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SOME ESSENTIAL VIEWPOINTS
IN SUPERVISION OF RURAL
SCHOOLS

ABSTRACTS OF ADDRESSES DELIVERED AT THE
FIRST CONFERENCE OF SUPERVISORS OF
THE NORTHEASTERN STATES

HELD IN NEW YORK CITY
APRIL 23 AND 24, 1928



PREPARED IN THE DIVISION OF RURAL EDUCATION

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., 1928.

SIR: Expert supervision of rural schools is recognized as an important means of promoting teaching efficiency and of equalizing educational opportunity for rural-school children. This report of the proceedings of a rural-school supervisory conference, which I called in New York City in April, 1928, contains material which, in my judgment, is representative of major supervisory activities adapted to facilitate reaching the objectives of a progressive rural education program. I believe this report will be widely serviceable to all rural educational workers and will contribute to the extension of rural-school supervision, as well as to improvement in supervisory practices. I recommend its publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

Respectfully submitted.

JNO. J. TIGERT,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

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FOREWORD

This bulletin contains abstracts of addresses delivered at a 2-day conference of State and county rural-school supervisors of the Northeastern States, called by the United States Commissioner of Education in New York City, April 23 and 24, 1928. Abstracts were prepared from manuscripts submitted by the authors.

The conference was the third regional supervisory conference sponsored by the United States Bureau of Education. Reports of the preceding conferences, held in 1925 and 1926, were published as Bulletins, 1926, No. 12, and 1927, No. 24, of the Bureau of Education.

The conference was attended by more than 100 rural education workers, most of whom are engaged in State and local supervision. The States represented were Connecticut, Delaware, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

The United States Bureau of Education was represented by the Commissioner of Education and two members of the staff of the division of rural education.

The conference was formally opened by the Commissioner of Education, Dr. John J. Tigert. He explained briefly his interest and that of the Bureau of Education in assisting the extension of rural-school supervision and in promoting more efficient supervisory procedures.

The program presented was arranged to consider the seven large problems indicated by the Roman numerals in the table of contents; under each of these at least one major paper or address was presented, followed by free discussion from the floor.

This bulletin is a practically complete record of the conference proceedings, although the extemporaneous discussion is necessarily omitted. One speaker failed to send his manuscript.

SOME ESSENTIAL VIEWPOINTS IN SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

I. Improvement of Supervisory Techniques

Characteristics of Efficiency in Teaching

RAY P. SNYDER

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The topic placed on the program for discussion at this time has no limiting adjective. Therefore the speaker will exercise the privilege of selecting a few outstanding characteristics of efficiency from many that might be chosen.

There are some measurable and some unmeasurable characteristics of teaching. There are certain personal characteristics of teachers some of which we can not even define, much less measure, which indicate very clearly the teacher's influence. If to these indications can be added certain measured results the evidence is much more satisfactory. An old teacher and friend once remarked, "We teachers can not know for sure that we have been successful until our pupils are about 35 years old." He was employing an exaggeration to emphasize a great truth—the real teacher's influence is lasting.

But it is not necessary to wait a long time to find out some things. One who knows even a little about carpentry does not need to see the completed building in order to form an opinion of the skill of the carpenter. He can judge better, certainly, if he has the opportunity to view the whole structure, but that is not always possible. One can tell a whole lot about the efficiency of the workman by the manner and ease and accuracy with which he handles his tools.

Some characteristics easily discovered by efficient supervisors.—Among the characteristics of efficient teaching is the ability to arouse and guide the interest and alertness of pupils in school and class activity. Good teaching is present only when pupils are and appear to be a moving and vital part of what is going on. They should not be outside the inclosure or even in the grand stand or on the bleachers. Their place is on the diamond in the center of activity.

Pupil participation in any school or classroom is one characteristic of efficient teaching.

Allied to this is a characteristic which for want of a better term may be called "democracy in control and management"; an apparent feeling by both teacher and pupils that it is not the teacher's school nor the pupils' school, but a school for teacher and pupils. Such a situation is known in part at least by freedom and ease and lack of restraint in the conduct of affairs, qualities which are hard to measure but which have a tremendous influence in stirring latent interest in further schooling and in preparing for social living.

To those trained under the disciplinary practices of the past, it may appear that such management (or mismanagement according to their standards) will lead only to disorder and will result in waste of time. The answer is that the efficient teacher will fit this democracy of control into one general purpose and to one general objective.

The tactful and skillful umpire does not need to fine many of the players. The more there is evidence of enjoyment in work, the more boys and girls appear to feel that school and recitation are theirs, the more the teacher directs without seeming to do so, the stronger is the evidence of leadership. Efficient teachers are not commanders, they are leaders of boys and girls.

In a 1-room school of rural New York, with an enrollment of more than 30, pupils were observed taking their places in class at the proper time without call from the teacher; other pupils were engaged in preparing the noon-day lunch; members of a third group were attending to the library, binding books; and still others were working on room-decoration projects. All these and many other activities, carried on with no apparent effort on the part of the teacher, did not interfere with the teaching of fundamental subjects, as was proved by the results attained in these subjects. Every school activity under the skillful management of this teacher was directed toward both a specific and a general purpose in the teaching of children. Under difficult conditions and with limited facilities she was sending pupils to high school at or below normal age from a district where prior to her period of teaching it had been an exception for a pupil to go to high school.

A visit to this school was an inspiration. One could not help carrying away with him a new enthusiasm for his work. This teacher at work with her pupils was a splendid demonstration of the fact that the finest leadership does not always require physical presence in the front ranks.

The ability to demonstrate by evidence ascertained by scientific methods that a teacher has definite aims and objectives and that she is attaining results is a third characteristic of efficient teaching. A good teacher regards tests and measurements as a means, an arrow

pointing the way and not as an end in itself. The results may indicate the need of change in method. To advise change in methods without determining the effectiveness of those in use is not good supervision. McCall states the principle clearly, "The worth of the methods and materials of instruction is unknown until their effect is measured."¹ Also, "Measurement of achievement should precede supervision of teaching method." The teacher is indeed primarily a teacher of children, but it is doubtful if one can teach children well unless he teaches subject matter well.

The desirable situations and outcomes referred to will not come by chance. They will not just happen. The teacher in large measure will be their cause.

Personal traits constituting desirable characteristics.—Some of the personal qualities necessary to good teaching deserve mention. Are these necessary qualities natural or are they acquired? We shall avoid discussion with the psychologist and the sociologist and answer the latter question arbitrarily by saying that they are both.

Of first importance is self-control, command of one's self. This is the kind of control which enables a teacher to control pupils without compulsion or suppression. Pupils will not participate effectively and constructively in school management nor will they control themselves unless the teacher can control herself.

Self-control means control of temper, avoidance of hasty words, self-restraint when tempted, self-restraint under provocation, and the ability to rule one's own spirit. Self-control includes control of the voice. Some of us seemingly are unable to listen to ourselves. If we could learn to do this perhaps we should better understand the apparent uneasiness of others when in our presence. The voice probably has greater influence on the classroom than any other one thing connected with the teacher's personality. Unassumed dignity is an indication of self-control. Some people mistake a sort of superiority complex for dignity. An aloof "high hat" attitude is not conducive to good results in school or classroom. A quiet reserve which does not cause the teacher to appear to look down upon her pupils from the intellectual heights whereon she dwells, a kind of dignity that is the accompaniment of sturdy character, a human kind of thing that commands respect because of real worth, is the sort needed by the teacher.

A second desirable trait of a teacher is enthusiasm—enthusiasm for her work, enthusiasm for her pupils, enthusiasm for her school, but always enthusiasm that is under control and a result of genuine interest.

There are other foundation traits on which any superstructure of professional preparation must rest. The efficient teacher must be

¹ McCall: *How to Measure in Education*, pp. 11-12.

sincere, sympathetic, and she must have an abundance of tact. And how teachers need to have good plain common sense, an ability to use sense in common things. The teacher who taught pupils on Long Island how to draw a map of a village in the western part of the State where she had gone to school did not possess common sense. It is a quality easily discernible. Efficient teaching does not result where it is absent.

Good teaching by one who does not occasionally display a sense of humor is almost an impossibility. Give me a teacher who can have a good laugh with her pupils once in a while. Also give me one that is neat and tidy both in person and in her schoolhouse. Good housekeeping is an evidence of good teaching. Added to these and a corollary of them are characteristics easily discerned, such as originality and initiative.

These traits or a sufficient number of them to produce efficient teaching of children will not be present unless they have sound character as their support. Character or the lack of it can not be concealed for any great length of time. It is education's ultimate aim and this can not be fully realized unless the teacher who points the way possesses it in abundance.

Characteristics resulting from professional preparation.—We come now to the characteristics which constitute the superstructure. The most beautiful building may be toppled over by the first gale that strikes it unless it rests on a strong foundation extending deep into the earth. It is not a building, however, if it has only the foundation. If it is to be used at all there must be both that which is largely invisible because it is deep underneath and that which rises above the ground where it is clearly discernible. The whole can not exist without all the parts. A teacher who possesses all the desirable characteristics mentioned above should add to them characteristics which can be acquired only by special training. Among these are: Sound scholarship, ability to question skillfully and to adjust teaching to individual needs, and ability to present subject matter so as to attract and hold the attention of pupils.

I desire to mention one more significant characteristic. The teacher who keeps abreast of the times not only professionally but in current events, the teacher who can talk shop but who can talk other things, too, is one that supervisors want, because she is one that boys and girls want.

Conclusion.—In a word, the teacher who shows that she can get her pupils to work with her, who can gain and keep their interest, developing in them democratic and studious habits, which result in gradual progress toward knowledge and good social living, who is a real human being with commendable personal traits, well trained for her work, displays several characteristics of efficient teaching.

What Has the Supervisor to Offer Superior, Experienced Teachers?

CYDE B. MOORE.

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It seems possible, even probable, that not a few teachers and supervisors would dispose of this topic by answering "Nothing." And why not? Is it not common educational practice to use the term superior for the highest category in which teachers are placed when ranked according to their value as teachers? In other words, the superior teacher is the "top-notch" teacher. Furthermore, in this particular instance, this superior teacher is not only superior in potentialities but is "experienced" as well. She is not merely a gifted novice of exceptional promise but a superior professional practitioner who has arrived, who has achieved, and whose achievements have been recognized. It is assumed that she possesses the training essential to her task regardless of the source of this training, and having attained this distinction she is no longer obligated to meet minimum or average standards as set up by teacher-training institutions or school systems. She has surpassed all these and is performing her professional labors on a superior or higher plane.

But superior as used here is a relative term. It is applied to a class in which a certain degree of variability is unescapable. In short, the upper limit is neither fixed nor known. The lower limit, on the other hand, is given such definition as is possible with our present knowledge of the nature of teaching and may be said to be fixed. The difficulties of such definition need not be discussed here, since the classification is frankly assumed.

Since this classification is without upper limit it is obvious that no teacher can be so superior—in spite of rich and varied experience—but that her professional qualifications may be enhanced and her high ranking be made even higher. Or to put the principle in a simple form—no teaching is so good but that it may be made better.

The learning-teaching process.—Supervision is primarily concerned with the learning-teaching process in a school situation. Indeed the supervisory function is so vitally a part of the learning-teaching process that for the sake of indicating the integral relationships it seems quite in place to speak of the learning-teaching-supervisory process.

Just as supervision has not until recently become an essential educational function, just so at an earlier stage of educational development, professional teaching was not an essential in the educative

process. But professional teaching and supervision are now accepted as essential. Furthermore, the most gifted learners tend to seek the assistance of professional teachers. Even the mature scholar of rare achievement crosses continents and seas for the sake of sitting at the feet of a great teacher. Consider any list of eminent men—for example, the winners of the Nobel prizes (awarded in the fields of physics, chemistry, medicine, literature, and peace)—and note the influence of teachers who have played their parts in the development of these intellectual giants. Such gifted men and women are deeply indebted to the institutions of learning and the teachers who have directed their learning and research. Following the same line of argument in the learning-teaching-supervisory process, with special consideration for the teacher, it seems quite as obvious that the most gifted teacher is indebted to the supervisor. In short, the cooperative efforts of superior experienced teachers and able supervisors can lead only in one direction—that of improving the educative process. Evidence indicating that they do so lead follows:

Opinions of superintendents.—During January and February of the present year the writer participated in the regional conferences of the district superintendents of the State of New York, at which the central theme for discussion was that of supervision. At these conferences each superintendent was invited to indicate in a paragraph *what the supervisor has to offer a superior experienced teacher*, and also to name two superior experienced teachers to whom the question now under discussion might be addressed. All superintendents making reply indicated their belief that the supervisor had something to offer the superior experienced teacher, and, in most cases either by direct statement or implication acknowledgment was made of the superintendent's indebtedness to these teachers. The composite district superintendent of New York, when asked, *What has the supervisor to offer superior experienced teachers?* replied as below. (The items are listed here in a rough descending order of frequency.)

1. Encourage, express approval, compliment, commend, inspire.
2. Utilize superior experienced teachers in teachers' conferences, in demonstrations, in the consideration of problems of method, school and class management, and the like. (This is found to be mutually beneficial to both superior experienced teachers and to those of lesser abilities.)
3. Report to superior teachers important new experiments; call attention to recent findings and reports.
4. Suggest new books, recent articles, new materials, and new uses of equipment or materials.
5. Suggest new methods and devices.
6. Advise and assist in securing opportunities for professional growth.
7. Give them definite problems to try out and report upon.

8. Use their exceptional cooperative powers for the good of the entire district and the community.
9. Obtain their assistance in the selection, administration, and interpretation of standardized tests.
10. Get them better positions. Superior teachers should realize no limits.
11. Encourage superior experienced teachers to rate the supervisor, as a supervisor, that he may become more efficient.
12. Suggest more professional training, interest them in extension courses, keep them in touch with scientific advancement.
13. Show confidence in their work, secure better working conditions, give them special recognition.
14. Use influence to get such teachers to serve as officers in teachers' organizations.
15. Invite them to assist in curriculum revision.

The following paragraphs from superintendents' letters are illustrative:

It seems to me that one of the things a superintendent might do for his superior experienced teacher would be to point the way to better professional training in order that she might eventually qualify for a supervisory position. One might use the superior teacher as a demonstrating model teacher for his less well-qualified teachers. This would be of value to both groups of teachers. The superintendent might bring to the services of his superior experienced teachers the advice of the State supervisor; he might direct her attention to the best professional books; give her responsible positions among his teachers on his conference programs; and mimeograph her plans and furnish them as models to his other teachers. She would thus be put on her plane of best performance when she knew her work was being used as a model for other teachers to follow.

My experienced superior teachers work me harder than the others, and I think my visits to their schools are less in danger of becoming perfunctory than they are at the schools of more indifferent teachers. Such teachers generally have definite policies in their minds which they wish to discuss carefully and about which they wish advice. Very often this means looking up further materials for them and my being able to study further their difficulties, and eventually, I hope, showing them how to study them out for themselves in the books and articles I have been able to find for them. Then, too, I use my superior teachers to try out experiments which I hope to be able to suggest largely in the whole territory later. The teachers know why they are experimenting and are on their mettle. I have also sent teachers over to visit their schools, always letting them know ahead, and asking them to plan carefully and discuss thoroughly what they have done with their visitors if they so desire. These same teachers demonstrate frequently at conferences, and serve on committees which take the lead in planning work for the district as a whole. I have not been able to give them as much extra definite attention as I should like, but I do try to have them feel that they are the advance guard and set them some definite goal toward which they may advance.

This looks more as if the superior teacher were contributing to me rather than I to her. I hope it is not quite so bad as it looks, though I do not deny my dependence upon her. I try to see that she may grow and learn through her service rather than merely be of service. I may not succeed always, however.

A superior teacher's ability should be recognized by extending her sphere of usefulness beyond her school district. She can be used at teachers' conferences either to actually demonstrate the high spots in her work with a group of her pupils present or she may be given an opportunity to lead the discussion when some general problem of school management is under discussion. The superintendent may find it to his advantage to have her score his efficiency as a supervising official. The superintendent should stimulate his superior teachers to make every possible effort to grow in their chosen profession. There is great danger in becoming self-satisfied. Such a condition is fatal to the success already achieved. Even superior teachers should be made to realize that there is no limit to the promotion open to them if they will but qualify.

Opinions of teachers.—Turning now to the superior experienced teachers themselves, we find an equally interesting list of statements regarding the services rendered by the supervisor. Again the items are offered in order of frequency of mention.

1. Unfailing interest and enthusiasm, sympathetic encouragement; fearless though human in the consideration of difficulties.
2. Conference after visitation at which specific items are evaluated.
3. Cooperation in new projects and calling attention to new methods, procedures, devices, and the like.
4. Encouragement of freedom and initiative in new procedures and projects.
5. An approachable manner; does not come as an inspector; teacher does not feel in awe of him but is free to ask for assistance.
6. Recognition of things well done (and say so); where weaknesses are found remedies are suggested.
7. Opportunities are offered for observations of others doing similar work and of demonstration lessons.
8. Informal conferences and discussions after conference addresses.
9. Assistance in finding suitable living quarters.
10. A system of lending books for the use of both teacher and pupils.
11. Reports on observations and results in other schools.
12. Assistance in securing better equipment, books, maps, changes in building, yard, equipment, and the like.
13. Suggestions as to new methods and materials and putting teacher in touch with experts.
14. Promptness in attending to clerical and administrative matters.
15. Maintaining high teaching standards and rating teachers accordingly; securing adequate salaries; checking reports and organization carefully.
16. Assistance in testing programs.
17. Assistance in grouping and alternating classes and in providing for individual differences.
18. Provision for small fund immediately available for supplies.
19. Discussions with patrons which will pave way for desirable changes. Criticisms of patrons reported in a frank professional manner.
20. Opportunity to demonstrate to other teachers what pupils have achieved.

The following paragraphs are taken from the teachers' replies.

After considering thoughtfully what the services of my supervisor have meant to me, I have decided that in matters of ordinary teaching routine, such as methods, selection of textbooks, etc., I have not felt the need of his assistance. I have liked, once in a while, to evaluate my program with him.

I have also liked to discuss with him new requirements and new features of educational work as it has been necessary and advisable to adopt them. I have appreciated his cooperation and advice in some especially difficult problem with the occasional pupil or member of a district. He has given inspiration and support in launching upon some new endeavor in the district. In general, I would say that I have been helped by his moral backing, his advice in extremities, and by the inspiration of counseling with him in regard to new educational developments.

