, 1928, 612 p.

²Pickell, Frank G., *Progressive Education Policies*. Montclair, N. J., 1929, p. 19.

³Givens, Willard E., *Superintendent's Bulletin*. Oakland Public Schools. August 15, 1929, p. 4.

⁴Cody, Frank, *The Detroit Educational Bulletin*. Detroit Public Schools. September, 1929, p. 1.

⁵See "School Records and Reports," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. V, No. 5, 1927, 132 p., National Education Association.

⁶See such systems as the "McAllister-Otis Child Accounting System" as described in *Child Accounting Practice* by McAllister and Otis, World Book Company, 1927, 196 p.

Also, the *Strayer-Engelhardt School Record Series*, C. F. Williams and Son, Inc., Albany, N. Y.

for their children. Sometimes teachers call upon sick children. Facts ascertained from all such contacts should, whenever possible, become a part of the records of each child.

Special workers—The school nurse and the visiting teacher are admirably placed to study home conditions.¹ Knowledge gained in the line of their special duties should be used to improve classroom instruction.

Questionnaires sent to homes.—Sometimes the principal will find a simple questionnaire useful in making a survey of home conditions.² Obviously this device must be used with extreme care. In some foreign communities it might be entirely impractical. Information collected in this way can be checked at intervals through personal interviews and the records of visiting teachers. Although the questionnaire procedure is frequently unreliable, certain facts as to occupations and nationality can be collected with sufficient accuracy.

School census—In some places the school census records are complete enough to yield helpful facts. Where duplicate records are not available for each school the data can be copied upon the cumulative record cards.

Economic surveys—Frequently the local Chamber of Commerce makes occupational surveys of the community. In larger cities these surveys are made by the vocational guidance department of the school system. While these reports may not give specific figures for each school district they can be suggestive as to adaptations of the local curriculum.

The Federal Census—The report of the Federal census contains information as to the proportion of citizens engaged in certain types of work. Such reports are very general and are only available for ten-year intervals, but they give useful figures for comparative purposes.

Knowing the Pupils³

Elementary school principals often pride themselves on their intimate knowledge of individual pupils. Much of this information collected from miscellaneous sources can be

turned to good advantage in the classroom. The possible weaknesses of such unrecorded information are: omission of essential facts, poor organization and lack of uniformity for comparisons between pupils.

The above dangers can be avoided when the principal uses certain standardized tests, records and procedures. Among these sources of information are: (1) the age-grade distribution, (2) the progress studies, (3) the promotion-failure tabulations, (4) the intelligence test, (5) the achievement test, (6) the citizenship and character tests, (7) the informal test, and (8) the personal interview and case study.⁴

The age-grade distribution—Space is not available here to discuss the technic of age-grade studies which may be found in many professional texts.⁵ Observation shows that principals do not experience great difficulty in making age-grade studies. The real problem is knowing how to interpret and use the facts which the survey brings out.⁶ Table 1 shows a typical age-grade distribution. Such a table is only the first or fact-finding step toward answering these questions: Should the school be regrouped on the basis of standard tests? What pupil adjustments could be made between the different grades? Does the eleven-year-old child in the second grade need individual instruction? Why is there more retardation in the fourth grade than in any other grade?

Progress studies—The adjustment of the school to the pupils is partly shown by grade progress studies. Table 2 shows data reported in a survey of Hammonton, New Jersey. The same information can be obtained and similarly presented by a principal of a single school. Table 2 raises many questions which closely touch the classroom work. Why are more than one-third of the pupils retarded? Does our medical and health program influence this problem? Are the standards of promotion too high? Do we measure pupils progress adequately with our present testing pro-

¹ Knox, Margaret, "The School, The Maladjusted Child, and The Visiting Teacher." *Elementary School Journal* 28:176-80; November, 1927.

² The Parent-Teacher Association can be helpful in gathering many types of information for the principal.

³ See the following: Heck, Arch O. *Administration of Pupil Personnel*. Ginn and Company, 1929, 479 p.

Mort, Paul R. *The Individual Pupil*. American Book Company, 1928.

⁴ See the chapter of this Bulletin on pupil guidance and adjustment.

⁵ For example, Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin, p. 340-47.

⁶ For practical suggestions on the use of survey data see such reports as: *Survey of the Schools of Maple Heights, Ohio*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929, 226 p. George D. Strayer, Director.

TABLE 1—AGE-GRADE STATUS OF THE STANTON SCHOOL

Age	Low 1	High 1	Low 2	High 2	Low 3	High 3	Low 4	High 4	Low 5	High 5	Low 6	High 6	Total
5½	7	2											7
6	7	3											9
6½	3	3											6
7		6	8	1	1								15
7½	3	1		6	1								11
8	1		3	1	5								10
8½		1	3	2	2	1							9
9			1	2	1	4	1	5	1				15
9½				1	1	2	3	1					8
10						1	4	3	5	2	2		16
10½						4	5	1	5	5		5	18
11			1				2		5	2			18
11½					1		1		3	2	6	2	15
12								1	1			2	6
12½												2	4
13									2		1	4	7
13½						1						1	2
14									1		1		2
14½												2	2
15										1	2		5
15½										1			1
Under age	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	5	1	3	2	5	
At age	17	9	8	7	7	5	4	4	9	7	6	4	
Over age	4	2	8	5	3	8	12	3	12	5	6	11	
Total	21	13	16	13	11	13	16	12	22	15	14	20	

Read table as follows: There are seventeen children between the ages of 5½ and 7. These children are said to be "at age" and are marked off by the heavy lines. Numbers above the heavy lines represent "under age" children. Numbers below the heavy lines are so-called "over age" children.

Adapted from Table 22 of *The Adjustment of a School to Individual and Community Needs* by Philip A. Boyer. Published thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, University of Pennsylvania, 1920.

TABLE 2—GRADE AND PROGRESS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

Number of years in school	Grades								Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Less than 1	139	1							40
1	29	117	6						52
2	2	48	100	5					55
3		8	49	116	2				1175
4			5	58	101	1			1165
5			1	19	47	83	4	1	1155
6				3	13	71	66	13	166
7				1	1	12	41	49	104
8						2	8	28	38
9								15	15
Total	170	174	161	202	164	169	119	106	1265
Percent making slow progress	18.2	32.2	34.2	40.1	37.2	50.2	41.2	40.6	36.5
Percent making normal progress	81.8	67.2	62.1	57.4	61.6	49.1	55.4	46.2	60.9
Percent making rapid progress	0.0	.6	3.7	2.3	1.2	.6	3.4	13.2	2.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Read table: One hundred and thirty-nine children have been in the first grade less than one year. The percents making normal, slow, and rapid progress are shown at the bottom of the table.

Adapted from Table 22 of the *Survey of Hammonton, New Jersey*, 1926, p. 60. George D. Strayer, Director. See also, *Survey of the Schools of Maple Heights, Ohio*, 1929, p. 77-112.

gram? Have we given enough attention to individual pupils? What can be done to increase the percent of acceleration?

Promotional-failure status—A study of the school's promotions and failures should give the principal clues as to needed supervision.¹ These tabulations may include failures by grades, failures by subjects or teacher opinion as to the cause of failures. Table 3 shows the causes of failure in Sioux City according to the classroom teachers.

TABLE 3—CAUSES FOR PUPIL FAILURES ACCORDING TO TEACHERS

Probable cause	Total number of failures	Percent of total
1. Low mentality.....	304	22.87
2. Personality and behavior.....	292	21.97
3. Attendance.....	259	19.48
4. Academic difficulties.....	188	14.14
5. Health.....	139	10.45
6. Family conditions.....	117	8.80
7. Activities outside of class.....	2	.001
8. Unclassified causes.....	28	2.10
	1329	99.811

Adapted from Table 1, page 241 of the *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. A study of failures in Sioux City for 1927-28 as reported by E. E. Briggs.

According to Table 3 low mentality and pupil personality difficulties most frequently cause pupil failures. But immediately the alert principal must face these problems: Are these 304 pupils genuine subnormals or merely cases of maladjustment? Should any child fail for "low mentality" reasons? Do we need to devote several teachers' meetings to mental testing? Could we study with profit the characteristics and needs of children at each mental level? Are the curriculum requirements so difficult as to cause many so-called personality problems? How can we reduce the number of failures without lowering the standards?

The intelligence test—Current professional literature is indicative of the widespread use of intelligence tests.² Yet the most difficult problem in this field is applying the knowledge gained from the tests.³ When the principal finds that his school contains more than the normal proportion of dull children, what should he do about it? What difference would this make as to enrichment of the course of study? Would it be advisable to provide much drill material? Should special classes be formed for the slowest pupils? How can the bright pupils be given their rightful opportunities?

The achievement test—Standardized diagnostic and survey achievement tests may be used to discover learning difficulties.⁴ Reports of such testing should show more than a given class standing in relation to national standards.⁵ Classroom teachers are more interested in discovering individual learning difficulties and applying remedial teaching measures. It is a mistake to make the giving, the scoring, and the reporting of standard tests ends in themselves. Follow-up measures, based upon the facts discovered, demand the highest supervisory skill.

Citizenship, character, and attitude tests—Recently schools have developed a new interest in character education. This interest is shown by the addition of "habits and attitudes" to report cards⁶ and by the development of courses of study.⁷ Character and civic-attitude tests of a preliminary type are now available in printed form. While many of these tests are still in experimental form, no other field deserves more attention from principals.⁸

Progressive principals are moving with due caution with these new testing developments. Attempts to measure intangible character traits are not always satisfactory.⁹

¹ See such examples as:

Merrill, John, "Reducing the Percentage of Failures in the Detroit Elementary Schools Without Lowering Standards," *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1929, p. 461-63.
Rogers, Don C., "A Study of Pupil Failures and Subject Failures in Chicago," *Second Yearbook*, Chicago Principals Club, 1927, p. 65-71.

² See such references as: *Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher* by V. E. Dickson, World Book Company, 1923, 231 p. Also, Corning, H. M., *After Testing—What?* Scott, Foresman and Company, 1926.

³ See the section of this Bulletin on pupil guidance and adjustment.

⁴ See the following references:

Brooks, Samuel S., *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1922, 278 p.

Paulu, E. M., *Diagnostic Testing and Remedial Teaching*, D. C. Heath and Company, 1924, 371 p.

⁵ See the section of this Bulletin on pupil adjustment.

⁶ Homer, Francis E., "A Survey of Elementary School Pupil Report Forms," *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1929, p. 218-34.

⁷ For example: Oakland Public Schools, *Building Character Through Activities*, Oakland, California, 121 p.

⁸ National Education Association, Research Division, "The Principal and Progressive Movements," *Research Bulletin* 7:75-82; March, 1929. Chapter on character education.

⁹ Brown, F. J. and Schelmadine, Marguerite, "A Critical Study in the Objective Measurement of Character," *Journal of Educational Research* 18:290-96; November, 1928.

Yet the "simultaneous learning" which goes on in the classroom needs to be recognized.¹ Honesty in school work, a love for school, confidence in the teacher and other pupil reactions seriously influence learning conditions. The study and use of these forces presents many administrative and supervisory problems.

The informal test—The term informal tests applies to unstandardized materials used to measure attitudes, judgment, and information. Such tests are of particular value in diagnostic work and in checking the local course of study.²

The value of such tests lies in their flexibility in the hands of competent persons. The preparation of reliable tests requires more good judgment and observance of basic principles than highly technical knowledge. The reader is referred to current literature for detailed discussion of how to make informal examinations.³

The personal interview—The technic of the personal interview as applied to pupils is considered in greater detail in the section of this Bulletin on pupil guidance and adjustment. Sufficient at this point is the reminder that the interview is a technic for securing data about pupils. Not infrequently a child will reveal to the principal interests and difficulties which can be passed along to the teacher. The interview is often the principal's great chance to study the child's emotions. Here good attitudes may be formed or destroyed depending upon the principal's skill in winning confidence. Such data can be used to make adaptations in classroom procedure so as to facilitate the learning.

Knowing the Teachers

Much of our current literature of supervision suggests working directly with teachers on class problems. While this Bulletin has suggested other approaches in improving classroom conditions, it is true that the teacher is the center of the problem.

Probably many of the principal's suggestions are lost in dealing with teachers because of a failure to recognize individual differences. We assume that a successful teaching technic with one teacher can be transferred easily to another classroom. Such may not be the case. Teachers differ radically in training, experience, energy, professional enthusiasm and other ways which materially influence teaching procedures. Sometimes a particular teaching method succeeds not because of its inherent value, but because of personal enthusiasm. An alert principal will, therefore, inform himself in all particulars as to the individual differences of his staff and govern his professional leadership accordingly.

Sources of information on the teachers include the following, (1) records in the superintendent's office, (2) regular teacher rating scales, (3) self-rating scales and (4) personal observation.

Records in the superintendent's office—Many school systems require each teacher to file references, and records of training and previous experience. These data are supplemented from time to time by rating reports and professional training records. While some of this information should be confidential much of it could be used by the principal in more careful assignment of teachers to classrooms.

Regular teacher rating scales—Surveys of teacher rating show the practice to be rather general in city school systems.⁴ Usually supervisors and principals are required to file an annual opinion of the teacher's personal traits and general teaching ability. Admitting the many weaknesses of teacher rating the judgments formed over a period of years should prove of some value in guiding professional growth.

Self-survey forms—There are available now several self-rating or self-survey forms for teachers. Principals can distribute these to the teachers, asking each one to check himself and file the results in the office. Even the ordinary teacher rating scale can be used in

¹ See Chapter I of Kilpatrick's *Foundations of Method*. Macmillan. 1925.

² See the section of this Bulletin on pupil guidance and adjustment.

³ See the following references:

Paterson, D. G. *Preparation and Use of New Type Examinations*. World Book Company. 1925. 87 p.

Ruch, G. M. *The Improvement of the Written Examination*. Scott, Foresman and Company. 1925. 193 p.

Russell, Charles. *Classroom Tests*. Ginn and Company. 1926. 346 p.

⁴ National Education Association, Committee on Classroom Teachers' Problems. *Teacher Rating*. 1925. p. 8.

the same manner. The standardized teacher examinations and check-lists may prove useful. These self-surveys not only provide the principal with information, but serve to make the teacher critical of her work and professional preparation.¹ A self-critical attitude on the part of teachers gives the principal an opportunity to discuss professional preparation.

Personal observation—Collecting facts by observing a person at work is a typical procedure. Principals probably use this means more frequently than any other in securing facts as to the teacher's ability, attitudes, and interests. The weakness of this procedure is that information thus gained is apt to be unorganized. Personal observation needs to be supplemented by the records and the data discussed in other paragraphs of this section.

Knowing the School Plant

The instructional program is closely related to the adequacy of the school plant and equipment. Once the school has obtained adequate facilities the real problem becomes one of efficient use. Principals may well investigate whether the physical plant and equipment are advancing the instructional phases of the school's work. Here are some typical inarticulations between theory and practice:

(1) The health classes emphasize the importance of washing the hands frequently. Yet the school does not provide soap or towels for the pupils.

(2) Maps, atlases, globes, and similar equipment tend to collect in certain rooms. Since these devices are not readily accessible many teachers make no attempt to use them.

(3) The supervisory program may emphasize the value of extensive reading in the second, third, and fourth grades. Yet supplementary readers are not supplied in numbers for classroom work. Bookcases and "browsing" tables are not used in displaying the books in the classroom.

(4) Projection machines and slides are purchased to stimulate visual instruction activities. The makeshifts used in darkening the rooms and the conflicting demands for the limited equipment tend to discourage the teachers.

Other instances would be cited to show how the physical plant and the equipment may handicap the instruction. The supervisory program may make demands upon the teachers which they cannot meet because of poor instructional materials. Pupils may be required to learn facts which the school does not help them to practice. How may the principal study these conditions? Some of the available approaches to these building problems are survey technics, inventories and the school janitor.

Survey technics—The reader is referred to the many school surveys for detailed discussion of survey practices.² One widely used device is the Strayer and Engelhardt score card for elementary school buildings.³ For the purposes of this discussion the total building scores will not be as significant as the status of the school plant on specific items. For example, let us examine the rating of the service systems of a particular building⁴ as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4—COMPARISON SCHOOL BUILDING SCORES WITH STANDARDS.

Item	Score received	Standard score
1. Heating and ventilation.....	11	70
2. Fire protection.....	5	65
3. Cleaning.....	4	20
4. Artificial lights.....	6	20
5. Electric service.....	2	15
6. Water supply.....	5	30
7. Toilets.....	18	50
8. Mechanical services.....	10	10
Total.....	61	280

There is a tendency in using rating forms to place much emphasis upon the total score. There are more implications for supervision and administration in the specific items. For

¹ Principals and teachers can check their professional knowledge by referring to the questions and answers in *The Teachers' Handbook* by W. S. Elsbree, H. R. Halsey and Elizabeth S. Elsbree. Published in 1929 by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 289 p.

² For example:

Hart, F. W., and Peterson, L. H. *A School Building Survey and School Housing Program for Eureka, California*. Eureka Public Schools. 1924. 58 p.

Strayer, G. D., and Engelhardt, N. L. *Report of the Survey of the Schools of Port Arthur, Texas*. Division of Field Studies, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. 1926.

³ Strayer, G. D., and Engelhardt, N. L. *Standards for Elementary School Buildings*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1923. 57 p.

⁴ See page 23 of *A School Building Survey and Housing Program for San Rafael, California*, by F. W. Hart and L. H. Peterson, University of California. Bureau of Research in Education. 1922. 70 p.

example, note in the figures cited in Table 4 that the drinking, washing, and toilet facilities are far below standard. These few inadequacies of equipment may do much to destroy the effectiveness of the health instruction. In a similar manner other specific items such as lighting, equipment, and special rooms need careful study in relation to the instructional program.¹

Annual inventory—The annual school inventory is required in some school systems by the insurance companies. It also has value in calling the principal's attention to the little used equipment or vacant class spaces.²

Figure 1 illustrates an inventory record which is made out by the teacher for each classroom. Sometimes these records are made by the teachers and pupils as a part of the classroom work. Records from each classroom are combined with those made by the janitor

for non-classroom areas of the building. Tabulations of equipment may suggest a better distribution of instructional materials.

The school janitor—The school janitor is generally recognized as an important unit in the efficient school. He is in position to know of the school's needs from angles which may bear indirectly upon classroom work. Although the janitor's positive influence upon instruction may be small, any failure to do his work efficiently may handicap the teachers.

Recognizing the negative aspects of poor janitorial work some principals try to magnify his job.³ He is made responsible for discovering needed repairs, checking upon the distribution of supplies, inspecting the sanitary conditions of the plant, and judging the ability of certain equipment to meet school conditions.⁴

Rating forms and check lists can be used by the principal in checking his janitorial service. The main items of the Engelhardt-

FIGURE 1—INVENTORY FORM FOR A SINGLE CLASSROOM

For classes from First thru Sixth Grades

Directions: Check your Class Room Equipment by the following list. Add other items which are necessary.

	Yes	No		Yes	No
American flag (silk)			Mirror		
Bell (desk)			Pencil sharpener		
Bookcase			Pictures		
Book-ends			Punch		
Brackets			Rubber stamps and pad		
Browsing table			Sand table		
Calendar (desk)			Scissors		
Chairs (visitors')			(grades 1-3, 40 to each room) (grades 4-6, 20 to each room)		
Chair (teacher's)			Shades for windows		
Clock			Standard for flag		
Cupboard (supply)			Table for supplementary books		
Desks (adjustable for pupils)			Thermometer		
Desk (teacher's)			Transom pole		
Dictionary			Waste-basket		
Display board for mounting bulletins, children's work pictures, etc.			Whisk broom		
Drawing tables			Window pole		
Dust brush			Yardstick		
Dust pan			*Doll (unbreakable)		
Inkwell			*Hectograph		
Locker (teacher's)			*Rods for weaving materials		
			*Sign maker		

*In primary rooms.
Taken from Lane, Robert. *Workbook for Principals and Supervisors*. Los Angeles School Publication. No. 175. 1929. p. 33.

¹ See the suggestions in *School Activities and Equipment* by Rose B. Knox. Published by Houghton Mifflin Company in 1927. 386 p.

² An useful form along this line is the *School Building Utilisation Forms* by G. D. Strayer, N. L. Engelhardt, and E. L. Morphet. Published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1927.

³ Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1923. p. 209-22.

⁴ Reeves, Charles E. *An Analysis of Janitor Service in Elementary Schools*. Contribution to Education, No. 167. Teachers College, Columbia University. 1925. 194 p.

