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# IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN RURAL SCHOOLS THROUGH PRO- FESSIONAL SUPERVISION

ABSTRACTS OF ADDRESSES DELIVERED AT THE  
FIRST CONFERENCE OF SUPERVISORS OF THE  
SOUTHEASTERN STATES, HELD AT NASHVILLE,  
TENN., DECEMBER 14 AND 15, 1925

Prepared in the Division of Rural Education

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## INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

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This bulletin contains abstracts of the addresses delivered at a two-day conference of State and county rural-school supervisors in the Southeastern States, called by the United States Commissioner of Education, at Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., December 14 and 15, 1925. Abstracts were prepared from notes or manuscripts submitted by the authors. In no case is the address reproduced in complete form.

The conference was attended by approximately 100 rural educational workers, most of whom are engaged in State and county supervision. The States represented are Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. The United States Bureau of Education was represented by two members of the staff of the Division of Rural Education.

The program presented at the conference was arranged to consider the six 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. The bulletin is a practically complete record of the conference proceedings, although some of the extemporaneous discussion is necessarily omitted. One speaker failed to send his manuscript.



# IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN RURAL SCHOOLS THROUGH PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISION

ABSTRACTS OF ADDRESSES DELIVERED AT THE FIRST CONFERENCE OF SUPERVISORS OF THE SOUTHEASTERN STATES, HELD AT NASHVILLE, TENN., DECEMBER 14 AND 15, 1925

## AIMS AND PURPOSES OF THE CONFERENCE OF RURAL-SCHOOL SUPERVISORS OF THE SOUTHEASTERN STATES<sup>1</sup>

JNO. J. TIGERT

*United States Commissioner of Education*

I have the pleasure of opening to-day the first sectional conference called under the auspices of the Bureau of Education to consider that phase of the work of rural-school superintendents and supervisors which is concerned strictly with the improvement of the classroom instruction.

Probably no school officers in our complicated educational system have more important and more varied responsibilities than the superintendents and supervisors of rural schools, most of whom combine administrative and supervisory work. The conception of the work of the rural-school superintendent has in the past 10 years undergone fundamental changes. Formerly his duties were conceived to be inspectorial, clerical, and administrative. Supervision was confined largely to an annual visit, inspectorial and inspirational at its best; critical and void of results at its worst. The newer conception is of the superintendent as a trained professional officer whose work is comparable in responsibility, prestige, and scientific technique with that of the best city superintendents.

### PROFESSIONAL ASSISTANTS TO RURAL SUPERINTENDENTS

As a result of this changed conception progressive States have provided for professional assistants to the rural superintendent who can devote their time to matters concerned with improved methods of instruction, training of teachers in service, preparation and adap-

<sup>1</sup> In the absence of Doctor Tigert the address was read before the conference by Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, Chief of Division of Rural Education, Bureau of Education.



tation of courses of study, and performance of such other duties as concern supervisory functions as distinguished from administrative functions. Where supervision of this type has not been provided by State authority, many progressive counties of their own initiative, and wholly or largely at their own expense, have provided supervisors with like responsibilities. In this particular constructive movement in rural education the Southeastern States have made definite and commendable progress. Indeed, it would be difficult to select another group of contiguous States in which so much progress has been made or so much serious thought has been given to supervision as a method for improving school opportunities for rural children.

Here, as elsewhere, supervision is in a transitional stage. It is transitional in so far as delimitation of functions is concerned. Many superintendents still are forced to divide their time between supervisory and administrative duties, for they are the only supervisory officers in their particular territory. Where supervisors have been employed, many of them must assume administrative duties delegated to them by overburdened superintendents. We are, however, rapidly approaching the condition in which there is a fairly definite differentiation between the two types of work in the minds of those performing these functions, although overlapping may remain as to persons performing them. Such understanding enables the superintendent and the supervisor to consider their different duties in the light of their relative importance, and intelligently to distribute the time among them.