If your topic refers to teachers from a larger place who are to work in a rural community, I think the first most valuable service a supervisor can offer is to take charge of securing congenial surroundings for the teacher's home if she is not familiar with the place. By conversation with the people he can save her trouble if they have not been accustomed to modern methods in teaching. It has been valuable to know that a supervisor is sufficiently interested to give the teacher freedom enough to express her own individuality and initiative in teaching and yet to be always ready with helpful suggestions, both as to method and additional material for content.

The kind of supervision that I prefer and which has helped me the most is that of an active nature, if that term is permissible. I enjoy having the supervisor take part in the recitation. I do not like to have him sit still and say nothing. I had one supervisor who would stand for a half hour with arms folded, silent as a statue. That form of supervision nearly drove me distracted.

The supervisor has much to offer the experienced teacher I find. I have chosen these items which seem to be most valuable to me: Hearty and sympathetic cooperation in tried and experimental procedures; giving of self in the line in which he excels; the benefit of the viewpoint of the looker-on and assistance in individual pupil-difficulty diagnosis. In extreme cases help with discipline.

The supervisory service of my superintendent has been helpful to me in many ways. During my early experience in rural-school work, she gave me many suggestions for grouping and alternating classes. By commending the children's work, approving of devices I was using in teaching arithmetic and English, and asking permission to show them to other teachers she gave me encouragement when I considered teaching an 8-grade school of 33 pupils a most discouraging task. Her interest in school fairs, speaking contests, track meets, and junior project clubs created a spirit of competition and closer contact with other schools, making our work more interesting. She often lent me new books for the pupils' use as well as my own. By inviting me to her home for Saturday conferences and social gatherings she offered me a means of becoming acquainted with other rural teachers and gave us an opportunity to discuss our problems. Her pleasing smile, cheerful words, and perhaps an interesting story told to the children brought about a spirit of friendliness and good will. Filled with enthusiasm for her work and possessing a very frank and sympathetic nature she has often been an inspiration to me.

Conclusion.—In the light of the foregoing it seems unnecessary to summarize categorically just what the supervisor has to offer the superior experienced teacher. Certain fundamental principles relating to the learning-teaching-supervisory process have been recognized. Both supervisors and teachers have frankly answered the

question under discussion in the light of their professional experience.

There seems to be but one conclusion, viz, that the superior experienced teacher is better equipped to profit by supervision than are those teachers of lower rating, and that she in turn challenges the supervisor to render the highest possible supervisory service. These findings corroborate the theory that supervision is not a makeshift assistance for weaklings who are failing, or for the condoning of professional mediocrity, but a high professional service of greatest value to those of highest professional achievement.

What Has the Supervisor to Offer Beginning Teachers Without Professional Preparation and with Such Preparation?

R. L. WEST

Assistant Commissioner of Education, Trenton, N. Y.

In the consideration of this subject it may be well to start refreshing our minds as to the chief purpose of supervision. What is a supervisor for? A reading of recent professional literature on supervision and visitation to schools that are effectively supervised ought to demonstrate that the fundamental purpose of supervision is to improve instruction which is given to children in a classroom. This may seem to be a rather trite statement because in the final analysis this is the purpose of all educational activity. What we call "administration" in a school system, or even "business management" should have as its ultimate objective the improvement of instruction. Some aspects of school operation, however, are more remote from this end than others.

By supervision, we usually think of the various techniques which a supervisor uses with a teacher and with pupils to bring about immediate improvement in the learning process. It should be evident, therefore, that the supervisor's task is somewhat different from the teacher's task. The teacher must know the subject matter which she is to present, must understand child nature, must have definite objectives of education, and must be able to promote those experiences in the classroom which will bring about the ends which she desires. The supervisor must know all of these things but must realize that in the main her task is to assist the teacher to carry out the program and not to act as a first-hand agent with the pupils.

To be successful, therefore, a supervisor must go somewhat further than the teacher. She must, of course, be thoroughly grounded in the philosophy of education. She must know modern society and its changes, and the demands which these changes make on the school curriculum. She must understand child psychology and its relation to proper methods of teaching. She must be thoroughly familiar with scientific studies of education which have done so much to change the specific methods of presentation in individual subjects. She must be able to fit her plans to the possibilities of the particular region in which she works.

Beyond all this, however, it is necessary for the supervisor to analyze the teachers who are working with her and to try to understand what these teachers need and how they can be helped. She must realize that it will be impossible for her to treat all teachers alike, and that the kind of work which these people can do depends largely upon their previous education, social background, and experience. The supervisor must therefore consider the possibilities of her work in the light of the training and experience of the people with whom she must work.

It is obvious that the supervisor's task with a beginning teacher who has had very little professional training will be quite different from her task with one who has had what we now term to be adequate professional preparation. I presume that by adequate professional preparation we mean at least graduation from a high school and graduation from a 2-year normal-school course. It may be that the time will come when this amount of normal-school training will not be considered adequate, but under present standards in this country it represents a fair average of professional training for elementary schools. At the present time we are well aware that this standard is not being reached by many rural school-teachers of the country.

Conditions as to teacher preparation in New Jersey.—The State of New Jersey has had, up to the present time, a system of allowing teachers to enter their first year of service upon the completion of the equivalent of a 6-weeks' summer-school course following high-school graduation. Certain requirements have made it necessary for the teacher to continue summer-school work year after year until the permanent certificate is attained at the end of six summers of work. You may be interested to know that we have practically reached the end of this method, as the State board of examiners has voted that beginning with July 1, 1928, no teacher will be given even a temporary license unless she has completed a year of normal-school work. It is the intention of the State to continue to add to this qualification so that at the end of two years a 2-year normal-school course will be required of every entrant into the profession.

During the last five or six years the number of beginning teachers who have entered from a summer school has been gradually decreasing. Four or five years ago there were about 300 such people coming into our schools every year. Last September there were fewer than 100. It is evident, therefore, that the rural supervisors, or helping teachers as they are called in New Jersey, now face considerable difference in the training of teachers who begin under their supervision. In the past, practically all of these beginners have been in schools under the supervision of helping teachers. It has been remarkable to see the improvement which these girls have made in two or three years and to know what the helping teachers have been able to do to inculcate in them the latest methods of teaching. In fact, this has been so prominent that we have often said that the helping-teacher system in New Jersey is, in effect, a traveling normal school, giving a training during the first four or five years of a young teacher's service which is quite comparable to the training which would be received by those attending a normal school.

Supervision of the work of untrained teachers.—There are certain features in the work of the New Jersey helping teachers which may help to indicate the kind of help which a supervisor should give to beginning teachers who have had practically no professional preparation. In the first place, one of the outstanding features has been the emphasis which has been placed upon demonstration. It has been felt that one of the methods which brings about improvements of teaching as rapidly as anything is that of giving the beginner an opportunity to observe effective teaching.

We probably fail to realize how isolated our teachers are when they enter upon the actual classroom work. They are much more isolated than beginners in many other lines of work. A young lawyer, for example, can attend court and listen to other lawyers present their cases. A young doctor has an opportunity to watch operations at a hospital or to discuss cases with his brother practitioner. An apprentice in a field which requires skilled labor is constantly thrown with more skilled workers, so that he can learn by watching and by imitating them. This situation does not apply to the young teacher. As soon as she steps into the classroom she is confined for the entire day so that it is impossible for her, especially when teaching in a rural school, to have any opportunity to watch other people practice the profession in which she is engaged. The result is that most young teachers attempt to teach as they were taught and inasmuch as their most recent memory is the type of teaching which they received in high school, they are apt to follow the methods which they remember, however inadequate these may be for meeting the needs of a rural

school. It is necessary, therefore, for the supervisor to demonstrate to this beginner proper methods of instruction and to give her an opportunity to watch other teachers who have become skilled in their profession.

It is essential that the supervisor build up at once a feeling of comradeship so that the beginner knows that the supervisor exists to help her grow and not to condemn her, or to inspect her for a formal rating.

Not long ago, I ran across a statement, translated from the Italian author, Benedetto Croce, which represents, I believe, the attitude which supervisors must inculcate in young teachers. It runs as follows:

To know and to have lost the power of learning, to be educated and to be unable to improve one's education, is to bring one's life to a standstill, and the right name for this is not life, but death.

The most essential attitude, therefore, for a young teacher to get is that the supervisor is a source of help and a person who will guide her over the difficulties of teaching which she is bound to find. If she can get this attitude at the start she will bring her problems to the supervisor and not attempt to conceal them in order to hide her own weaknesses.

It is obvious, of course, that there are a great many details of school management on which the beginning teacher with no professional training needs help. For example, she needs much help in the organization of her daily schedule and in the arrangement of her class work so that she will give proper attention to individuals and understand the importance of assigning worth-while work for the pupils to do when not in direct contact with the teacher. Such work, for example, as Hoffman, of Illinois, has done in setting up a detailed program for the rural teacher is very necessary for this beginner. She needs help in making assignments to pupils and in determining reasonable standards which pupils should reach. She has a right to expect her supervisor to understand the things which she doesn't know and to be willing to teach her these things patiently, provided she is willing to learn. If supervisors can handle such situations, beginners will not think of them as people who are expecting young teachers to do the impossible or to reach in a few weeks an efficiency which it has taken other teachers years to acquire.

Supervision of the work of inexperienced prepared teachers.—The supervisor should, however, take a different attitude with a beginning teacher who comes to her with proper professional preparation. This teacher should know many of the details of school management. Her normal-school education should have given her a reasonable knowl-

edge of the subject matter which she is to present and her observation and practice teaching should have made her conscious of some of the desirable practices of school management and organization. Consequently, it ought to be possible for the supervisor to start on a higher plane.

There are some people, possibly teachers among these, who feel that a supervisor is unnecessary for those teachers who enter their work with the proper professional preparation. Until we secure a standard definition of such preparation, which is far higher than any which we now have, this argument will hardly hold water. The supervisor should understand, however, that she is not fulfilling her duty when she allows a prepared teacher to become satisfied with mediocre performance or with the technique which might be considered good for a person without professional preparation. The supervisor should make this beginner feel that she is starting on a high plane and that it is possible for her to constantly study her job and improve technique as she progresses.

There are too many normal-school graduates who feel that because they have been graduated from a normal school, their preparation is complete, and that they can now apply it to the classroom situations. Teaching will never become that kind of a job. It is not the task of the normal school to teach certain static rules of procedure and then turn a girl out to practice this procedure on innocent and unsuspecting children. As Bode says in his *Modern Educational Theories*:

The difference between a democratic and an aristocratic society is that a democratic society understands that constant change is necessary in all lines of activity, whereas an aristocratic society is satisfied with the status quo.

Just as the supervisor must make the beginner without professional preparation realize the necessity of growth, so she must make the beginner with preparation realize the same necessity, except that the latter is starting on a higher level.

The supervisor should offer the beginner with professional preparation an opportunity to cooperate with others in her vicinity in a study and adaptation of the curriculum to the schools in that neighborhood. I do not mean that such a beginner should be expected to do elaborate research work or even to make extensive contributions to curriculum modification. She may very well, however, be a member of a committee in her region which is either doing some original work in constructing courses of study or attempting to adapt the State course of study to the immediate environment. The supervisor should expect this beginner to continue her reading and her studying along the lines of the scientific study of education so that

she may make application to her classroom technique of the principles of method in reading, spelling, arithmetic, and other subjects which are the result of laboratory experiments. She might even encourage such a teacher to experiment with new types of method, although it may be necessary to delay this until the beginner has found herself. I have in mind an experiment which is now being conducted in a rural school in one of the counties of New Jersey in the application of some principles of the Dalton plan for geography and history in the upper grades.

This beginning teacher should also be expected to make contributions at such a place as a county institute, or, possibly be able to demonstrate within a short time, certain principles of method for the observation of teachers who have had no professional preparation. In all of these things the supervisor must be so well informed and so skilled that she can meet the growing needs of this kind of a beginner and stimulate her to further advancement. There are undoubtedly, times when it is well to say to a teacher that a particular piece of work has been done better than the supervisor herself might be able to do it. There are many other times, however, when the supervisor should take the attitude that whereas a piece of work might be satisfactory for a beginner without preparation, it is unworthy of a beginner who has had adequate preparation and who has the ambition to go on to do artistic teaching.

What I have said, therefore, amounts really to the necessity of having supervisors who can analyze the needs of variously trained beginners who come under their supervision. There are certain principles of teaching which may apply to all beginning teachers, but there are many others which must vary according to the preparation of the beginner. The supervisor must, therefore, attempt to recall her own beginning days in teaching and give such sympathetic help to the beginner without preparation as will encourage this beginner to study and to observe, to imitate, and to be unafraid of criticism. She must, at the same time, be progressive enough in her own thinking and reading to be able to stimulate and to encourage the beginner with preparation to feel that although she is starting her work on a higher plane than is one with no preparation, she has not reached the limit, but has only begun to tap the possibilities of efficiency in her teaching.

How May Eighth-Grade Promotion Standards Be Made Effective Agencies of Supervision?

D. B. KRAYBILL

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Promotion from the eighth grade to the high school in schools under the jurisdiction of county superintendents has until recently been dependent chiefly upon standings obtained by pupils on replies to examination questions of the traditional essay type. County examinations of this kind have led teachers to emphasize content which they were reasonably sure would appear in the examinations. Something in the nature of an extra curriculum has thus been growing up. Much interest has developed in what should be done to remedy the situation, admittedly a bad one. Two accounts of recent attempts to find such a remedy follow:

Appraisal of the type of examination questions used.—In 1925 the 1924 high-school entrance examination questions were secured from 60 Pennsylvania county superintendents. By sorting and totaling the types of questions asked, the frequency of occurrence of certain kinds of questions was determined. From the tabulations made by this method of analysis the following outstanding features were summarized: (1) Very little use was made of objective tests; (2) the percentage of "subjective" questions ran very high. Many questions began with "Discuss," "Describe," "Tell why"; (3) examinations in technical grammar rather than in English were the rule; (4) a scale to measure the quality of handwriting was not used; (5) the examinations in reading were oral; (6) speed and accuracy in the fundamental processes of arithmetic were not stressed. Decimals were given a minor place representing only seven-tenths of 1 per cent of all questions in arithmetic. A total of 17.1 per cent of all questions in arithmetic called for a knowledge of bills and accounts, latitude and longitude, square root, discount, profit and loss, or commission and brokerage. A total of 5 per cent of all questions called for a knowledge of papering, roofing, carpentering, paving, painting, fencing, plastering, or road building; and (7) the examination almost entirely neglected art and music.

Variation in standards for admission to high school.—Dr. Q. A. W. Rohrbach, of the University of Pittsburgh, recently made an enlightening study of high-school entrance examinations in districts under the jurisdiction of county superintendents of Pennsylvania. Data relating to qualifications of eighth-grade pupils were summarized in five tables with the following headings: "Ranked distribution of counties on the basis of the percentage of pupils who

pass high-school entrance examinations and a distribution of eighth-grade pupils." "Standards for passing pupils in 1926-27," "Criteria considered in passing a pupil," "Frequency distribution of the number of items considered in passing pupils." "The reexamination of applicants who failed."

From the data in the five tables Doctor Rohrbach made the following observations: (1) Sixty-three and five-tenths per cent of the pupils enrolled in the eighth grades of 60 counties complete the work of the elementary schools; (2) 22.9 per cent of the pupils throughout the State who attempt to meet our standards for high-school entrance fail—almost 9,000 were rejected last year; (3) no two counties have the same procedure in testing pupils for high-school entrance; (4) differences found in standards, indicated in this report, are open to question when all schools follow the same elementary school syllabus prepared by the department of public instruction; (5) the criteria employed in passing or failing pupils need to be placed on a more objective basis. Some counties use objective techniques but later treat them subjectively; (6) 50 per cent of the counties reexamine pupils who fail; (7) three counties give permission to some failing pupils to enter high school on probation; (8) one county examines nonresident pupils in the various districts and allows others to go to high school on their eighth-grade record; (9) in one county a preliminary examination is given and pupils who pass this are eligible to take entrance examinations at the high school they will attend.

Doctor Rohrbach reported his findings before the joint meeting of the county superintendents' department and the rural-school department of the Pennsylvania State Education Association on December 29, 1927. He recommended the adoption of a uniform standard for passing for the State because all counties follow the same elementary syllabus prepared by the department of public instruction. He also recommended the appointment of a committee to consider the findings and make recommendations for the consideration of the department at its meeting in 1928. A committee was appointed and is now working on the problem.

Eighth-grade promotion standards throughout the United States.—An article in the January, 1928, number of the *Journal of Educational Research* contains additional information concerning eighth-grade promotion standards. Beatrice McLeod, of the Wyoming State Department of Education, and Helen Irving, superintendent of Carbon County, Wyo., report the result of a questionnaire sent to all the chief State educational officers of the various States. Two of the questions asked and the nature of the replies received follow.

1. Are uniform State examinations given in rural schools for promotion to high school from the eighth grade? Replies received

from 46 States stated that in 23 States pupils are promoted to high school as a result of uniform State examinations. No replies were received from Mississippi and Virginia.

2. Is the essay type of examination or some newer type objective form used? Replies received from 15 States were to the effect that objective examinations are used in part. Delaware and Wyoming reported the use of objective examinations only as a basis for promotion to high school.

Predictive value of examination questions.—The value of determining experimentally the objective value of traditional type examinations as against that of objective types will at once occur. An account of an attempt to so determine follows.

Some time after the analysis of the 1924 entrance examination questions used in 60 Pennsylvania counties (previously discussed in this paper) the cooperation of 7 county superintendents was secured in an effort along this line. Various objective tests were used in the 7 counties: In county A, prognostic tests; in county B, Illinois examination; in counties C and D, Otis intermediate, mental ability; in county E, Otis higher examination, mental ability; in county F, Terman intelligence; and in county G, Otis classification.

At the end of the first semester in high school the grades (teacher marks) of the pupils who were admitted to high school in the seven counties were studied. A comparison of the two types of entrance scores with each other and with high-school success as determined by teachers' grades at the end of the first semester showed the following results: (1) There was no high correlation between written examination entrance averages and objective test entrance scores; (2) in four of the seven counties correlations between written entrance examinations and high-school success were greater than correlations between objective entrance tests and high-school success, though the differences were not significant; (3) in two of the seven counties objective entrance tests correlated higher with high-school success, again, nonsignificant differences; (4) the highest correlation found in the study was that made in one county between teachers' grades and high-school success; (5) the range of correlations between written examination and high-school success was from 0.37 to 0.65, the average being 0.52; (6) the range of correlations between objective tests and high-school success was from 0.26 to 0.65, the average being 0.54.