Reeves-Womrath score card for janitorial service¹ are as follows:

Item	Standard Score
I. Administration of janitorial engineering service.....	40
II. Personnel	90
III. Building facilities for janitorial engineering service	20
IV. Amount of work required per janitor-engineer	40
V. Daily cleaning of floors.....	125
VI. Dusting	80
VII. Scrubbing and mopping.....	70
VIII. Oiling of floors.....	30
IX. Cleaning and polishing of woodwork and furniture	30
X. Washing glass	60
XI. Toilet cleaning.....	80
XII. Blackboard cleaning.....	30
XIII. Eraser cleaning.....	15
XIV. Other cleaning.....	55
XV. Heating and ventilating.....	150
XVI. Special work.....	85

1000

Summary—The purpose of this chapter has been to indicate that effective supervision requires the utilization of certain facts about the community, the superintendent's policies, the parents, the teachers, the school plant and the course of study. The discussion has indicated sources of information on these factors.

Principals should not deceive themselves by thinking that fact-finding is supervision. Fact-finding is only a means to an end. The facts merely throw light on such questions as these: What does this mean for our course of study? How should we change our teaching methods? What changes should be made in our school objectives? How should I assign my teaching staff?

The above chapter has dealt largely with the presupervisory activities of the principal. Important as most of these procedures are they may not exert any direct influence upon the teaching. Good administration makes teaching possible, but it does not guarantee good teaching. The business of supervision is to make all teaching good and good teaching better.

Background for Supervision

1. BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., AND KYTE, GEORGE C. *The California Curriculum Study*. University of California Printing Office. 1926. 430 p.

¹ Engelhardt, N. L., Reeves, C. E., and Womrath, G. F. *Standards for Public School Janitorial-Engineering Service*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1926. p. 5-10.

An analysis and criticism of the California school curriculum. Pages 247-331 present factors affecting curriculum revision: i. e., public attitude, pupil progress and pupil mobility.

2. BOYER, PHILIP A. *The Adjustment of a School to Individual Needs*. University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. 1920. 141 p.

A principal collects objective data on the community, the parents and the pupils. These data are used in recommending changes in the school building, organization, curriculum, and methods.

3. CUBBERLEY, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1923. p. 337-413.

Chapters on knowing the school, classification, and the course of study. Suggests how these many factors may be used to improve instruction.

4. HAMTRAMCK PUBLIC SCHOOLS. *Housing the Children*. Research Series No. 1. 1926. 123 p. Hamtramck, Michigan.

Many practical suggestions for the principal who wishes to study the community, parents and pupils of his school district.

5. HECK, ARCH O. *Administration of Pupil Personnel*. Ginn and Company, Boston. 1929. 479 p.

Discusses types, purposes and uses of pupil personnel records.

6. KIRBY, B. C. "Standards for Surveying the Teaching Personnel." *School Executives Magazine* 48: 531-33; August, 1929.

Emphasizes teacher morale as a powerful factor in spite of poor buildings and equipment.

7. KNÖX, ROSE B. *School Activities and Equipment*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 1927. 386 p.

Considers school equipment in relation to the instructional program.

8. KYTE, GEORGE C. *The Reorganization and Administration of an Elementary School to Meet the Needs of a Community*. University of California Press, Berkeley, California. 1925. 144 p.

How a principal obtained objective facts on his school community and used these to improve instruction.

9. LANE, ROBERT H. *A Work Book for Principals and Supervisors*. School Publication No. 175. 159 p. 1929. Los Angeles City School District.

A handbook on many problems in administration and supervision.

10. McALLISTER, A. J., AND OTIS, A. S. *Child Accounting Practice*. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson. 1927. 196 p.

Records and systems to make pupils stand out as individuals.

11. MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. "Supervisory Activities in Maryland." *Maryland School Bulletin* 10: 1-95; September, 1928.
Excerpts from the reports of county supervisors to the state superintendent. Many practical suggestions.
12. MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *Child Accounting*. Courtis Standard Tests, Friesiema Brothers Press, Detroit. 1924. 205 p.
Suggests many record forms and describes their use in practice.
13. MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. "Relating the School Plant to the Instructional Process." *The Nation's Schools* 4: 21-24; August, 1929.
Discusses the relationship between the physical plant and the teaching.
14. MORT, PAUL R. *The Individual Pupil*. American Book Company, New York. 1928. 383 p.
Many suggestions in classifying, studying, and adjusting the individual pupil.
15. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Division of Research. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin* 6: 81-148; March, 1928.
A survey of the various phases of the principal's work. Many suggestions for articulating duties so as to bear on the improvement of instruction.
16. REEDER, WARD G. *The Business Administration of a School System*. Ginn and Company, Boston. 1929. Chapters I, II, VII, XI, XII, XIII, XV, and XVI.
Section on the use of the school plant, maintenance, janitors, school inventory, and supplies. Practical suggestions for making routine administration less time consuming.
17. SMITH, H. L., AND CHAMBERLAIN, L. M. *A Bibliography of School Buildings, Grounds and Equipment*. Bulletin. School of Education. Indiana University, Bloomington. 1928.
Cites many references on the various phases of building planning, constructing, and equipping.
18. STRAYER, G. D., AND ENGELHARDT, N. L. *Standards for Elementary School Buildings*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. 1923. 57 p.
Invaluable guide in the systematic maintenance, improvement and use of the school building.
19. UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION. *The Francis Scott Key School*. Bulletin, 1920, No. 41. (Prepared by Charles A. Bennett.) 31 p.
Tells how a school reorganization plan was based upon a survey of the community.

IT IS as fair for the principal to be expected to plan his work in advance of visitation as it is for the teachers to be expected to plan their work and to reduce their plans to writing for his inspection. It is also a good thing for the principal to do, for its influence on the school. The more the teachers are taken into the confidence of the principal in his supervisory work, the more teaching is made to partake of the nature of cooperative work between teachers and principals for the good of the pupils.—E. P. Cubberley. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 1923. p. 440.

Classroom Visits

The progressive principal is anxious to secure firsthand reports of classroom activities. He forms judgments based upon his own observations. He maintains a sympathetic attitude toward instructional problems by mingling with teachers and pupils under typical classroom conditions. Such principals report class visits as one of the largest time-consuming duties of the elementary school principalship.¹

Types of visit—Observations show that there are three types of classroom visits: social, inspectional, and supervisory. A particular occasion might combine two or more of the above types, but most visits have a *primary* purpose. A simple "good morning" call is of value chiefly for social reasons. Inspection visits are useful in checking heat conditions, open windows, room neatness, pupil discipline, class management, and similar routine details. Supervisory visits are directly aimed at improving the instruction.

All types of visits are necessary and useful in the principal's supervisory program.² Brief social visits may help to make the young teacher more confident in his new surroundings. Inspectional visits often reveal the problems which need careful study. But social and inspectional visits alone cannot solve complicated instructional problems. Such difficulties require patient observation and careful research. Supervisors who never get beyond the more superficial visits may be criticized as not functioning upon the highest supervisory level. Few principals are satisfied to advise teachers solely on the basis of social and inspectional visits.

Do teachers want visits?—From the supervisor's viewpoint an extensive program of classroom visitation is essential. According to current tradition teachers do not like to be observed. Are there any objective data on this point?

Kyte asked classroom teachers to list aid desired from principals.³ The replies show that in fifteen items "more visitation and study of classroom" was fifth in frequency of mention.

Nutt has tabulated the "helps desired from supervisors" as reported by classroom teachers in Topeka, Kansas, and Hammond, Indiana.⁴ The second most frequently suggested aid from general supervisors was "more explicit criticisms of lessons taught under observation." Out of the five important helps desired from special supervisors "more frequent visits" was fourth in frequency of mention.

Why do teachers react unfavorably to infrequent visits? The answer is suggested in Nutt's study by the request for "more frequent" visits. Teachers believe that the principal cannot judge the value of classroom activities by one or two short visits each term. Nor can incidental observations give a complete idea of teaching difficulties. Teachers appreciate constructive help with teaching problems.⁵ Principals find little objection to visits when teachers know that superficial advice will be followed with concrete assistance.

The frequency and length of class visits—Generalization as to the frequency and length of class visits is suggestive for local school situations.⁶ Table 5 shows replies of more than 500 supervising principals as to the number of visits made per school week. The median number of visits is approximately 12 a week or an average of about two per school day. It is noteworthy that the median number of visits increases with the larger schools.

Probably the length of observations as shown in Table 6 is more significant than the number of visits. The most frequently reported period is from 26 to 30 minutes. The median length of classroom visits is 21 minutes.

¹ See the *Seventh Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1928. p. 189-90.

² National Education Association. Research Division. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin* 6: 92-102: March, 1928.

³ Kyte, George C. "The Elementary School Principal as a Builder of Teaching Morale." *First Yearbook*, Michigan Elementary School Principals Association. 1927. p. 44-52.

⁴ Nutt, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Johnson Publishing Company. 1928. p. 245 and 254.

⁵ Kyte, George C., *op. cit.*, p. 48, Table 1.

⁶ See the exhaustive treatment in *Visiting the Teacher at Work* by Anderson, Barr, and Bush. Published by D. Appleton and Company. 1925. p. 56-77.

How long is a real supervisory visit? We cannot generalize too dogmatically on this for:

The length of the supervisory visit should be determined by the specific situation. If we are to understand supervision as involving study of classroom situations and requiring careful planning then it is obvious that visits must be reasonably long. Certainly fair conclusions cannot be drawn by merely "dropping in" or by observing for even fifteen minutes in an hour period.¹

The scheduling of visits—Whether supervisory visits should be scheduled or not is a practical difficulty for many principals. A little analysis shows that there are three types of supervisory visits:

(1) The unannounced visit is commonly used by principals.² While this type of visit may be justified in many instances, the surprise element tends to put many teachers on the defensive. In Melby's study 377 teachers rank "unannounced visits" as sixteenth in value out of 17 items.³

(2) The invitational visit is common among teachers who have experienced the benefits of constructive supervision. A sympathetic principal will usually have more requests than he can meet in the available time. While these voluntary requests for supervision are highly complimentary, to limit classroom visits to such

a basis would make for "hit and miss" supervision.⁵

(3) The scheduled visit, the most difficult to use with regularity, assures guidance and help to every teacher. The absence of a surprise element makes it easier for the principal to direct a cooperative study of teaching problems.⁵ Scheduled visits are usually based upon a plan of supervision covering several weeks. Observations in typical schools show that these long-time plans are frequently disrupted by emergency demands upon the principal. When such dangers threaten the wise principal will set up the administrative machinery necessary to safeguard his supervisory program.

Should visits be scheduled by grades, by subjects or according to the needs of individual teachers? Since all of these plans merit common use in practice we may reasonably conclude:

Various plans of scheduling visits have merit and should prove useful to the principal. One situation might require an investigation of reading throughout the whole school, thereby making subject supervision the best form in that particular instance. An adjustment of content between several classes of the same grade level would make grade visitation most effective. The principal should not develop a "pet hobby" or plan of supervision to the exclusion of other types. All pro-

TABLE 5—NUMBER OF CLASSROOM VISITS PER WEEK BY SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS⁴

Number of visits per week	School size					Total
	Up to 499	500 899	900 1299	1300 1699	Over 1700	
No answer or none..	19	15	9	2		45
1-5.....	21	33	5	1		60
6-10.....	61	77	21	2	2	163
11-15.....	32	46	22	3		103
16-20.....	24	53	15	5	2	99
21-25.....	10	27	7	1	1	46
26-30.....	2	10	8		1	21
31-35.....	6	2	2			10
36-40.....	2	4		2		8
41-45.....		3				3
46-50.....		4	1		1	6
51-100.....	2	6	1			9
101-150.....		1	1			2
175.....	1					1
Total....	180	281	92	16	7	576
Median..	10.10	12.68	13.5	16.0	19.75	11.97

TABLE 6—LENGTH IN MINUTES OF CLASSROOM VISITS BY SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS⁴

Time in minutes	Number of replies	Percent
1-5.....	11	2.0
6-10.....	50	9.4
11-15.....	82	15.4
16-20.....	120	22.6
21-25.....	62	11.6
26-30.....	125	23.5
31-35.....	18	3.4
36-40.....	32	6.0
41-45.....	20	3.8
46-50.....	4	.7
51-55.....	0	
56-60.....	7	1.3
Over 60.....	1	.2
Total.....	532	100.0
Median.....	21.24	

¹ National Education Association. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin*, 6: 95; March, 1928.

² Discussed in greater detail in *Ibid.*

³ Melby, Ernest O. "Teacher Evaluation of Supervisory Procedure." *Second Yearbook*. National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. 1929. p. 250.

⁴ See the *Seventh Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals. 1928. p. 192.

⁵ Discussed in greater detail in "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin*. National Education Association. 6: 95; March, 1928.

cedures should be employed according to the demands of the particular situation.¹

Planning for the visit—Many class visits would be more profitable if the principal made some previous preparation. Few principals are experts in all phases of the elementary school curriculum. Even the best supervisors can hardly recall on instant notice the best teaching technics, the most recent research and the data on successful experiments.

How can one judge a lesson without expert knowledge of the course of study? How can one suggest changes in general classroom procedure without a knowledge of curriculum objectives? How can one advise as to specific technics without ample facts about experiments and research in a given field?

Suggestions and criticisms based upon superficial knowledge cannot be the best. Efforts to improve instruction should be so sound as to arouse a profound respect among teachers. Therefore, principals will some day consider professional study prior to class visits as a legitimate supervisory activity. Budgets of the principal's time will include a period for regular study.²

What should one study prior to a classroom visit? Questions of this type must be answered in terms of specific situations. Case I gives a simple application of the points previously discussed.

CASE I—PREPARATION PRIOR TO CLASS VISIT

Principal Ross of the Silver Town Schools has announced to the teachers his intention to observe reading lessons from the first through the third grades. On the day under consideration he had finished the first two grades and was preparing to visit Miss Smith in the low third. Miss Smith sent word that she was planning a lesson in audience reading, using the "Such-and-Such Story" in the *Third Reader*.

Although Principal Ross did not have an extensive library he was able to prepare himself as follows:

Type of Preparation	Time in Minutes
(1) The reading objectives in the local community.....	5
Silver Town course of study in reading, p. 5.	

- (2) The content to be considered in class. 10
State Series, *Third Reader* "Such-and-Such Stories," p. 150-70.
- (3) The teaching technics..... 10
Gist, A. S., and King, W. A., *The Teaching and Supervision of Reading*, Scribners, 1927, p. 48-70.
- (4) Certain phases of research..... 15
Third Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, 1925, on fundamental reading habits, p. 155-60, on growth in reading ability, p. 160-65, on individual differences, p. 192-200.

Total..... 40

Briefly, then Principal Ross has given about 40 minutes to study. Probably fifteen minutes more could be given to reviewing quickly the reading, making notes and listing points to look for in the lesson.³

Under no circumstances does this short period constitute the whole of the principal's preparation. The accumulated experience of his years as a teacher are of great value. But the intensive study prior to visits tends to revive many of the points which a principal should have in mind. It should give him greater confidence in his own ability intelligently to observe the lesson.

Making general notations of visits—The problems of entering the classroom quietly, not disturbing typical conditions, and showing a sympathetic attitude have been discussed elsewhere.⁴ A more perplexing difficulty is that of note-taking during classroom visits. Excellent arguments can be presented both for and against the practice. According to reports from supervising principals 58 percent do not take notes during visits.⁵ Probably much note-taking has been irritating to teachers in the past because visits have been so superficial and infrequent. It should be possible under more favorable circumstances for the principal to use records as aids in observing and making suggestions in terms of what actually happened. Some of these devices will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Stenographic notes of a lesson may prove useful on occasion. Exact notes of this type

¹ See "The Principal Studies His Job" *op. cit.*

² This regular study refers only to the quick review prior to starting a specific supervisory activity. Long periods of professional study should have no regular place during the busy school day.

³ See the observation items proposed by Barr, A. S., in "Scientific Analyses of Teaching Procedures." *Journal of Educational Method* 4: 360-71; May, 1925.

Also, Shannon, J. R. "An Analysis of High School Supervisory Notes." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 14:9-14; January, 1928.

⁴ See the following: "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association. 6: 96; March, 1928; Barr and Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction*, p. 141-58; Cubberley, E. P., *The Principal and His School*, p. 445-49, etc.

⁵ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. p. 193.

make it possible to examine carefully the teacher's questions, the pupil responses and the development of the lesson content. Stenographic records are less likely to be influenced by a personal bias than ordinary notes. Therefore they may form a basis for discussion and references in the conference between teacher and supervisor.

Nutt describes a plan for making supervision objective through written records of observations.¹ The steps in the procedure are: (1) visitation during a complete recitation, (2) making notes on lesson, (3) teacher given copy of notes, (4) several records summarized to discover outstanding difficulties of each teacher, (5) notes used in conference with teacher and (6) notes filed for future reference in connection with the teacher's work. A typical record is shown as, Reading—Case II:

CASE II—READING LESSON

Observations by Supervisor

Grade 1—Number of pupils: 12.

Time: one hour

Procedure

Each pupil had prepared a different story to read to the class. Pupils seated on rugs or chairs in a group. Five minutes given for everyone to look over his story.

Motive stated by teacher: "Listen closely so we can choose the best stories to be finished tomorrow."

Nine of the twelve pupils read a part or all of their stories. Pupils helped each other over difficulties. No one was hurried.

A few pupils took time to show pictures accompanying the story. At the close of the recitation pupils voted for stories to be read the next day.

Results

Pupils engrossed in their work, and took no notice when teacher left the room for a minute.

Pupils gave little exclamations of anticipation.

Teacher assumed an interested attitude. Most of pupils showed real interest.

A few pupils grew tired and left the group to get their weaving.

All pupils interested in voting for their favorite stories.

Analysis and Suggestions

Good points: Socialized atmosphere noticeable. Pupils felt responsibility both as listeners and as contributors. A majority of the pupils assumed a natural and genuine interest.

Weakness: Was it necessary or desirable to extend the reading period to one hour? Apparent fatigue of several pupils in leaving the group indicates the necessity of a shorter period.

Supplementary questions: Do you hold socialized recitations too frequently? Are the pupils in need of phonetic facts? Are these phonetic drills given regularly or as occasion demands? Upon what basis would you advance the pupils to do second grade reading?

Suggestions: Do you ever have general discussions with your pupils as to what constitutes good reading, or why they like to hear certain pupils read? Interest in the story is the correct emphasis, but it might be possible to get a somewhat conscious attitude of what is needed in oral reading.

Please let me know what you think on this oral reading aim. Right now I am watching this point through all grades. I shall be glad of any suggestions in regard to it.²

The scheme for note-taking illustrated by Case II will appeal to principals because of its simplicity. Teachers will appreciate the provision for an analysis of the lesson. The summary of the supervisor's evaluations and opinions gives the teacher something definite to study. Probably, of even greater importance is the fact that written evaluation of a lesson forces the principal to observe closely and to be specific in his suggestions.³

Teacher rating scales—Table 7 shows that rating scales are widely used in city school systems.⁴ Superintendents say that one of the important purposes of teacher rating is to improve teaching efficiency.⁵ Yet observations show that most rating scales are used for administrative purposes, such as eliminating the unfit, giving or withholding salary increases, and promoting to high positions.

Sometimes a principal can use the local rating scale or score card in his supervisory program. Figure 2 illustrates a card which lends itself readily to class observations. Fig-

¹ Nutt, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Chapter XIII.

² The form of these supervisory notes is adapted from Nutt's *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*, p. 283-85. The content is adapted from Ruby Minor's article, "A Case Study of Supervision," *Educational Administration and Supervision* 7:241-54; May, 1921.

³ Wagner, C. A. *Common Sense in School Supervision*. Bruce Publishing Company. 1921. p. 49-51.

⁴ National Education Association, Research Division. "Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel." *Research Bulletin* 6: 239; September, 1928.

⁵ King, LeRoy, in the *American School Board Journal*. February, 1925. p. 44.

FIGURE 2

Return to Office of Teacher Employment and Certification	Board of Education Rochester, N. Y.				
Report on Work of Teacher					
Name _____	School _____ Date _____				
Appointment Status _____					
Rating Record					
	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <th style="width: 25%;">1</th> <th style="width: 25%;">2</th> <th style="width: 25%;">3</th> <th style="width: 25%;">4</th> </tr> </table>	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4		
1. Knowledge of Subject Content and Course of Study	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table>				
2. Plan and Presentation of the Lesson	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table>				
3. Attention and Response of Pupils	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table>				
4. Attention to individual needs	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table>				
5. Growth of pupils in subject-matter	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table>				
6. Personality and Cooperation	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td><td style="height: 20px;"></td></tr> </table>				

Note: Indicate a rating by recording the letters H, A or L in the appropriate column after each of the six points above. H-high, A-average and L-low.