It is not because of any failure to recognize the variety of duties which fall to the lot of the rural superintendent that we have chosen to emphasize in this conference the importance of instructional supervision. It is indeed rather *because of such recognition*. Good administration must lay the foundation which makes the erection of a complete and substantial educational structure possible. It must precede in order to secure supervision. Administration must of necessity begin with material considerations. Often it is only through improvement on the material side that improvement of the classroom instruction under professional direction can be attained. However, one may be carried away by the lure of building up a school system on the material side alone. The immediacy of the demands made of superintendents by school boards and patrons, the thrill of accomplishment which can be measured in tangible terms, the pressing necessity for improved buildings, for promoting consolidation, and the like, sometimes lead to the neglect of the less picturesque phase of the superintendent's work, the one which is less readily subject to tangible measurements of progress, the thing for



which better buildings and equipment have their purpose, i. e., the improvement of the quality of instruction.

Rural supervision is in a transitional stage in that we have not yet accomplished but are working toward more definitely defined methods and standards as to practice and procedure. Supervision of rural schools in particular is a relatively new field in education. As in all new fields, experience is a necessary but an expensive teacher. Supervisors of rural schools have had to find a way to solve problems not met by supervisors in other fields. They have found it necessary to exercise initiative as well as ability of a high order, and through new ways, in untried fields, to work out the solutions of a variety of problems and overcome a variety of difficulties. The time has come for supervisors to formulate these practices and procedures for their own future guidance, for the assistance of others who have the same or similar problems to meet but have not yet found as successful a method of meeting them and for those entering the field for the first time, many of whom have not the benefit of definite and adequate training. The time has come when it seems possible to reduce the problems of supervisors to some degree of uniformity, to classify them according to accepted principles, and to set up tentative standards which are acceptable and practical even in trying situations.

Rural-school supervisors have an opportunity for service unsurpassed in the field of education, rural or urban. That rural children have not equal opportunities in education with urban children is well known. Short school terms and untrained teachers are the most serious hindrances which militate against the educational welfare of children in rural communities. They are responsible for your most difficult problems.

#### **SUPERVISION THE BEST IMMEDIATE AGENCY**

The complete and ultimate remedy for the whole situation lies in better administrative and more generously financed systems. It involves better buildings, more money, more consolidation, better high schools, and the like. These things necessary to the ultimate fulfillment of our purpose require time for their consummation. New laws, new sources of funds, new administrative conditions do not spring up overnight. While we wait for these things to come thousands of children in our rural schools are spending their last years in any school and getting all the education they will ever have. Our far-reaching plans for ultimate improvement of rural-school conditions will not materialize for them; many of them will not even enter the new buildings now in process of erection. Supervision is the best immediate agency of which we know for improving conditions in rural schools, because it is the one agency which here and now, to-day and to-morrow, offers practical, tangible help to these children.

**GREETING FROM DR. BRUCE PAYNE, PRESIDENT GEORGE  
PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS, NASHVILLE, TENN.**

The most valuable processes in education are always arrived at last. This applies, not only to what is taught, but to how it is taught. Alchemy and astrology were taught before chemistry and astronomy were taught. Perfectly senseless methods of teaching have been employed centuries before useful, economic, and practical methods of organization and presentation of subject matter occurred.

In school administration it has been amusing to observe what apparently practical, but really utterly foolish and worthless, things we have advised, surveyed, standardized, and talked about in order to distract attention from the chief task of education; namely, teaching and the administration of teaching.

The supervision of instruction during the term in which the teacher is teaching will be the last thing done by school administrators. Lighting, heating, ventilation, statistics, reports, intelligence tests, sanitation, blackboards, school furnishings, and a thousand other things serve as excuses for our neglect of the supervision of instruction, and at the same time they serve as a camouflage for our fear and timidity of really plunging into the cold waters of supervision. I have been looking for 30 years, summer and winter, to find some brave spirit with the daring to take the first dive in this chilling stream whose icy waters have frightened so many boisterous administrators for so many centuries.

After all, the purpose of the school is to teach, and the purpose of administration is to help the teacher teach better. This is supervision, and we ought to do it first, not last. Many of the administrative processes of an administrator ought to be done by clerical help, so as to give time to the administrator for the weighty things of the supervision of instruction.