The findings of this study seem to justify the following conclusions: Traditional written examinations for high-school entrance require a tremendous amount of labor and much time, and since they predict success in high school no better than objective tests, they should be discarded in favor of objective tests.

Trends in educational practice.—Trends in practice indicated by the studies considered above and other similar ones may be thus summarized: (1) The tendency in the United States seems to be toward the adoption of uniform standards of high-school admission in the various States; (2) improved written examinations, objective in type, standard intelligence tests, and batteries of achievement tests are rapidly taking the place of the traditional essay type of examination; (3) supervisory officials are inclined to postpone final decision as to the technic of testing to be used until experiments definitely indicate the types which have highest predictive value.

The effect of promotion standards on supervisors and teachers.—I shall close with three personal observations as to the manner in which improved eighth-grade promotion standards have reacted on supervisory and teaching practices. (1) The effect of the use of certain standard tests in arithmetic has been to interest teachers and supervisors in economical ways of obtaining speed and accuracy in fundamentals. (2) Teachers, knowing that there is no oral reading test which pupils will be required to pass, emphasize the teaching of silent reading. (3) As the pupils will not be required to write on the traditional 10 questions in physiology teachers are relieved from covering many topics formerly included and have time to develop the health objectives outlined for the eighth grade—that is, personal-health habits, first-aid demonstrations, sanitation, and the like.

II. The Effect of Larger Rural Schools on the Solution of Supervisory Problems

Adaptation of Supervision to the Needs of Teachers of Primary Grades

MABEL C. SMITH

Primary Supervisor, Connecticut

I believe that the two schools I have chosen to talk about illustrate most of the difficulties which are encountered by the rural child, teacher, and supervisor. They are both 1-room schools: one has all grades and 20 pupils, the other has the first two grades and 30 pupils. The teacher in the first one is a normal-school graduate, the other is not. Upon my first visits I realized that those teachers were both made of fine teaching caliber and that they would be the able co-operators they have proved to be.

Changes needed in the two schools.—The teachers themselves were very human; but both they and their pupils felt themselves on sympathetic but different planes. I was struck by the teacher activity and planning, and realized that before the teachers could do well the type of work they had the ability to accomplish there must be an increased flexibility in the physical features of the rooms, more and varied supplies easily accessible to teacher and pupils, and a more tolerant and sane attitude toward the demands of a daily time schedule.

In the first school there were 30 seats for the 20 children. With the help of the older boys extra seats were put up into the loft. When so many seats had been removed there was space for small chairs which were made from orange crates. To-day there are some small commercial chairs there, also a sand table, a cupboard for lunches, shelves for wash basins, a library table, and a large supply cupboard which runs from the chimney place to the corner and is as high as the window sill. An entertainment reaped enough money to buy a white sink which is to be installed during the summer. Out-of-doors there has been built a large table under the trees where pupils eat their lunches when weather permits. A large swing.

window boxes, a work table which can be pulled to the ceiling of the woodshed, when not in use, trellises around the outhouses, and a cinder driveway are other desirable features recently acquired. When I was there last week there were very definite plans for flower beds.

Similar changes have taken place in the second school. Other changes may occur. During the past month the State art director conferred with us concerning ways and means of beautifying the rooms and grounds. If the proposed repair list goes through with the sanction of the board, he will return in September to plan the decoration of the rooms.

With the gradual acquirement of more freedom in space and of more materials, there were opportunities for the supervisor to point the way toward breaking down rigid subject-matter lines and the almost fixed adherence to a finely set-up daily schedule of 10 and 15 minute classes.

I asked these teachers, with a number of others, to try a block program without definite periods specified for each group or grade. The teacher experimenting was asked to check the time spent with each group. The teachers agreed to try the plan, to keep track of what they thought were the advantages and disadvantages, and to give their opinions in teachers' meetings and supervisory conferences. Both of these teachers and most of the other teachers are now following a block program in their schools. All of them are acquainted with what the group feels are the strong points and the dangers of their adopted daily schedules. Some have progressed to a new program planned daily with the children to meet the needs of that particular day.

Types of supervisory assistance requested or developed.—The biggest cry for help was in the field of "seat work" or "out-of-class activities." It was most difficult to get the teachers to believe the children could initiate and execute a piece of work by themselves, and also to get them to be satisfied with the child's product.

In our teacher meetings we have laid greatest stress on out-of-class activities. There are often heated arguments because not all agree upon what is worth-while work nor upon when to make plans with the children. I believe all of the teachers would agree that the out-of-class work must be planned and organized with minute care. This is the hardest of tasks for the 1-room school-teacher who has so many grades and groups with such diversified interests. It was not easy to convince the teachers that they were not wasting time when they were "just talking things over" with their groups.

I find that the generally used supervisory agencies, including teachers' meetings, demonstration class exercises, visiting days, and

informal diagnostic tests yield valuable results. We have used also with especially good results an exhibit of work collected from our schools and posted at the State normal school. There we had an all-day session of the teachers. The program consisted of observation and evaluation of the materials exhibited and of a question box relating to them.

Certain achievements in the school of two grades.—In the first and second grade room each day the pupils summarize what each one has accomplished and evaluate the achievement. They are such harsh judges of one another that the teacher is forced to act as a protector. They are learning to be more and more tolerant and considerate, however. If a child has really worked, he is sure to find a champion in his group; if he has not made good use of his time he knows he will not find favor.

The newspaper and bulletin board offer opportunities. I have seen such statements as these, "You may work on your puppet show to-day." "I hope some one will finish the poem book to-day." "Walter may choose some one to help him put his movie in order," and "You may draw your poem pictures to-day."

School starts in that room when the bus arrives. Each child has something he has left from the day before. As soon as the teacher is ready she calls individual pupils by name or taps them on the shoulder. They come to class without disturbing the others. Her groups seldom exceed six in number. Often she works with an individual child. The play periods of the morning and afternoon are planned by the children and teacher, and supervised by the latter. The last part of the afternoon is devoted to industrial arts.

Certain achievements in the school of seven grades.—In the other school there are 2 pupils in the first grade, 1 in the second grade, 3 in the third grade, a floater between third and fourth, 3 fourth graders, 2 fifth graders, 2 sixth, and 2 seventh graders. The four oldest are boys. Many of this group come from homes where they learn little about cleanliness. Some of the older boys have come with their hair to their shoulders. The teacher has won the confidence of the parents and of the children, so that the children are clean when they enter the schoolroom. There is always a kettle of warm water and plenty of soap. In her little Ford the teacher has taken all of the boys to a neighboring town, persuaded the barber that 25 cents is enough, and has collected the money from the parents.

The teacher serves a varied hot lunch, and has influenced the lunches brought from home until each child evaluates his own. She has helped the boys to make a crude easel for primary children. The primary children have library books furnished by the State and a near-by town library. They have easy access to a printing press, art

materials, old magazines, and other primary supplies. There are a number of cake pans which they can use for individual sand trays, and also a large table for sand-table displays.

A small child often goes to an older child for aid in the activity which he is engaged upon. Sometimes it is to recite a poem just learned, sometimes to explain an illustration which needs an audience. The teacher watches to see that there is not too much interference with the older child's work.

The bulletin news board belongs to the primary grades and indicates the daily plan of work. Second and third graders delight in reading it again and again to first graders. For a long period a third-grade boy was the official interpreter appointed by the teacher, because he had so little interest and ability in reading.

The lunch hour is a most interesting time. The hot dish is prepared by the teacher with the help of an older girl. There is a well-organized washing of hands and unpacking of lunches brought from home. Then the children take turns in serving the hot dish. After grace is said there is a wholesome conversation carried on by the group, with the teacher sometimes a participator and sometimes a listener. Many of their work plans are initiated at lunch time. After 20 minutes all who have finished may be excused to play or to perform the duty delegated to them in cleaning up after lunch. Even the first-grade pupils have duties which they are proud to choose and to execute.

Another source of help in this school is the "reminder" board. If a child discovers that he needs to study his multiplication combinations of "3," there is a note to that effect put on the board. One day Minerva wrote: "I need to stop whining—Minerva." Other notes I have seen are: "Charles wants help in remembering not to bite his nails," "Ruth needs to practice tall letters," "George needs to check himself to see if he is wasting time."

The children themselves generally formulate the statements for the reminder board. Often the child most interested writes his reminder sentence. This is erased after improvement has been shown.

Motion pictures, poem books, and puppet shows.—A brief account follows of the construction of and part played by motion pictures, poem books, and puppet shows in the schools described above and also in many other schools.

Motion pictures took many forms: A strip on which had been pasted a series of related pictures was "moved" by unrolling it from one broomstick, player-piano roll, or pencil, and rolling it on another. In another type the pictures were assembled in order and hung around the room to form a frieze. A more pretentious "movie" made use of a small blackboard with a roll of pictures at the top and a written explanation of some length below. Motion pictures are used

to illustrate the stages of production in milk, wool, and other products; to portray a series of incidents from some well-loved story; or to trace the historical evolution of a boat from the hollowed log to the craft that sail the waters to-day, and the like.

The children have made individual and class poem books. They generally contain copies of poems which the members of the group have chosen from poems read them. Many include illustrations by the children as accompaniments to the poems. Some contain original poems written by members of the group or by pupils belonging to another group with whom the owners of the poem books are acquainted.

Most of our puppet shows have been very unpretentious; the puppets have been paper dolls attached to strings or sticks (such as rulers) and then moved about the "stage" either from above or through holes in the side of a box which usually forms the stage. The puppet shows have illustrated stories (old and original), episodes in history, and lessons in health.

Results of our supervisory program.—Some of the results of the above supervisory program are indicated below: (1) The sense of responsibility felt by the children for getting something done, and for handling materials with freedom and judgment; (2) the spirit of cooperation shown in preparing, eating, and cleaning up after the noon lunch; (3) the happy and quiet freedom of small groups scattered about the room, each group in its own place and working along an already organized plan; (4) the active practice of health habits and of the nice courtesies of life in the schoolroom; (5) the recognition by pupils and teachers of any specific thing which any child did well, and the happiness of the group at the progress of individual children; (6) the increasing powers of most of the children to converse freely with visitors; (7) the pride of the children and teachers in their schools; and (8) the many uses discovered for purposeful reading which accomplished much in raising the standard in reading achievement.

Adaptation of Supervision to the Needs of Teachers of Intermediate Grades

JENNIE C. ALLINGHAM

State Helping Teacher, Vermont

Before discussing the specific subject assigned me a brief statement of the Vermont rural-school educational situation is in order. A State's educational policy can not be static. New conditions, changed circumstances, and varying educational aims demand a

progressive policy. The policy of the Vermont State Board of Education, as expressed through the State commissioner of education, attempts: To secure and maintain thoroughly competent teachers in all schools of the State; to raise the standard of school work and maintain the high standard thus attained; to continue the work of standardization of rural schools until the slogan "All schools standard by 1930" is realized; to make effective a constructive public spirit and support that will insist upon and help to carry out a satisfactory State educational program.

Progress has been made. Since 1920 over a third of our 1,050 1-room rural schools have been made standard or superior and many others have been greatly improved. But this is not enough. The type of teaching in these schools needs constantly to be examined and improved in the light of new techniques, new knowledge, and ever-changing mental attitudes. Before superintendents can give any considerable assistance in creating better conditions for learning and in guiding teachers in the mastery of more productive teaching procedures, constant painstaking attention must be given to the study of the teacher and her work. Conscientious superintendents usually find that with their very full administrative programs they do not have sufficient time to do satisfactory constructive work along instructional lines.

Duties of State helping teachers.—To assist superintendents to the end that wide-awake progressive teachers may learn to analyze, evaluate, and improve their teaching methods, the State commissioner of education appointed three State helping teachers, whose duties are similar to those of the special nurse to whom the physician, when the needs of the patient require it, hands over the case. The superintendent submits a diagnosis relative to the immediate needs of one of his teachers to the State helping teacher, who then works with the superintendent and teacher to improve the situation.

A limited number of superintendents may have the assistance of State helping teachers by applying to the State department of education. The number of days a helping teacher works in a given superintendent's schools depends upon the number of supervisory units in the district.

The helping teacher is not an assistant superintendent and does not take over any administrative duties. She considers herself a teacher of teachers, governed by the principles that obtain in teaching. Her major efforts are devoted entirely to supervision of classroom instruction, with special emphasis upon work with weak and beginning teachers. She remedies defects in teaching by demonstrating and explaining improved techniques, and teaches children or teachers

as the occasion may require. She attempts also to stimulate the stronger teachers to greater professional ability and enthusiasm.

When the State helping teacher knows in advance the diagnosis of the teaching situation in the school which she is to visit, it is a fairly easy matter to carry specific remedies in the way of outlines, copies of type lessons, titles of new professional books, and the like. However, it often requires several visits to rightly orient the teacher so that her attitude conduces to growth.

Conditions in intermediate grades.—Only within a comparatively short period have educators generally been awake to the necessity of attempting to establish in the intermediate grades such school practices as are properly adjusted to the needs of children between the ages of 9 and 11 years. Many quotations to the effect that intermediate grade pupils have been discriminated against in the past, due to this lack of vision, might be cited. Three must suffice. Doctor Judd contends that many pupils of this age group, keenly alive to their surroundings and full of natural curiosity, have been so subjected to deadly mechanical unmotivated drill that they have been lost to the school because it was not fitted to their needs.

Bagley and Keith, in *Introduction to Teaching*, state that children in the middle grades are much neglected. They suggest as reasons: (1) Children of this age group have failed to attract adults to the extent that younger and also older children do; (2) educators have held the belief that the educational problems of the group are not at all intricate. As we give the situation critical study, we find that our own practice confirms the observations made by these and other investigators and we are forced to agree with Doctor Koos, who compares the situation in the intermediate grades to a "no-man's land of education."

Improvement is, however, taking place. Educators in progressive school systems are beginning to reorganize the work of the intermediate grades and to adjust instruction to the nature and needs of the children enrolled. It is high time that this be done. Doubtless we can all recall from our own teaching experience instances of children who have developed into so-called "bad" girls or boys in the middle grades. It is pathetic to realize that they have been prevented from living full and happy lives because of our lack of understanding of their fundamental needs at a critical period of their development.

Types of supervisory assistance given intermediate grade teachers in Vermont.—The State helping teachers have assisted teachers of intermediate grade pupils (1) to realize that intermediate grade children differ materially from primary grade children. They are less interested in imitating their elders and are more given to look-

ing into things for themselves. They are more independent and want to know the whys and wherefores. (2) To use skillful methods of procedure and to organize and correlate appropriate subject matter adapted to the needs of intermediate pupils instead of covering pages in the traditional way and relying on the organization of a textbook. (3) To make provision for and to use the experiences of pupils and to motivate through problems and projects. This type of supervisory assistance is especially difficult as many teachers have a limited knowledge of subject matter themselves and are much hampered by a lack of cultural background upon which to draw in preparing their daily work. (4) To know what constitutes good teaching. Many teachers have no standards of self-criticism, no goal toward which to aim. Taught as they were in their own elementary-school days by one poor teacher after another, their conception of teaching is the inferior kind which is all they have ever known. They have little exact knowledge of means of checking progress. While they know vaguely of standardized tests, group work, and grade standards, they have not the working knowledge necessary to incorporate these teaching essentials into practice. (5) To appreciate the possibilities of the rural environment. Many teachers who have been brought up in the country can not see its potentialities, or that their teaching should be in terms of rural experience and needs.

Supervisory agencies found most helpful.—In adapting supervision to better achieve the results enumerated above we make considerable use of conferences, demonstration teaching exercises, study clubs, and correspondence. We believe that it is necessary to know the conditions under which a teacher works before attempting to assist her. This feature of the work requires time for the State helping teacher as the supervisor must know: (1) The needs and achievements of the pupils; (2) the sources available from which to help the teacher select appropriate subject matter; (3) the plans and aims of the teacher; (4) the educational policy of the superintendent.

After careful study of the situation along the foregoing lines the State supervisor confers with the teacher concerning class work observed; commends any evidences of superior teaching or school management; indicates the place where more skill is needed; arranges for demonstration exercises to be taught by herself or by the classroom teacher with special help from the State supervisor; leaves written directions and suggestions for the furtherance of the work and helpful material in the form of outlines, typed lessons, and illustrated helps. Moreover, the supervisor follows the first visit, wherever possible, by a second one; or in lieu of this gives the teacher further help through correspondence.

Special mention should be made of study clubs as a supervisory agency. Small groups of teachers, located geographically so as to make it possible for them to meet frequently, are organized into study clubs. The superintendent or a State helping teacher, or both, meet with these clubs once a month to discuss particular problems and to clear away difficulties met in understanding the topics studied which may cover a wide range, including remedial measures, individual differences, class activities, lesson plans, and special personal problems.

One group composed of intermediate grade teachers who have been in service many years asked me to suggest books useful in a course in child psychology. They were given Freeland's *Teaching in the Intermediate Grades* and are now at work on this book. We are carrying on a voluminous correspondence as the ideas of the members of the group are much at variance with the modern ideas expressed in the book. The teachers are struggling hard to become progressives but their conservatism dies hard.

Another group of seven rural teachers, situated within a radius of 10 miles, is carrying on a regular program under the guidance of a supervising principal. They meet biweekly from 4 to 6 on Friday afternoons at one after another of the various rural schools in which they teach. Reports are made on projects in process of completion, individual and group differences are cleared away, and the particular topics scheduled for study are discussed. Not the least important among the results of such activities are the social contacts established which produce better understanding and friendlier relations among supervisory officials and teachers.

Individual supervisory instruction follows often as a result of contacts established by use of the aforementioned supervisory agencies. Through correspondence the State supervisor who has observed the work of any particular teacher assists her to economize time in handling routine, to make definite use of particular projects, and to adjust the work to the experience of pupils.

Conclusion.—The needs of teachers and the remedial measures used by State supervisors in Vermont, herein described, furnish a fairly accurate cross section of the work of supervision as carried on in the State. Our aim is to develop standards that will inspire teachers to more professional attitudes in order that they may grow from mere imitators into careful investigators of educational processes.