Fill in appointment status by indicating whether the teacher is a temporary or regular supply or has received first, second or final appointment.

Figure 3 shows a form for assembling the ratings made on several occasions.

Let it be noted again that rating in itself is not a complete supervisory procedure. The important supervisory steps are to show the teacher Figure 2 and to assist her in overcoming the indicated weakness. Until these two steps are taken the rating has been little more than clerical activity.

Judging the pupils—Much of the supervisor's attention in classroom visits is given to observing pupil's reactions. The evidence of pupil interest, attention, understanding and growth are criteria for judging the worthwhileness of the learning conditions. Morrison has pointed out that sustained attention on the

part of the class is an important evidence of good teaching.¹ He suggests that a quiet observer, with the aid of a watch and a ruled pad, can make a record of a child's concentration.² Figure 4 is such a record for a ten-minute period with notes to indicate the cause of the inattention.

If the profiles of a number of pupils indicate little sustained attention two causes may exist: (1) the teacher's procedures are not adapted to the pupils, or (2) the pupils have not de-

FIGURE 3

Principal's Summary and Recommendation			
	Observation No. 1	Observation No. 2	Observation No. 3
Date			
Subject			
Remarks			
Interview, date			
Purport			
Principal's Recommendation:			

¹ Compare with Barr's technics in "Scientific Supervision," *Journal of Educational Method* 6:190-201; January, 1927.

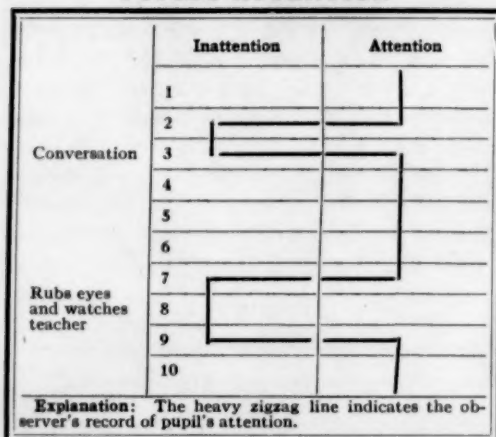
² Morrison, H. C. *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*. University of Chicago Press, 1926. p. 135-38.

TABLE 7—RATING OF TEACHERS

Teachers definitely rated as to quality of service rendered	66 cities over 100,000 in population		161 cities 100,000 to 300,000 in population		326 cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		397 cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		532 cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Yes.....	47	71.2	103	64.0	121	37.1	165	41.5	321	38.0	657	42.9
No.....	18	27.3	56	34.8	196	60.1	225	56.7	343	58.9	838	54.7
No report.....	1	1.5	2	1.2	9	2.8	7	1.8	18	3.1	37	2.4
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1532	100.0

See "Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel." *Research Bulletin*. National Education Association. September, 1928.

FIGURE 4—RECORD OF MINUTES OF PUPIL'S ATTENTION



veloped proper habits of concentration. Assisting the teacher and pupils to eliminate either or both faults is essentially a supervisory problem. Working through the teacher, the principal sets up a remedial program which can be checked from time to time with profile graphs.¹

The above discussion does not mean to imply that pupil attention must be rated on every classroom visit. After all, pupil attention is only one of many factors which the supervisor must keep in mind. But in solving certain teaching difficulties the pupil attention chart should prove a valuable aid.²

Other survey forms—The demand for a rating card of teaching has been rather persistent. Most of the administrative cards contain items restricted to the teacher. Sometimes principals are able to interest a group of teachers in developing a rating or survey form of their own. Figure 5 is the product of such study in the Reeb School of Columbus, Ohio.³ Although a rating scale of this type may contain theoretical faults, the practical self-survey value of the work to the teachers is obvious.

Whitney has suggested that the steps in a cooperative study of rating are as follows:

Step 1. Help teachers to discover the value of a self-rating scale.

Step 2. Examine and discuss several good self-rating scales.

Step 3. Work out cooperatively with the teachers a self-rating scale which they are willing to use.

Step 4. Have teachers volunteer to rate themselves and discuss the result with the supervisor.

Step 5. Let supervisor and teacher work together on weaknesses which self-rating discloses. The results on self-rating by a teacher should never be used as evidence against her.⁴

One may purchase at the present time several teacher self-rating forms. These usually contain many minute and specific items bearing upon teaching technic, pupil reactions and the teacher's personal qualities.⁵

FIGURE 5—STANDARDS FOR MEASURING INSTRUCTION

Name of standard	Points	Score
A. Teacher Procedure.....(385)		
Definiteness of aim.....	50	
Careful preparation.....	40	
Plan of presentation.....	40	
Enthusiasm.....	40	
Mastery of method.....	30	
Skill in guidance.....	35	
Skill in questioning.....	30	
Ability to meet individual need.....	50	
Ability to remain in background.....	45	
Adherence to program.....	25	
B. Subject Matter.....(290)		
Choice of material.....(45)		
Related to life.....	25	
Within pupil's understanding.....	20	
Organization of subject-matter.....	40	
Stressing essentials.....	30	
Providing interest.....	35	
Observing sequence.....	25	
Making correlations.....	40	
Quality of assignment.....	40	
Availability of materials.....	35	
C. Pupil Procedure.....(325)		
Preparation of assignment.....	35	
Responsibility for best work.....	40	
Active participation (pupil).....	40	
Maximum participation (class).....	35	
Attention and interest.....	30	
Spirit and enthusiasm.....	30	
Signs of initiative.....	35	
Power and correctness of expression.....	25	
Ability to summarize.....	25	
Reproduction and application.....	30	
Perfect Score.....	1,000	

Taken from C. A. Pollock. *The Elementary Yearbook*. Reeb School of Columbus, Ohio. 1928. p. 8.

¹ Morrison, H. C. *Ibid.* p. 138-50.

² Blume, Clarence E. "Techniques in the Measuring of Pupil Attention." *Second Yearbook*, National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. 1929. p. 37-51.

³ Pollock, C. A. "Standardizing Instruction." *The Elementary Yearbook*. Reeb Elementary School. 1928. p. 8.

⁴ Quoted from Whitney by Lane, in *A Work Book for Principals and Supervisors*, Los Angeles City School District, Publication No. 175. 1919. p. 75.

⁵ For example, *The Schulte Scale for Rating Teachers*, World Book Company, and the *South Dakota Score Card*, Bureau of Educational Research, Northern Normal School, Aberdeen, South Dakota.

FIGURE 6—A RATING SCALE FOR PRACTICE TEACHING

Qualities	Failure	Pass	Average	Strong	Superior	Score	Percentage of those passing
		Low 10%	Next 50%	Next 30%	High 10%		
							Remarks
IV TEACHING SKILL							
A. Skill in the use of the Laws of Learning. "Readiness"—To what extent does the teacher:							
1. Ascertain capacities, experience, interests and needs of children?.....				X		4	
2. Make pupils feel the need of things to be learned?.....				X		4	
3. Maintain in pupils a mind set toward purpose?.....				X		4	
4. Aid pupils to state such purposes in some definite clear way?.....				X		4	
"Exercise"—To what extent does the teacher:							
1. Aid children in planning for carrying out of purposes?.....			X			3	
2. Aid pupils in using economical procedures in executing purposes?.....			X			3	
3. Maintain interest and effort throughout the necessary practice periods?.....			X			3	
"Effect"—To what extent does the Teacher:							
1. Get the pupils to judge their own work well?.....			X			3	
2. Get pupils to find satisfaction in accomplishment of purposes?.....			X			3	
3. See that pupils find dissatisfaction in undesirable responses?.....		X				2	
4. Constantly encourage and commend effort?.....			X			3	
B. Skill in the use of Purposeful Activity. To what extent does the teacher:							
1. See that chosen purposes are gripping, challenging and worthwhile?.....		X				2	
2. See that purposes are possible and feasible?.....			X			3	
3. See that they are capable of enriching the lives of children—that they have "leading on" qualities?.....		X				2	
4. See that each one differs enough from the preceding to give necessary variation and scope?.....			X			3	
What degree of skill does the teacher possess in handling the technique of:							
1. A lesson, where the child's purpose is to embody an idea in concrete form?.....			X			3	
2. An appreciation lesson—where children's purpose is to enjoy some aesthetic experience?.....				X		4	
3. A problem-solving lesson—where purpose is to solve some intellectual difficulty?.....				X		4	
4. A drill lesson—where purpose is to make automatic a skill or some specific bit of learning?.....				X		4	
5. Questioning?.....			X			3	
C. Skill in Securing and Checking Results. To what extent has the teacher:							
1. Improved the pupils' study habits?.....				X		4	
2. Secured a gain in pupil self-direction and initiative?.....				X		4	
3. Secured improvement in pupil participation, earnestness and industry?.....				X		4	
4. Promoted progress by use of standard and informal tests?.....					X	5	
5. Removed deficiencies by remedial measures?.....					X	5	
6. Maintained a wholesome, happy working atmosphere?.....					X	5	
Summary of Checks and Scores IV.....		3	10	10	3	91	Ave. Score IV 3.50

Taken from Waddell, C. W. "A New Rating Scale for Practice Teaching." *Educational Method* 8: 214-19; January, 1929.

A type of rating scale useful among student teachers of normal schools is illustrated by Figure 6. The main sections of this scale include: personal qualities, academic and professional background, classroom management, and teaching skill. An alert principal might mineograph the section devoted to teaching skill for use in guiding his classroom observations.

A scale with unique descriptive terms, published by the Institute of Public Service of New York City, has been used in Minneapolis. The sections of this scale are: pupil response, spirit of teaching, lesson conduct, lesson assignment, and lesson preparedness. The section on lesson conduct has been reproduced in full as Figure 7.

None of the sample rating scales illustrated above are recommended for uncritical acceptance by elementary school principals. The examples given merely suggest types which have proven to be helpful under certain conditions. Valuable characteristics of the above suggested forms are:

(1) The descriptive rather than numerical evaluation of classroom conditions probably is more helpful to the classroom teachers. It avoids the numerical score with its implication of a high degree of accuracy.

(2) The inclusion of many items on the pupils and the teaching technics eliminates the common fault of centering attention upon the teacher's *personal* qualities.

(3) Many scales lend themselves readily to self-rating purposes.¹ If the principal can make a teacher conscious of her problems he

has also made progress in demonstrating the value of supervision.²

What objective facts may be obtained through visits?—Buckingham has made a suggestive list of objective data to be collected through classroom visits.³ His classification is as follows:

- I. Matters that may be expressed by time—
 - A. The time required—
 1. Before work begins
 2. In passing materials
 3. In non-productive, though perhaps necessary, ways, such as passing to the board
 4. In trying to get one pupil to understand
 5. In review of the previous work
 6. In discussing today's topic
 - B. Division of time between teacher and pupils
- II. Matters that may be counted—
 - A. The number of pupils who participated (code for each)—
 1. By answering questions:
 - a. When called upon
 - b. Voluntarily
 2. By doing something:
 - a. When called upon
 - b. Voluntarily
 3. By asking a question
 4. By helping another pupil
 5. By contributing a statement
 6. By paying attention (at stated intervals)
 - B. The number of participants above and below the average intelligence quotient
 - C. The number of responses correct or satisfactory
 - D. The number of responses incorrect or unsatisfactory
 - E. The number of incorrect responses accepted without challenge

¹ Hebb, Bertha Y. *Samples of Teacher Self-Rating Scales*. United States Bureau of Education, City School Leaflet No. 18, February, 1925, 15 p.

² Waples, Douglas. "Teachers' Difficulties as a Basis for Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 8:399-403; April, 1929.

³ Buckingham, B. R. *Educational Research Bulletin*. May 1, 1929. Compare with Barr's list in "Scientific Analyses of Teaching Procedures." *Journal of Educational Method* 4: 360-71; May, 1925.

FIGURE 7—SELF-RATING SCALE OF TEACHER ABILITY

Lesson conduct:

1. Uses pupil's experiences.	regularly	occasionally	little	ignores
2. Stimulates appetite for more.	regularly	seldom	shrivels	
3. Clears up pupil difficulties.	usually	seldom tries	weakly	confuses
4. Supplements text by stories, etc. freely.	some	slightly	none	
5. Uses blackboard and illustrations.	much	some	almost none	
6. Continuity of lessons.	good	fair	little	none
7. Effectiveness in drilling.	excellent	good	fair	poor
8. Exact accuracy.	all subjects	mathematics	rarely	fosters inaccuracy
9. Character of questions.	thought	fact	suggest answer	vague
10. Use of English.	excellent	good	fair	poor
11. Uses judgment.	ordinarily	occasionally bad	usually bad	
12. Uses time efficiently.	very	little lost	much lost	
13. Result test.	regular	uses standard	fair	poor
14. Uses current events.	regularly as aids	regularly unrelated	seldom	

Reproduced in *Samples of Teacher Self-rating Cards* by Bertha Y. Hebb, United States Bureau of Education, City School Leaflet No. 18, February, 1925, p. 7.

F. The number of questions asked by the teacher—

1. The number of leading questions
2. The number of "yes" or "no," or other alternative questions
3. The number of factual questions
4. The number of questions requiring thought

G. The number of times the teacher repeated an answer

H. The number of certain type errors of speech (might have a check list for each grade)

III. Presence or absence of—

Plan book, if required

Statement of aim or point

Summary

Serious digression or wandering

Serious interruption

Adherence to schedule

An assignment

A filing system

IV. Quotation—

A. Of forms of expression technical to the subject; for example, in second-grade arithmetic form or forms for subtraction

B. Of good questions—and of bad

C. Of materials when practicable; for example, the words of the spelling lesson, or a sample problem in the arithmetic lesson

V. Other objective facts—

A. Textbook, name of, and page reference

B. Additional readings, if any

C. Material, other than reading, or apparatus used

D. Sample papers for example (perhaps, ten chosen at random)

1. Home work

2. Done in class

E. Concentrating attention on one pupil.

A caution—The above paragraphs discuss certain important phases of class visitation as a supervisory technic. Considerable space has been given to note-taking, rating and scoring devices. Such emphasis is based upon the opinion of Detroit principals that "observation points" make class visits more systematic.¹ Others agree that superficial visits are not profitable.²

Yet the fact-finding machinery of class visits may become too cumbersome. Rating scales can be credited with a reliability which they do not possess. Poorly chosen items on score cards may hinder teachers by emphasizing relatively unimportant matters. The devices for

securing information become ends in themselves, thereby diverting the principal from important supervisory purposes. These dangers are real to the typical principal. His problem is to select and use the fact-finding tools without becoming the slave of any one device.³

Following up the visit.—The most important part of the visitation program is the follow-up procedure. The failure of many supervisors to follow-up visits is shown by the criticisms made by teachers of the general supervisors.⁴ The only outstanding criticism was: "visiting and taking notes, but not making comments on the work." In other words, failing to help teachers on the basis of facts discovered during observations.

Some principals give teachers carbon copies of notes taken during the visit. These notes may be suggestive to the teacher of strong and weak points of the work. However, the brevity of the notes may imply criticisms of the teacher's work and result in misunderstanding.

Misunderstanding of observations can be largely avoided by sending teachers detailed suggestions based upon written or mental observations. An example of such a letter is given below:

Notes Made by the Principal

Arithmetic 3.—Method: Problems in long division were used. The teacher gave a problem to the entire class after 15 children had been sent to the board. After waiting some time, the teacher asked all of those who had the quotient to hold up their hands. Then another problem was given to the entire class and the same question. This method continued to the close of the period.

Suggestions: This is a very old method. In drill of this kind we need to make provision for putting every child on his own responsibility. Then we can tell how much an individual is doing and how much the class is doing in exact terms.

I suggest that you prepare about 300 examples in long division. Group these examples by tens. Put these problems on a card and give each child a card. Have the quotients on a key card that you can quickly use to check the work of a child.

Then you can give your time to those who need it most. The cards can be graded in degree of difficulty. Your present method loses time for the bright child and encourages the dull child to steal from his neighbor.

I am inviting all arithmetic teachers of fourth and fifth grades to a demonstration lesson Janu-

¹ A Detroit outline is shown in the section of this Bulletin on demonstration lessons.

² Hansen, Rowena. "Controlled Observation." *Childhood Education* 4:370-71; April, 1928.

³ National Education Association, Research Division. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin* 6:85-102; March, 1928.

⁴ Nutt, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Johnson Publishing Co. 1928. p. 244.

ary 20, during period IX in room 206. Please permit me to use your children at that time.¹

A third method of follow-up, which should be combined with the above procedures, is the individual conference. In a personal interview the teacher has the opportunity to explain her technic, to raise questions and to ask for specific suggestions. Certain problems in connection with this procedure have been discussed in the section of this Bulletin which deals with the individual conference.

A fourth follow-up procedure is the teachers' meeting or group conference. When the group is small the opportunities for discussion may be extended to each individual. Some of the principles underlying such procedures have been discussed in the section of this Bulletin on teachers' meetings.

The principal and class visits—The preceding pages have summarized research, experience and practice in regard to class visitation as a supervisory technic. Visitation has a long history as an activity for principals, although usually inspectorial in character. Inspection visits are useful and necessary in the principal's work. But the principal cannot afford to endanger his supervisory prestige by utilizing data collected only during incidental and accidental classroom visits.

An alert principal will ask such questions as these: How can I schedule more classroom visits? How can I discover teaching problems while observing the teacher with her pupils? Can I avoid practices which cause teachers to object to class visits? How can I enlist the active interest of teachers in my supervisory visits? How would I rate myself in the use I have made of plans mentioned in this Bulletin?

Elementary school principals may well afford to check their visitation programs in terms of principles suggested above. Class visiting is one way of securing information on teaching conditions. Note-taking and rating are devices in recording the inter-action between the pupils, the curriculum, and the teacher. None of this machinery is genuine supervision until it exerts a constructive influence upon instruction.

There are three main parts to a supervisory visit: (1) preparation by the principal prior

to the visit, (2) observation in the classroom, and (3) follow-up measures based upon observed data. Principals can readily see that the first two steps make the third step effective. The important problem after all is this: I have formed certain judgments of classroom work. I have certain objective facts as to the learning success of the pupils. I have discovered some of the teacher's problems. *How can I use this knowledge to improve the learning and teaching conditions?*

Classroom Visits

1. ANDERSON, C. J., BARR, A. S., AND BUSH, MAY-BELL. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1925. 382 p.

Suggestions on how to study the teacher's work. Particularly helpful on classroom visits and conferences.

2. BAIRD, JAMES, AND BATES, GUY. "The Basis of Teacher Rating." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 175-83; March, 1929.

Presents data on the importance of a cautious application and interpretation of teacher rating scales.

3. BARR, A. S. *Elementary School Standards for the Improvement of Teaching*. Edwards Brothers, Ann Arbor, Michigan. 1924. 159 p.

Gives check list to aid the observer in analyzing classroom activities.

4. BARR, A. S. "Scientific Analyses of Teaching Procedures." *Journal of Educational Method* 4: 360-71; May, 1925.

Lists many items to be observed in making classroom visits.

5. BARR, A. S. "Scientific Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 6: 190-201; January, 1927.

Describes time charts, check lists and record forms to be used in recording classroom observations.

6. BARR, A. S., AND BURTON, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1926. p. 141-86.

An exhaustive treatment of classroom visitation and the follow-up personal conference.

7. BRUECKNER, L. J. "The Value of a Time Analysis of Classroom Activity as a Supervisory Technic." *Elementary School Journal* 25: 518-21; March, 1925.

Describes a self-supervisory device for use by the teacher.

8. BRUECKNER, L. J. "An Objective Procedure for Evaluating Classroom Practice." *First Yearbook*. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. 1928. p. 176-96.

Describes a scale for rating teachers in terms of specific methods.

¹ Power, Leonard. "How to Make Visits Profitable to Teachers." *First Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals. 1922. p. 14. Reprinted in the *Eighth Yearbook*. 1929. p. 359-66.