# I. The Supervision of Instruction

## WHAT IS SUPERVISION?

FANNIE W. DUNN

*Assistant Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University*

Improvement in instruction is not dependent on supervision alone. An educational aim is fundamental to the causes which result in efficient instruction. The factors in the realization of such an aim are—

1. Environmental resources—human and material.
2. Educational facilities afforded by the school system (buildings, equipment, length of term, attendance laws and enforcement).
3. The degree of effectiveness with which the teacher makes use of all her own powers and of (1) and (2) above to the end of achieving the educational aim in terms of boys and girls in her charge. It is with this third and critical factor that the supervisor is concerned.

The function of supervision is increasing the effectiveness of the teacher by making desirable changes in what she is and as a consequence in what she does to discover potentialities and develop them. The acid test of supervision is the extent to which it keeps the superior teachers in the system growing and producing to the limit of their capacities.

The good supervisor stimulates fruitful growth in all teachers. She helps (1) the normal-school graduate in a country school in the practical reorganization of the situation that will make her ideals possible, and in evaluating and adapting her ideas and plans to make use of what is possible in the present and to hold the remainder for future application from time to time as conditions shall gradually be developed which are essential for their realization; she helps (2) the teacher with little or no preliminary professional preparation to grow. In addition she gives her training in teaching while she is actually in the teaching service. It is part of the supervisor's duty to see that the teachers are practicing along right lines. This she must do to prevent spoiling the human fabric during an unprepared teacher's apprentice years and to safeguard the teacher's benefiting by her own practice of the teaching art. Only right practice makes perfect. Practice along wrong lines makes increasingly imperfect.



The supervisor also helps the teacher to correct deficiencies of preliminary preparation through the acquisition of ideas or theory so that she may be more than an efficient machine. The supervisor sees to it that the teacher in-service learns (1) how to adapt her instruction to differing individualities among her pupils and (2) how to select among new possibilities that arise.

The scope of supervision is determined by the range of the teacher's function. Whatever the aims of education demand that the teacher shall do and be for her pupils, that the nature of supervision demands shall be done and done more richly, more fully, more effectively, because of supervision than would be the case were the teacher standing and working alone, without the counsel, the inspiration, the stimulation, the fellowship of the supervisor.

It seems pertinent here to warn against too great specialization and limitation of the supervisory function. Is it not possible, indeed highly probable, that playground activities, the lunch period, and the type of art instruction to which children may be exposed are important school experiences of children, full of educational possibility but in great need of supervisory assistance if they are to be made profitable?

It is a grave mistake to focus the supervisor's attention too narrowly upon those fields for which we have at present objective standards of measurement or to limit teacher or supervisor to the school experiences of children alone as means for educating them.

The supervisor helps the teacher properly to evaluate her own work, both for its weakness and its strength; serves as a means of contact with, and consequent suggestion from, others concerned with similar problems, and indeed is one important contact and one rich source of suggestion. Most important is the realization, by teacher and supervisor, that the teacher's class with every child in it, is their mutual problem; that they two stand together in interest and in responsibility, and that failure or success is theirs mutually and not either's alone.

This, as I understand it, is the twentieth century conception of supervision. It has evolved from inspection, which in the earlier days included visitation of schools and examination of teachers and pupils.

Numerous statements may to-day be found in the literature of rural school supervision which emphasize this modern distinction between supervision and inspection, from which it has evolved. As early as 1913, in a Massachusetts State bulletin on Supervision of Teaching in Rural Elementary Schools, it is very clearly expressed:

To train teachers in service the superintendent must be more than a school inspector. As an inspector he views the work, and out of his wider knowledge, pronounces it excellent, fair, or poor. Inspection does not, however, carry with it the idea of showing the teacher how to improve. A school inspector



may condemn the poor teacher and recommend her removal. With adequate funds at his disposal he may hire a few superior teachers. He does not, however, make the average teacher more efficient.

Five years later, in a Maryland bulletin on Supervision of Rural Schools in that State, W. J. Halloway made a statement which even more completely expresses the conception of supervision which this paper is designed to present:

The whole purpose of supervision work is to so deal with the situation which the supervisor finds as to get the maximum results in the way of improvement. To criticize, to inspect, is not the aim. Inspection is not only not supervision, but may interfere with it. The main purpose is to get the teacher beyond where she is; not primarily to get rid of her, but to find out where her strength lies and to build it up.