III. Development of a Supervisory Program Leading to Closer Integration Between the Work of Those Responsible for Pre- service and Those Responsible for In- service Preparation of Teachers

The Place of the Normal School in the Development of the Program

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Fundamental theses.—In the development of a program for closer integration of the work of those responsible for pre-service and those responsible for in-service education of teachers certain more or less fundamental theses must be recognized by the pre-service institution. First, the normal school must recognize its responsibility to its graduates and to the public which they serve, to aid wherever possible in the adjustment of its product and to provide facilities for its continued growth. It is necessary to do the former in order to shorten the inevitable period of groping, on the one hand, and to insure a better teaching service, on the other, and to do the latter in order to promote a constantly improved service. Second, the normal-school faculty must offer a type of work which at one time represents the highest standards available, as well as a preparation for the actual schools, conditions, and materials with which the student is likely to deal. It is necessary to do this in order to insure an understanding on the part of the young teacher of the problems with which he is to be confronted as well as an inspiration to promote a higher type of teaching. Third, contacts must be established between supervisors and superintendents and the pre-service institution in order to effect an interchange of ideas, to define the problems of the teaching service, and to insure a mutual effort in their solution.

The program under development at Westfield.—At the Westfield Normal a fairly comprehensive program which is based upon these

theses is in process of development. Parts of the program are yet incomplete; all of it is as yet experimental; but the present results are such as to indicate the value of the program. As aids in its realization we are making use of (1) loan collections, (2) conferences, and (3) extension classes.

Loan collections.—One of the significant problems of the young teacher is the accumulation of educational materials supplementary to those provided in the usual schoolroom to aid in the early months of teaching. In order to supply this need the various departments of the normal school are now engaged in the assembling of materials of various types which on the one hand provide a useful and educative form of class work for students, and, on the other, materials of great value to the young teacher. Sets of flash cards for reading or arithmetic; sets of posters for health education or physical activities; picture collections of various types as supplementary to literature in the elementary school, history, geography, and the like; charts of industrial products, such as the development of cotton from boll to bolt, wheat from seeding to flour, and the like; suggestions for work in art and handiwork, and in many other fields indicate the nature of these collections.

These loan collections are to be placed in standard mailing cartons, in charge of the school librarian, and will be mailed out from the school to young graduates who desire them. It is now proposed that the cost of mailing be borne by the teacher; and that a limitation of from two weeks to a month be placed upon the loan collection. A mimeographed list of available collections will be sent out to each graduate, which will serve to apprise the graduates of collections available, as well as to provide suggestions for possible usage in the classroom. Inasmuch as there will be many duplicate sets, it is probable that the demands can be met.

Conferences.—In the spring of 1927 a conference was held at the normal school of the graduates of the previous year who were then teaching. Senior students who were judged competent were sent out to substitute for the graduates. They spent two days in the classroom with the graduate teachers, and then continued for three days of independent teaching while the graduate teachers returned to the school for the conference. In effect the students and graduates exchanged places for the week, the only expense to either being transportation.

The program for the conference, which was designed to consider with the graduates their problems, dealt mainly with problems of technique, classroom organization, and discipline. It was found that the real problems were problems of teaching, of finding and utilizing supplementary materials, and of dealing with variant pupils. An important phase of the conference consisted of observation in the

training school and discussions with the master training teachers. The leaders of the conference were largely teachers, supervisors, and superintendents of schools who were expert in dealing with problems of technique and organization.

A second conference is being held this year which will emphasize problems of teaching. The first day will be devoted to general problems in the various subject-matter fields, together with exhibitions by pupils in the training school of dramatizations in geography and history and physical education. The second day will be devoted to specific problems in subject matter. A feature of this day will be a demonstration and discussion by Mary R. Lewis, of the Horace Mann School of Teachers College, Columbia University. The last day of the conference will be devoted to specific problems of instruction in beginning reading, in the treatment of retarded or deficient children, and the like. The feature of this day will be a demonstration by Miss Lewis with a criticism by Dr. Lois Coffey Mossman, also of Teachers College. The leaders of the conference will consist of supervisors and superintendents of schools and the entire faculty of the normal school. A member of the faculty and an expert school leader will have joint charge of each discussion group.

Extension classes.—Recognizing the necessity of providing professional work on a high level in places convenient of access to mature teachers and directly adapted to encourage an increasing professional attainment, the State department of education is sponsoring a cooperative form of extension with the State normal schools and the division of university extension. The work, which was started this year in several of the normal schools, including Westfield, consists in offering to teachers in service a series of professional courses so selected and supervised as to constitute, over a period of years, a unified curriculum as an addition to the two-year pre-service courses. It is planned to have the courses contribute to increased classroom efficiency. In addition they provide a sequence of such a character as to lead toward the granting of a degree to those successfully pursuing them. As now planned, for graduates of 2-year courses 30 semester hours will be offered in extramural extension while teachers are in service, and one additional year in residence will be required for a degree. For graduates from the 3-year courses, 30 semester hours of work will be offered which will complete the requirements for a bachelor's degree.

Results of the program.—The results of this program, so far as it has been completed, are beginning to be apparent to (1) the students, (2) the faculty, (3) public-school officials, and (4) graduate teachers.

In the preparation of loan collections the students are brought into intimate contact with the problems of classroom teaching and the

preparation of supplementary materials. In substituting during the conference for young teachers, they are confronted with classroom and teaching problems not unlike those with which they themselves may confidently expect to deal. Since there is a period of several weeks before their graduation after this exchange of substitute with graduate teacher, the students have an opportunity, both in the training school and in their scheduled classes, to solve problems which otherwise would be unappreciated until they had started teaching in their own classrooms.

The normal-school faculty is kept in contact with actual school situations through the preparation of loan collections, through participation in the conference for young teachers, and through the teaching of extension classes. There is ample opportunity, through the sifting of the problems raised, to revise the work for the students and make it more effective. There is developed, simply because of this constant focusing upon the actual problems of the classroom, a continued professional rather than academic interest, and particularly an increased sense of responsibility toward the student for his success in teaching. The contacts with the supervisors and superintendents tend to help the normal-school instructor find the essentials in the public-school program, and help him to become aware of the more essential needs with which his students will be confronted.

In the conference and, to a more limited extent, in the extension teaching, supervisors and superintendents come into contact with normal-school faculty members, and through the solution of common problems develop a sense of their cooperative responsibility. They meet the faculty on a basis of mutual equality, and become aware of the preservice problems. Since they meet teachers who are not administratively responsible to them, they meet them on a different basis than the one on which they meet teachers in their own school system, and thereby increase their participation in the development of young teachers.

The loan collection will provide graduate teachers with adequate supplementary materials during the early period of adjustment and thereby allow, during that time, a greater opportunity for the development of teaching technique, class organization, program planning, and the like. Early acquaintance, before graduation, with the conference and the conference plan, makes the conference during the first year of teaching a significant event. The conference brings to the graduate teachers a broader variety of talent for the solution of their pressing problems, and increases the possibility for constructive self-criticism. The plan of extension teaching brings an increased opportunity for self-development.

Relations That Should Exist Between Those Responsible for Pre-service and Those Responsible for In-service Preparation of Teachers

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The actual teaching situation demands that there be a unity of content materials and method. The teacher-training institutions attempt to develop this unity through practice teaching under the direction of trained supervisors. These supervisors usually have been separated for a long time from actual field conditions and this means that practice teaching tends to be conducted in a more or less abnormal or mutilated situation. Again, in the teacher-training institutions are found two distinct types of specialists, one portion of the staff being primarily interested in content materials and the other in the mechanics of instruction. Therefore, the student in his pre-service training is compelled to undergo a 3-phase type of training which even in our best institutions fails to be unified.

Usual types of pre-service training.—The usual type of in-service teacher training conducted by a teacher-training institution continues to emphasize either content or method and not to emphasize both as a unity. This process, moreover, is attempted in an idealistic teaching situation. In-service training should be conducted from the viewpoint of (1) a distinct community; (2) a certain group of pupils; (3) a definite teaching situation; (4) a particular teacher. In other words, in-service training should treat with content, method, and environment as a unit.

Staff members in group conferences do not usually consider environmental conditions except in a very general way. Visits to the parent institution on the part of its graduates to attend some type of conference or for additional study permit them to secure content and method, but this training is presented without consideration of definite environmental conditions except in so far as the recipients are able to make adaptations to conditions with which they are familiar.

A new type of pre-service training.—The New York State College for Teachers is attempting to meet this situation by arranging for staff members to go into the field to observe and to list a considerable number of environmental conditions. The greater the number of observations listed the more likely instructors are to adapt classroom presentation to actual conditions. This plan takes the staff members to the teaching situation instead of bringing the teacher to the institution and leaving most of the teaching situation behind. We hope it makes the child and his environment our objective rather than sub-

ject matter and method. The cooperation of superintendent, principal, supervisor, and teachers is essential. A suggested list of items to be studied under this plan is: (1) List of community characteristics, (2) preparation and number of teachers, (3) curricula and number of classes, (4) proportion of residents and nonresidents, (5) office equipment and pupil accounting records, (6) classroom equipment, (7) provision for and care of library, (8) extraclass activities encouraged, (9) success in formal examinations for a definite period, (10) intelligent quotient of pupils so far as possible, (11) achievement quotient of pupils in the fundamental processes, (12) age-grade study of the entire school population.

The results secured by the method just suggested are discussed with those responsible for the local situation and also are presented to the staff of the teacher-training institution. Remedies for defects found are indicated and a program of in-service training based upon this actual information is set up. The exact type of program, of course, depends upon the situation discovered. It is the plan to have staff members in rotation assist the institution's director in this type of study.

The results that seem to accrue from this cooperative relationship are: (1) On the part of the teacher-training institution, a continual challenge to present subject matter and method as a unity from the viewpoint of field conditions; (2) on the part of the local teachers and supervisors, an enlarged view of local problems and an appreciation of the fact that good theory is theory practicable in a present situation.

The Place of Rural-School Supervisors in the Development of the Program

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It is my purpose in this paper to call to your attention the contributions that rural-school supervisory officials may make toward the problem under discussion. As these contributions in any particular State are related to the general educational situation and to the point of view held by those responsible for the pre-service training of teachers, I shall first consider some ways in which these two conditioning factors affect the situation in Delaware, and later discuss the specific contributions of rural-school supervisors.

The situation in Delaware.—Delaware has but one institution for the training of elementary (white) teachers—the school of education at the University of Delaware, which is located at Newark.

Three differentiated 2-year curricula are offered to meet the needs of teachers in elementary schools, teachers of academic subjects in high schools, and principals of elementary schools.

The need of better-trained teachers for the elementary schools of the State gave rise some years ago to the granting of State scholarships to those desiring to prepare themselves to become teachers who meet the requirements set up by the State board of education. Since 1925 legislative appropriations have provided the financial assistance given to each person qualifying for a State scholarship. Forty per cent of last year's graduating class from the school of education are teaching in the one and two teacher rural schools, while 100 per cent of the graduating class of five years ago are teaching in the larger school units. The efficiency of the graduating class of 1926 as measured by the State teachers' rating system indicates that of 38 teachers in the State outside of the city of Wilmington 1, or 2.6 per cent, received a rating of D; 18, or 47.4 per cent, received a rating of C; 15, or 39.5 per cent, received a rating of B; and 4, or 10.5 per cent, received a rating of A. Of 38 graduates in 1926 teaching in the State outside of the city of Wilmington, 4, or 10.5 per cent, changed their teaching positions at the end of the school year 1926-27. The teacher turnover in the State board unit, which does not include the special districts and the city of Wilmington, last year was 15 per cent. The graduates from the University of Delaware School of Education supplied 30 per cent of the need for trained teachers in the elementary schools of the State unit. The remaining 70 per cent were secured from other States.

In our rules and regulations for the certification of teachers it is indicated that no certificate under the first grade, which demands the equivalence of two years of academic training following a 4-year high-school course, will be issued after July 1, 1935. If we continue at the present rate in supplying our needs with trained teachers, it will not be necessary to wait until this date to reach the above end. At the present time 73 per cent of the teachers of the State are holding first-grade or higher certificates.

At present we are training teachers for the elementary schools. We do not train them for the 1-room rural school, in so far as a definite curriculum is concerned. This procedure was satisfactory in the past, inasmuch as the teacher-training institution graduates were placed in the larger school units. Now a number of them are accepting positions in the small rural schools, partly because the salary in such positions is increased by a definite amount in proportion to the distance the school is located from the nearest railroad station, trolley or bus line, or the teacher's home. Inexperienced graduates accepting positions in small rural schools are not properly trained for this type of teaching service. As a result many teachers are misplaced and consequently inefficient in their work. Therefore

more emphasis should now be placed on the training of teachers for small rural schools. Despite the fact that more than 75 rural schools were consolidated during the past decade, there will be small rural schools for at least the decade to come.

Practice-teaching in our State institution is done in the public-school system of the city in which the institution is located. This practice-teaching does not insure the teaching attitude that is required. Each special district in Delaware has its own superintendent of schools and consequently its own system of education. On the other hand, as has been stated, many of the graduates secure their first positions in rural schools. To insure better results, the State institution for the training of teachers and the State department of public instruction should provide practice-teaching in rural schools for prospective teachers who are interested in rural-school positions. There are five 1-teacher rural schools within a radius of 3 miles from the University School of Education. The supervisor could be of great assistance in determining the objectives and courses of study for this type of training.

A program for teacher training in Delaware.—The following principles indicate the point of view held by those responsible for the pre-service training of Delaware teachers:

(1) The preparation of teachers for the public schools of the State is the joint responsibility and task of the State department of education and the school of education of the State university. The State department, in its capacity, should have large responsibility in making the specifications according to which the teachers should be prepared. The school of education should be entrusted with the task of preparing teachers in accordance with these specifications. This relationship implies a willingness on the part of each agency to use, and to be used, by the other in the interest of the enterprise as a whole.

(2) Teacher training is here conceived as consisting of that combination of directed study and experience which will eventuate in the highest possible efficiency in classroom teaching and management. A portion of this training can best be given as pre-service preparation in a teacher-training institution; another portion can be made more effective through definitely organized and directed in-service training.

(3) The major objectives of a teacher-training program are: A broad general scholarship, a thorough mastery of the specific and related subject matter which the candidate expects to teach; a thorough knowledge of the technical or professional aspects of education, and skill gained through carefully supervised experience in the application of theory to practice.

(4) The effectiveness of in-service training is enhanced by making it a regular part of the State's teacher-training program. This means that in-service training should be so organized and conducted

that students may receive credit in recognized teacher-training institutions for work satisfactorily completed.

It is the consensus of opinion of those responsible for the pre-service training of teachers that the objectives stated in (3) can not be fully or adequately attained during a 2-year period of pre-service training following immediately upon graduation from high school. Under present conditions, then, definite provision should be made for further preparation through in-service training. Moreover, if the weakness of our present program for the preparation of teachers is to be found in the quality of teaching, which results rather than in the number of candidates trained, a method for utilizing both pre-service and in-service training should be inaugurated to develop a more effective program. The following were agreed upon:

That all teachers who have not completed the equivalent of a 2-year curriculum, either by examination or by study in a teacher-training institution, be required to continue their preparation, chiefly through in-service training at a given rate (say an average of 6 semester hours per year), until a definite curriculum has been completed.

That a definite "follow-up" plan be inaugurated at the university to assist inexperienced graduates of the 2-year curriculum during their first year of teaching service.

That those teachers who have completed a 2-year curriculum be encouraged to continue their professional preparation, looking toward the early completion of a 3-year or a 4-year curriculum for elementary teachers.

That the State department of education and the school of education of the university should collaborate in formulating advanced curricula of three or four years for elementary teachers and four years for elementary principals; and that teachers be permitted to complete one or even two years of these advanced curricula through in-service study and training.

The term *in-service training* as here used has special reference to work taken in a summer school and through extension service. To accomplish this end the summer school would gradually expand its curriculum to comprise the 3 and 4 year curricula and a variety of extension courses be offered at such centers in the State as will bring the work within reach of practically all teachers in service.

How can rural-school supervisory officials contribute to the pre-service and in-service training of teachers?—Adequately defined objectives for the pre-service and in-service training of teachers help. It is not sufficient to define the objectives of various curricula in terms of specific skills, knowledges, and attitudes essential to the elementary teacher, but these objectives must function in the classroom situation in which the teacher finally works under skilled supervisors who judge critically the results of their teaching efforts.

Teacher-training institutions have not as yet fully realized the necessity of developing abilities and capacities appropriate to teaching service.

Completion of a 2-year curriculum in a teacher-training institution ought to insure in the graduates a learning attitude, an appreciation of the problem of public-school teaching, a knowledge of the literature of education, an open-mindedness to constructive criticism and helpful suggestions, ability for self-direction, self-analysis, and self-discipline, and a professional attitude toward the older members of the teaching corps. These attitudes, knowledges, and skills will result in teaching success under sympathetic and skillful supervision after graduation.

Delaware has had a definite continuous program for the training of teachers in service for the past five years, the objectives of which are carried forward by the rural-school supervisory officials. The results are reached through various types of teachers' meetings, conferences, clubs, and community organizations. Conferences between State educational officers and rural-school supervisors are held each month for the purpose of determining the policies, objectives, and methods to be employed for analyzing, discussing, and evaluating problems relating to supervision and administration of schools. If the director and supervisors of the teacher-training institution could attend these conferences it would help them to understand the work that is being accomplished by those responsible for the in-service training of teachers and would guide them in the pre-service training.

The analysis of teaching capabilities made by a supervisor or superintendent of schools as a result of constant observation and study of one situation in relation to many situations is a second factor in the situation. The best measure of teaching capabilities is found in the changes which teaching produces in pupil personality, attitudes, ideals, skills, self-directed activities, and interests, in terms of a ratio between capabilities and achievements. However, our methods and tools for such measurements are not accurate and should not be used as the final word in reaching our conclusions. Many schemes have been devised to determine "what teachers are" and "what teachers do." In Delaware we use a teacher's rating card for want of a better method of measuring the efficiency of the teacher. The card provides for self-analysis by the teacher and serves to guide her in the evaluation of her own worth; to stimulate supervisor and superintendent to analyze more carefully teaching technique and teaching results as measured by pupil achievements; to guide superintendents in their selection of a teacher for a specific position, and in their recommendations for increasing a teacher's salary in accordance with her efficiency.

Establishing a feeling of friendship with others engaged in similar tasks is a third factor and helps to motivate the work of the teacher. We have done a great deal in Delaware by group organizations in common projects. All teachers belong to well-organized reading circle groups of from 6 to 15 teachers each. These groups are engaged in studying, analyzing, and discussing rural-school problems relating to school situations, the curriculum, measuring results of pupils' work, and teacher rating. All teachers belong to a reading circle group and are permitted to close school before the regular closing hour in order to meet with their respective groups. A report of the results of each meeting is sent to the supervisor's office. The direct outcome of undertakings of this type is teacher inspiration and self-improvement.