9. BUCKINGHAM, B. R. "Visiting the Classroom." *Educational Research Bulletin* 8: 185-90; May 1, 1929. Ohio State University.
A complete summary of the classroom factors upon which the observer may obtain objective data.
10. CARRIGAN, ROSE A. "The Rating of Temporary Teachers after a Single Supervisory Visit." *Eighth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1929. (Reprinted from the 1922 Yearbook). 367-71.
Gives a classroom score card and describes its use for supervisory purposes.
11. COLLINGS, ELLSWORTH. *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. 1927. p. 121-234.
Devices and records for studying the results of teaching.
12. CUBBERLEY, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 1923. p. 441-49.
A brief summary of the what and the how of classroom visitation.
13. HUGHES, W. HARDIN. "General Principles and Results of Rating Trait Characteristics." *Journal of Educational Method* 4: 421-31; June, 1925.
Discusses pupil rating, gives forms used in Pasadena and reports correlations between trait ratings.
14. MEAD, A. R. "An Annotated List of Manuals and Guides for Observation, Participation, and Supervised Student Teaching." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 47-51; January, 1929.
Lists manuals used in teacher-training institutions.
15. MELBY, E. O., AND LIEN, AGNES. "A Practicable Technic for Determining the Relative Effectiveness of Different Methods of Teaching." *Journal of Educational Research* 19: 255-64; April, 1929.
Describes a controlled study of teaching technics.
16. MONTGOMERY, RHODA. "The Principals Supervision of the Special Subjects." *Sixth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1927. p. 168-77.
Suggests criteria for evaluating classroom activities in music, nature study, and art.
17. NEWELL, BERNICE. "Analysis of Skills Involved in Work Reading Activities." *Sixth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1927. p. 294-302.
Lists many points of use in observing and checking reading outcomes.
18. NUTT, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond. 1928. Chapter XIII.
Suggests a method of note-taking which makes observation more specific and objective.
19. ODELL, CHARLES W. "The Assignment of Lessons." *University of Illinois Bulletin* 23: 1-20; October 19, 1925. No. 7.
Summarizes the criteria of good lesson assignment. Useful to principals in observing how teachers perform this teaching activity.
20. POWER, LEONARD. "How to Make Visits Profitable to Teachers." *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. (Reprinted from the 1922 Yearbook). p. 359-66.
Gives examples of suggestions to send to teachers after classroom visits.
21. REEDER, EDWIN H. "Lessons in Our Schools, Nos. I, II and III." *Teachers College Record*, May, 1928; October, 1928, and February, 1929.
Discusses three typical lessons in terms of modern psychology, principles of education, and teaching methods. Stimulating to the principal who would bring his general professional knowledge to bear on classroom activities.
22. RUGG, GEORGE. "Visitation as a Means of Diagnosis." *Eighth Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. (Reprinted from the 1922 Yearbook). p. 355-9.
Emphasizes friendly and practical classroom visits.
23. SHANNON, J. R. "An Analysis of High School Supervisory Notes." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 14: 9-14; January, 1928.
Lists items commonly observed by supervisors. Raises questions as to relative value of factors in the teaching environment.
24. SAUNDERS, LUCY S. "A Survey of Classroom Work." *Journal of Educational Method* 6: 20-21; September, 1926.
Suggests self-observation on part of each teacher.
25. STONE, CLARENCE R. "Oral Reading in the Elementary School and Its Supervision." *Third Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1924. p. 310-21.
Suggests points to look for in oral reading lessons and follow-up devices to use with the teachers.
26. TWITCHELL, DORIS F. "An Objective Measure in Supervision." *Journal of Educational Research* 19: 128-34; February, 1929.
Explains uses and merits of a particular observation record form.
27. WAPLES, DOUGLAS. "Teachers' Difficulties as a Basis for Supervision." *Educational Method* 8: 399-403; April, 1929.
Suggestions on the discovery and solution of teaching difficulties.
28. WILSON, G. M. "Teaching Levels, Teaching Technics and the Project, I and II." *Journal of Educational Method* 2: 323-29 and 385-93; April and May, 1923.
Discusses various types of lessons. Contrasts teaching technics with the project method.

Individual Conferences¹

Conferences between teacher and principal cultivate mutual understanding. The teacher has an opportunity to explain her technics, to describe teaching difficulties and to ask for aid. Upon these immediate problems many successful principals build their supervisory programs.²

Extensive use of conferences—There is evidence that teachers want to discuss their classroom problems with the principal. Valentine asked teachers to list the most desirable supervisory technics.³ Out of the first 36 items the following conference procedures were ranked 1, 4, and 7 as follows:

Hold office hours for teachers seeking help.

Plan with new teachers individually.

Hold friendly personal conference with teacher following visits.

Nutt asked teachers to report the most helpful things done by general supervisors.⁴ The three most valuable helps mentioned in the study are activities typical of individual conferences, such as:

1. Encouragement, sympathy, and favorable comments.

2. Helpful, valuable suggestions.

3. Friendly, helpful, constructive criticisms.

Recently, Melby made a study of the value of supervisory activities from the viewpoint of 377 elementary school teachers.⁵ The final tabulations show "conference following visitation" as being second in value out of seventeen items.

Principals, also, place great value upon the individual conference as a supervisory device. Approximately 600 supervising principals listed "conferences with teachers" as the duty consuming the largest portion of their total time.⁶ Both selected and unselected principals rank "talks with individual teachers" as the most important phase of their supervision.⁷

Frequency and time of conferences—As with all other supervisory technics the frequency and length of individual conferences will depend upon the particular situation. Conferences with individual teachers are not ends in themselves, but means of assisting teachers to higher levels of functioning. While teachers' meetings are a form of mass instruction, conferences assume the characteristics of individual teaching. Personal interviews may consume much time, but they are particularly useful in helping each teacher with his peculiar problems.⁸

The hour at which conferences are held is often a perplexing problem. The danger in many cases is that interviews will be shortened by personal and professional demands. Such hurried conferences may be so superficial as to be valueless to teachers or so brief as to cause misunderstanding. Barr and Burton have discussed this point as follows:

There is no uniformity of practice in regard to the amount of time given to conferences, nor in regard to the time for holding them. The all too common practice is to hold a hurried consultation in front of the room or at the door just as the supervisor is leaving. Recess periods between class intermissions, noon hours, and other odd periods, are often utilized. Obviously little good can result, while much dissatisfaction can be engendered.⁹

Data from approximately 600 supervising principals do not indicate complete agreement as the best time for conferences. The extent of agreement is indicated in Table 8.

Place to hold conferences—Barr and Burton say that hurried conferences immediately after the lesson are seldom satisfactory. The presence of the children, the changing of classes and other physical conditions make it impossible for the supervisor to give detailed suggestions. While general comments may be

¹ See Chapter X, "The Supervisor's Conferences and Meetings with Teachers," 1930 Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association. Available February, 1930.

² Waples, Douglas. "Teachers' Difficulties as a Basis for Supervision." *Educational Method* 8: 399-403; April, 1929.

³ Reported in full in the *Seventh Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. p. 195.

⁴ Nutt, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Johnson Publishing Company. 1928. p. 240.

⁵ Melby, Ernest O. "Teacher Evaluation of Supervisory Procedure." *Second Yearbook*. National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. 1929. p. 237-51.

⁶ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. p. 189.

⁷ See the *Seventh Yearbook*, *Ibid.*, p. 194 and 302.

⁸ See the discussion of class visitation in this Bulletin.

⁹ Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton and Company. 1926. p. 163.

given they seldom influence instruction in a positive way and may easily cause misunderstanding.

Experience shows that the most helpful conference has these elements (1) unhurried, (2) offers the teacher opportunity to speak, and (3) encourages the teacher to speak frankly.¹ The best place to hold this ideal conference should be the principal's office. But this is not always the case. Too frequently the office is "the sanctum" where teachers may be seen but not heard.

After all, the spirit of the interview is of greatest importance. If the teacher seems hesitant about speaking freely in the office, the meeting should be held in the classroom. Meanwhile much can be done in developing the idea that the office is a friendly place. Teachers should have no hesitation in asking for teaching help. Observations of successful principals show that this description does not set up an impractical ideal.

Types of conferences—Personal interviews between teacher and principal may be classified on the basis of purposes. The three general types of conferences, with their self-explanatory names, may be designated as follows: the social, the administrative, and the

supervisory.² Since each interview has its own peculiar purposes the classification may be even more minute under each of these general heads. This more specific classification may be illustrated by briefly describing some of the more typical supervisory conferences.

1. *Fact-finding*—A common type of conference, particularly with new teachers, is one in which the principal reviews the individual's preparation, preferences, and previous experience.³ Class assignments based upon such interviews may be adapted to the teacher's wishes and personal equipment. Sometimes principals discover persons who are particularly suited to handle sub-normal children, opportunity classes and curriculum committees. Wise conservation and distribution of the talents of the teaching staff may do much to improve the classroom instruction.⁴

2. *Pre-teaching*—In pre-teaching conferences the principal helps the teacher to plan future classroom activities. The supervisor prevents teaching difficulties by planning a program, anticipating learning difficulties, emphasizing the important lesson points and imparting strong enthusiasm.⁵ Teachers appreciate conferences which give them an advanced clue of what supervision expects to accomplish. Pre-teaching suggestions should be followed by visits wherein the teacher is assisted in making proper classroom applications. Classroom visits based upon pre-teaching conferences may be planned far enough in advance as to contribute to the unity of the principal's program.⁶

3. *Post-teaching*—Classroom visits should be followed by individual interviews. Other post-teaching conferences should follow survey and diagnostic testing programs. Such interviews are attempts to diagnose and improve existing classroom conditions.⁷ While some attention must be given to analyzing the weaknesses of past practices, the purpose is not to humiliate the teacher. Rather the past is con-

TABLE 8—TIME OF CONFERENCES AS REPORTED TWENTY-ONE OR MORE TIMES BY SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS.

Hour	Frequency of mention	Percent
After school.....	254	47.5
Close of recitation.....	72	13.5
Recess.....	49	9.1
Noon.....	47	8.8
Free period.....	39	7.3
Before school.....	31	5.8
Same day.....	22	4.1
First opportunity.....	21	3.9
	535	100.0

Taken from the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 193.

¹ Minor, Ruby. "A Case Study of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 7: 241-54; May, 1921.

² Compare with page 158 in *The Supervision of Instruction* by A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton.

³ See the section of this Bulletin entitled: "The Background for Supervision."

⁴ Taylor, George. "Responsibility of the School for the Unappointed Teacher." *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 232-35; February, 1926.

⁵ See the earlier section of this Bulletin on a preventive type of supervision.

⁶ See the section of this Bulletin on classroom visits.

⁷ Wilson, G. M. "Teaching Levels, Teaching Technic and the Project." Parts I and II. *Journal of Educational Method* 2: 323-29 and 385-93; April and May, 1923.

sidered simply as a basis for improving future procedures. No post-teaching conference is complete until the teacher understands what his problems are and how they may be attacked. In a sense, post-teaching conferences assume the characteristics of the pre-teaching type discussed under (2) above.¹

4. *Morale*—The improvement of instruction is frequently a problem of morale building.² Principals have seen the classroom work of teachers fall off rapidly because of unjust criticisms, financial difficulties, or family losses. Obviously, such cases do not require help with teaching technics, but sympathetic guidance of interests and emotions. Sometimes summer school work, a problem in research or a special teaching assignment will do much to restore personal balance.

Principals often have teachers who are satisfied to function on a routine level. The problem here is the development of enthusiasms. Such teachers need to capitalize talents of which they are not always aware. A group of graduate students at New York University have summarized the morale-building function of supervision in these words:

One of the most helpful group of functions of the supervisor is that, in the exercise of which, he frankly and constructively criticizes the qualities, capacities and preparation of the teacher. At the same time, he guides her professional growth and develops her personality through a program which helps her find herself in the way so beautifully described by Woodrow Wilson in *When a Man Comes to Himself*. The supervisor will recognize when the teacher has "come to herself" and will commend her for the achievement and rejoice with her in it.³

Preparing for conferences—The purpose of the interview with the teacher determines the amount and type of preparation which the principal should make.⁴ Probably little previous planning is required for more or less social appointments. But the chances of a successful interview are greater if some preliminary consideration has been given to such questions as the following:

What is the essential purpose of this conference? Do I want this teacher to feel at ease or conscience-stricken during the inter-

view? Does this person respond more readily to praise or criticism? How can I indicate weaknesses in teaching procedure without implying personal criticism? Upon what objective data is this conference based? Exactly what suggestions am I going to make to this teacher? What specific aid can I give this teacher in accomplishing the aims of our interview? How am I to follow up the conference?

When the conference is to be devoted to specific teaching problems the alert principal will support his opinions with objective evidence. Let us consider a hypothetical conference following a visit of Principal X to the Second Grade. Principal X is very much disturbed by apparent stupidity of several of the children in reading. He asks Miss Jones if she can give any reason for the difficulty. After the teacher cites evidence to prove that timidity is the primary cause she asks Principal X for his advice. Compare the two types of answers which might be given to the teacher's request for help.

Answer I

(No previous preparation by the Principal)

So you think it is timidity? Well, let us go right after that with a rush. Force those children to read before the class. Have them come down to the office and read to me. It's just like learning to swim—the timid ones never learn unless you throw them in. I'll be up again in a few days to see how you are getting along. Meanwhile keep those timid ones together and make them toe the line.

Answer II

(Some previous preparation by the Principal)

So you think it is timidity? I have been studying this summary of research on the reading difficulties of primary children. I see that a national reading committee⁵ has some specific suggestions on the matter of timidity. Probably each child will require individual treatment. Wouldn't you like to read this chapter tonight? Please give these research suggestions a try. Will you report progress in a week or so?

¹ Compare with page 24 of Wagner's *Common Sense in School Supervision*; p. 83 in Nutt's *The Supervision of Instruction*, and pages 69-70 of C. E. Scott's *Educational Supervision*.

² Pickett, Ralph. "The Building Up of Morale in Education." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. I, No. 5.

³ From an unpublished report of Committee No. 1 on *Systematic Supervision*, New York University, 1928. Nathaniel G. West, Chairman.

⁴ Collings, Ellsworth. *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*. Thomas Y. Crowell. 1927. p. 246-64.

⁵ National Society for the Study of Education. *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, Part I. 1925. p. 275-289.

Which answer represents the highest level of supervision? Does the progressive principal command or suggest teaching methods? Does he keep in touch with recent research and experimentation? Is he willing to advise on technical difficulties without ascertaining the position of specialists? Does he encourage teachers to assume an experimental attitude toward their teaching problems?

Conference procedures—Probably most individual conferences consist of verbal exchanges between teacher and principal.¹ Such interviews may be ineffective because they lack concreteness. In avoiding this difficulty Maryland supervisors in semi-urban communities often base discussions upon school exhibits. The procedure under such conditions has been described as follows:

The conference room, Graceland Building, Westminster, was a source of help for our teachers. As in former years, we had there a permanent exhibit of (1) seatwork; (2) illustrative material such as posters, booklets, pictures, maps, charts; (3) fine and industrial arts; (4) handwriting; (5) unit plans in the Social Studies, all of which were contributed by the various schools. To make possible a larger exhibit an adjoining room was equipped with bulletin boards. Sandtables were also added this year.

The conference room was open every Saturday morning except the fifth Saturday. Our teachers were encouraged to come for suggestions and materials. They did so. The library books were in constant use.

In some cases the teachers were requested by the supervisor to visit the conference room.²

Experience in Saint Louis has resulted in 12 basic principles of supervision. These guides are particularly suggestive for procedure in the individual conference. The principles are as follows:

1. The supervisor does not criticize a teacher before or in the hearing of the pupils. He says what he has to say at the end of the recitation period, privately, to the teacher.

2. He does not "butt in" during the recitation. He gives the teacher a chance, he recognizes she may ask the question he had in mind, or she may make the point he had in mind, if given an opportunity. If he wishes to take charge of the class, he does so at the end of the teacher's work with the class, and

then only after asking for and receiving permission from the teacher to do so.

3. He offers a substitute procedure for consideration of the teacher, rather than a *criticism* of what she did. He capitalizes her strong points, rather than criticizes weaknesses.

4. He avoids the use of the pronoun "I" and "You" in his discussions with teachers. He keeps the discussion on an objective basis. He talks of what the *children* were doing or what the *course of study* suggests, not of what "I think" or what "you did."

5. He recognizes many teachers may be reached most effectively through meetings, or by circular or bulletin. Thus they discover for themselves, rather than being told directly, what is needed. He considers indirect appeal frequently the most effective.

6. He concentrates on one thing at a time. He considers that to take up several things with the teacher about the same lesson would be probably more confusing than it would be helpful.

7. He makes it his purpose to *raise a problem* with the teacher concerning some phase of her work. His purpose is to make her conscious of her problems, rather than to criticize what she is doing, and to seek to control the situation so that she will *seek his aid* in the solution of the problems.

8. He always endeavors to secure and maintain the respect and goodwill of the teacher, and her confidence in his fairness. He recognizes it will be necessary for him to find things to praise as well as things to criticize, and he does not offer criticisms until conclusive evidence demands it. Many matters may clear themselves if an opportunity is given. He obtains her respect, by respecting her—her opinions and her rights, privileges and prerogatives. He recognizes kindness of heart, sympathy, friendliness, are essential personal qualities of a supervisor. He can criticize *with a smile*.

9. He recognizes one of the great purposes of a supervisor should be to make himself acceptable to his teachers and principals, so that they shall be glad to have him visit them and work on their problems with them. He considers that an excellent criterion of the value of supervision is: "Does the teacher *desire* another visit from the supervisor in question?"

10. He recognizes that a fundamental principle of democratic leadership is respect for the personality and opinions of the teacher and the pupil. He considers each should be regarded as an end, not a means to an end, and should be treated as he now is but with respect to what he may become. It should always be the supervisor's purpose to get the teacher and pupils to want to *do what they ought to do*.

¹ Collings, Ellsworth. *Op. cit.*, p. 265-80.

² Maryland State Department of Education, "Supervisory Activities in Maryland," *Maryland School Bulletin*, September, 1928. p. 43.

11. He recognizes the supervisor should constantly ask himself this question: "What is the *next step* for this teacher in this situation?"

12. In dealing with the teacher, he uses the question twenty times to the declaration once.¹

The principal and individual conferences—Progressive principals use the individual conference freely in improving instruction. Its outstanding merit is the opportunity of adapting conference procedures to the personality and teaching difficulties of the individual teacher.² Another advantage is the possibility of encouraging the timid teacher to raise questions which might not be asked in group meetings.

Most conferences grow out of the needs revealed by class observations, tests and similar supervisory practices.³ Fact-finding conferences help the principal to make good teaching assignments. Pre-teaching interviews prepare the teacher in advance for demonstrations or class visits. Post-teaching interviews provide opportunity to analyze and improve the present status of the teaching as determined by supervisory technics. There is considerable usefulness for all types of procedures in the principal's supervisory program.

A summary of basic principles for individual conferences has been given in an earlier *Research Bulletin* as follows:

The attitude of the principal during the conference will largely determine his success in improving the teacher's work. Some principals consider the conference as a time to "put the teacher in her place" or to make her deeply aware of her shortcomings. Such an approach may be justified in exceptional instances. It cannot be justified in most conferences for the purpose of *helping* the teacher to do better work.

It has been suggested that a guiding principle should be, "Discuss the future and not the past. In the light of the past mistakes, but without an analysis or enumeration of them, plan the next periods with the teacher."⁴ The emphasis then is placed upon the plans for improvement and not upon the defects themselves. The principal becomes a friendly adviser anxious to aid in future improvement, rather than a severe critic of the past.⁵

An individual conference may or may not be a complete supervisory act. Here again the follow-up activities of the principal are im-

portant. On the basis of the facts discovered in the interview, what steps are necessary to improve the work of this particular teacher? Teachers' meetings, mimeographed bulletins, special teaching assignments, professional reading material, instruction supplies, and other conferences may prove useful secondary technics. These follow-up activities help to carry the verbal and intangible discussion over into practical classroom applications.

Individual Conferences

1. ANDERSON, C. J., BARR, A. S., AND BUSH, MAYBELL. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1925. 382 p.

Many practical suggestions on case studies of teachers, pre-teaching interviews, and follow-up conferences.

2. ARMENTROUT, W. D. "Supervision and Educational Aims." *Journal of Educational Method* 2: 272-81; March, 1923.

Supervisors should help teachers to think through their problems in terms of a philosophy of education.

3. BARR, A. S., AND BURTON, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1926. p. 158-86

Discusses characteristics, policies and procedures of group and individual conferences.

4. BEECHEL, EDITH E. "A Supervisory Conference." *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 21-24; September, 1925.

Describes a personal interview with a teacher after a drill lesson.

5. COLLINGS, ELLSWORTH. *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. 1927. 368 p.

Pages 246-80 discuss what the supervisor should do before and during conferences.

6. KITSON, H. D. "Measuring the Interest of Teachers in Their Work." *Teachers College Record* 30: 28-33; October, 1928.

A ten-step scale of use in making self-surveys. Could be used as a basis for personal interviews.

7. MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. "Supervisory Activities in Maryland." *Maryland School Bulletin* 10: 1-95; September, 1928. Brief descriptions of conference activities.

8. MINOR, RUBY. "A Case Study of Supervision." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 7: 241-54; May, 1921.

¹ Underwood, F. M. (and others) "The Supervision of Classroom Instruction." *Public School Messenger*. April 15, 1927 p. 8-9. Saint Louis Public Schools.