After inspection—or observation—must come evaluation, diagnosis. The supervisor must be equipped with a wide range of standards, some *objective*, such as are afforded by age-grade norms and the standards of performance in various mental tests; and others, more *subjective*, in the form of educational principles and ideals, general concepts drawn from theory and experience as to how children ought to think, play, work, or otherwise react to their environment. Comparing the situation as it is with what he conceives it should be, the supervisor makes his diagnosis as to its strength and weakness, where it is deficient, and where it is wholesomely growing and needs only encouragement and stimulation for further growth.

From all of this it should appear that the essential qualifications for a good supervisor are high. They include knowledge of principles and methods of good teaching, as well as skill in that field. The ability to analyze and diagnose instruction is also essential. In addition to these, it is highly important that the supervisor be able to inspire teachers with a real "calling" for their work. It is inspiration which develops interest, enthusiasm, the will to do. Woodworth has described the human mind as consisting of a mechanism and a drive, an inner drive. Inspiration is essential to the development of the "inner drive" in the teacher, the self-activity and growth impulses on her part without which the whole mechanism of knowledge and skills will stand idle and unused. Out of the heart are the issues of life. The greatest single need of education to-day is for teachers whose heart is in their work, and for supervisors who can cause them to put it there.

## RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF A STATE SUPERVISOR

HATTIE S. PARROTT

*Assistant State Supervisor of Rural Schools, North Carolina*

*Purposes of supervision.*—Purposes of supervision are to increase the quantity and improve the quality of classroom instruction; to



promote oneness of purpose and unity of effort among the teachers and principals in the county-wide system; to make the schools of the county responsive to the physical, social, and recreational needs of the pupils; to make the large consolidated rural schools more responsive to the social, recreational, intellectual, and economic life of the community.

*Means used.*—The means used by the State department of education to carry out these purposes are: (1) Adequately equipped county rural school supervisors; (2) annual conferences of State and county supervisors and county superintendents; (3) county-wide plans of supervision; (4) visits to rural schools, followed by conferences on the work seen; and (5) monthly and occasional bulletins reporting on work done and experiences in the field.

*Employment of well-prepared supervisors.*—The State encourages the employment of well-trained rural supervisors first, by certifying only supervisors who have taught at least three years and are graduates of an approved college with an additional professional course at a six weeks' approved summer school; and second, by paying one-half the annual net salary of such supervisors. The school law requires that the State superintendent of public instruction approve the duties assigned supervisors by county superintendents before any part of the salary is paid.

*Assisting county supervisors to formulate supervisory plans.*—State supervisors assist county supervisors through correspondence, individual and group conferences, and school visiting to initiate and carry on definite programs of work adapted to the county's educational conditions and needs.

A well organized county-wide plan of supervision includes the following: A brief and general county-wide survey; a county-wide annual conference of teachers and other educational workers; directive supervision with rural-school principals; the use of intelligence and achievement tests, accompanied by a comparative study of the results, and the formulation of remedial measures; adaptation of the State course of study to the needs of pupils; group teachers' meetings held on school days at each group center school; group and county contests; conferences of the county supervisor with the county superintendent and school committeemen.

*A county-wide survey.*—County-wide surveys include study of the topography, the location of the schools, and the approximate location of all "standard" schools needed when a county-wide plan of consolidation has been adequately worked out. Schools are selected to be group center or demonstration schools located at or near the strategic sites on which standard schools are to be built.



The county supervisor plans to concentrate most of her time at these group center schools to the end that they may become object lessons for all the small schools grouped about them.

*The annual conference.*—A two or three day conference is held during the week previous to the opening of schools in the fall. During the first two days the program centers around the immediate professional needs of teachers and the objectives in educational policies for the year. On the third day various county officers and people interested in an educational campaign participate, including the county board of commissioners, the superintendent of public welfare, the farm demonstration agent, the home demonstration agent, and editors of county papers. Each of these has an opportunity to tell his plans; to hear those of others; and to learn how he can best cooperate. The incompetent school committeeman, listening to the more progressive committeeman, gets a new idea of his own educational duties and opportunities and returns to his community determined to give a higher type of service. The editors learn about the teachers' problems, educational needs, and policies, and the vital contribution county papers may make to the improvement of education. The rural supervisor establishes contacts with other county workers and wins their intelligent and whole-hearted cooperation.