The establishment of proper relations between the teacher-training institution and the State educational authorities is a fourth factor which implies that the teacher-training institution and State educational authorities must work together on the project of the improvement of teachers in service in the following ways:

(1) There should be mutual agreement between the head of the State department of public instruction and the directors of the State teacher-training institutions as to the curricula to be pursued by those preparing for teaching; and as to the curriculum which teachers in their in-service training will be expected to follow. This curriculum as expressed in the form of a State course of study should be developed cooperatively by the staff of the teacher-training institution and the public-school teachers and officials. The instructors in the State teacher-training institution should be familiar with the State objectives as outlined in the State course of study and should prepare teachers to use the State course of study, not necessarily, however, to the exclusion of all other courses of study.

(2) The courses to be offered in the summer school and through extension work should be mutually agreed upon by the teacher-training institution and the State department of public instruction in order that they function adequately in the school work of the year. I believe in bringing the institution to the teacher while in service as much as I believe in sending the teacher to the institution. While the expenses for summer-school attendance at the State institution are paid by legislative appropriation, additional appropriation should be urged for extension service. This extension teaching should be given wherever an enrollment to justify it can be secured. At first it should be offered only to those teachers who are holding certificates below first grade.

(3) A more detailed method for judging teacher capabilities should be worked out by the teacher-training institution and State authorities so as to have a common understanding in the recom-

mentation of teachers. This would aid materially in the successful placement of teachers.

(4) A closer cooperation between the teacher-training institution faculty and the supervisors and superintendents of schools is necessary in the selection of students for the profession of teaching. Candidates should not be admitted or graduated who are lacking in scholarship or in the essential qualities necessary for teachers.

Conclusion.—In the contribution that rural supervisory officials should make toward the development of a program leading to closer integration between the work of those responsible for pre-service and those responsible for in-service training of rural teachers, the following are the most important recommendations: (1) More clearly and adequately defined objectives mutually agreed upon by those responsible for the pre-service and in-service training of teachers; (2) a differentiation of curricula in the teacher-training institution for the training of teachers for rural elementary schools; (3) the organization of one or more 1 or 2 teacher rural schools for practice teaching for those students who plan to accept rural-school positions; (4) the enlargement of the program for extension service for those who have not completed the 2-year curriculum; (5) that a definite follow-up plan be inaugurated at the university in cooperation with supervisors and superintendents to assist inexperienced graduates; (6) that advanced curricula be formulated by the State department of public instruction and the school of education at the university for those who have completed the 2-year curriculum leading to a 4-year curriculum; (7) that the director and supervisors of the State teacher-training institution should be present at as many of the conferences of rural-school officials as possible to get their point of view on the in-service training of teachers; (8) that the summer-school program be enlarged to include the advanced curricula; (9) that a better method for analyzing and evaluating teacher capabilities be formulated and used for keeping undesirable candidates from entering and graduating from the teacher-training institution; (10) that the supervisors of the teacher-training institution familiarize themselves with the State course of study, daily programs in use in the schools, the forms and methods used in child accounting so that graduates may readily adjust themselves to rural conditions; (11) special consideration should be given by the State training school for preparing teachers to interpret the learning behavior of children by creating situations with the pupils that will give each child the best opportunity for participation and development; (12) there must be more organized, unified, and focalized effort on the part of those responsible for the pre-service and those responsible for the in-service training of teachers if the best results are to be obtained in teacher training.

IV. Types of Supervisory Assistance Most Effective in Meeting the Needs of Certain Teaching and Pupil Groups

Saving and Supervising One-Room Rural Schools

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In my paper, first, I shall declare that the 1-room rural schools of the Eastern States should be saved; second, I shall state under what conditions they may be saved; and, third, I shall consider certain duties of the superintendent of such schools.

Why should they be saved?—In our part of the country the rural consolidated schools of the South and West are impossible because of the difficulty of routing economical transportation in towns where families live on separated hilltops, or in valleys which radiate from a common starting point. Moreover, transportation to enlarged schools invariably means with us enrollment in the nearest manufacturing village and not in rural consolidated schools. These village schools are those of an industrial society. Agriculture and rural economy are not emphasized in them and the farm children admitted are schooled in a nonrural environment.

Most farmers and rural sociologists wish to avoid this situation and so desire that our 1-room schools be maintained. They believe that in our highly individualistic society parents and citizens will take a much greater interest in the school if it is in their neighborhood than if it is in a crowded village. They believe, also, that the local schoolhouse is needed as a community center, that it serves as a common meeting place, and that it provides an institution in which they are jointly interested. They believe, moreover, that such a school brings teacher and pupils into an intimate relationship not possible in schools with a more complicated organization.

For 50 years the true teaching situation has been declared to be Mark Hopkins on one end of the log and James A. Garfield on the other, and educational theorists have declaimed upon the great teacher filled with wisdom and zeal, pouring forth the lore of the

ancients or the philosophy of the teacher's own meditation; or they have emphasized the eager youth at his end of the log, mind a blank, mouth open but still a student filled with a passion to know all things and prove those which are permanent. No one, however, has said anything about the log.

Prof. George Herbert Palmer, of Harvard, has told us that while Mark Hopkins was president of Williams he visited him at his home and in his classroom. Many of us have wondered what was the technique of this traditional master teacher. The subject was theology and all students had copies of President Hopkins' printed lectures on this subject. From his manuscript notes the teacher gave each chapter in oral form and then questioned, "What does the author say on this subject?" and the students in turn answered, attempting to recall and repeat in unchanged words the lecture. It is hard to call a memorized recitation great teaching. Mark Hopkins, however, was a great teacher, as Hitchcock, of Amherst, and Louis Agassiz, were great teachers; not in their classroom lectures but on the college campus, or in the slate quarry of the Connecticut Valley, or in the experimental laboratory, as these teachers walked and talked with their students. It was not James Garfield who was most important. It was not Mark Hopkins. It was the log. So the rural school provides the setting for great teaching.

Those who demand local rural schools frequently base their argument on three false conceptions:

First, they say we must have these schools or our farms will depreciate in value. The argument is unsound, for schools are for the welfare of children and not to set a fallacious value upon farm property. School money may not be raised to aid farmers to sell their farms.

Second, they say that they will be satisfied with an unqualified teacher, a short school year, and an inadequate program, if only their school may not be closed. The answer is that rural schools can never be saved by making them poor.

Third, city advocates of rural life say it is a duty of farm children to remain on the farm. This fallacious argument we may freely deny. Even though farm life must be maintained, it is no more the duty of farm youth to perform this service than it is the duty of the children of automobile mechanics, or lawyers, or college professors to carry on the farms. Any other interpretation would be to declare for us a serf system and to claim that farm children may not be emancipated from the soil, while all others are free to choose from among the occupations. Rural life may be maintained when the farmers are given good schools, roads, markets, and public respect, and not when they are urged as a public duty to render labor from which others are spared.

How may they be saved?—(1) They may be saved when the district or the community provides for the teachers good boarding places and for the schools public support.

The boarding place of the teacher has not been sufficiently emphasized. There are a few rural communities which have no homes where a young girl may safely and properly board. There are others where those who have good homes will not inconvenience themselves by opening their homes to teachers. Under these conditions the school should be given up and the children transported. These are the essentials for a boarding home for a rural teacher: A separate, heated, and well-lighted room in a family home of some degree of culture, as shown by books, magazines, some musical instrument, some modern sanitary conveniences, and well-cooked food. It should provide also an opportunity for the teacher to get to church each week, and to stores and village entertainments occasionally.

In addition, a successful school is impossible if the community is indifferent to its value or if it is divided into antagonistic social or political factions. Not infrequently this is the case, and the clan which is not ascendant will openly or by innuendo oppose school progress. Every community which wishes a rural school must band itself together to protect the young teacher from the village sheik on the one hand and on the other hand from the salacious gossip of hawk-eyed, carrion-minded frequenters of post office and grocery store.

(2) They may be saved when State and district provide good schoolhouses and a teacher's salary \$100 per year above the salary in near-by village schools. Without this salary advantage teachers will not stay away from the larger centers. It must be agreed that rural schools of necessity shall have State support. In a time when people are leaving the country for the city, wealth is even more mobile than population, and the complexity of modern life places most rural wealth outside the town limits. For the support of rural schools the State must be a unit.

(3) They may be saved when the State educates a sufficient supply of country girls for teachers. A city girl may teach in the country as an adventure, but the probability of permanent and satisfactory service is small. She is a suitcase teacher who never fully unpacks her traveling bag and begins school by fastening to the blackboard an attractive calendar which advertises the wares of the chief dry-goods merchant of her home city and this icon is daily adored by both teacher and pupils.

The State must deliberately encourage farm girls of the most dependable type to go to the nearest high schools and then to the

State normal schools for the special rural training which gives full teacher preparation. Minimum preparation for rural-school teaching should be the full normal-school course of at least two years.

(4) They may be saved when the school program adds to the school fundamentals the life essentials. The rural insistence has always been for a restricted and academic program; for reading, writing, and arithmetic, and then for more reading, writing, and arithmetic. Literature and the natural sciences have been regarded as fads and not as essentials, and yet reading, writing, and arithmetic as isolated subjects have done more than any others to depopulate our farms. They are language and commercial arts. They do not lead to agriculture and production, or to the art and economy of the home. They lead to the bookkeeper's desk and the stenographer's chair. The rural program must be full of the science of growth and its natural phenomena. It must deal with life, human and animal, and with life processes and problems. It must give the productive skills and it must provide interpretation and appreciation of art, music, and literature. These studies will attract young people to outdoor and home life, while reading and spelling, writing and arithmetic have their conclusion in the city streets.

(5) They may be saved when parents supply children enough for a wholesome school of untransported children. It is a rare teacher who can teach with real success a school of fewer than 12 pupils. It is still rarer to find pupils who can study at their best without the rivalry which comes with classmates of equal ability. As to the makeshift of transportation which brings children to 1-room schools, Satan invented it and he cherishes his invention.

The superintendent's duties in relation to 1-room schools.—What can the superintendent do? He needs to reach every such school at least twice a month. He must perform his usual supervisory duties. He must see that uniform standards are being met and then his pastoral duties begin.

First, with the teacher. She is lonesome, she wants to be praised, to be encouraged, to be advised. She wishes to know what other teachers do and their measure of success.

Second, with the pupils. They wish the superintendent to know them as individuals and be as interested in their rabbits and cousins as in their I Q's. They expect him to bring them new books and occasionally new stories. They wish to exhibit their work and to please him with their progress.

Third, with the people of the community. They are too proud to intrude, but they wish the superintendent to speak first and talk with them as man to man. The best superintendents drive Fords which stall whenever they pass a farmer on the highway and which

break down when nearest to one working in the fields. The farmers wish to get acquainted. Frost has told us how he as a farmer felt:

When a friend calls to me from the road
 And slows his horse to a meaning walk,
 I don't stand still and look around
 On all the hills I haven't hoed,
 And shout from where I am, "What is it?"
 No, not as there is a time to talk.
 I thrust my hoe in the mellow ground,
 Blade end up and 5 feet tall,
 And plod; I go up to the stone wall
 For a friendly visit.

This friendliness is the supervisory assistance which rural schools and communities most need.

Children Unable to Speak English on Entering School

BURR F. JONES

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Scope of the problem.—The numbers of non-English-speaking children in the public schools must inevitably decline through the operation of the immigration act of 1924, which limits the number of immigrants to 2 per cent of the number of the foreign born of each nationality represented here in 1890. In 1914, the last year before the war cut off immigration, we admitted 1,218,480. Of these only one-tenth were English-speaking people. In 1927, we admitted 335,175, one-third of whom were English-speaking people.

Under the provisions of the national origin act, which was to have gone into effect on July 1, 1927, we may receive annually 150,000 immigrants. Each nation's quota is to be that proportion of the 150,000 that persons of the same national origin were of our entire population in 1920. Congress deferred the operation of this law for one year. The indications are that under this plan about 27 per cent of the persons admitted would come from English-speaking countries—a slightly smaller proportion than under the present quota law.

One of the first effects upon the schools of this changed situation is the abandonment of the so-called steamer classes in many of our eastern cities. These were classes organized to give to the older immigrant children enough first-aid in English to enable them in a relatively short time to enroll in a regular school with children of comparable age. No such marked decrease has taken place in the

number of children entering our kindergartens and first grades from non-English-speaking homes. In 1920 there were approximately 27,000,000 persons in this country who did not speak English as the mother tongue. The Northeastern States have a relatively large share of such persons. Two-thirds of the population of Massachusetts was foreign born or native born of foreign or mixed parentage. For several years to come, this substantial element of foreign stock will send large numbers of children into our kindergartens and first grades.

Furthermore, I find that 175,000 aliens, or 52 per cent of all immigrant aliens admitted last year, gave as their future intended residence some one of the eleven Northeastern States represented in this conference. Of this number more than 150,000, or about 90 per cent, were destined to make their homes in the four States of New York, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. These conditions point clearly to the fact that though we shall undoubtedly see a marked falling off in the numbers of children with the language handicap, the schools of the northeastern area will continue to receive them in such numbers as to warrant the most thoughtful attention to the methods of adapting the school program to their needs.

Contrary to the impression of many, this problem is not by any means limited to the city schools. In a recent journey through the Connecticut Valley region of Massachusetts I visited four small agricultural towns having a population of fewer than 3,000. Less than 25 per cent of the inhabitants of these towns in 1920 were of native parentage. In another group of four rural towns 57 per cent of the children who entered the first grade this year came from non-English-speaking homes, and about one-half of these children could speak little or no English. I have no doubt that similar conditions are found in other States of this group. The problem is now with us and will continue indefinitely. It is a problem that has received far too little attention—even in cities and during the period when the annual inflow of non-English-speaking peoples was extraordinarily large. Each community has in the main dealt with the situation in its own homemade fashion, giving little attention to the accumulated experiences of other communities with the same problem. In rural areas where the numbers of such children are relatively small, where teachers are less experienced and less well trained, the problem has often been completely neglected. We have indulged in prolonged discussions about individual differences in mentality, in disposition, in interests, and the necessary treatment therefor. Even before a child enters school we now make it a strong point to remove so far as possible every physical disability that may handicap him in his school work. But we appear not to have discerned that the child

who can not talk with his teacher and companions when he enters school has any handicap or illustrates any individual difference that requires special attention. As I view the matter, a handicap of this type at the very outset of a child's school life, bringing with it a sort of ostracism and an unjustifiable consciousness of failure, is likely to create in him certain initial attitudes toward school and toward life that will be difficult to eradicate in later years.

Supervisory aids.—In view of the fact that rural schools appear to have given relatively little attention to this problem except in an isolated way, one who seeks possible methods of supervisory aid naturally turns to methods suggested by practices used in city schools and in Americanization work with adult immigrants in the hope that some of these may be adaptable to rural conditions.

(1) The first suggestion I have to offer is that every effort be made to locate early any prospective pupils from non-English-speaking homes with a view to securing their admission to school as soon as the law permits. The school census should probably include children younger than 5 years. The rural consolidated school that maintains a year of kindergarten training can be of immense assistance to these children. I would raise a question as to the possibility of accomplishing something by way of preschool language training through the good offices of older brothers and sisters. Considerable is now done in incidental fashion. Could not more be accomplished if the school should consciously stimulate and guide?

(2) It would be helpful if teachers could know, at least in general terms, what progress may be expected of non-English-speaking children under ordinary conditions. Recently I had the opportunity of making an investigation of the school progress of 1,762 Massachusetts children who could not speak English when they entered the first grade. These pupils were chosen at random from grades four to eight in 28 cities and towns. They represented 17 nationalities. A summary of the study shows that by the time these pupils have completed three grades nearly 60 per cent of them are no longer handicapped to a noticeable degree in the use of English. This proportion steadily, but not rapidly, increases until it reaches 80 per cent at the beginning of the eighth grade. The proportion of each nationality not noticeably handicapped in the use of English in grades four to eight, inclusive, was as follows: Jewish, 92; Finnish, 80; Portuguese, 74; Greek, 72; Lithuanian, 70; Russian, 70; Italian, 62; Polish, 57; French, 56.

Considerable interest centered upon the 170 pupils of this group, who entered school at normal age, between 5 and 7, and were completing the eighth grade when the study was made. Nearly one-half of the entire number were finishing the elementary course in the

usual time; one-third required one additional year; and one-fifth two or more additional years. An analysis of the group on the basis of scholarship showed that two-thirds of those rated *excellent* or *good* and one-third of those rate *fair* completed the course in normal time. Are we not warranted in drawing the general inference that non-English-speaking children who are capable can complete eight grades in normal time? The retardation experienced by these pupils in the lowest grades needs be only temporary. The expectation held in some quarters that most of these children require at least one additional year appears unjustifiable in the light of this inquiry. Further investigations for the purpose of developing objective standards of language accomplishment for these children would appear to be warranted.

(3) If every rural teacher who has even one non-English-speaking child in her school could be put in touch with the best helps available, it would be of immense advantage. I have in mind such a well-classified list as *Easy Books for New Americans*, issued by the American Library Association, and such a book as *English for Beginners*, by Fisher and Call—the latter not to be used as a text but rather for its suggested methods.

(4) Various methods of procedure now in use in city schools recommend themselves for use with these children, regardless of situation. An oral vocabulary of the words most needed is an essential at the very outset. This can best be gained by large emphasis on conversation—not random, but planned in such a way that progress may be assured. Conversation should center about objects in the room, pictures, blackboard drawings, sand table, and children in action. The organized play period and the lunch period may be used consciously for developing conversational ability. If conversation is not stressed all the way through the grades, children come to use many words in parrot-like fashion, with little or no appreciation of their meaning. With these children it is impossible to lay too much emphasis on motivation of all forms of language work. If we want them to talk they must have a subject that is full of meaning and interest for them. In developing correct pronunciation an intensive drive on speech errors by all teachers at regular intervals during the year has proved very fruitful.

Many of these methods apply equally well to the gaining of a reading vocabulary. Labeling objects in the classroom with their printed names is a device often used. Carefully prepared seat work that reinforces the reading lesson is essential. I have often admired the resourcefulness of teachers in making for themselves such devices as action questions, picture matching, completion sentences, jumble sentences, like and unlike, multiple choice, true-false, etc.

(5) To do full justice to these children it goes without saying that we must have a flexible promotion plan that will permit the able pupil to regain time that may have been lost in the earlier years.