² Anderson, C. J., Barr, A. S., and Bush, Maybell. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. D. Appleton and Co. 1925. p. 78-348

³ Beechel, Edith E. "A Supervisory Conference." *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 21-24; September, 1925.

⁴ McMurray, Frank. "Supervision." *Childhood Education*, 4: 313; March, 1928.

⁵ National Education Association, Division of Research. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin* 6: 97; March 1928.

Presents summaries of actual lessons and subsequent conference between teacher and supervisor.

9. MORRIS, MARY E. "The Principal as Supervisor of Instruction." *Third Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1924. p. 347-56.
Suggestions on note-taking and interviewing in the supervision of new teachers.
10. NUTT, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond. 1928. Chapter XV.
Supervisors tell how observation notes are helpful in conferences with teachers.
11. SCOTT, CHARLES E. *Educational Supervision*. Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee. 1921. 98 p.
A concise statement of the principles and aims of supervision.
12. WOODY, CLIFFORD. "Chart of Language Aims with Suggestions and Activities for Realizing Them." *Second Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1923. p. 385-92.
A list of practical classroom activities for the early elementary grades. Particularly suggestive for conferences with teachers on teaching methods in language.

PROPERLY handled, the forward-looking conference will lead the teacher to the evaluation of her own lessons, and to progressive self-improvement. By skillful questions the supervisor can teach the teacher how to study classroom technic as he himself does it; how to search for and recognize major elements of strength and weakness; how to work out and apply remedial measures. That is, the teacher can be led to use the same devices, check lists, and analyses which the supervisor uses.—*The Supervision of Instruction*, Barr, A. S., and Burton, W. H., D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1926. p. 169.

Teachers' Meetings¹

Group meetings in some form have been an early and typical means of improving teachers in service.² The present faith in group activity is indicated by the prevalence of extension classes, association meetings, college classes, reading circles, institutes, and building meetings. Whether these assemblies are presided over by superintendents, principals, college instructors or others does not change their "mass instruction" characteristics.

Practice and opinion regarding teachers' meetings—When several hundred principals were asked to list their "time consuming" duties, teachers' meetings was seventeenth in 30 items.³ As a supervisory technic these same principals listed teachers' meetings as fourth in importance. Among a selected group of supervising principals group meetings were third in rank.⁴ Out of a group of 25 unselected cities over 100,000 in population, four had rules requiring principals to hold monthly teachers' meetings.⁵

Valentine reports that teachers rank "instructional group conferences with new teachers" and "frequent instructional conferences with teacher groups" as third and eighth in value out of 36 supervisory procedures.⁶

Melby reports that "meetings of teachers of certain grades and subjects" was judged by 377 elementary teachers as being of greater value than general or committee faculty meetings. These same teachers ranked the above specific type of meeting as more valuable than class visitation, conferences, or demonstration lessons.⁷

Types of building meetings—Observations in the field show that principals are holding teachers' meetings of several types. These meetings may be classified as: social, administrative, supervisory, and miscellaneous.

The social meeting may be illustrated by the parties given to new teachers. Simple refreshments before a supervisory meeting often help to put everyone at ease. While such practices are not strictly supervisory, they do influence instruction by developing faculty morale.⁸

Administrative meetings are particularly numerous at the beginning and end of the school year. Usually the purpose of the meeting is to save time by informing the staff en masse of plans for the organization and the direction of the school as a whole.⁹

Recently, supervisory meetings have increased in importance in the work of the principal. These meetings confine themselves largely to the discussion, demonstration and investigation of the factors in classroom instruction.¹⁰

Miscellaneous meetings may represent deliberate attempts to combine the above types, or may be the product of superficial planning. While such meetings may be necessary from time to time they probably exert little influence upon instructional practices. Practices at teachers' institutes and teacher opinion¹¹ seem to place greater value on meetings with delimited and specific purposes. In Maryland the slogan, "Every teachers' meeting a skillful teaching act" has done much to make these group meetings effective.¹²

When should meetings be held?—The time and place of teachers' meetings are problems to be settled in each school. Observation of many successful principals has led to this summarized statement:

The frequency of meetings would depend upon the program outlined for the year. After planning

¹ See Chapter X, "The Supervisor's Conferences and Meetings with Teachers," 1930 Yearbook. Department of Superintendence, National Education Association. Available February, 1930.

² Orlin, Arvin S. "The Instruction of Teachers Now at Work in the Schools by Teachers' Institutes." *Proceedings*. National Education Association. 1895. p. 166.

³ See the *Seventh Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1929. p. 189.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 302. Precedence was given to individual conferences with teachers and pupil classification.

⁵ Only 25 of the 68 cities over 100,000 in population sent in printed rules.

⁶ Reported in the *Seventh Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 195.

⁷ Melby, E. O. "Teacher Evaluation of Supervisory Procedure." *Second Yearbook*. National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. 1929. p. 242, 250.

⁸ See the section of this Bulletin on the morale building type of individual conference.

⁹ One of the principals who reviewed this Bulletin in manuscript form said "Many of the trivial discussions that consume much time at teachers' meetings could be adequately cared for in a mimeographed bulletin."

¹⁰ Simpson, Mabel E. "The Institute as a Means of Cooperative Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 2: 2-8; September, 1922.

¹¹ Melby, E. O. *Op. cit.*, p. 243.

¹² Simpson, I. Jewell. "The Teachers' Meeting as an Instrument of Supervision in a County-Unit System." *Elementary School Journal* 27: 176; November, 1926.

with the teachers the objectives of the professional meetings, then the number of meetings necessary to accomplish the program may be estimated.

The hour of meeting is one that should be settled in cooperation with the teachers. Usually the after-school meeting finds everyone tired and not in the mood for professional study. Meetings held before school in the morning have the advantages of brevity and an alert audience. Some principals have found the lunch-hour meeting satisfactory, although if meetings are held rather frequently they may seriously interfere with the midday rest period.¹

The practices in suburban and rural areas of Maryland have been stated as follows:

Teachers' meetings are for the most part held on school days. Sometimes there is an all-day meeting from 9:30 a. m. to 3:30 p. m. More often there is an afternoon meeting from one to four o'clock. Teachers have a better attitude toward meetings if they are not held on Saturday. They assume a more definite responsibility for them if they are held on teachers' work days.

The evening, from seven-thirty to ten o'clock, is also a favorable time for thinking and working together.²

Activities in a supervisory meeting—Previous paragraphs have defined the types of meeting in terms of purposes, i. e. social, administrative or supervisory. But each general type may include radically different meetings depending on the *activities* or the program of the particular event. For example, supervisory meetings may be given over to lectures, discussions, demonstrations, projects, reading circles or a combination of several activities.

A lecture meeting usually means a one-sided discussion by the principal or an outside speaker. To be most successful this type of meeting requires: (1) good preparation by the leader, (2) enthusiastic presentation, (3) interesting and appropriate facts, (4) concrete illustrations, and (5) the direction of aroused interest into purposeful applications. The lecture meeting is essentially an appreciation lesson and needs to be guided according to recognized principles.³ While meetings of this type can be very instructive to the listener, the principal should ask himself these questions: Is it fair for me to dominate the discussions?

Do all people profit as fully from lectures as they do from meetings in which they actually participate? Is there a teacher viewpoint which should be expressed? Would I rate a teacher highly if she used the lecture method with her pupils? Should there ever be a teachers' meeting without some reaction from the group?

The discussion meeting is usually devoted to specific questions or problems.⁴ Sometimes discussion meetings follow conventions, institutes, demonstrations, and similar professional activities.⁵ Meetings of this type give several people an opportunity to speak, but if the group is large this advantage may be materially lessened. Often discussion meetings may be organized and directed by the teachers without the principal's participation. Questions which may be raised: Are the topics under consideration worthwhile? Do the discussions help and apply to the work of the majority of the teachers? Are the topics part of a well-planned scheme of supervision? Are the discussions superficial and insincere? Do certain individuals and small groups dominate the thinking of the entire meeting? Do many persons participate without contributing anything worthwhile?

The demonstration meeting is an attempt to make teaching methods objective and concrete. Teachers often report such meetings as the source of new inspiration. Under favorable conditions⁶ the demonstration lesson may lead each teacher into thought-provoking discussions. Principals will want to consider certain basic questions: Have the observers been prepared for the demonstration? Does the lesson exhibit suggestions of value in the work of each observer? Are the observers given an outline so that they may follow the important points of the lesson? Is there an opportunity for discussion and application of the demonstration lesson to classroom practice? Are the demonstration lessons followed up in the classrooms?

The reading circle scheme is a useful plan for circulating general and professional liter-

¹ See "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin*. March, 1928. p. 100-101.

² Simpson, I. Jewell. *Op. cit.*, p. 178-9.

³ See such books as: Wilson, H. B., Kyte, G. C., and Lull, H. G., *Modern Methods in Teaching*. Silver, Burdett and Company, 1924. p. 122-38.

⁴ See the principles of the problem method as discussed in such books as: Wilson, H. B., Kyte, G. C., and Lull, H. G., *op. cit.*, p. 92-121.

⁵ The *Journal of the National Education Association* includes a page of topics and suggestions for faculty meetings in each issue. See the October, 1929, issue, p. 240.

⁶ Principles and practices for demonstration lessons have been given elsewhere in this Bulletin.

ature. It has been described as a distinctive force in overcoming the inertia of books.¹ Reading circles tend to make everyone a participant in the activities of the group. Group discussions can be based upon a common background. Certain questions may be raised: Is the reading circle organized so as to circulate the books rapidly and effectively? How shall the books be chosen? Should the reading material consist of professional matter only? How can educational periodicals be used effectively? What place does the modern novel have in the reading circle? Should any effort be made to check the thoroughness of reading by each member of the circle? Can the reading circle be adjusted to the principal's plans for supervision? Does the reading circle tend to over-standardize tastes in reading and habits in thinking?

The project² meeting would combine several of the activities described above. Under this plan the staff selects and undertakes a major problem such as curriculum revision for the whole school. Such a large activity would demand lectures by curriculum experts, discussions by committees, demonstrations before various small groups and widespread professional reading. Other large problems for group study are: character education, standards in written composition, remedial methods in reading, diagnostic work in arithmetic, a balanced modern reading program for pupils, teaching of larger units of subject-matter, reducing pupil failure without lowering academic standards, and correlating instruction in all subjects. The principal may consider such questions as these: Would the teaching of this school improve under the impetus of a group study among the teachers? Is such an activity practical under present conditions? What problem should this staff attack? How shall that problem be studied? Would this project proceed most effectively under the direction of teachers, the vice-principal, or myself? How does this plan fit in with the general activities and schemes for the school system as a whole? What use can be made of the superintendent and the general or special supervisors?

Material for meetings—Principals are sometimes perplexed as to what problems should be considered at teachers' meetings. If we stop to recall basic teaching procedures, we soon recognize that we must first consider the learner. Such is the case in improving teachers in service. Through individual conferences, class visits and other supervisory techniques the principal should be able to locate the problems which need to be studied. Some principals find that mimeographed questionnaires distributed among teachers will indicate teaching difficulties. For example, in the Detroit schools we find such questionnaires as the following:

Questionnaire to Teachers³

1. In what particular phase of school work are you most interested?
2. What particular problem in your work most perplexes you?
3. List below the subjects which should be studied or worked upon in teacher committees.
4. List eight problems that you would like to have as the general subject of regular monthly teacher meetings.

Sources of valuable topics for teachers' meetings are the current issues of professional magazines. One principal found the *Journal* so helpful that he wrote to the Division of Publications of the National Education Association as follows:

For some reason I have not received my copy of the *Journal* and I simply cannot get along without it. Will you please have one sent to me at once? The teachers of this school have weekly meetings for the consideration of our common problems. One meeting each month is devoted to the *Journal of the National Education Association*. Teachers take turns in planning these meetings. A leading article or editorial is assigned to each teacher who takes charge of the discussion on it. There is much informal discussion and it is always difficult to cover the ground within the hour to which our meetings are limited. This regular study of the *Journal* means a great deal to our teaching staff.⁴

Suggestions of value to both city and rural schools are contained in publications of state

¹ Jones, L. H. "The Instruction and Improvement of Teachers Now at Work in the Schools by Teachers' Reading Circles." *Proceedings*. National Education Association. 1895. p. 179.

² The term "project" is used here to denote a group enterprise carried out by the teachers of the school.

³ Excerpt from a blank used by John Thomas, Principal of the Clippert School, Detroit, Michigan.

⁴ Quoted by Joy E. Morgan in "A Good Idea for Faculty Meetings." *Bulletin*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. Oct. 1925. p. 51-52.

departments of education. For example, a Maryland bulletin contained these topics:

Material for Teachers' Meetings¹

1. A careful analysis of the course of study. Adding to the course of study, revising the course of study—the whole field of cooperative curriculum building provides constant material for good meetings.

2. Well-organized and well-taught demonstration lessons involving subject-matter from the course of study, followed by a critique and free discussion. Some of the things which may be illustrated and explained by means of demonstration lessons are: the project method, the necessity for lesson planning, clever drill devices, etc.

3. The daily schedule. For teachers of one-room schools a demonstration lesson given to two or more grades combined will be of real assistance in "getting across" the group schedule.

4. Study and discussion of remedial work following the standardized tests. Use Bulletins on Silent Reading and Arithmetic and similar material.

5. Study of the classification of pupils.

6. Study of the promotion of pupils, involving age-grade problems.

7. Encourage the teachers to work on problems—a kind of seminar. A teacher of the second grade class, for example, might be interested in what could be done through individual instruction to bring her pupils up to standard in reading. Her report would include analyses of special cases, amount of time spent on the work, methods employed, and results obtained. Set up a series of worthwhile problems and let the teachers work them out.

8. Sometimes it is profitable to study a worthwhile professional book together. Certain teachers might report on magazine articles dealing with the topic under discussion.

9. The review of a new text book which has just been adopted, or the study of supplementary readers, or the inspection of any material offered for school use—all of these are sources of discussion.

10. Lesson planning. Many teachers are weak in lesson planning. The necessity for planning, economical methods of doing it, and the benefits of it, should be made clear. One or more lesson plans used by successful teachers may be mimeographed and distributed for discussion.

11. The project method of teaching—its advantages; its difficulties and dangers.

12. Parent-Teacher meetings and community work. A discussion of ways of bringing to the parents and patrons a thorough understanding of the objectives and problems of the school.

13. Formulate questions which will present suggestions and constructive criticism based upon data accumulated during class room visits. Stimulate the discussion of the suggestions and criticism so that the teachers themselves determine the correct answers and decide what procedures will produce more efficient work.

Basic criteria for supervisory meetings—

Can the above suggestions on teachers' meetings be summarized into basic principles or criteria? Miss Simpson's list² of underlying principles is very suggestive to the principal who is anxious to make his meetings skillful teaching acts. These suggestions follow:

a. *Be carefully planned, definite and purposeful*—Without planning the discussion may wander aimlessly among trifling teaching problems. Every meeting should contribute something definite to the teacher's thinking.

b. *Be organized around the needs of teachers*—Meetings based upon teaching difficulties easily enlist the interest of teachers. Sometimes it is necessary to present a teaching principle in several different ways before it carries over into practice.

c. *Provide for the maximum of teacher participation under guidance of the principal*—Teachers profit most from meetings when there is an opportunity to discuss problems, ask questions, make reports, and give demonstrations. Without guidance from the principal some participation may contribute little or nothing to the discussion.

d. *Be related to what has preceded and lead on to new advances*—The worthwhile meeting not only inspires the teacher to new efforts, but offers some concrete suggestions as to what these advances should be.

The principal and teachers' meetings—The above paragraphs indicate the existence of social, administrative, and supervisory teachers' meetings. Often meetings combine several types. This discussion has been primarily concerned with the supervisory meeting as a part of a general supervisory program. It is evident that there must be adaptation of specific supervisory procedures to meet the difficulties of a particular school situation.

In evolving certain general principles of procedure the principal will want to consider

¹ Maryland State Department of Education. "Worthwhile Teachers' Meetings." *Maryland School Bulletin*. September, 1923. p. 86-87. Other suggestions in "A Supervisor of Town Schools Analyses Her Work." *Maryland School Bulletin*. Oct., 1926. p. 17 and "Supervisory Activities in Maryland." *Maryland School Bulletin*. September, 1928. p. 11.

² Simpson, I. Jewell. *Op. cit.*, p. 175-86.

such questions as: Is the principal justified in emphasizing social and administrative teachers' meetings to the neglect of supervisory meetings? Are combined administrative and supervisory meetings ever effective? Is the principal ultimately responsible for the worthwhileness of meetings? How can teachers be encouraged to participate in teachers' meetings? Should teachers' meetings be a part of the principal's larger supervisory plans? Is the superintendent justified in judging the principal on his teachers' meetings, just as the principal judges the teacher on instructional technics? What use can be made of teacher committees in developing worthwhile meetings? How can the research and theory found in current literature be used effectively in connection with classroom work? On what basis may we evaluate the effectiveness of our teachers' meetings?

Effective supervisory meetings are not accidental.¹ Principals using the teachers' meeting as a supervisory technic will find the above underlying principles invaluable. But a fifth criteria, implied above but not specifically stated, is that teachers' meetings should be followed by check-up procedures.

Probably the simplest device is a summary on the bulletin board showing the outcomes of the meeting in points of agreement and problems for further study. Where clerical help is available, copies of the summary should be made for each teacher.

Sometimes the summarized report on the meeting needs to be followed by a questionnaire or "reaction" blank. Teachers are thereby encouraged to ask further questions or to request the consideration of other topics. A "question box" in the office for unsigned requests has been the source of inspiration for many principals.

Classroom visits is an important check on teachers' meetings.² Is the teacher applying the technics discussed in the meeting? If not, was the meeting a skillful and successful teaching act? What problems do these class observations suggest for future meetings?

The natural follow-up procedure for many supervisory meetings is another group discus-

sion of the same type. In this way teaching technics and educational principles become familiar to the teachers by repetition.

Since teachers vary greatly in personal traits and are confronted with different teaching problems, the principal will find the individual conferences a useful check technic.³ Conferences provide the teacher, who passively acquiesces in the group meeting, with an opportunity to raise pertinent questions. Probably the role of "a good listener" should be assumed by the wise supervisor.

Other follow-up procedures or combinations of the above technics will suggest themselves to the principal who studies his supervisory problems. He will see that the teachers' meeting is essentially a problem of group instruction. Classroom experience reveals basic principles as to pupil participation in the learning, adaptation of content to the learner's needs, and follow-up devices until pupil growth is assured. These same principles apply to teachers' meetings. Progressive principals aim to make group meetings examples of skillful teaching.

Teachers' Meetings

1. BROOKS, SAMUEL S. *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 1922. 278 p.

Chapter III tells how a superintendent used teachers' meetings to arouse a keen interest in his testing program.

2. BURTON, W. H. (and Others). *The Supervision of Elementary Subjects*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1929. 710 p.

The summaries of research and practices offer unlimited problems for teachers' conferences.

Discusses types, materials and topics of professional meetings.

3. CUBBERLEY, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. 1923. p. 513-29.

Discusses types of meetings, common mistakes of supervisors and criteria for making meetings of value to teachers.

4. ELSBREE, WILLARD S., HALSEY, H. R., and ELSBREE, ELIZABETH S. *The Teacher's Handbook*. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. 1929. 289 p.

Questions and answers on teaching methods and management. Bibliography and index. Suggests many topics for teachers' meetings.

¹ Carrigan, Rose A. "Meetings of Teachers in a School District." I, II and III. *Journal of Educational Method* 4: 91-93; 152-56; and 185-89. November, 1924; December, 1924, and January, 1925.

² See the section of this Bulletin on classroom visits.

³ See the section of this Bulletin on individual conferences.

5. GIST, ARTHUR S. *Elementary School Supervision*. Scribner's Sons, New York. 1926. p. 235-36.

Several good topics for meetings.

6. KELLEY, E. L., and WHITNEY, F. L. "Educational Magazines Read by Five Hundred Elementary School Principals and Classroom Teachers." *Elementary School Journal* 29: 176-80; November, 1928.

Reports most frequently read professional magazines.

7. MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. "Worthwhile Teachers' Meetings." *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. V, No. 1. September, 1923. 87 p.

County-unit supervisors outline and describe meetings which have proven helpful in training teachers in service.

8. MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. "A Supervisor of Town Schools Analyzes Her Work." *Maryland School Bulletin*, Vol. VIII, No. 3. October, 1926. p. 17-40.

One section of this Bulletin contains helpful suggestions on worthwhile supervisory meetings.

9. MCKEEHAN, CHARLES F. "The Principal's Building Meetings." *Third Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1924. p. 366-70.