*Directive supervision with rural-school principals.*—During the present school year county superintendents and State and county supervisors are holding group and individual conferences with principals untrained for supervision; directing them in the following supervisory responsibilities: More scientific procedure in grouping and classifying pupils by using standardized tests; studying results of tests with teachers to improve classroom conditions and teaching methods; observing the classroom work in order that they may supervise and direct the grade work more efficiently.

*Supervisory uses of intelligence and achievement tests.*—Through the use of intelligence and achievement tests pupils are grouped homogeneously, the needs of individual pupils are studied, and basic remedial measures established. The course of study can be more intelligently adapted to meet the needs of the homogeneous groups.

*Group teachers' meetings.*—Two or three times each year a meeting is held at each group center school attended by teachers of the center school and those of the surrounding small affiliated schools. The supervisor arranges the program.

The teachers in attendance observe demonstration classes, see fellow teachers teaching the same subjects they teach; using the same textbooks; attacking the same problems in school organization, class management, gradation and classification of pupils which they face;



and demonstrating methods and principles outlined in the professional book which all the teachers present are required to study prior to the meeting. In the afternoon the supervisor conducts a round-table conference on the teaching observed in the forenoon; leads the teachers to analyze the class exercises taught and methods employed by the teacher demonstrators; works out with the teachers effective lesson plans or methods of teaching the subjects considered; and leads the teachers to see how they can apply these methods to their own school work.

*The group center and county contests.*—The group contest, like the group teachers' meeting, reenforces the county-wide plan of superintendent and supervisor for larger units of school consolidation by bringing pupils and adults together for pupil contests and social acquaintance and cooperation. Winners from each group contest come to the county contest to compete in subject-matter and athletic contests with the winners from all the group center contests held in the county. The winners in the county contests are the recognized champions in the particular lines in which they excel.

The county contest provides an opportunity for the leading men and women of the various communities to mingle together to witness the friendly competition of the children from the entire county. It develops a county-wide educational interest; quickens their sense of need for equality of educational opportunity; and causes thinking in terms of the county itself as the only adequate and fair unit of consolidation, school building, and school maintenance.

*Group conferences of county superintendent, rural-school supervisor, and school committeemen.*—These conferences are held at each central school in the county after the schools close. The committeemen from the various schools meet with the county superintendent and with him make out their financial budget, determine the salaries to be paid, the length of school term, the rate of local tax levy needed, and the county tax rate they will urge the county commissioners to levy for the following year. The rural-school supervisor demonstrates to the committeemen, by means of charts and tabulations upon the blackboard, the educational needs of the children as revealed by intelligence and achievement tests. This presentation of actual facts which the committeemen can not combat often serves as an eye opener to them. They become more amenable to argument and persuasion for longer terms, better salaries, and larger and more efficient schools formed by the consolidation of their small schools. The county supervisor assists also in the selection of successful teachers for reappointment.

*Joint conferences.*—Joint annual conferences of rural-school supervisors and their county superintendents with the State rural supervisors are held for three days in June. The purposes are to discuss



in round-table fashion (1) the supervisors' program of work for the coming year; (2) suggestions proposed for improving classroom instruction; (3) particular and vital problems affecting achievement of supervisors and superintendents; (4) the time budget of the supervisor and superintendent.

*Visiting and working with the rural-school supervisor in the field.*—The State supervisor attends and takes part in the county-wide annual educational conference, group center and county-wide teachers' meeting, and visits classrooms with rural supervisors, observes the teaching and prepares a written diagnosis of the lessons observed, with suggestions for remedial work. This diagnosis is a basis for planning to improve the teaching seen.

The State supervisor aids the rural supervisor in planning supervisory programs and in evaluating their effectiveness; she notes the most important accomplishments and suggests changes leading to more efficient work, encourages rural supervisors in experimentation; and recognizes individual initiative as expressed in the development of the county-wide plan of supervision.

*Bulletins.*—The State department of education issues monthly and occasional bulletins. The monthly bulletins give summaries of the statistics from the reports of the 26 rural-school supervisors, progress reports of outstanding accomplishments, and make appreciative and constructive suggestions. Occasional bulletins include treatments of the following topics: Improving the teaching of language, improving the teaching of history, remedial instruction, teachers' conferences, music memory contests, pupils' reading circles, and the like. A recent research bulletin reports the results of a study to demonstrate the value of efficient rural supervision.