(6) Finally, the most essential condition to the success of the non-English-speaking pupils is happiness in his school life. It is not always easy to make him happy. One teacher told me recently that a little Italian boy had been in school a full year before he smiled once. At the very opening of school the wise teacher gives these children something to do that is within the bounds of their previous experience. In Springfield, Mass., a most interesting analysis is being made of the pre-school activities of children in order that the initial kindergarten activities may grow out of the preschool experiences common to all children. This study indicates that, although nationality as well as social and economic factors determine to a great extent the types of these experiences, most children have in common certain play experiences. The inability of non-English-speaking children to express themselves in the spoken language of the school makes it doubly important that they find modes of expression in the play and handwork activities.

The non-English-speaking child can not be happy unless the school takes the right attitude toward him. Am I right in thinking that this attitude is rather more difficult to secure in rural communities where such children are not numerous and are, therefore, the more conspicuous? In small schools they make large additional demands upon the teacher already burdened in many cases with far too many different grades and groups. Here are to be found pupils who are relatively provincial in their contacts and who regard all these children as foreigners to be tolerated rather than as new Americans to be cultivated. I would have every teacher read Edward Bok's account of his first day in an American public school. Certainly she should reread Mary Antin's gripping story of how the sympathetic personal interest of her first teachers left an indelible impression upon her and helped her early to realize her vision of America—The Promised Land. What a delightful change it would be, if for one month the teacher could be assigned for professional reading such a book as *The Spell of Norway*, by Monroe, or *What Civilization Owes Italy*, by Walsh, or *Jewish Contributions to Civilization*, by Jacob. To these might well be added the biographies of such distinguished Americans as Theodore Roosevelt and Jacob A. Riis. Thus prepared, the resourceful teacher may capitalize the presence of these newer Americans in her class for the purpose of giving the older Americans much-needed instruction in the culture of the Old World and a glimpse of the indebtedness that

we can never repay. She has it within her power to transform the attitude of the class from one of mere tolerance to one of genuine interest and appreciation.

The foregoing suggestions mention but a few of the supervisory aids that may be of service to our teachers in helping these non-English-speaking children. In my opinion the outstanding need at present is a clearer perception of the problem by all teachers of such children. With this accomplished we may be assured of developing effective means of solving it.

V. Contributions of State Departments of Public Instruction to the Education of Mentally Handicapped Children in Rural Communities

MAUD KEATOR

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The lines of inquiry followed in this paper relate to the situation that exists in the country at large, the condition in the States represented in the northeastern supervisory conference group, and the methods proposed to meet the situation in the State with which the writer is at present most familiar, namely, Connecticut.

Use made of a questionnaire form.—In the preparation of this paper the writer sent the following questionnaire to the chief State educational officers in the 48 States:

1. What are the provisions of the compulsory attendance law of your State as to—
 - (a) The age at which a child may or must enter school?
 - (b) What grade must a child complete before he leaves school?
 - (c) What age must a child attain before he leaves school?
2. Has an enumeration of the mentally defective children in the rural communities of your State been made as to—
 - (a) The number attending public school.
How many are there?
 - (b) The number being cared for in their homes.
How many are there?
 - (c) The number being cared for in institutions.
How many are there?
 - (d) What means were used for securing this information?
3. (a) What facilities does your State provide for the individual examination by well-qualified persons of children giving evidence of mental defect?
(b) What are the qualifications of the persons making examinations?
4. (a) Has your State any legislative or other provisions for meeting the special educational needs of mentally defective children? (b) If so, what provisions have been made?

Responses were received from 38 States; in some instances replies took the form of letters or copies (incomplete in some cases) of the school laws of the State. Although such replies did not provide all the information requested an effort has been made to organize and summarize the facts included in the replies received. The facts are

accepted at their face value, no effort having been made to verify them.

Provisions of the compulsory attendance law.—The first question was included as providing a necessary background for proper evaluation of replies to the other questions. The minimum mental age necessary for successful first-grade work has been fairly successfully established, as revealed in the following quotation from Terman, *The Intelligence of School Children*, page 47. A similar discussion will be found in Dickson, *Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher*, Chapter IV. The quotation follows:

From such data as the above collected from all his 1,000 cases, Dickson concludes that below a mental age of 6 years the child is not fully ready for the first grade, and that below the mental age of $5\frac{1}{2}$ years the chances that really satisfactory first-grade work will be done are practically negligible. We are beginning to see why a fourth of the pupils in the first grade fail of promotion, for Dickson finds that 38 per cent are below the mental age of 6 years and 27 per cent are below $5\frac{1}{2}$.

Hence the importance of the permissive and compulsory age of admission to school which almost always means admission to first grade. In most States both of these ages are recognized, but in every case a child having entered school becomes subject to the provisions of compulsory attendance laws regardless of whether or not he entered at the minimum or maximum age indicated in the law.

In four States in which children must enter school at 7 years of age and in three States in which they must enter at 8, they are permitted to enter school under 6 years of age. These seven States include three in the Northeastern group—Connecticut, Maine, and Vermont. Five States report that children may enter at 5; Vermont reports $5\frac{1}{2}$, and Connecticut 5 or 6 as the permissive age of entrance. Probably to this list should be added New Hampshire, where the minimum entrance age is left to local option, the mandatory age being 8. Somewhat similarly in Connecticut local communities may lower the 6-year age indicated by statute to 5 years. Hence it appears that in the country at large, seven and possibly eight States, are permitting children to begin school at an age which insures failure in the first year of school life. The far-reaching damaging results of such lessons in failure can scarcely be overstated. Of these eight States, five are in the group included in this conference.

It should be clearly understood that this is not a protest against enrolling children at the age of 5, 4, 3, or even 2 years, provided suitable activities be provided for them. It is an emphatic plea that the school cease to subject children to situations in which they are sure to fail, a low chronological entrance age being one of the most prolific sources of such failure. In this connection another

much-needed reform is the statutory definition of what is meant by 5 years, 6 years, and the like. In one State 5 years is variously interpreted to mean all the way from "5 by the 1st of December following the September that the child enters school," to "past the sixth birthday."

Another important consideration is the grade from which, or the age at which, children are permitted to leave school. One State, North Carolina, requires the completion of fourth grade only; Arizona, Kentucky, and New Jersey, the completion of fifth grade; Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Mexico, New York, and Pennsylvania, the completion of the sixth grade; Georgia, Ohio, and Texas, the completion of the seventh grade; and all others replying, the completion of the eighth grade.

On the age side, Arkansas, Georgia, Nevada, North Carolina, and Texas make no regulation beyond 14 years. Utah and Oklahoma hold children until they are 18, unless the eighth grade is completed sooner, but they must in any event remain until they are 16. The majority of States appear to retain children until they are 16, while a considerable number use the 14 to 16-year range.

At first glance this pushing up of the age and grade of leaving appears to be a highly commendable procedure. But here again the problem of the mentally retarded child obtrudes itself. Probably he is the most seriously penalized, if indeed so disparaging a term may be used in connection with so laudable an intention as the effort to provide all children with an adequate amount of school experience. Possibly the State is more obligated to provide more adequately for a varied population for a relatively limited time than to make mediocre provision for a more extended period.

These preliminary considerations raise three questions: (1) Is your State admitting children to first grade at an unjustifiably young age? (2) Is it retaining at least some of them for an unprofitably long period? (3) What measures are being taken to make sure that each child is spending his entire time in a profitable manner?

Enumeration of mental defectives in rural communities.—Five States—Connecticut, Idaho, Maine, Massachusetts, and Wyoming—reply in whole or in part to question 2. The situation in Connecticut is discussed elsewhere in this paper. Information included in replies from Maine, Idaho, Massachusetts, and Wyoming follows:—In the towns and cities of Maine the State cooperates financially with those which will segregate the subnormal children, and give them differential courses. The best illustrations of this type of work are found in Augusta, Brunswick, and Bath.

Idaho has 347 mentally defective children attending public schools, Massachusetts, 6,285; Wyoming, 618. In Idaho, 179 such children

are cared for in their homes. In Idaho, 454; in Massachusetts, 3,856; and in Wyoming, 179 mentally defective children are cared for in institutions. The annual school census was used in Idaho and State records in Massachusetts for securing the above information. The incomplete nature of the foregoing returns provides slight basis for a definite statement. It seems safe to assume, however, that the proportion of mentally retarded in rural communities will not vary greatly from the number in the population in general. Hence one may expect about 2 per cent to be feeble-minded, about 3 per cent to fall below 76 I. Q., and about 10 per cent to be below 85 I. Q. All of these and even more will encounter some difficulty in doing the work outlined in the usual curriculum.

Individual mental examinations.—Eleven States make some provision for individual mental examinations through specialists employed by such agencies as State boards of education, State clinics, State welfare departments, and State schools for the feeble-minded. Among these States are Connecticut, Delaware, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island.

Seven States furnish information concerning the qualifications of persons making mental examinations. The terms generally used are psychologist, psychiatrist, or specialist.

It would appear that some of the States making provision for mental-testing service have not formulated the necessary qualifications of the persons undertaking the task of mental testing. The person who undertakes mental examinations of school children should be thoroughly conversant with elementary school procedure to the end that intelligent, workable recommendations may be made. Too often the examiner is content with a rather superficial acquaintance with the technique of the examination accompanied by little knowledge of children, and none of schools. While there may be a field for examiners of this type, that field most assuredly is not the public school.

Provisions for meeting the special educational needs of mentally defective children.—Replies to the fourth question:¹

Connecticut.—Legal creation of division of special education and standards in the State board of education.

Delaware.—Provision of the colony and educational activities. These are dependent upon superintendent and board of trustees.

Maine.—We have a school for feeble-minded at West Pownal, but it does not seem to be large enough to take care of all the children who should be sent there.

¹ Miss Keator evidently did not intend to include in the list of States making provisions for the education of mentally defective children the name of any State providing only for their institutional care. In two cases the wording of the reply apparently indicates that this limitation was not kept in mind by those responding to the question.

Massachusetts.—Special classes for children three or more years mentally retarded.

Mississippi.—Colony for feeble-minded.

New Jersey.—"In each school district in this State in which there are 10 or more children three or more years below normal the board of education thereof shall establish a special class or classes for their instruction, no class, however, to contain more than 15 children.

New York.—Special classes are required for backward children with not more than 15 in each.

Ohio.—Yes. Establishment of bureau of special education for the training of teachers.

Pennsylvania.—Yes. Mandatory legislation, section 1413 school code. Teacher qualifications. Tentative standards for approval of orthogenic classes for special appropriations. Special appropriations for districts maintaining approved classes.

Wyoming.—Yes. Duty of State board of education to provide education, training, and where necessary, support for children who are defective in mental development.

The situation in Connecticut.—In Connecticut the law providing for the care of educationally exceptional children is a permissive and not a mandatory one, except for the clause which obliges local boards of education to provide a special class upon petition, such petition being approved by the State board of education, of the parents of 10 educationally exceptional children. The right has been exercised but once since the division was created in 1921. Because of the nature of the law, supervision work is also permissive except in those child-caring institutions receiving moneys from the State treasury. This limitation, however, has not proved a handicap since at no time has the staff provided by legislative appropriation been able to keep pace with the demands made upon it. The State had in September, 1927, on the written statement of local school officials, provisions for various types of educationally exceptional children, including the type with which the present discussion is especially concerned. Last September, there were in Connecticut 92 classes for subnormal children and 81 classes for those designated as backward. In some, perhaps in many instances, the differentiation is an artificial rather than a real one, prompted in part by the reluctance of local authorities to designate children as belonging to the former group and occasionally in part by the fact that special certification requirements have been set up for teachers of the former group. The great majority of classes are located in the cities, in fact, nearly one-half of them are to be found in the cities of New Haven and Bridgeport. It is worthy of note, however, that one special class is located in a consolidated 14-room building. Beginning in September, there will be a special class for subnormal children in a town having a 6-room elementary consolidated school. The chances are large that for some time this will be the smallest town to make

such a boast. Even this leaves the truly rural school still unprovided for. Our attempts to meet their needs have been more truly efforts than realized facts. Through the organization of school clinics held in various sections at stated times, a testing service has been extended to the rural communities. Children are brought in by the superintendent, school nurse, attendance agent, parent, or social worker, as the case may be. Employment cases are frequently able to make the trip unaccompanied. Contrary to popular opinion, there is nothing mystical about a mental examination, and it is followed by no miraculous, spontaneous correction of defects. Like the visit to the doctor, the time spent is practically wasted unless the prescription recommended is patiently and persistently followed. The doctor prescribes, the psychologist recommends. In either case results are secured through follow-up.

For obvious reasons, special classes can not be organized in small rural schools. The special class, however, is only one way of meeting individual needs. In small population groups, the alternative is the individual program. Such a program the division of special education and standards is glad to submit in writing provided the teacher is willing to see that it is administered, and local school boards are willing to make slight expenditures for necessary materials. Both of these provisos present real but not insurmountable difficulties. As a rule, it is possible to make the teacher see that under the individual program plan, she is spending her energies in a productive manner, whereas the policy of ignoring the situation—of permitting the mentally-handicapped child to drift—usually results in a train of discipline situations exhausting to the teacher and unproductive to the child. Likewise school boards are frequently loath to spend money on "frills." Sometimes their prejudices can be overcome, sometimes individuals, organizations, or parents can be induced to contribute. The resourceful teacher who is anxious to find a real solution is sure to discover a way.

One more difficulty remains, that is the lack of a sufficiently large staff to provide the necessary follow-up supervision. Where the supervision is to be furnished by the State as in Connecticut, relief is to be secured only through increased legislative appropriation which in turn is secured through public interest and pressure.

Only a few States have so far provided State aid for special classes; such aid is desirable though not absolutely essential. Recent attempts to secure aid in Connecticut have had in mind the participation in such aid of the rural schools through the individual program, as well as through the regularly organized special class, and bills have been phrased so as to include this possibility. If aid is granted, funds will automatically be provided for the purchase of materials and for a slight additional compensation for the teacher.

Assuming that a subnormal child is emotionally stable in makeup, and mentally too high grade for institution care, what is to become of him when he leaves school? The usual reply is that he will work on a farm. Possibly this is the correct reply. One wonders, however, if some of these children could not be trained to be successful at other tasks provided sufficient specific training were given which raises the further question of the possibility and desirability of providing a similarly definite type of farm training for subnormals. Mentally inferior children must be taught those things which the more generously endowed acquire for themselves. This being the case, it would appear to be the task of the school to make more definite provision for the transition from school to industry. Wherever possible, piecework should be brought into the schoolroom for children to do in the same manner that it is done in the factory. Following this, the child should be released on whole or part time under supervision to establish those habits of work which can be acquired only on the job. This type of training whether undertaken in the schoolroom, or on the farm, or in the factory, can safely be begun only after the pupil has attained the minimum age at which he is legally permitted to go to work provided he has completed a specified grade. One of Connecticut's cities has been engaged in an experiment of this type for a year and a half. Many unforeseen difficulties have developed, but on the whole it seems to be a worth-while undertaking. So far as the writer knows, no similar experiments have anywhere been undertaken for rural-school children, though numerous cities are working along vocational supervision lines.

In Connecticut, State enumerations made periodically provide for each school building the name, age in years and months, and a brief remark concerning each child two or more years too old for his grade according to the age-grade standards in use in that particular school. This general survey should be followed by one utilizing group tests of both the intelligence and achievement types, which program should in turn be followed by individual examination of children making persistently low scores, or concerning whose performance there is a conflict of opinions. Examinations can be conducted most efficiently and economically at school clinics staffed by psychologists from the State board of education who furnish written recommendations concerning each child examined. In a few cases the additional services of a psychiatrist are required. These are furnished by the State School for Feeble-Minded. Personal and family histories are also provided through the social service department of the same institution to which the case is referred in writing by the division of special education and standards.

Thus far no mention has been made of the child so low mentally that he can never profit from academic instruction which means that he has a mental age of about 5 years or less, and a minimum intelligence quotient of 45 or 50. In general special classes in the East register a far greater number of very low-grade cases than do classes in the West. Minnesota for example excludes all children with an I. Q. below 50. The writer is of the opinion that there is a point below which a child ceases to be an educational problem and becomes a welfare one. In Connecticut through the written permission of the commissioner of education, low-grade children may be excused from school attendance. At the same time the statutes distinctly provide that no educationally exceptional child shall be deprived of school privileges without such express permission. What provision shall be made for excluded children opens a field of discussion which can scarcely be entered in this paper.

Summary.—In summary then, the basic considerations involved in the education of the mentally subnormal child in the rural community are not different from those which apply to a more urban type of population. The special problems of the rural child arise from the fact that special programs must be substituted for special classes, and that vocational training and supervision are less easily organized in very small groups than in larger ones.

VI. Equalizing Educational Opportunity for Exceptional Children in Rural Schools

School Training of Subnormal Children in Rural Districts

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According to a national survey conducted by Dr. Thomas H. Haines for the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, there were, in 1924, more than 900,000 mentally handicapped children in the United States between the ages of 7 and 15 years whose public education was being seriously neglected. These figures were based on a survey which showed nearly 1,000,000 children who were mental defectives or borderline mental defectives of grammar-school age. Only approximately 70,000 of these children were then being trained in special classes or in State training schools. More than 900,000 were presumably in school receiving a type of education of no benefit to themselves or to society, as these children do not succeed under the traditional type of school education; they clutter the regular classroom, causing serious teaching problems. And because they fail to receive a type of education from which they can profit, they become behavior problems, truants, delinquents, and perhaps as adults, serious criminals.

Seriousness of the problem in rural schools.—It is necessary to face these facts as a serious problem in public education, which is more serious in rural districts than in cities because of the scattered population and because of the larger problems of school finance. Many municipal districts have made excellent headway in meeting the problem of providing for the educational needs of subnormal children and some States have provided State mental clinics and State supervisors of special education with marked success. It is time to consider seriously the rural-school phases of the problem.

Consolidation of schools in rural areas and modern transportation facilities for rural-school children, overcome the most serious difficulty in dealing with subnormal children in rural-school systems, namely,

the difficulty of organizing special classes in sparsely settled districts. Recent improvements in standards of teaching personnel increase the possibility of obtaining professionally qualified teachers for the rural special classes. The immediate need is for school supervisors to recognize the serious handicaps which subnormal children place upon the regular classroom teacher and the great advantages to them as well as to normal children when they are segregated in special classes. After this segregation the curriculum must be adapted to their particular needs.