States general principles to be observed.

10. MILLER, WILLIAM A. "Teacher Rating from the Principal's Point of View." *American School Board Journal* 78: 48; May, 1929.

Lists specific rating points under twenty main headings.

11. MONROE, WALTER S. "Teachers' Objectives." *University of Illinois Bulletin* 23: 1-24; June 1, 1926. No. 39.

A useful bulletin in unifying the teaching objectives of a school faculty.

12. MORGAN, JOY ELMER. "A Good Idea for Faculty Meetings." *Bulletin* 5: 51-53; October, 1925. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

A principal tells how useful *The Journal* of the National Education Association has been in his teachers' meetings.

13. MOSSMAN, LOIS C. "Changing Conceptions Relative to Lesson Planning." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 11: 344-49; May, 1925.

A summary of teaching principles which would be useful in discussion groups and conferences.

14. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Division of Publications. *The Journal*. Published monthly, except July, August, and September.

Each issue contains a page of topics and references for faculty meetings.

15. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Division of Research. "Handbook of Major Educational Issues." *Research Bulletin* 4: 227-32; September, 1926.

Discusses general value and topics of professional meetings.

16. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Division of Research. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin* 6: 81-148; March, 1928. Particularly pages 97-101, 124-26 and 138.

Gives topics, references and suggested procedures for supervisory meetings.

17. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. Division of Research. "The Principal and Progressive Movements in Education." *Research Bulletin* 7: 45-104; March, 1929.

Chapters on health, mental hygiene, character education and individual differences offer much available material for group discussions.

18. SIMPSON, I. JEWELL. "The Teachers' Meeting as an Instrument of Supervision in a County-unit System." *Elementary School Journal* 27: 175-86; November, 1926.

Practical suggestions and basic principles for teachers' meetings as developed under county-unit organization.

19. SCOTT, CHARLES E. *Educational Supervision*. Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee. 1924. p. 57-60.

Discusses meetings as one device in unifying the teaching principles and purposes of the faculty.

ADVANCES in educational science and psychology and the results of educational research cannot be disregarded in the modern classroom. Findings of educational research are coming to be as significant for teachers as medical research is for physicians. The progressive administrator brings these to the attention of his teachers through faculty meetings.—National Education Association, Research Division. "A Handbook of Major Educational Issues." *Research Bulletin* 4: 227; September, 1926.

Demonstration Teaching

Demonstration lessons appeal to certain characteristics of human nature. McCall discusses this tendency to imitate in connection with test construction, as follows:

"An ounce of demonstration is worth a pound of words. It takes more words to describe effectively what is to be done than it takes moves to show what is to be done. Anyone can try for himself an experiment to discover whether it is easier to show than to tell. Probably due to primordial practice, children, not to mention adults, can imitate better than they can comprehend and follow linguistic directions. To accompany description with a demonstration not only caters to pupils who may get impressions easier through the eye or through the ear, but, what is more important, it gives to all an impression through both eye and ear. Demonstration has the still further advantage of securing better attention, especially from the young children.¹

Demonstration teaching as a supervisory device—Demonstrations are commonly associated with teacher-training institutions and teachers' institutes. The introduction of special school supervisors brought in demonstration lessons as parts of the prescribed program of these workers.² Barr's study shows demonstrations as the second most important "training activity" of supervisors.³ Demonstration teaching was found by Thune to be one of the most typical duties of special supervisors in city school systems.⁴

In rural schools demonstration work has proved to be an important agency in the supervisory work of county superintendents:

County superintendents reach the same inevitable conclusion, namely, that the most effective work under present conditions can be done by organization rather than personal visitation. Results must

be obtained by working with groups rather than individuals. Among the ways that one may so work, demonstration teaching should occupy a prominent place.⁵

The value of demonstrations in rural supervision is further testified to by the Maryland State supervisory program:

Perhaps no other activity is so effective as the demonstration lesson for developing desirable teaching procedure.⁶

Cubberley has suggested demonstration lessons as a supervisory device in these words:

Every principal, in observing the instruction within his own school, or in contact with visiting supervisors, will find opportunities for organizing an occasional demonstration lesson, to be put on before a part or possibly all of his teachers.

It would be well if all teachers could occasionally observe the work of a master craftsman, and be able to question as to the why and the how.⁷

Do teachers want demonstration lessons?—Strayer asked the elementary teachers of Beaumont, Texas, this question: "What has happened during the past year which has made a difference in the way you teach?" The replies ranked model demonstration lessons as the most helpful of all the supervisory methods.⁸

Nutt reported questionnaire returns from teachers in Hammond, Indiana, and Topeka, Kansas, in which "more demonstration teaching" was one of the supervisory aids most frequently desired.⁹

More than 35 percent of the teachers in Kyte's study indicated a desire for more help from principals in regard to demonstration teaching.¹⁰ An inquiry by the Seattle Principals' Club revealed that six percent of the

¹ McCall, William A. *How to Measure in Education*. MacMillan Co. 1922. p. 237.

² See the prescribed duties of superintendents, principals and special supervisors in school board rules as brought out in *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction* by H. W. Nutt. 1928. p. 159, 178 and 187.

³ Barr, A. S. *An Analysis of the Duties and Functions of Instructional Supervisors*. Bureau of Educational Research, University of Wisconsin. January, 1926. p. 31-34, 176.

⁴ Thune, Elmer T. *The Place and Functions of Supervision of Special Subjects in City School Systems*. An unpublished master's thesis, University of Washington. 1926. p. 123.

⁵ Moeller, H. C. "Raising the Standards of County Supervision Through Demonstration Teaching." *Proceedings*. National Education Association. 1924. p. 699.

⁶ Maryland State Department of Education. *Worthwhile Teachers' Meetings*. 1923. p. 13.

⁷ Cubberley, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton Mifflin. 1923. p. 469-70.

⁸ Strayer, George D. (Director). *Survey of the Schools of Beaumont, Texas*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1927. p. 43-44.

⁹ Nutt, H. W. *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Johnson Publishing Co. 1928. p. 244-46, 254.

¹⁰ Kyte, George C. "The Elementary School Principal as a Builder of Teaching Morale." *First Yearbook*. Michigan State Principals' Association. 1927. p. 50. Table 3.

teachers wanted the principal to do some demonstration teaching.¹

Minor reports on her experience in teacher training as follows:

Demonstration teaching has come to be a recognized means of training teachers in service. As a result of direct questioning the writer has found that a large percentage of the teachers in her college classes and under her administrative guidance consider the demonstration lesson a preferred supervisory agency.²

Purposes of demonstration teaching—Supervisors use demonstrations to show the management of classroom activities, the directing of pupil interest, the content of new courses of study, and the use of special devices.³ Such activities are classified as teaching technics.

Most demonstrations attempt to set forth so-called "superior" teaching technics. Sometimes the primary purpose is to show a "model lesson" in complete form. Other meetings merely demonstrate "suggestive lessons" or technics.

Types of demonstrations—In terms of the demonstrator and certain classroom conditions there are four general types of demonstrations. These may be described as follows:

(1) *Lessons taught by typical teachers in their own classrooms*—These demonstrations may be illustrated by the intervisitation or exchange visits between regular classroom teachers. Sometimes the principal might ask a regular teacher to illustrate her work before a small informal group. *Advantages*: the teacher's technic can receive praise and criticism from her peers; the teacher knows the pupils and she is familiar to them; the teacher is stimulated to professional study and lesson planning so as to teach effectively; and the classroom situation is so nearly "typical" as to facilitate the subsequent discussion. *Disadvantages*: some teachers may try to "show off," thereby attracting too much personal attention; observers may consider the demonstration a publicity stunt, or a "staged" affair;

and timidity may make the demonstrator appear at his worst. *Overcoming the disadvantages*: choose well-poised teachers to make the demonstrations; hold demonstrations more frequently; and assist the teacher in preparing the lesson to be demonstrated.

(2) *Lessons taught by special demonstrators in their own classrooms*—Sometimes general supervisors or principals designate a few regular teachers as special demonstrators. These persons may be "key" teachers assigned to different buildings,⁴ or the members of demonstration school faculties.⁵ Unlike the typical teacher described in (1) above the demonstrations by these persons are carefully prepared parts of their regular work. Not infrequently the lessons are practical demonstrations of the policies of the superintendent. *Advantages*: The role of the demonstrator as a regular teacher gives him a natural setting and contact with everyday teaching difficulties; and the careful selection and training under supervisory officers assures more effective demonstrations. *Disadvantages*: the dissatisfaction among those not selected to be demonstrators, and the overloading of teachers who already have fulltime teaching responsibilities. *Overcoming the disadvantages*: select only outstanding teachers, or make every teacher a demonstrator in one subject;⁶ and release overloaded demonstrators from clerical and routine duties of the school.

(3) *Lessons taught by supervisory officers in typical classrooms*—This type refers particularly to demonstrations by supervisors to individual teachers or small groups. *Advantages*: the teacher has a chance to view technic more objectively, to raise questions and ask advice; the supervisor may pass on new methods seen in other schools; and the superior training, experience, and opportunities of the supervisor may give the teacher new insights. *Disadvantages*: the supervisory officer, not being in constant touch with the particular classroom,

¹Gist, Arthur S., and King, William A. "The Efficiency of the Principalship from the Standpoint of the Teacher." *Elementary School Journal*, 22: 120-26; October, 1922.

²Minor, Ruby. "Improvement in the Technic of Teaching Through a Recognition of Principles in Demonstration Teaching." *Elementary School Journal*, 26: 519. March, 1926.

³Simpson, Mabel E. "The Work of the Demonstration Teacher and Its Relation to a Program of Constructive Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 140-4; December, 1925.

⁴Smith, Nila B. "The Key-Teacher Scheme of Supervision." *Elementary School Journal* 28: 576-86; April, 1928.

Also, Rutledge, M. Pauline. "After-school Demonstrations in the Primary Grades." *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* 5: 36-37; November, 1926. Baltimore Public Schools.

⁵Willard, Frank E. "The Summit Demonstration School." *Journal* 18: 153-54; May, 1929. National Education Association.

⁶See the *Seventh Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals. p. 340.

⁷Including principals, special supervisors, general supervisors, directors of instruction, and others not regularly assigned to classroom work.

may suggest unwise technics; the supervisor demonstrates under unfamiliar classroom conditions; and the skill of the supervisor may overawe and discourage the regular teacher. *Overcoming the disadvantages:* frequent teaching and observing by the supervisory officer; frequent visitation in the particular classroom; and encouraging the teacher to criticize and improve upon the supervisor's technic.

(4) *Lessons taught by supervisory officers*¹ *outside of classrooms*—At institutes and teachers' meetings it is often customary to give demonstrations with small groups of children. *Advantages:* basic procedures can be shown to many persons at one time; and the general talks on methods can be made more concrete and objective. *Disadvantages:* the teaching conditions are not typical; the number of demonstrations may be tiring and confusing; the size of the crowd discourages questions and discussions; many teachers may be subjected to demonstrations which have no bearing upon their own problems; and insufficient time is provided for discussion. *Overcoming the disadvantages:* use the demonstration to illustrate the basic mechanics of technics, not to show outcomes; reduce the number of demonstrations; hold exhibits for small specialized groups; and ask teachers prior to the demonstration to suggest the lessons they would like to see.

Basic principles—Practical experience with demonstrations has led to agreement on certain basic principles. Among these essential guides are the following:

(1) *Demonstrations should meet carefully determined teacher needs*—It is probably futile to stage demonstrations beyond the comprehension, experience, and professional training of young teachers. Special lessons in easily-taught subjects cannot be expected to arouse much interest. Can the principal afford to offer a demonstration program which does not show a keen appreciation of genuine teaching difficulties?

(2) *The general purpose of the demonstration should be known to the observers*—Some demonstration lessons are *models* which the ob-

servers are supposed to imitate in their own classrooms. Other lessons are *suggestive* of self-criticism devices, or of methods of experimentation, or of principles in solving classroom difficulties. The observers should have a general idea of the general purpose to aid them in taking notes and formulating questions.

(3) *Observers should be prepared for the demonstration lesson*—Experience shows that one may visit without observing. That is to say, the specific aims of a lesson may be lost on observers who are not keenly sensitive to the more subtle principles of teaching. Supervisors often safeguard against this danger by providing preliminary outlines, observation points, or questions for visiting teachers to keep in mind during the lesson. Teachers should realize that taking much away from a demonstration lesson requires one to take much to it.

(4) *Demonstration lessons should be followed by discussion*—Sometimes teachers may recognize the value of demonstrations without being able to summarize and apply the new knowledge in their own classrooms.² During the discussion period the questions and discussions between observers helps to make applications. Some supervisors find it advantageous to develop an outline of the demonstration on the blackboard immediately following a lesson.³ Stenographic notes of the lesson and the discussion are often valuable for later reference.

(5) *Supervisory visits should follow the demonstration lessons*—The follow-up is important not only to check the teachers, but to assist them in applying their new knowledge. Failure of the teachers to benefit by the demonstration may indicate ineffective teaching procedures on the supervisor's part. Visitation also serves to bring the supervisor in touch with classroom problems and may be suggestive as to future demonstrations.

Demonstration lessons in Detroit—Demonstrations in Detroit are not accidental. The philosophy of supervision of the system conceives of demonstration lessons as one of the most effective instruments for improving teachers in service.⁴ The supervisory organization

¹ Including principals, special supervisors, general supervisors, directors of instruction, and others not regularly assigned to classroom work.

² Spencer, Cassie R. "The Demonstration Lesson as an Agency in Supervision." *Elementary School Journal* 26: 624-25; April, 1926.

³ Minor, Ruby. *Op. cit.*, p. 520.

⁴ Space limitations make it impossible to describe effective plans in other cities. For example, Baltimore has had a program of demonstration lessons since 1925. The testimonials of principals to Superintendent Weglein indicate general approval of the plan.

includes a number of subject supervisors. These persons devote a large proportion of their time to teacher training and research. The program of teacher training involves (1) the selection and preparation of "key" teachers for demonstrations, (2) the development of observation points and (3) the planning of demonstrations necessary to pass superior technics down the line to each classroom.

The general work with the "key" teachers is conducted primarily by the supervisors, with such administrative assistance from the principals as may be necessary.¹ The operation of this scheme has been described as follows:

In order to assist the principal in giving his teachers advice with regard to the details of the method, the key-teacher feature of the scheme was devised. According to this plan, the district principal appoints two of the best first-grade teachers in his district to act as key teachers, one for the low first grade and one for the high first grade. The functions of these key teachers are as follows: to give demonstration lessons; to act as a visiting center; and to visit other teachers in the district.

A second feature of this general scheme of supervision is a testing program which provides for the administration of a standardized reading test at intervals of six weeks throughout the semester. Standards are furnished for the X, Y, and Z groups. The results of the tests are of assistance to the principals and the teachers in judging the effectiveness of their work at intervals throughout the term.

A third feature of the general plan is the use of teacher-report blanks sent to the district principals by the principals at intervals throughout the term.

While working with teachers in developing technics of teaching, the supervisor is also cooperating with the principals in supervisory activities. Usually this cooperation takes the form of developing "observation points" or an outline of characteristics of a good lesson in history, arithmetic, or some other subject. This outline is not handed out by supervisors, but it embodies the critical thinking of both principals and supervisors. Copies of the "observation points" are used by district and building principals in observing demonstration lessons. A typical observation outline is given in Figure 8.

The third step of the supervisor's work is that of helping principals to make the lessons and the "observation points" of benefit to classroom teachers. This part of the program places heavy administrative work on each principal. First, the district principals judge a demonstration lesson on the basis of the "observation points" previously developed. They in turn arrange demonstrations in their own districts for the benefit of the building principals. The principals of each building arrange lessons for their own staff based upon the district demonstrations. Copies of the "observation points" are used by both teachers and principals during all demonstrations. Each building principal studies and advises his teachers in terms of the "points" previously demonstrated.

The effectiveness of the system was generally commented upon by the principals during a recent field visit. Further testimony is found in the following statement:

District principals and principals of individual schools, through observation of lessons presented under direction of the department and through subsequent conferences, have helped to bring about mutual understanding and cooperation to an extent which is in the highest degree helpful in raising the level of instruction in the schools.²

Demonstration schools—Special schools for demonstration and experimental purposes are to be found in a few city school systems. In some cases teachers are sent to the demonstration by the school principal or the directors of instruction. Other cities permit teachers to select the lessons they want to see.³

A problem for the principal of a regular school is to articulate his own supervisory procedures with the demonstration school work. Similiar difficulties are encountered when teachers are allowed to exchange visits. The value of such observations may be lost unless the principal guides the activity.⁴ Gist suggests: that the teacher prepare for a visit, observe in terms of teaching outlines, and report the work observed to the principal or to other teachers.⁵

¹ The Baltimore plan provides demonstration centers which are available to large sections of the city. Demonstrations are held at four in the afternoon. Teachers may receive college credit for attending two hours each week. According to Assistant Superintendent Douglass about 89 percent of the elementary school teachers have taken at least one year of study since the plan was started in 1925.

² Detroit Public Schools. *Annual Report*. 1927. p. 35. Frank Cody, Superintendent.

³ West, Roscoe L. "The Value of a Demonstration School." *Fifth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1926. p. 279-86.

⁴ Armentrout, W. D. "Making Observations Effective for Teachers in Training." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 10: 287-93; May, 1924.

⁵ Gist, Arthur S. *Elementary School Supervision*. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1926. p. 11-13.

FIGURE 8—DETROIT CHECK LIST IN READING

Items to Observe—Reading (Grades 5-8)

General Items

I. Organization of the Room for Work

1. Do pupils show self-direction and self-control in getting to work as evidenced in changing seats and getting material?
2. Are pupils prompt in accepting assignments? (Do they seem to know just what to do or do they spend time looking around to see how their neighbors are going to begin?)

II. Provision for Individual Differences

1. As the lesson proceeds and the work in the different groups is taken up does it appear that pupils are in the group best fitted to their level of ability as evidenced by—
attitude toward the assignments (ability to begin work independently)
carrying on the work of the assignment (ability to carry assignment to a conclusion)
check on the work done (seen in result)
2. Are pupils intelligent about why they have been placed in the group in which they are placed? Has the grouping been carefully explained to pupils and do they understand the type of work which will be taken up in each group? (Pupils will work more earnestly if they have placed themselves in their respective groups.)
3. Does the work seem to be adapted to the needs of the pupils?
4. Does the grouping furnish incentives for progress? (For example—a certain number of consecutive perfect papers may make a standard for promotion to next group, or a pupil may announce that he thinks he is ready for the next group and ask if he may be given a test to determine whether he is or not.)

III. Individual Pupil Growth

1. Are the pupils purposefully working toward definite goals?

In Group A goals may be:

1. To read more worthwhile literature.
2. To retain their places in the A group.
3. To make others enjoy what they are enjoying.

In Groups B and C goals may be:

1. To overcome the difficulties which placed them in the group.
2. To attain the next higher group.

Note: All pupils should be encouraged to read books, but only those who have attained the A group should use the reading period daily for this purpose. Occasionally it might be done in groups B and C as a means of stimulation.

IV. Social Growth

Evidenced in attitude toward and acceptance of suggestions among the members of the group.
See A-B-C groups below.

V. Participation—concentration and attention.

See A-B-C groups below.

Group A

Preparation Period

1. Are the pupils reading worthwhile literature? (Books on accredited library lists.)
2. Are they engaged in other worthwhile activities having a bearing on reading, such as preparing outlines, book reports, dramatizations?
3. Is there a variety of material in the room to meet the needs and tastes of different pupils?
4. Is there sufficient stimulation by the teacher or from pupil to pupil to encourage reading of various types such as biography, travel, and so forth as well as fiction?
5. Are the pupils concentrating, evidencing enjoyment of their books?

Discussion Period

1. Is the leader, whether pupil or teacher, helpful, friendly, cheerful and impartial?
2. Are the pupils courteous and considerate of each other in their discussions?
3. Do they interest others in the books and materials in which they are interested?
4. Do they seem to interpret and appreciate the books they are reading—do they get the situations, character, humour, etc.?
5. Has the teacher a check on the reading done by the pupils?

It may be obtained through—

- a—an oral report
- b—a written report
- c—a form filled out
- d—a card catalogue
- e—an outline
- f—dramatizations of parts or wholes
- g—character sketches

- h—impersonations
- i—readings of extracts
- j—organization of group into a reading club, the members of which discuss the books freely and sincerely as a social group—thus giving the teacher a check on the reading.