## RURAL-SCHOOL SUPERVISION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE COUNTY SUPERVISOR

CORA PEARSON

*Supervisor of Elementary Schools, Montgomery County, Ala.*

The principles of supervision are the same everywhere, but varying conditions and needs demand varying adjustments and procedures. The first step in beginning supervision is to know just what others have thought and done on the subject, to lay up knowledge and ideals on which to draw, to become saturated with the subject, and to have principles and standards on which to depend when facing the real situation. Ideals will be constantly changing and yet the greatest changes will be in adjustments and not in standards.

*Inspection necessary as a preliminary to supervision.*—Just as the physician can not treat his patient until he knows his condition, so



the supervisor can not help a teacher until she has diagnosed the situation. This first work must be inspection, but not of the kind which teachers dread. Among the things which a supervisor needs to understand are administrative and physical conditions under which work is done. Some of this information can be obtained from office records, some of it only from observation.

*Community and social conditions.*—The supervisor should understand community conditions which form the background for each school. This is very important when there are distinct geographical divisions or children from homes with widely different cultural environment. Often another adjustment has to be made from the standpoint of social conditions.

*First aid to teachers.*—The supervisor's first visit is largely for the sake of finding the outstanding problems. The teacher is the main factor, and this first visit must not be a matter of diagnosing the situation only. It is highly desirable that the teacher feel that she has got something from the very first visit which will help her. Some kind of contact should be established which leaves her with a good attitude. Many teachers need help on the daily schedule, in classification and grouping of children, or in organization. A friendly word about how the teacher is situated as to living arrangements helps to dispel the lonely feeling which often comes with the first few days.

*The relationship between supervisor and teachers.*—The relationship between a supervisor and her teachers must be good, if the two are to accomplish anything in working together. The dread which often makes a wall between the two must be broken down. This is done by the friendly word and attitude, but more by the fact that the teacher realizes that the supervisor knows her problems, has experienced the same kind herself, and can now give the teacher the benefit of what she has learned.

*The building up of an esprit de corps.*—The next step in relationship is that existing among teachers themselves—that spirit of comradeship and teamwork which binds a group together, making for pride and interest in the success of the great piece of work undertaken, and at the same time causing each individual to feel pride in being a part of it. This is built up in intangible and unexplainable ways. This spirit must characterize the official force. There must be mutual interests in the work of each. This is reflected in the group. Undertakings accomplished by the group, the passing on of good things from one school to another, the inspirational side of teachers' meetings, the emphasis on the fact that we are pulling together for certain ends, recognition of both effort and achievement—all of these factors serve to make one feel that he or she can not



afford to be the weak place which causes the break. One potent factor in "spirit" is the leadership of the superintendent.

*Helping the individual teacher to fit into her situation.*—The untrained, inexperienced girl must be given the teaching viewpoint and helped to find herself in a situation different from any which she has yet experienced. Sometimes I find her in tears, conscious that she has not yet mastered the situation, sometimes unconscious that the children are *controlling* her instead of *following* her. It is difficult to know what to do. Individual differences must be taken into account, and the supervisor must find her way. There is danger of giving one so much at a time like this that it all seems a mountain impossible to climb, but by taking one or two things and making these clear, the inexperienced teacher gets a beginning, gains confidence, and finally finds herself.

A problem of a different kind is that of the girl fresh from training school, full of enthusiasm and visions. Her observation and practice have been under favorable conditions. When she faces the real situation she begins to try to put her theories into effect, and not knowing how to adapt them becomes discouraged, many times loses herself and reverts to the ways in which she was taught. The point here is to keep her feet on the ground and her head in the sky.

One teacher in my group had fallen heir to a group of children who had sustained a reputation of being troublesome. She tackled the problem with a determined heart, but found that her tactics were not working. Finding her rather discouraged after a few weeks, I said, "Do you know who your leaders are? Don't you think it would be a good thing to make a study of them and plan to make them your allies?" We talked over some ways in which she could study their interests and turn their leadership to good account in class undertakings. She was soon able to manage the situation and was happy.