Examinations, classification, and other essentials.—Before these children can be educated on the basis of equal opportunity as compared with normal children it is necessary to recognize and classify them as suitable candidates for special education. This can sometimes be accomplished by medical inspectors familiar with the problems of mental deficiency or by psychiatrists where these are available. In general, however, the mental examination of subnormal children can be carried out most effectively and economically by trained clinical psychologists or mental examiners skilled in the use of standard mental tests and appreciative of the educational difficulties of subnormal children.

After such classification subnormal children can best receive the benefits of public education in special classes where the curriculum and the methods of teaching can be adapted to their needs. As far as possible these classes should be homogeneous as to the mental abilities of the children. The size of the classes will depend somewhat upon this homogeneity and usually ranges from 15 to 25 pupils, with 20 as the customary maximum.

The examination and classification of such children in rural districts can best be provided through State or county mental clinics, preferably State clinics outside metropolitan districts. These special classes will usually also require State aid which should be provided from State funds in view of the fact that rural-school districts can not otherwise provide them. On account of this State aid and for purposes of standardization, a State supervisor of special education should also be provided to determine curricula, standards of achievement, and teacher qualifications. The State supervisor and the State clinic should, in conjunction with other school authorities, fix the standards for admission and exclusion to these special classes on the basis of educability under school conditions.

Needs of subnormal children of varying mental levels.—Subnormal children are usually classified as idiots, imbeciles, and morons, according to their level of intelligence or mental age. The idiot has a mental age under 8 years and is so uneducable that he should not receive instruction in the public schools. He should be committed to

a public institution where the type of training from which he can profit can be offered under conditions of family life.

The imbecile has a mental age of from 3 to 7 years and is relatively uneducable in public school. Imbeciles with mental ages under 5 years can be trained to better advantage in public institutions than in public schools. Imbeciles with mental ages over 5 years can receive the kindergarten and first-grade level of academic instruction but will profit much more from simple manual and industrial training. Since most imbeciles ultimately become or should become institutional cases, except where their homes can provide adequate supervision, it is a question whether the rural public schools should attempt to provide special education for even the high-grade imbeciles when this training can be provided to better advantage in State training schools.

The moron represents the highest grade of mental deficiency and has a mental age ranging from 8 to about 12 years. Morons are more numerous than idiots and imbeciles and are educable under public-school conditions if segregated in special classes where they can receive a type of training suited to their needs. Many of them will ultimately be institutional cases but can be cared for until adolescence in the public schools. This reduces the cost of institutional care for those children who can be provided for up to 15 years of age in their own homes if taught in special classes. Moreover, the well-trained moron of stable personality and industrious habits frequently manages to get along reasonably well without institutional care. The unstable moron will usually require custodial care as an adult.

In teaching subnormal children in special classes academic work should be reduced to not more than 30 per cent of the daily schedule. The rest of the school day should be devoted to the various manual and industrial arts, with special attention paid to recreation and physical exercises. The subject matter and time allotments will vary according to the mental levels of the children to be taught.

Conclusion.—A background of experience covering 75 years of institutional training and 25 years of special class training in this country shows the hopefulness of special training for subnormal children as compared with the hopelessness of school training of the traditional type for this group. It is incumbent upon school supervisors to see that public education is not wasted upon children who can not profit from it, and that subnormal children are not subjected to a type of school discipline which frequently renders them antisocial or, at best, does not lift them out of their native social incompetence. The schools carry a special responsibility in the case of subnormal children because they are not gifted by native endowment for independent adult existence as successful citizens unless a training specifically adapted to what they can learn and will make use of as adults is provided.

Essential Characteristics of the Type of Education Best Adapted to Mental Defectives

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The experiment of training feeble-minded children in public schools is comparatively recent. It has all the advantages and disadvantages of pioneer work: In the early days of the work with children who could not profit by instruction offered in elementary schools it was often said that too much attention was paid the defective child and too little paid the bright child. To this comment we insisted upon adding a last word to the effect that no one was paying attention to the feeble-minded children because he liked them better or because he believed they were worth more than normal or bright children, but that parents, probation officers, social workers, and teachers were paying attention to the feeble-minded children because they demanded attention and if they did not receive it they prevented the various agencies from carrying on the work for which they were responsible. In other words, when these misfit children are not properly provided for they not only get nothing themselves but frequently hinder the progress of normal and bright children.

However, the attitude of school people has changed markedly in many instances since the early days of the work. In many cities they no longer wait for us to make a plea for the privilege of training defective children, but demand that we segregate and train all children who have too low intelligence to profit by the traditional type of education. We now find ourselves in the embarrassing position of not having anywhere near adequate facilities for training all the children for whom special training is demanded.

Aims of the special-class department in Newark, N. J.—I will describe our experiment in Newark where we are attempting to determine the essential characteristics of the type of education best adapted to mental defectives, not because the job is finished (in fact, it has just begun), nor yet because it is outstandingly successful, but simply because I know it better than any other. Formerly it was the task of the special-class department to segregate the feeble-minded in special schools and classes and train them in such a way that when they were later sent to an institution they could in a measure contribute to their own support. This task is still with us, but a much greater one has been assigned to the special-class department. It is that of training all children who, after proper examination, prove to have intelligence quotients of 70 or less in such a way

and to such good purpose that they will be useful to the community both industrially and socially.

Our problem, then, is to teach these children to know and to behave, to give them the knowledge necessary for them to succeed up to the limit of their mental ability and social level, and to train them to social habits which will enable them to behave, perhaps not merely up to the limit of their mental ability and social level, but above both of these.

These objectives—teaching the children enrolled in the special schools or classes the knowledge of things necessary for them to know about in order to succeed in life, and training them to habits of behavior that will make them socially acceptable—are certainly not new. And yet to organize special schools and classes with an equipment and a curriculum which make a realization of these objectives at least approximately possible has been and still is an uphill job.

Essential knowledge and habits.—One of our first tasks was to determine what knowledge and what habits were necessary. The traditional type of school training has presumably failed to give feeble-minded children the knowledge and habits suited to their needs, or they would never have become the problem they are to-day. The fact that these children have been forced to attempt to learn what they could not learn has been a contributing factor to the delinquency of which we have heard so much and which probably need never have occurred had we met the problem earlier in a more intelligent manner.

To plan a curriculum which will provide means of training feeble-minded children to become successful members of the social and industrial world into which they must go when they leave school, with all that this implies in a competitive age, means that we must introduce such subjects and activities as will provide a basis for the training they will need; that we must be very critical of all that we have done, all that we are doing, and of all that we are planning to do, in order that we may not continue to do things that are easy instead of doing things that are right.

The Newark curriculum.—The curriculum here presented for your critical consideration has been determined by the limitations of the school plant itself, the abilities of the teachers, and our own mental limitations. Better facilities for training feeble-minded children will be forthcoming when school plants are better planned, when teacher training catches up with our needs, and when leadership can point the way with surer vision. Because we lack parts of all these is no reason why effort should cease; in fact it seems to be all the more reason why we should increase our efforts and hasten, if possible, this slow evolution from an inadequate education for feeble-minded children to an adequate one.

The training in the special schools of Newark may be discussed under the following heads: Academic subjects, activities, industrial values, social habits, and personal habits.

Academic subjects consist of reading, writing, and arithmetic, oral and written language, correlated closely with the subjects under activities.

Activities consist of woodwork, industrial work, sewing, household science, electrical work, motor and household mechanics, and physical training. Tentative courses of study have been worked out and are now being used for the academic subjects and for the activities. These courses cover the grades from kindergarten to the eighth grade, inclusive, for the activities, but not for the academic subjects. Very few children in the special schools have the ability to go beyond the fourth grade in any academic subject.

Industrial values.—We aim to develop regular attendance, punctuality, ability to keep in harmony with school atmosphere, to respond to directions without waste of time, to accomplish what the teacher expects, and to persevere.

Social habits.—We aim to develop ability to confess wrongs and make amends, to tell the truth, to stand for fairness and be a good loser, and to show respect for property and people.

Personal habits.—We aim to develop cleanliness in habits of person, dress, and speech; ability to provide one's self with the necessary materials and to keep them in order; ability to exercise self-control in keeping one's temper, avoiding quarrels, and refraining from sulking; ability to practice thrift in the use of money, paper, books, and materials.

Promotions and working papers issued in the special schools are based on the ratings given in all of the units mentioned, and we believe that the feeble-minded children attending the special schools learn not in spite of us, but because of us.

Organization of the work at Newark.—The present organization provides for the establishment of special classes in the elementary school buildings for children from 6 to 10 years of age, and for special schools in various sections of the city to which the children over 10 years of age who have been trained in the special classes in the elementary schools, may be sent for advanced work. These special schools are equipped to provide instruction in the activities, are organized on the departmental plan, and are evolving into prevocational centers.

If our very gradual progress continues we shall have a special class or two in every elementary school in the city for the young children who are feeble-minded or retarded; we shall have special schools to which children trained in the special classes will be promoted when

they become of the proper age, and we shall have trade classes or schools to which children trained in the prevocational schools will be promoted before they are sent out into industry. This organization is an accomplished fact now in a limited fashion. We predict, with little fear that the future will prove us visionary, that in connection with the special department there will be special classes to care for the unstable children who do not fit into the special-class system, and that the special-class department will be an integral part of the school system and accepted not as a necessary evil but as a necessary good which provides opportunities for children who need such training and enables a school system to meet the needs of all children attending school.

Difficulties experienced in the initiation of special classes.—There are many difficulties to be met and overcome before any special-class organization can be operated with success. These difficulties relate to (1) selection of children, (2) attitude of children selected, (3) attitude of parents toward segregation of their children in the special class, (4) attitude of principals, teachers, and other school workers toward the special-class work.

(1) The ideal method of selecting children for a special class would probably be to have a trained psychologist examine all young children by means of group and individual intelligence tests, and segregate those whose intelligence quotients indicate the need in graded special classes. It is doubtful if this method is followed very faithfully in many places. It may be attempted, but investigation discloses that it is seldom strictly adhered to. What usually happens is that either the school or school system is combed for the low and middle grade imbeciles who are segregated in special classes; or older incorrigible children of doubtful mentality are selected for the special training. If the imbeciles are selected for the special class, it will obviously be difficult to place in that class when vacancies occur any child who is above the imbecile grade even if such child be feeble-minded. If only incorrigible children are selected it will be difficult to keep the class organized for feeble-minded children because strong pressure will be brought to bear to send all types of incorrigible children, whether or not they are of low mentality, to the special class. Under the above conditions the special class consists of a group of children of any age and of any mentality. To avoid such a lamentable outcome it is absolutely necessary for some one in authority to decide upon a constructive policy and to carry it out. This policy will probably differ in different communities.

(2) The attitude of the children toward a transfer to a special class is one of the very pleasant things about the special-class work.

This attitude is a happy one under favorable conditions and often a happy one under unfavorable conditions. We have many instances where the pupils of low mentality were persistent in their effort to attend a special school even in opposition to their parents' wishes.

(3) The attitude of the parents toward the placement of their child in a special class or school is very important. In their eagerness to have their child appear as bright as any other child, they often ruin his chances for success at anything, either by refusing to allow the child to attend a special school adapted to his needs, or, if allowing it, by keeping up a constant nagging which makes the child feel tremendously inferior and thereby causes emotional conflicts which complicate the situation.

(4) The attitudes of the principal and teachers of a school system toward the special class determine to a very large extent the attitude of the children assigned to the special class and the attitude of the parents of those children. It is by far the most difficult phase of public opinion to meet in connection with the establishment of a special class. We have the attitude that the special class is some sort of a disagreeable place to be used as a disciplinary device to humiliate the children. Within the month a principal said to me, "This boy is nearly 16 years old; for the short time he is to attend school he ought to be placed in the special class for a punishment." There is the attitude on the part of some teachers that they must "save" a child from the special class whereas the children are selected for the special class because of retarded intelligence which few teachers up to date have been able to increase through training. We have the attitude that special-class training may be very good for the "lower classes" but of course not suitable for children belonging to higher social levels even though they be of inferior intelligence. It does not take long for such an idea to spread by way of the underground through the school or town.

If the special class is to succeed in a given community, a correct attitude on the part of the superintendent, principal, and teachers must be developed and maintained. It would be out of place to suggest ways and means to develop and maintain this attitude. A principal said to me recently, "This uncooperative attitude on the part of the teachers makes too heavy a burden for the special-class department to carry." The teachers in his school are among the worst offenders. They threaten the children in their classes with transfer to the special classes and they talk slightly of the special-class children in the street cars and upon every occasion.

A psychiatrist told me not long ago that he was not recommending that children who needed the special training be sent to the special

classes because of a wrong attitude on the part of the school workers. In these and similar cases principals and teachers have, actually, if not deliberately, deprived many children of their opportunity for the kind of training which is their right and due.

Conclusion.—To determine the essential characteristics of the type of education best adapted to mental defectives we must study these children psychologically, socially, and educationally, and act on the knowledge gained to establish training centers where they may receive the type of education best adapted to their needs. More than that, when we have learned what to do and are ready to do it, we must provide a situation in the school system and in the community which will be favorable to the proposition that we teach these feeble-minded children what they should be taught.

VII. Achievements and Plans of the Northeastern Supervisory Conference

Summary and Comments

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It was fitting that this conference on supervision should begin with consideration of that which is supervision's most immediate aim, efficiency in teaching, and fortunate that efficiency in teaching should be analyzed with such sympathetic insight. "Efficiency" is a term that too often suggests machinelike qualities in operation. Mr. Snyder's recognition at the outset that there are immeasurable as well as measurable characteristics of teaching; that the former may be the essential elements of the thing we seek to develop; and that both types of qualities may be acquired under helpful guidance, initiated the conference on the level of true supervision of a high type as opposed to mere inspection or even training of teachers in service along more or less mechanical and routine lines.

Doctor Moore's paper which followed, narrowing consideration to the superior group of teachers, maintained the same high ideal of supervision. It was good to see from the study reported by Doctor Moore how many lines of real help for superior teachers supervisors are developing. That the superior teacher might be of help to the supervisor has for a long time been recognized. The question Doctor Moore has attacked is the value to the superior teacher herself which may come from the supervisor. Evidently superior teachers appreciate the opportunity to demonstrate. This helps the other teachers, but it also to some extent gives a recognition which the superior teacher well deserves.

But these teachers apparently want more from the supervisor than this. They want promotion of professional growth, and they suggest as a means to this end conferences with the supervisor after visitation, suggestions of new methods and procedures, and opportunity to observe others doing similar work. It is quite evident that these teachers do not feel that they have reached the point where

they can not be helped. It is possibly the inexperienced normal-school graduate who has this feeling more than any one else unless it be the untrained teacher of many years of unsupervised experience.

These superior teachers recognize not only the need of suggestions from the supervisor but cooperation and help in starting new procedures and in meeting difficult problems. They know very well that by teamwork between themselves and their supervisors their efficiency can be much increased. Miss Smith's delightful account of her primary supervision is an excellent illustration of this cooperative work between supervisors and teachers.

An interesting group of the superior teachers' suggestions indicates a desire that professional dignity shall be held high. Their request that the supervisors hold up standards suggests to me that they feel a strong need for the increasing professionalization of the function of rural-school teaching by eliminating substandard teachers. A second suggestion making for increased professionalization is their request that initiative be encouraged, and a third that the teacher feel free to discuss her problems with the supervisor as a coworker rather than an inspector.

It is significant that supervisors recognize most if not all of these contributions which they can make to the superior teacher. It is significant, too, that it is the supervisors and not the teacher, who suggest advancement of the teacher to a better position. Probably supervisor and teacher would both agree that it is desirable to promote growth and advancement of a superior teacher. If this could be achieved in the same or a closely related piece of work it might be the best for all concerned, including the children. There is undoubted truth in the suggestion that success in one type of work does not necessarily assure like success in another. Moreover, efficiency in rural-school teaching is not an aim to work for if we can never devise ways of securing permanent or long-time service of qualified teachers in their field. We need to seek means of making this fair and attractive to teachers. The suggestions which Doctor Moore has compiled from supervisors and teachers alike give many clues—good living conditions; raising the community standards of education so as to encourage and reward rather than oppose and penalize progressive work by rural teachers; supplementing community standards of the value of good teachers with a system of educational financing which make possible equitable salary scales for rural teachers—this is largely an administrative matter—and elimination as fast as possible of the substandard untrained teachers who lower the prestige of the work. Still other means may be devised to extend the sphere of usefulness and at the same time to increase the remuneration of superior teachers in rural schools. The Maine helping-teacher

plan is one such device. By this plan, which gives advanced training to superior teachers and sends them back to their own schools with a State bonus in salary and with certain supervisory duties to the teachers about them, remuneration, increased prestige, and increased professional growth and usefulness are promoted in the same field where the teacher has proved her value.

Another important point brought out by both supervisors and teachers is the desirability of a cooperative relationship in the solving of difficult problems. There are many educational problems which will never be solved excepting through the able teacher as an experimental agent. Cases in point mentioned by these teachers are the rural-school program and plans for grouping and alternating grades and the development of individual instructional materials and methods.

An excellent suggestion from this paper is the use of superior teachers in rating supervisors. That the teachers themselves are conscious of certain qualities which make a supervisor of value is evident from several of their statements. A rating scale, cooperatively developed by supervisor and teacher and applied perhaps without demanding the teacher's signature, should be an invaluable help to a supervisor in evaluating and improving his own work.

In the discussion of this very interesting paper one speaker said, "Surely you would not spend as much time with your superior teachers as with your weaker ones." Is this so sure? Not as much time is needed to teach her to teach, of course, but perhaps more time may profitably be spent with her to realize her potentialities for the educational advancement of the whole supervisory area. We have here a question of the best use of the supervisor's time. What returns may be expected from that time applied to the inferior teacher? What from its application to the superior? If in the latter case the returns are multiplied by the extension of the teacher's developed resources to her less able fellows the results may and indeed often are more valuable to all the children including those in the poorest schools. The leadership and example of a developed superior teacher serve rural children in general as long as she can be kept in the rural community. Have you ever thought why we are satisfied with rural schools of an 1850 model whereas all of us, rural and urban alike, want a 1928 model automobile? Is it not because modern automobiles are a common sight even in backward communities? But many people live and die without the opportunity of seeing a single example of modern rural-school teaching.