Demonstration teaching in rural schools—

Usually the demonstration teaching in rural school supervision must be done by county supervisors. This can be made an unusually effective program when guided by the supervision of progressive state supervisors. Quotations illustrating the demonstration work in Maryland are as follows:

In Baltimore County, where expert supervision has been in effect for many years, demonstration teaching has become a recognized instrument of supervision. The supervisor, appreciating the particularly fine work which a skillful teacher is accomplishing, will talk with her about various details of technic and suggest that this be demonstrated for the benefit of other teachers. Subsequently, a group of from ten to twenty teachers will meet in the classroom and observe, it may be for an hour, or it may be for a half-day, the work of the teacher in charge. This will be followed by a critical discussion, directed by the supervisor and participated in by all the teachers present, including the teacher in charge of the class.

One county supervisor reported her work as follows:

Teaching by the supervisor was not confined to the poorest classes only. In many classes she aimed to show by means of a practical teaching lesson that many children are capable of much more than the average teacher requires. The best children were used to demonstrate this. The types of lessons varied, but in every case the aims, purposes, and outcomes of the lesson were discussed with the teacher. Many teachers worked out individual reading exercises to take care of the variation in ability. Several of these were brought before the group in the February meeting.

A cooperative program has proven effective in the work of another county supervisor:

The demonstration meeting was a new venture in the rural schools of Cecil County. The supervisor and teacher planned the type of lesson to be demonstrated by the teacher. The supervisor taught a lesson of the same type for the teacher and observed the teacher teach several lessons before the day of the meeting, offering suggestions for improving the lessons taught. An entirely new lesson of a similar type was presented on the day of the meeting.

Demonstration teaching and the elementary school principal—Experienced supervisors have found demonstration lessons to be effective in training teachers in service. Pittman has sub-

mitted objective evidence that demonstrations are essential in an effective rural supervisory program.¹

But do principals consider demonstration teaching an important supervisory device? The committee on Standards and Training found that supervising principals ranked demonstration teaching as sixth in value among seven supervisory activities.² Hampton reported that the elementary school principals in his study devoted less than one percent of their total time to demonstration teaching.³

Why are demonstration lessons mentioned so infrequently in connection with the principal's responsibilities? Observation in the field suggests two misconceptions among many principals: (1) that demonstration lessons must be given by the principal personally, and (2) that all demonstration lessons must be models of perfection. Probably these points have been adequately treated in an earlier *Research Bulletin* as follows:

It is not necessary that demonstration lessons be given by the principal. The purpose of the demonstration teaching should be to improve instruction. The principal should call upon any qualified and available member of the school system to give the actual demonstration. The persons available for these demonstration lessons include the superintendent, assistant superintendent, special supervisors, other principals and teachers.

All demonstration lessons need not be model lessons nor examples of unusual teaching procedure. In practice the actual demonstration may be somewhat disjointed due to the importance of indicating a particular device. Furthermore, it would be excellent training for teachers to look upon the demonstration lessons as legitimate subjects for criticism. The wise supervisor will ask the teachers for suggestions on how to improve the demonstration lesson. With this critical attitude a teacher is more apt to make improvements in her own teaching. The idea that demonstration lessons are perfect leads to pure imitation. Pittman improved the supervision of rural schools through "suggestive" as contrasted with model lessons.⁴

Practices in progressive school systems indicate that demonstration lessons are effective in improving the work of the teachers. Studies of opinion consistently show that teachers believe that demonstrations are of unusual help in solving classroom problems.⁵

¹ Pittman, M. S. *The Value of School Supervision*. Warwick and York, Inc., 1921. p. 36, 62-119.

² See the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, p. 194.

³ Quoted in the *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 183.

⁴ National Education Association, Division of Research. "The Principal Studies His Job." *Research Bulletin* 6: 98; March, 1928.

⁵ Melby, Ernest O. "Teacher Evaluation of Supervisory Procedure." *Second Yearbook*. National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. 1929. p. 250.

It would be a mistake to assume that poorly prepared or carelessly checked demonstrations will exert any marked influence on instruction. Ill-chosen, mechanical, and uninteresting demonstrations may be actually damaging to teacher morale. Such haphazard use of demonstration teaching cannot be considered good supervision. Specific activities of the principal are not supervision until they exert a constructive influence on the teaching. More emphasis, therefore, needs to be placed upon the follow-up procedures which help the teacher utilize his new knowledge.

One follow-up procedure is the discussion immediately after the demonstration lesson. The value of this activity has been discussed earlier in the chapter.

Probably much individual work will be necessary with teachers before the new technics influence classroom practice. For example, the field worker has observed principals using a series of procedures as follows:

1. Demonstration lesson of new technic in spelling.
2. Discussion of lesson by teachers, demonstrator and principal.
3. Principal observes teachers applying new technics in their own classroom.
4. Small teachers' meeting to discuss principal's observations.
5. Principal observes teachers again.
6. Individual conferences with each teacher in terms of last class visits.
7. Continue observations and conferences until technics are established.

In the case of more complex technics the demonstrations may have to be given several times. Intervisitation between good and poor teachers should give the latter many excellent and practical ideas. Books and magazine articles bearing on the new technics should be made readily available. Supervisors, college experts and directors of instruction can help in providing stimulating programs for teachers' meetings. Only through many follow-up activities can the principal be sure that the demonstration lessons have actually influenced classroom practices.

Demonstration Teaching

1. ARMENTROUT, W. D. "Making Observations Effective for Teachers in Training." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 10: 287-93; May, 1924.

Administrative practices for making the observation of teaching worthwhile.

2. BARR, A. S., AND BURTON, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. D. Appleton and Company, New York. 1926. p. 428-34.

Brief treatment of demonstrations as a general supervisory device.

3. HOPPER, A. M. "Teacher Participation in Supervision." *The Journal* 18: 172; June, 1929. National Education Association.

Supervision in Louisiana shows the effectiveness of demonstrations, intervisitation, and conferences among typical classroom teachers.

4. MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. "Supervisor of Town Schools Analyzes Her Work." *Maryland School Bulletin* 8: 13-24; October, 1926.

Outlines, questions, and activities as used in demonstration meetings by county-unit supervisors.

5. MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. "A Supervisor of Town Schools Analyzes Her Work." *Maryland School Bulletin* 8: 17-40; October, 1926.

Outlines and questions used in typical demonstration meetings.

6. MINOR, RUBY. "Improvement in the Technic of Teaching Through a Recognition of Principles in Demonstration Teaching." *Elementary School Journal* 26: 519; March, 1926.

Discusses the basic principles which make demonstrations valuable to teachers.

7. PITTMAN, M. S. *The Value of School Supervision Demonstrated with the Zone Plan in Rural Schools*. Warwick and York, Inc., Baltimore. 1921. p. 36, 62-119.

Describes the use of "suggestive" demonstration lessons in improving instruction.

8. SIMPSON, MABEL E. "The Work of the Demonstration Teacher and Its Relation to a Program of Constructive Supervision." *Journal of Educational Method* 5: 140-44; December, 1925.

Tells how the demonstration teachers cooperate with principals and supervisors.

9. SMITH, NILA B. "The Key Teacher Scheme in Supervision." *Elementary School Journal* 28: 576-86; April, 1928.

Describes how Detroit organizes and manages a program of demonstration lessons.

10. SPENCER, CASSIE R. "The Demonstration Lesson as an Agency in Supervision." *Elementary School Journal* 26: 619-26; April, 1926.

Practical advice on making demonstrations effective in supervision.

11. WEST, ROSCOE L. "The Value of a Demonstration School." *Fifth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1926. p. 279-86.

Reports practices and opinions from several school systems as to the helpfulness of demonstration schools.

12. WILLARD, FRANK E. "The Summit Demonstration School." *The Journal of the National Education Association* 18: 153-54; May, 1929.

Description of a demonstration school in action as a unit of the public school system.

Pupil Diagnosis and Adjustment ¹

The success of instructional methods is ultimately judged by the growth of the pupils. Much of this Bulletin has been given to the classroom conditions, the teaching technics and other external factors which influence pupil development. But each pupil presents a complex array of physical, intellectual, and emotional traits which influence learning.² Frequently, the most helpful thing a principal can do is to assist the teacher in discovering the strengths and weaknesses of individual pupils.

Individual differences—Standard tests and measurements in education have done much to reveal pupil differences.³ Discussions of testing procedures and the results of testing surveys will be found in current professional literature.⁴ The possibility of studying traits not adequately measured by existing tests is indicated in the following quotation:

Our knowledge of differences in general intelligence is more complete than our knowledge of differences of special intellectual capacities or in the non-intellectual traits, such as emotion, will, or moral character. Our methods of measuring general intelligence are also better developed than are our methods of measuring most of these other traits. Our knowledge is sufficient, however, to indicate clearly that differences in the other traits are of sufficient importance to merit serious consideration. Where we cannot as yet measure them accurately, we should estimate them to the best of our ability.⁵

The utilization of standard measurements is not in itself a complete supervisory act. Testing programs are fact-finding devices. Statistical statements of learning conditions are not automatically helpful to the teacher. The most difficult problem is knowing what to do to improve conditions. The individual differences, the pupil strengths, the signs of learning difficulties and other facts are necessary guides for future action. The follow-up

activities of pupil adjustment, curriculum revision and demonstrations of remedial teaching technics are the factors which directly modify the classroom instruction.

Group improvement from tests—The practice of annual survey testing is found in many city and rural school systems. Such surveys usually include standard tests in the so-called basic subjects of reading, spelling, history, geography, language and arithmetic. Usually the test scores, with the medians and national norms, are reported to each school in tabular form such as Table 9. The principal of School C would probably have attention called to the standing of his school below the national norm. He in turn might point out this fact to the teachers. In the remaining few weeks of the term remedial measures would be applied.

The procedure of handling test scores as described above results in losses of potential power to the supervisory program. The comparison of school averages with the standard norm is excellent practice as far as it goes. But the fact that school C is below the norm is not the major problem. What about the 55

TABLE 9.—AVERAGE READING GRADE SCORES OF SECOND GRADE PUPILS

Schools	Average grade scores in each test			Composite scores
	Test 1 words	Test 2 sentences	Test 3 paragraphs	
A.....	2.93	2.62	2.53	2.69
B.....	2.72	2.59	2.52	2.61
C.....	2.58	2.53	2.31	2.47
Average of schools	2.77	2.59	2.47	2.61
Standard norm....	2.60	2.60	2.60	2.60
Difference.....	.17	.01	.13	.01

Figures taken from Table 47 in the *Survey of the Schools of Beaumont, Texas, 1927*, George D. Strayer (Director).

¹ A popularly written article on this general topic is: "Records that Come Alive" by Robert W. Bruere in *Survey Graphic*, September, 1929. p. 553-56 and 582-83.

² See *Why Children Succeed* by Stuart A. Courtis. Courtis Standard Tests, Detroit. 1925. 271 p.

³ See *The Individual Pupil* by Paul R. Mort, particularly pages 17-79. Published by the American Book Company. 1928.

⁴ For example:

Corning, H. M. *After Testing—What?* 1926.

Dickson, Virgil. *Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher*. 1923.

Trabue, Marion. *Measuring Results in Education*. 1924.

Wilson and Hoke. *How to Measure* (Revised). 1928.

⁵ Freeman, Frank N. *Mental Tests*. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1926. p. 368.

percent of the pupils with deficiencies in School A? Does the 57 percent deficiency in School B deserve attention? Too much attention can be given to the averages and medians. Meanwhile in the classrooms the teachers are facing groups of which more than 50 percent have reading handicaps.¹ What is to be done to help the teachers?

Some changes in the administration of city-wide surveys suggest themselves:

(1) Many testing surveys are given at the end of the term. These results have some administrative value in promotions and so forth. But the few days left to the term hardly give the teachers a chance to attack the problems which the tests reveal. Could some of these tests be given earlier in the term? Could diagnostic informal tests be given prior to the general survey?

(2) The test results are often reported back to individual schools in tabular form. Such tables merely reveal that certain grades or schools are below standard norms. The position of the class average in relation to standards does not offer the teacher concrete instructional facts. Could a tabulation be made of the most frequent errors found in the school system? Could test papers be returned to the individual school for further study of pupil errors?

What should the principal of School C do about the reading results shown in Table 1? Are there opportunities here to improve classroom instruction? The cases below illustrate the way in which two principals might meet the situation. Which principal is functioning upon the highest supervisory level?

Obviously Principal X is satisfied to discuss the averages, to complain of the school's standing, and to urge more pressure on the general reading methods. Survey testing under such follow-up procedures probably exerts little influence upon classroom practices. Principal Y is not greatly concerned with group averages. He seizes the opportunity to direct his teachers toward individual reading difficulties. His teachers become students of their problems and acquire new technics in reading instruction. Such follow-up practices capitalize the survey and exert a lasting influence upon the teaching.

Studying individual achievement—Knowing the strong and weak points of his class

helps a teacher do better work. One of the common arguments for standard tests is that they point out the differences between individuals.² But these differences are not always brought out by the tabulated test scores, the medians, and the ordinary treatment of statistical data.³ In the interpretation of statistical information the principal can do much to influence instruction.

Three sources of information for supervision are: (1) standard survey tests, (2) standard diagnostic tests, and (3) informal or teacher-made tests.

Using survey test results—A principal may not be satisfied with statistical tabulation ordi-

Principal X	Principal Y
1. Calls a teachers meeting.	1. Calls a teachers meeting.
2. Reads the table of test scores to the teachers. Points out that the averages of Schools A and B are higher than School C.	2. Reads and explains survey test results to the teachers. Shows that School C is below the norm but puts more emphasis on the fact that 54 percent of the pupils are deficient in reading.
3. Asks teachers to give reasons why School C is not higher than School B. Discussion follows in which teachers complain about the advantages of School B.	3. Asks teachers to suggest specific reading difficulties of their pupils. Lists these on the blackboard. Committee of teachers formed to assemble professional literature bearing on reading difficulties.
4. Urges the teachers to give more time to reading, to assign pupils more home reading, and to give more word drill. Places everything on the basis of "beating our Schools A and B" on the next survey.	4. Principal offers a diagnostic test to supplement the survey results. Teachers agree to correct tests and to assemble within a week to study the test scores. Program of professional study to be based upon the pupil difficulties as revealed by diagnostic tests.
5. Posts survey test scores on the office bulletin board.	5. Each teacher asked to record individual pupil difficulties for the next meeting.

¹ Mead, A. R. "Suggestions for the Training of Teachers in the Use of Educational Measurements." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 12: 23-43; January, 1926.

² Van Wagenen, M. J. "Making a Diagnostic and Cumulative Survey of School Achievement." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 10: 79-93; February, 1924.

³ See Truman Kelley's *Interpretation of Educational Measurements*. World Book Company. 1927. p. 62-145.

narily compiled from testing surveys. Such reports, as shown in Table 9, give group averages as compared with other schools and national standards. But what errors do pupils make in my school? How are these errors distributed by grades and individual pupils?

One principal obtained the results for his school from a city-wide testing in arithmetic. With the aid of his teachers he was able to work out the percent of right and wrong answers for each problem as shown in Table 10. It was evident from these data that problems 4, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were causing the greatest difficulty. Problem 4 seemed particularly troublesome for the sixth grade. Copies were made of the most difficult problems and combined with similar examples for use as drill exercises. These were mimeographed for dis-

tribution among teachers in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades.

The tests upon which Table 10 is based may be analyzed in greater detail to show the difficulties of individual pupils. Table 11 gives a detailed tabulation of the fourth grade results. A table of this type clearly reveals the problems which give the most difficulty.

What does Table 11 reveal? Certain important considerations are as follows:

1. Almost all of the pupils missed problems 9 and 10. Why? A check of the course of study in arithmetic shows that problems of these types are not taught until the fifth grade. Obviously, these problems are not a responsibility of the fourth grade teacher. A check should be made of the fifth grade.

TABLE 10.—PERCENT OF EACH GRADE OBTAINING RIGHT AND WRONG ANSWERS IN THE MIXED FUNDAMENTAL ARITHMETIC TEST.

Problem	Fourth grade		Fifth grade		Sixth grade	
	Right	Wrong	Right	Wrong	Right	Wrong
1.....	95	5	97	3	100	0
2.....	95	5	94	6	98	2
3.....	85	15	90	10	95	5
4.....	80	20	85	15	75	25
5.....	90	10	87	13	80	20
6.....	75	25	79	21	78	22
7.....	60	40	73	27	74	26
8.....	20	80	70	30	76	24
9.....	15	85	75	25	80	20
10.....	5	95	80	20	85	15

TABLE 11.—PROBLEMS MISSED IN THE LOW FOURTH GRADE

Pupils	Number of problem										Total missed
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
A.....										X	0
B.....										X	1
C.....										X	1
D.....									X	X	2
E.....								X	X	X	3
F.....								X	X	X	3
G.....								X	X	X	3
H.....								X	X	X	3
I.....								X	X	X	3
J.....								X	X	X	3
K.....						X	X	X	X	X	4
L.....						X	X	X	X	X	5
M.....							X	X	X	X	3
N.....							X	X	X	X	4
O.....						X		X	X	X	4
P.....							X	X	X	X	4
Q.....			X	X			X	X	X	X	6
R.....			X	X		X	X	X	X	X	7
S.....				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	8
T.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	9
Total missed...	1	1	3	4	2	5	8	16	17	19	76

Compare with pages 99-100 of *How to Measure* by G. M. Wilson and K. J. Hoke. Macmillan Company. 1928.

2. Problems 7 and 8 were missed by many of the pupils. Why? Investigation shows that problems of a similar type were being taught at the time of the survey. Evidently, the particular arithmetical habits represented by Problems 7 and 8 have not been established. Analysis of individual difficulties and further drill are desirable.

3. The other problems missed indicate individual and not class difficulties. Pupils R, S, and T particularly deserve careful diagnostic treatment and remedial instruction.

Standard diagnostic tests—The use of survey tests as described in the above paragraphs should be helpful to teachers in overcoming the weakness of individual pupils. But survey tests are not usually inclusive enough to include all of the fundamental habits. This fact has led to the development of diagnostic tests which are designed to give systematic and searching analysis of abilities. Since these tests contain many details they take longer to give and to score, but the final interpretation is fairly exhaustive. Upon such complete analyses the teacher can build a safer remedial program of instruction.

Table 12 shows a tabulation based upon the Wilson Language Error Test. The complete table would include all of the pupils in the class and more of the particular errors. Enough data are given to show how a tabulation based upon a diagnostic test reveals the weakness of each pupil.

Diagnostic tests are not given to reveal class medians and group averages. Their primary purpose is to reveal the weaknesses of indi-

vidual pupils. The complete supervisory activity does not end with the tabulation of errors. A helpful supervisor will assist the teacher in developing a program of remedial teaching. Is testing a supervisory procedure if it fails to influence classroom instruction?

Informal testing—In recent years there has been considerable emphasis upon the "new type," informal or teacher-made test. Such discussions refer to the true-false, best answer, and other examinations which borrow much from standard test practices. The reader is referred to certain standard texts dealing specifically with the construction and use of the informal test.¹

Probably much of the discussion of the new type examination is concerned with such values as, (1) a more systematic testing, (2) the reduction of "bluffing" opportunities, (3) the ease of giving to pupils, and (4) the reduction of the clerical work commonly associated with essay examinations.

Such values, while of outstanding importance, do not include the possibility of using the informal test for diagnostic purposes. Particularly valuable are the uses of informal tests in checking the local course of study. For example, the local spelling list may prescribe certain words for the third grade as shown in Figure 9. Probably it would be impossible to find standard survey or diagnostic tests which would deal with these specific words. Obviously, the thing to do is for a teacher to make her own informal test (Test A) and the subsequent tabulation given in Table 13.

¹ See the following: Ruch, *Improvement of the Written Examination*. Paterson, *Preparation and Use of New-Type Examinations*. Russell, *Classroom Test*.

TABLE 12.—ERRORS OF PUPILS IN A DIAGNOSTIC LANGUAGE TEST

Errors shown by Story A	Pupils								Total
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	
to—at.....		X			X		X		3
are—our.....	X		X	X		X	X		5
feller—fellow.....	X	X		X	X	X	X		6
me—I.....		X	X	X		X		X	5
taken—took.....		X				X		X	3
saw—seen.....		X		X		X	X		4
Total.....	2	5	2	4	2	5	4	2	26

Compare with pages 173-83 of *How to Measure* by G. M. Wilson and K. J. Hoke.

FIGURE 9.—WORDS FROM THE THIRD GRADE SPELLING LIST

161. having	166. herself
162. hear	167. high
163. heard	168. himself
164. heart	169. hold
165. held	170. hole

Test A

NOTE: Pronounce the word in parentheses and then ask the class to write the sentence from dictation.