Still another situation in which the teacher must be "put on her feet" is when the experienced teacher, proud of her success and reputation, meets a situation in which it appears that she may lose some of the luster which she has gained. This happened recently with one of the best teachers I have. Her class last year had made an unusually fine record; they had led the school and the county in their showing with the tests. They had a good reputation for attitude, industry, and behavior. The new class was as great a contrast as could be found. She said, "I think I'll quit. I'll never be able to do anything with these children; I can not hope to bring them up to the achievements of last year's class, and I will be so unhappy to have them fall below." I said, "Well, now, in the first place, I



believe in you, and, in the second place, the good teacher is measured by what she does with the particular problem which she has to meet." This was sufficient. She threw herself into the situation and soon came to tell me that it was all right. Many different kinds of adjustments have to be made in order to keep things going well. Sometimes a word or a question is all that is necessary. The supervisor must be constantly on the alert to keep conditions as they should be.

*Helping to improve classroom instruction.*—The greatest supervisory problem is that of improving classroom instruction. The teacher must be helped first to know what good instruction is, next to know how to proceed, and finally to know when she has succeeded. The usual agencies through which supervisors accomplish this are schoolroom visits, demonstration work, teachers' meetings of different types, letters and bulletins, and tests, both standard and informal.

Objectives from the standpoint of improvement of instruction vary from year to year according to needs. In the beginning of my work the outstanding need was better work in reading. Speed and interpretation of the children were inferior; the teachers did not know what good reading was. When standard tests had been given, showing the conditions, both teachers and children became interested and enthusiastic to improve. Other subjects treated in the same way were arithmetic and spelling. Gradually the county has been brought to almost normal standing in the three subjects. At present one of our big objectives is improvement in oral and written composition and definite work in appreciation. An effort is being made to connect up literature, music, and pictures more closely and to lay the foundation for a happier, more profitable way of spending leisure time.

*The supervisor must check up on her achievements.*—Just as the business man must check up to know where he stands at the end of the year, and the teacher must find to what extent she has accomplished her objectives, so the supervisor should be able to realize what she has achieved. She should ask herself what the attitude of the teachers and pupils is. Are the teachers more professional and ambitious? Are they seeking to improve by further study? Is the spirit of the children such as that expressed by the boy who said, "We are glad when you come because you are interested in what we are doing." The supervisor may well ask, "Have I raised the level of education in this county and caused the teachers to grow?" If she has, she has not worked in vain.



## II. Teaching Problems

### THE ANALYSIS OF THE RECITATION

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Before a supervisor can rate a teacher, or—what is more important—before a supervisor can help a teacher toward growth and improvement, she must have the facts. Facts about teaching are very hard to get, and the lack of them has handicapped the evaluation and improvement of teaching for generations. We have been handicapped because there has not been time to get the facts; we have not had instruments with which to get them, and until recently supervisors have not been trained to get them.

There are, in the main, two ways to get data on teaching: Through the use of objective tests and through the use of detailed analyses of activities, materials, and supplies. This discussion is confined to the activity and materials analysis.

These analyses vary from very limited specific ones to somewhat generalized outlines.

The first or specific type of activity analysis is an analysis into the most minute, detailed, and specific statements possible of what does happen, what might happen, what could happen, what should happen in a classroom. Similar analyses can be made for items of materials and supplies.

A supervisor will very often examine a piece of teaching not in general but in specific. A teacher may have difficulty with questioning, with discipline, with some of the minute phases of problem solving or drill. In that case we must have an activity analysis focusing attention upon the little specific things that are done or not done by the teacher.<sup>1</sup>

The second or generalized type of activity analysis considers the class work observed under five heads: (a) The lesson as a whole, (b) the data supplied the pupils, (c) the type of lesson used, (d) some strong points to look for, and (e) some weak points to look for.

These instruments (analyses) are designed as guides for the supervisor. They are to be read from to refresh one's mind. The emphasis

<sup>1</sup> Samples of these can be found in Anderson, Barr, and Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work*; in the *Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Society*, Part II; in Burton, *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching*; in Barr and others, *Elementary School Subjects*; and many can be found in the periodical literature from time to time.



is on "having in mind." They may be placed also in the hands of the teacher as an aid to self-analysis and self-improvement. They may be the basis for conference and discussion between supervisor and teacher. They are, of course, not to be carried into the room and checked, but they could be checked immediately after a visit.