Following upon Doctor Moore's interesting study, Mr. West's analysis of the distinction between the supervisor's service to the inexperienced teacher, trained and untrained, served also to suggest

other distinctions that need making between the inexperienced and the expertly trained teacher. It is clear that the supervisor has very distinct functions with different types of teachers. Supervision is training in service for those without training. It is extending the application of and adjusting to new situations the training already had in normal school for those who are fresh in the field, and keeping these young teachers alive and growing, preserving their visions, saving them from unnecessary discouragements; and as the preceding paper has shown it is a still richer thing with the superior teacher, for her it is practically a professional partnership on equal terms. It may be well for us to think of the teacher-supervisor relationship as progressively apprenticeship under a master, junior partnership in a firm, and finally senior partnership.

Rural supervision until the present has been almost generally concerned with the training of untrained teachers. With the advancement in the certification requirements in many States to-day rural supervision must now recognize the various types of teachers and must analyze carefully and undertake research and experimentation to determine the methods of supervision best suited for each. Note, for example, that a superior teacher expressed enjoyment in having the supervisor take part in the recitation rather than sit still and say nothing. Yet the advice is often given to supervisors to avoid interrupting the teacher in the recitation. This advice is based upon a superior-inferior relationship between the supervisor and the unskilled teacher, and apparently does not apply in an equal partner relationship with the superior teacher.

Perhaps we need to plan carefully defined steps in technique, which we expect to be gradually reached by teachers of different qualifications and on different levels of advancement; perhaps it would be better to conceive of the teacher's progress in terms of increased understanding of principles and consequently increased ability to do creative work involving originality and initiative. Whatever may be the nature which the teacher's growth takes may we not expect that it will be valuable to the supervisor to have clearly in mind the characteristics of its different levels. In other words, to conceive a sort of graded progress in teaching.

Mr. West stated, "It is necessary for the supervisor to analyze the teachers who are working with her and try to understand what these teachers need and how they can be helped." But all of this need not necessarily be performed individually and independently by every supervisor. We may by research determine the chief characteristics and needs of teachers in the various stages and the most serviceable means of helping each. What this research might reveal would become as essential a part of a supervisor's training as we now regard

knowledge of child psychology at various ages of childhood and acquaintance with the most suitable methods for use with children in succeeding stages of advancement to be in the qualifications of the trained teacher.

Another type of differentiated characteristics which the supervisor must be prepared to serve includes the peculiar problems or needs of the different levels of pupil advancement. As Miss Allingham has brought out, the most neglected level is that of the intermediate grades. Yet she has suggestively indicated, even in this "no-man's land," certain to-be-expected teacher shortages which supervisors recognizing, may formulate plans for meeting. Her statement that, "when the supervisor knows in advance the diagnosis of the teacher-case whom she is to visit, it is a fairly easy matter to carry specific helps," of course assumed that the supervisor knows what specifics will help. Although we are as yet, because of past neglect of the intermediate grades, far from adequately informed in this field, yet there is no doubt that along certain general lines, any efficient supervisor should be able to make a beginning of combating the outstanding deficiency of the teachers of this group which Miss Allingham points out; i. e., the strong conservatism, probably the result of a policy fairly generally pursued in the past, of dumping in these grades most of the distasteful, routine, or mechanical items of education which were neither discarded nor reorganized to meet progressive ideals of educational procedure.

Mr. Clifton¹ well emphasized the need of expert knowledge on the part of the supervisor of the techniques of his work. The techniques most appropriate to the intermediate grades are in the main yet to be discovered or developed—another line along which cooperative research between superior teachers and supervisors might well be carried on.

The research suggested by Mr. West to discover the varied needs characteristic of teachers of different levels of ability, extended also to different types of school situations or grade levels, should still further promote the end which Mr. Clifton desires. That supervisory courses do not offer supervisors definite help can be accounted for by the fact that we have as yet not gone far enough in our analysis of the types of teachers' needs to be met by the supervisor and the ways and means of meeting them.

Even when we have done this, however, the problem, which the afternoon program stressed, of the administrative organization of the work of the supervisor is a pressing one. Granted that classroom supervision is the chief aim, how may the supervisor distribute his

¹ Doctor Dunn here refers to J. L. Clifton, director of education, Ohio, who discussed the principal as supervisor.

time so as to make the best use of all of it? In supervision of small schools much of the supervisor's time is at present consumed in travel. With the assembling of more teachers in one school to what extent can we reduce the proportion of time spent in reaching the school to the time spent in supervising it? Can we eliminate travel time altogether? If it were possible for the principal to supervise the school this could be done, but is it economical for the principal to give all his time to supervising? If he has to be a part-time teacher and in addition responsible for both the administrative and supervisory direction of his school, may we reasonably expect that he will be adequately efficient in all three of these functions?

Perhaps the question is not necessarily, Shall we have supervision by the principal or supervision by a traveling supervisor? but rather, To what extent can the principal supervise? It may be that we shall always in such small schools as rural schools are likely to be, need a traveling supervisor, though this supervisor will have charge of only a part of the total supervisory activities of the school.

It seems to me that there are two types of expertness in supervision: The one is expertness in the application of general principles of education in order to realize certain general ends of education, such, for example, as the development of pupil initiative, of cooperation, and other social qualities, of judgment of values, and so on. The other is expertness with a multitude of specific techniques to realize specific ends. The supervisor in order to help the teacher teach, for example, beginning reading, nature study, music, creative work of various types, the conduct of various types of recitation, the most economical procedures which educational research has discovered in the teaching of the three R's, needs to know and to be able to evaluate by the application of sound principles a great mass of detail, and needs, also, to be skillful in the actual use of these techniques in teaching children of various ages. This latter kind of expertness, far more than the former, necessitates teaching experience in the field supervised. Miss Reynolds stated, for example, that she did not think it possible adequately to supervise first grade if one had never taught first grade. And this same idea was reiterated by several of the speakers who called attention to the need of teaching experience in all the grades supervised for the efficient practice of supervision. Now from a practical standpoint I doubt very much whether the principal can ever get this experience, and as well the other qualifications which he needs. Yet, I believe, that the principal can become expert in the first type of supervisory activity; that is, the application of general principles to the realization of general ends. Is there, perhaps, a desirable possibility of combining the two agents—the principal to be expert in the first type of work and the supervisor particularly in

the second type. If it is true that women will make the best supervisors of this second type, it is because of their past experience. As long as the elementary grades are almost altogether taught by women we can not hope to develop in many men the ability to do this second and essential type of supervisory work.

An outstanding characteristic of the papers presented at the conference and the conclusions to which they point is the general recognition of the need for research in the field of rural-school supervision. Superintendent Kraybill's paper was a helpful illustration of one of the many supervisory problems requiring research and a hopeful beginning on the research needed. It was interesting also as an illustration of the difference and the occasional conflict between supervisory and administrative phases of school direction. To the administrator the eighth-grade examination is a means to promote certain desired ends. These ends are (1) the most favorable conditions for teaching in the high school, protecting the high school against unprepared pupils and thereby protecting the high-school children against so great heterogeneity as to decrease the teacher's efficiency; and (2) adjusting each child to the place where he can best develop. The supervisor, on the other hand, is especially concerned in preventing the danger that eighth-grade tests will kill the best things that she and her superior teachers can do. There is another supervisory phase: It is necessary to hold high standards of elementary education before rural people, teachers, and parents. Tests of some kind do help to do this. Standard tests do it more satisfactorily because they provide for comparability between different schools and communities.

Both the paper and the discussion brought out very clearly the complex nature of the question under consideration. A highly important point made in the discussion was the relationship of the high-school curriculum to the whole question. For the best good of the children concerned there is little value in promoting a child who has not been thoroughly drilled to a high school which values above all else a high degree of efficiency in the skills. Interpretation of the research results and constructive measures to meet conditions discovered must deal with three things: (1) Elementary-school curriculum and teaching efficiency in the light of the tests and high-school success; (2) high-school curriculum and teaching efficiency in the light of the tests and elementary provision; (3) the tests considered as aids in making the adjustment between the elementary and the secondary school.

The essential aim in the whole program is the steady progress of school children each at his own best rate and under the conditions most favorable to him, from grade to grade and from one type of school to another. The tests or examinations are to be regarded as

one and only one means to this end, and to rise or fall according as they contribute to the good of all the children. If they become mere eliminative agencies cutting certain children off from opportunity for further education they will be distinctly bad. The suggestion that the high-school curriculum be carefully scrutinized and supervised in relation to the results of a testing program is of outstanding importance.

Further investigation is indicated to discover which types of tests best serve as a means to desirable adjustment of individual pupils. The fact, brought out by the discussion, that state-wide experimentation with various types of eighth-grade tests is being carried on in New Jersey and elsewhere is highly gratifying.

Some of the most difficult phases of adjustment to individual pupils in rural schools were attacked in the program on Tuesday afternoon—the problems of the subnormal and of children who enter school with little or no knowledge of English.

It is well to recognize here in passing that adjustment to superior pupils, although not included in the program topics, is a subject of outstanding importance. This conference has already considered the desirability of realizing upon the potentialities of the superior teacher. Similarly important, it is generally agreed to-day, is the best possible development of the capacities of our superior and highly superior children. How this is to be done under the school conditions necessarily characteristic of sparsely settled communities is quite as problematic as any of the other matters which have been discussed here. The topic is worthy of a place in our attention coordinate with any of those which have been presented during this conference. With this statement we may dismiss the matter of the superior child and turn our consideration to the valuable discussions of the handicapped types of children.

There is general unanimity with a few striking disagreements in the discussions of Doctor Doll, Doctor Anderson, Mr. Jones, and Miss Keator. All of them refer to the unfortunate attitude toward school and sometimes toward society which is engendered in handicapped children by the existing type of school provision. Says Mr. Jones, of the child who can not speak English:

A handicap of this type at the very outset of a child's school life, bringing with it a sort of ostracism and an unjustifiable consciousness of failure, is likely to create in him certain initial attitudes toward school and toward life that will be difficult to eradicate in later years.

Says Miss Keator, of the mentally handicapped:

During this year of failure (the first grade), which is the first lesson that the school teaches, unfortunate attitudes are acquired and bad habits of work are formed which doubtless persist for years.

And of this latter class of children Doctor Doll adds:

Because they fail to receive a type of education from which they can profit they become behavior problems, truants, delinquents, and perhaps, as adults, serious criminals.

To remedy the evil which they all recognize, Mr. Jones and Miss Keator suggest opposing means. Among other measures for the sake of the child without a knowledge of English, Mr. Jones would secure his admission to school as soon as the law permits, probably including in the school census children younger than 5 years, whereas Miss Keator criticises the practice of admitting children to first grade "before they are mentally capable of performing the tasks required of them." However, in her next statement it becomes clear that she is in entire accord with Mr. Jones, for, she says:

It should be understood that the above is not a protest against admitting children to school *as early as a suitable curriculum is provided*, but mentally immature children should not be subjected to *first-grade requirements*.

Mr. Jones thinks that "the rural consolidated school that maintains a year of kindergarten training can be of immense assistance" to the group with whom his paper deals. He also presents evidence against the common assumption that non-English-speaking children must in general spend at least one additional year in completing the elementary school curriculum, suggesting that the retardation experienced by these pupils need in many cases be only temporary. Doctor Doll, after the usual recommendation of homogeneous grouping for the subnormal, says that it is futile to classify these children in special classes unless the curriculum is thereupon modified.

All of these statements, together and separately, point to the need of curriculum reorganization or adjustment in rural schools which have one or the other of these groups of children among their pupils—and what rural school does not? Miss Keator's and Mr. Jones's discussions both emphasize the especial need of such reorganization in the work of the first-school year. Attention should be directed to the fact that, whereas urban schools are steadily progressing toward inclusion of a kindergarten year or years in their educational program, very few rural schools, even rural consolidated schools, have made such provision; and it is, moreover, doubtful if most of them can. The minimum age of school eligibility, however, is in State laws not differentiated for urban and rural schools. As a result, a law which benefits the urban child by admitting him at an early age to school provision suited to his abilities and needs, is deleterious to a rural child who is admitted to school, but whose needs are not provided for in that school's offerings or requirements. I should therefore answer Miss Keator's protest against subjecting mentally immature children to first-grade requirements by saying, "Change the requirements."

My own judgment, based on a number of years of direct contact with the two types of rural children discussed by Miss Keator and Mr. Jones, is that early entrance is desirable, and that for the best interests of normal and subnormal, native and foreign alike, our rural first-grade curriculum should be drastically changed to include a wide range of activities, physical, social, constructive, and creative, much conversation and free play, and a greatly reduced maximum expectation with perhaps no minimum requirement in the formal school subjects; that the rural elementary curriculum should be organized in three 3-year periods or stages, any one of which (or in extreme cases, each of which) might be completed in two years by a capable child; and that the present general 8-year elementary-school period should, as a result, become a 6 to 9 year period altogether, according to the initial ability and the varying rates of development of different pupils.

The curriculum reorganization which I contemplate in the foregoing would adjust also to the needs of the other child for whom Miss Keator is concerned, the child of inferior mentality kept in school by the requirements of compulsory education, with, however, at present, "little or no attention being given to whether the child is profitably employed while he remains in school." The same type of education I have advocated for the first grade, providing richly for activities of a motor and social nature, as well as abstract or verbal learning, should characterize the rural school at all levels.

I have been interested, in comparing my own idea of a desirable curriculum for rural-school children in general, as I have sketched it above, with the very helpful suggestions made by Doctor Anderson and Doctor Doll for a curriculum suited to the subnormal child, to find far more likeness than difference between them. The types of activity which they recommend for the subnormal—physical training, plays, games, dramatics, story-telling, nature study, and industrial arts, are all major components of the work of our best progressive schools for normal children to-day, and the recommendation of reduction of academic work to about 30 per cent of the school day goes hardly, if any further, than the modern practice of such schools, in the primary and intermediate grades at least. In other words, if we should make our rural schools better schools for normal children, according to the more advanced standards to-day, we should go a long way toward providing the type of education which the backward children need.

One of the most hopeful facts brought out during this conference is the increasing recognition, on the part of those responsible for teacher training, that it is essential to prepare prospective rural teachers for the specific conditions which they will meet in the rural

schools. Somewhere, somehow, the teacher must learn her work. Originally all teachers learned it through trial and error, at an appalling cost to the pupils upon whom they tried their apprentice hands. More recently this cost has been reduced in rural schools by supervisory direction of the tyro. To-day our standards for teacher certification are rapidly rising, and we are increasingly refusing the totally unprepared aspirant the right to learn how to teach through mere experience, even though under supervision. Rural-school supervision is not, and can never be, the most economical sole means of teacher training. Yet rural supervision performs certain training functions. Now that we are coming fairly generally to realize the need for requirement of certain professional preparation before admitting a candidate to the teaching ranks and the value of constructive leadership and assistance for even the superior teacher, it is important that pre-service and in-service agencies so organize their work that they shall be mutually complementary and cooperative. Which brings us again to the themes with which our program began—the qualities which constitute good teaching, and the need for knowledge of the *specifics* which unite to effect it. Pre-service agents must know the situations for which their teachers are being prepared and the best means, materials, and methods for use in those situations; in-service agents must know the foundations of the teacher's practice which have been laid in the teacher-training institution, in order to build upon them. Pre-service and in-service agents together must hold to a common ideal and work in harmony therewith. All of them must bear in mind the essential characteristics and the present conditions of rural schools as a distinct part of the total educational situation. Mr. King states a fact which is increasingly general when, after affirming that at present we are training teachers for the elementary but not for the 1-room rural school, he says:

This procedure in the past was satisfactory inasmuch as the teacher-training graduates were placed in the larger school units. Now they are accepting positions in the rural schools. The graduates are not properly trained for this type of teaching service.

Doctor Nelson calls attention to the factor of environmental conditions, which is as important in a consolidated as in a 1-room rural school, and rightly emphasizes the necessity of treating content, method, and environment as a unit. Doctor Russell reiterates the same idea, that the normal school must prepare for the actual schools, conditions, and materials with which the student is likely to deal. The three papers presented at this conference contain perhaps more suggestions for preparing the rural teacher-to-be for the peculiar conditions and problems which she will have to meet than the same number of pages anywhere else in pedagogical literature.

The whole program of this conference has been an unusually valuable one; due to the insight into the total rural supervisory field which underlies its organization, and to the fine constructive work, which as the various papers revealed, is being done along almost every problem set forth. Especially encouraging is the evidence shown of the increasing use and recognition of research as an essential means to further progress.

What Studies Should the Northeastern Supervisory Group Undertake

H. E. HALL

Superintendent of Schools, Wood County, Ohio

A committee composed of H. E. Hall, superintendent of schools, Wood County, Bowling Green, Ohio, committee chairman; Edith L. Van Syckle, rural-school supervisor, Salem County, N. J.; Helen Hay Heyl, assistant, rural-education bureau, State department of education, Albany, N. Y.; Maud Keator, director special education and standards, State department of education, Hartford, Conn.; Clyde T. Saylor, superintendent of schools, Chester County, West Chester, Pa., was appointed in advance of the conference to consider what, if any, projects should be undertaken by the conference in 1928-29.

The committee in reporting expressed the belief that more efficient research service is the greatest need in rural education. Available research studies concerned with city schools have been suggestive and helpful in solving many problems in rural-school work. Rural schools, however, with inadequate facilities, varying types of school organization, unsatisfactory courses of study, limited supervisory service, and often short school terms, should be subjects of special research investigation by competent research organizations without further delay.

In line with the above the following resolution was offered as embodying the conclusions and recommendations of the committee and unanimously adopted by the conference:

"It is the consensus of opinion of this conference that there is urgent need for an adequate program of research in the field of rural education. The conference therefore urges upon the Bureau of Education the desirability of extensive studies in this field, especially of problems of immediate concern to the group of States represented in the conference. It desires to pledge its support to

any measures adapted to secure adequate financial resources for such studies to be made by the Federal Bureau of Education, or by departments of research in universities, colleges, and other similar agencies. Among the immediately pressing problems which are recommended for study, if possible within the next year, are:

(1) To ascertain wasteful practices in rural supervision and to determine by what means efficient supervision through a small staff may be provided in county or other local districts.

(2) To determine an appropriate type of education for children who have reached the legal age for admission to school but are unable to do first-grade work successfully.

(3) To ascertain the feasibility of increasing the supervisory service rendered by State departments of education in States which do not provide facilities for efficient supervision in county or other local districts.

(4) To determine which supervisory techniques are most effective in a State program of supervision from the standpoint of the chief State educational officer and his cooperating field agents.

(5) To determine an effective grouping of grades and integration of subject-matter fields for 1-room rural schools.

(6) To determine appropriate procedures in training the rural-school principal to supervise elementary instruction and to cooperate with and use his superintendent or supervisor."