- (having) We are *having* a good time.
- (hear) I *hear* the bell.
- (heard) We *heard* them coming.
- (heart) I want a candy *heart*.
- (held) He *held* the ball.
- (herself) She hurt *herself* on the swing.
- (high) How *high* can you jump?
- (himself) He threw *himself* on the floor.
- (hold) Please *hold* the bat.
- (hole) I dug a round *hole*.

From the Boston spelling list.

Table 13 gives the teacher a clear indication of the words missed by the class. Tabulations of errors in this form help the teacher to plan the necessary drill or remedial work. In the same way informal tests can be made to cover the local course of study in history, geography, arithmetic, and the other subjects. These local tests have the advantage of surveying pupil achievement in terms of what the child is being taught.

The case study technic—It has long been the custom for physicians to make case records on their patients. These data compiled on one or more cards have proven useful in giving a complete summary of an individual's status and history. This practice has been wide-

spread in the study of the mentally deficient, the insane, and the criminally inclined, but its use has been limited among normal persons. Probably the most frequent use of case studies among typical persons have been in connection with educational guidance programs.¹

Case study devices and technics should be among those commonly used by elementary school principals.² Nor would this be limited to problem cases only, for there is evidence of the value of systematic study of every student.

The essential characteristics of a case study are (1) reliable information carefully organized, and (2) as complete data as possible. The successful accomplishment of these two aims requires carefully planned record cards.³

The size and printing arrangement will depend considerably upon personal preferences. Practice indicates a preference for the filing card system as contrasted with loose-leaf folders. Abbreviations and code symbols on record cards not only save space, but render information less understandable to the curious. Suggestions may be had from the samples printed in professional texts⁴ and previous *Research Bulletins*.⁵

Basic items for the card will depend somewhat upon the purposes for which the records are to be used. Educational guidance cards would contain items not usually found in medical case studies. Reavis has suggested a modified case study of items based upon the Whittier State School, California records.

¹ Developed in detail by Reavis in his *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High School*, D. C. Heath and Company, 1926, 348 p.

² See suggestions on pages 265-85 in Mort's *The Individual Pupil*.

³ Mort, Paul R. *The Individual Pupil*. p. 285-303.

⁴ See Reavis' *Pupil Adjustment*, p. 324-41; Mort's *The Individual Pupil*, 246-50; and Heck's *Administration of Pupil Personnel*, p. 184-322.

⁵ See "Uniform Records and Reports," *Research Bulletin*.

TABLE 13.—TABULATION OF SPELLING ERRORS

Word	Pupils missing certain words								Total words missed
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	
1. having.....	X					X			2
2. hear.....				X					1
3. heard.....	X			X			X		3
4. heart.....	X				X				2
5. held.....				X					1
6. herself.....						X			1
7. high.....									0
8. himself.....									0
9. hold.....	X								1
10. hole.....									0
Total.....	4	0	0	3	1	2	1	0	11

Outline of Individual Case History

1. *Chronological data.* Includes date and place of birth, with important events during development period.
2. *Intelligence.* Results of tests, measurements, observations, and opinions of persons who have known *propositus*.
3. *Temperament.* Refers to the expression of character in the form of mood. Ranges from pathological depression (*hypokinesia*) to pathological excitation (*hyperkinesia*). The common classifications are *phlegmatic, calm, moderate, active, and excitable*.
4. *Other mental conditions.* Refers to mental conditions and expressions which are not strictly intellectual or temperamental.
5. *Physical condition.* Includes personal description, results of medical examinations, physical tests and measurements, and physical development history.
6. *Moral character.* This refers to that phase of the individual make-up "which produces in varying degrees adaptation and conformity to social custom." Includes trustworthiness, honesty, personal habits, religious attitude, etc.
7. *Conduct.* Detailed account of behavior, including misconduct and conditions under which good conduct is obtained. Details of offenses committed.
8. *Associates.* An account of the subject's choice of companions or of the kind of company kept.
9. *Amusements.* Favorite pastimes, with extent and result of indulgence.
10. *Education.* School attainments and progress, determined by (a) standardized tests and measurements in school subjects and (b) interviews with teachers and principals.
11. *Vocational record.* Kind and extent of employment with indications of success. Special abilities or disabilities. Judgments based upon psychological, educational, and physical examinations.
12. *Home conditions.* Detailed account, based upon Whittier Scale for Grading Home Conditions.
13. *Neighborhood conditions.* Detailed account, based upon Whittier Scale for Grading Neighborhood Conditions.¹
2. *Maturity, or present chronological age.* (This is so important that it should be obtained in two independent ways in order to check one against the other.)
3. *Verbal intelligence.* (This can be determined by school achievement tests of the reading and vocabulary sorts and by general intelligence tests or such portions of them as are of a verbal nature and do not include numbers and spatial relationships as content.)
4. *Social intelligence.* (Pending the derivation of an adequate objective test, this trait must be estimated by teachers and others coming into intimate contact with the child.)
5. *Activity and mechanical intelligence.* (This trait may be estimated by judgments and in part by existing mechanical ability tests. It may eventually be necessary to divide the trait here mentioned into two or more.)
6. *Interests along lines (3), (4), and (5) and along other lines specially noted by the child.* (These other lines may be correlated with special sensory or motor development, as, for example, are music, drawing, and certain games. Measures of these interests may be estimated by teachers on the basis of replies to a questionnaire and may also be measured by interest tests such as the Wyman test and the Cowdery (1925) test.)
7. *Ability with reference to quantitative phenomena—computation, etc.* (This can be determined by computation and various other number tests.)
8. *Ability with reference to spatial relationships—geometrical forms, etc.* (This can be determined by form boards, geometrical form tests, etc.)
9. *Memory with reference to verbal material.* (Since most tests of memory include element (3) to a large extent, this should at present be estimated by teachers rather than derived from a test score.)
10. *Special sensory or motor interests and abilities.* (Suggestions as to these may be got from a questionnaire, and certain of these may also be readily ascertained by existing objective tests.)

The personal interview—Case studies often stop with record making. Such instances fail to utilize the personal interview. This conference makes the needs more vital and gives an opportunity to check important facts not previously recorded.

Probably the most important factor in the interview is the attitude and tact of the examiner. The interview is supposed to offer the examiner an opportunity to study and influence the real self of the pupil. The progressive principal may ask himself these questions: Do we tell our personal history to people we cannot trust? Are we inclined to talk

Kelley² has a minimal list to be studied in understanding school children:

1. Name; sex (a certain sex becomes exceptional when considered in connection with an activity ordinarily engaged in by the opposite sex); residence; date and place of birth; nationality of parents; vocation of parents; past disciplinary record; recent school transfers; special sensory or motor defects or abilities; past illnesses; present general health condition; bodily size and strength.

Items important for purposes involving mental classification, education, and guidance:

¹ Reavis, W. C., *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High School*, D. C. Heath and Co. 1926. p. 79-80.
² Kelly, T. L. *Interpretation of Educational Measurements*, 1927. p. 123-25.

freely after someone has criticized or discouraged us? How can I keep pupils from being self-conscious? How can I ask questions so as to secure sincere and honest statements from pupils?

A statement of principles in interviewing has been suggested as follows:

Win the confidence of the boy—Some men check one or more significant bits of information noted on the blank and then open the interview with one of these as the topic of conversation, e. g.: "I note you are a baseball fan. I used to play on the varsity team. At what position do you play?" Or "I note that you and your friend Tom are the same age as my own boy," or "I have a personal friend who works in the same place as you."

Arrive quickly at the boy's particular problem—The interview period is all too brief. After establishing a friendly relationship with the boy, press on to consider the special needs as indicated by a careful review of his analysis blank. While usually it is best to draw the boy into a conversation, it will be necessary for the interviewer wisely to direct the use of the time during the conference. Unnecessary questions or conversation may have to be tactfully set aside by some such sincere statement as, "I'll be glad to talk that over with you when we have an opportunity for another interview."

Emphasize the Character Values.—Seldom does the successful interviewer "lecture at" the boys. However, if he is alert to discover on the self-analysis blank or in the interview any evidence of weakness in character, he will with earnestness, sincerity, and great tact lead the boy to a self-evaluation and appropriate decision of the will.

Follow up the Interview—In order to secure the permanent results in this interviewing there should be careful planning in advance for the follow-up of the first interview. A report with suggestions for a later guidance should be written after the interview. Time for this is a prerequisite. Appointments for later interviews should be arranged. Successful interviewers make personal memoranda and follow-up the conference by letters, telephone calls, and visits later.¹

The above principles are suggestive as to general procedure in interviewing. When important notes are to be made without distracting the pupil's attention it may be well to have a supplementary record form. Such a device may be shielded from the pupil's view by books and papers. In making records during interviews the principal may ask himself these questions: Do the scratching of my pen, writ-

ing movements, etc. disturb the pupil? Am I unnecessarily duplicating previous records? Is this record interfering with my observations and systematic study of this pupil?

Case study technic has been remarkably improved by the addition of objective measurement.² It is now possible to make accurate measurements of height, weight, blood pressure, blood infections and food values in nutrition work. Records of individuals can be easily compared with generally accepted norms.³

Some advances of particular interest to principals have been in the objective measurement of intellectual and emotional traits.⁴ Standardized individual and group intelligence tests have come to be common tools among school workers. Informal and standardized tests of achievement are of more recent development. Research at the present time indicates the possibility of measuring many emotional and character qualities not adequately measured by other standard tests.⁵ Statistics have become essential in the interpretation and application of test scores.

Following-up pupil adjustment—The above paragraphs have discussed pupil adjustment as a potential supervisory activity. Some attention has been given to standard tests, informal tests, case study records, and pupil interviews. These agencies have been presented as fact-finding tools in the larger problem of pupil adjustment.

Let us suppose we find maladjustments between the child and the school; or, a child with poor motor coordination; or, several children with speech defects; or, children with poor reading habits. What can be done about such problems?

Administrators often establish special classes, revise the curriculum, and use other general means to eliminate poor school adjustment.⁶ These changes may be grouped as plans of (1) organization, (2) administration, (3) instruction materials, and (4) classroom procedure.⁷

Changes in school organization may be illustrated by the Batavia Plan. In this scheme, an extra teacher is provided to assist the regular teacher with the laggards.⁸

¹ Robinson, Clarence C. *The Find Yourself Idea*, Association Press, 1922, p. 36.

² See such texts as: Wells, F. L. *Mental Tests in Clinical Practice*, World Book Company, 1927, 315 p.

³ For references, see "The Principal and Progressive Movements," *Research Bulletin*, 7: 51-8; March, 1929.

⁴ See such references as, Freeman, Frank N. *Mental Tests*, etc.

⁵ See references in "The Principal and Progressive Movements," *Research Bulletin*, p. 75-82. March, 1929.

⁶ See Paul R. Mort's *The Individual Pupil*, p. 195-264 and 304-71, and Heck's *Administration of Pupil Personnel*, p. 413-54.

⁷ Discussed at greater length in "The Principal and Progressive Movements," *Research Bulletin* 7: 67-74; March, 1929.

⁸ Holmes, W. H. "An Example from Mt. Vernon, New York," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education. Part II, 1925, p. 32-38.

Ability grouping is an example of changes in administrative procedure to meet individual differences. Pupils may be segregated on the basis of intelligence or achievement or a series of several factors.¹ Special classes for the gifted and the mentally slow is another administrative adjustment.²

Instructional materials may be adapted to individuals in conformity to various schemes of instruction. Examples of two plans of individual instruction may be found in Chicago,³ Winnetka,⁴ and many other cities.

Changes in classroom procedure can be illustrated by the Dalton Plan. In this case the pupil is free to work each day upon any units of the curriculum in which he may be interested. At intervals a child must have completed certain minimum assignments.⁵ Another plan of adjustment to individuals is the provision for differentiated lesson assignments in accordance with the ability of each pupil.⁶

Applications of the above adjustments in practical school situations have been described in professional texts⁷ and current literature. In some instances objective evidences are submitted to prove the accomplishments of a particular experiment. Most of these efforts to eliminate pupil maladjustments merit the careful attention of progressive principals. However, the applications of these schemes are often based upon mass measures in which the individual peculiarities are easily lost.⁸

The principal and pupil adjustment—Pupils who are not profiting from the teaching require the principal's supervisory skill. Such pupils are not always problem cases. They may be normal children who are working far below their potential ability in spite of a favorable classroom environment. Improvement of instruction for these pupils is not a matter of better general teaching technics, but the adjustment of the school to their peculiar difficulties.

How are the peculiar traits of children discovered? Certain useful technics are: observa-

tion in classroom, survey tests, diagnostic tests, personal interviews, informal tests, and tests of personality.

The above practices are common in the schools today. But frequently the information obtained by the above tests are only used in dealing with children as groups. Methods of teaching applied to groups do not always reach the individual's learning difficulties. The improvement of general teaching technics still does not affect many pupils. Therefore, for many children supervision has no contribution until it recognizes individual differences and fits the school's program to each pupil.

Fitting the school to the child does not stop with class organization. Help must be given to the teacher in adapting the curriculum content to the pupils. The teacher should be informed as to the pupil differences and how these variations may be capitalized for instructional purposes.

It is not enough to say that John is 10 points below the national standard. The supervisor must help the teacher answer two questions: (1) Why is John below standard? (2) How can John be brought up to the limit of his ability? Not until such factors as John, the teaching technics, the curriculum and the teacher have been adjusted to solve John's learning difficulties can we say that the fact-finding devices have functioned in a supervisory way.

Standard tests and the other fact-finding technics discussed in this section do not automatically improve instruction. Such devices search systematically for learning and teaching difficulties. Only when the principal and teachers follow-up the tests with a remedial program does the fact-finding device become a positive supervisory influence.

Pupil Diagnosis and Adjustment

1. BROOKS, SAMUEL S. *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*. Houghton Mifflin Company; Boston. 1922. 278 p.

The first half of the book tells how a superintendent enlisted the teachers in a testing pro-

¹ Curtis, Stuart A. "Ability Grouping in Detroit," p. 44-47, and Sutherland, A. H., "Ability Grouping in Los Angeles," p. 47-48, *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, 1925.

² Mort, Paul R. *Op. cit.*, p. 304-316.

³ McCade, J. E. "The Mastery Unit Plan of Individual Instruction," *Bulletin*, Dept. Elementary School Principals, January, 1929, p. 78.

⁴ Washburne, Carleton W. "A Program of Individualization," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, Part II. National Society for the Study of Education. 1925. p. 257-272.

⁵ Parkhurst, Helen. "The Dalton Laboratory Plan," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, Part II. National Society for the Study of Education. 1925. p. 82-93.

⁶ Reavis, W. C. "Differentiated Requirements in the University of Chicago High School," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, Part II. National Society for the Study of Education. 1925. p. 49-52.

⁷ See Mort *Op. cit.*, p. 195-264 and 304-71.

⁸ Curtis, S. A. *Why Children Succeed*. p. 16.

- gram. The second half shows how the test results were followed up.
2. BRUECKNER, L. J. "A Necessary Step in the Diagnosis of Pupil Difficulties in Arithmetic." *Third Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1924. p. 290-300.
Describes procedures for discovering the weakness of individual pupils.
 3. BRUECKNER, L. J., AND SOUBA, AMY. "A Diagnostic Sheet in Arithmetic." *Second Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1923. p. 421-29.
Suggests practical ways of analyzing the scores of pupils on arithmetic tests.
 4. BURDICK, W. H. "The Bright Pupil—An Enriched Course in Place of Acceleration." *Fourth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1925. p. 262-71.
How to improve the instruction for the bright child.
 5. CORNING, HOBART M. *After Testing—What?* Scott, Foresman Company, Chicago, 1926. 213 p.
Describes how a superintendent used test data in improving the organization and instruction in a school system.
 6. DICKSON, VIRGIL E. *Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher*. World Book Company, Yonkers. 1923. 231 p.
Tells how to use standard tests in discovering individual differences. Gives practical suggestions on grading and classification.
 7. DOLL, EDGAR A. "Clinical Methods Applied to Teaching." *Educational Research Bulletin* 7: 251-57; September 19, 1928. Ohio State University.
Suggests application of case study technic to all unadjusted school children. Gives concrete examples.
 8. HECK, ARCH O. *Administration of Pupil Personnel*. Ginn and Company, Boston. 1929. 479 p.
Discusses types and uses of pupil records.
 9. HERRIOTT, M. E. "Modifying Technic of Instruction for Gifted Children." *University of Illinois Bulletin* 23: 1-17; January 4, 1926. No. 18.
Suggests adaptations of practical value in typical schools. References to professional literature.
 10. JACOBS, RICHARD C. "An Educational Diagnosis of Fifty Individual Pupils." *Sixth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1927. p. 217-28.
A principal tells how he studied 50 pupils.
 11. KELLEY, TRUMAN L. *Interpretation of Educational Measurements*. World Book Company, Yonkers. 1927. 363 p.
Emphasizes cautious use and sane interpretation of standard test data.
 12. KYTE, GEORGE C. "An Experiment in the Education of Gifted Children in the First Grade." *Eighth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, 1929. National Education Association, 419-28. (Reprinted from the 1922 Yearbook.)
Describes tests and technics in selecting and teaching a group of bright children.
 13. MCCALL, W. A., AND BIXLER, HAROLD H. *How to Classify Pupils*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1928. 83 p.
How to use standard tests in grouping pupils.
 14. MONROE, W. S., AND CLARK, JOHN A. "The Teacher's Responsibility for Devising Learning Exercises in Arithmetic." *University of Illinois Bulletin* 23: 1-94; June 15, 1926. No. 41.
Contains an exhaustive study of the problems provided in arithmetic texts. Also, tries to answer this question for teachers: "What learning exercises should I ask my pupils to do?"
 15. MORT, PAUL R. *The Individual Pupil in the Management of Class and School*. American Book Company, New York. 1928. 383 p.
Many suggestions in classifying, studying, and adjusting the individual pupil.
 16. ODELL, CHARLES W. "Educational Tests for Use in Elementary Schools, Second Revision." *University of Illinois Bulletin* 24: 1-44; July 2, 1927. No. 49.
Gives names, publisher, cost, and description of many standard tests now generally available. Discusses criteria for selection and use of standard tests.
 17. ODELL, CHARLES W. "Objective Measurement of Information." *University of Illinois Bulletin* 23: 1-28; May 11, 1926. No. 36.
Discusses value, construction and use of the new type examination.
 18. ORATA, PEDRO T. "Adaptation of Subject-matter and Instruction to Individual Differences in the Elementary School." *University of Illinois Bulletin* 13: 1-20; January 18, 1926. No. 20.
Briefly summarizes the teaching devices and the plans of school organization designed to meet individual pupil difference.
 19. PAULU, EMANUEL M. *Diagnostic Testing and Remedial Teaching*. D. C. Heath, New York. 1924.
Discusses testing as culminating in the proper choice of appropriate teaching methods.
 20. POTTER, CHARLES. "The Testing and Correction of Language Errors." *Sixth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1927. p. 200-10.
Tells how a group of principals developed and used a diagnostic, new-type examination in language.
 21. PROBST, ELLA M. "Following Up a Survey of Instruction." *Third Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1924. p. 300-9.

Remedial procedures to overcome the difficulties discovered by case studies of pupils.

22. ROSS, C. C. "The Diagnostic Value of Individual Record Cards." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 9: 439-44; October, 1923.

Suggests usefulness of individual records in predicting success.

23. STRAYER, G. D., AND ENGELHARDT, N. L. (and others). *Report of the Survey of Maple Heights, Ohio*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. 1929. 226 p.

Pages 77-226 show how to study, to adjust, and to evaluate the development of the individual child.

24. WILSON, G. M. "After-test Value of Language Error Tests." *Second Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1923. p. 371-80.

Tells how to use tests in discovering the individual pupils with learning difficulties.

25. WILSON, G. M., AND HOKE, K. J. *How to Measure*. Macmillan Company, New York. 1928. 597 p.

Many practical suggestions on how to use test results in improving the teaching.

26. WOODY, CLIFFORD. "Informal Tests as a Means for the Improvement of Instruction." *Eighth Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 435-42. 1929. (Reprinted from the 1922 Yearbook.)

Tells how to construct and use the new type examination as a supervisory device.

27. YOAKAM, G. A. "An Evaluation of After-testing Work, with Bibliography." *Second Yearbook*. Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. 1923. p. 433-42.

Lists many of the early studies on the value and use of standard tests.

THE MOST valuable information obtainable from testing is usually neglected. Teachers give tests—no doubt you yourself have given tests—and after they have served the needs of the moment they are either thrown away immediately or filed and forgotten. This procedure applies just as much to informal testing as to the more formal use of standardized materials. Not half the use is made of the responses of pupils to these tests as could and should be made.—B. R. Buckingham in *Research for Teachers*, p. 341-42.