They are not instruments of inspection, though they may be so used. They are not as cumbersome as they appear to be. If used constantly and intelligently, they become more or less second nature.

Objection is sometimes raised to the fact that too much analysis kills the spirit or spoils the morale or atmosphere of the room. Spirit, morale, or atmosphere are fine and necessary things, but they are quite susceptible to analysis. It does not do the slightest good to discuss atmosphere unless one knows why the atmosphere is good or bad. Analyzed into its specifics one may then use a situation where the atmosphere is good to improve another situation where it is not so good. The atmospheric supervisor will very often be a kindly and genial soul, popular with his teachers and supervising with little friction. He will not, however, make any appreciable progress in improving the instruction under his charge. The analytical supervisor will do this and at the same time will not unduly crush the spirit of the situation.

### THE DEMONSTRATION LESSON AS AN AGENCY IN SUPERVISION

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This discussion of the demonstration lesson is based upon the activities of the 32 rural school supervisors who work in a variety of situations, from the county with a school term of five months and 80 school buildings, many of the latter with little or no equipment, to the county with a term of nine months and 14 school buildings all well equipped.

*Principles relating to use of demonstration lessons.*—Uniform supervisory procedure throughout the State is not attempted, but certain general principles underlying good supervisory procedure are accepted as governing the work of all supervisors, regardless of their situations. Three of these principles relating to the use of the demonstration lesson as an agency in supervision follow: (1) Demonstrations should be confined to those phases of work included in the objectives set up for the county at the beginning of the year. (2) The supervisor should know the school situations in which the various teachers work. (3) The demonstration should be planned to meet the individual needs of as many teachers as possible.



*Types of demonstration lessons.*—Three types of demonstration lessons used most frequently are:

1. The lesson or group of lessons taught for a group of teachers who are meeting outside the classroom.
2. The lesson taught for the individual teacher by the supervisor during the classroom visit.
3. The lesson or series of lessons taught by a teacher in her own classroom for a group of visitors.

*The lesson taught outside the classroom.*—This lesson is used at initial teachers' meetings or at institutes where limited time and large numbers make the visiting of actual classrooms undesirable. A group of children is brought to the meeting place, and a lesson is taught by the supervisor or a teacher who may or may not be the regular teacher.

This situation may be utilized to show the more mechanical phases of class routine and teaching procedure. Lessons should be taught which do not depend for their success upon their relation to other lessons which the pupils should have mastered but have not. The teacher may demonstrate the initial lessons in reading with beginning pupils, or the first of any series of lessons with pupils of any age. The chief value of demonstration in such a situation is that it furnishes a basis for comparison and discussion during subsequent classroom visits.

*The lesson taught for the individual teacher by the supervisor during the classroom visit.*—This type of demonstration has certain distinct advantages over other types but is often misused. The situation is a fairly natural one (not artificial as in the first type), the only strange factor being the supervisor herself. The opportunity presents itself to meet the immediate needs of the teacher, needs which should not wait until the group meeting or which, being peculiar to one situation, do not justify taking the time of the whole group.

The dangers may be summarized thus: (1) To attempt demonstration before analyzing the situation sufficiently to know what is needed and how to proceed wisely; or having analyzed the situation carefully, attempting a different procedure without first discussing with the teacher the reason for her kind of procedure.

(2) The supervisor may do the trying out which should be left to the teacher, who may be eager to try a new way and capable of doing so. The harmful results of this type of demonstration teaching are:

(a) The supervisor's unfamiliarity with details involved, and so loss of time in preliminaries and in adjustment. The demonstration occupies a longer time than is generally available for the class; hence is of no help.



(b) The teacher may feel that with her limited training she can not attain the skill demonstrated by the supervisor with her extensive training. She does not view the demonstration as a challenge to her best efforts.

(c) The atmosphere is so overstimulated during the supervisor's period of work that there is a decided let down after her departure. The children notice this and sometimes comment on it by wishing that the supervisor "could be our teacher all the time." Needless to say, this kind of reaction works to a teacher's disadvantage.

(3) The supervisor sometimes catches at an excuse for teaching because she feels that she must do something to show her usefulness. The effect of help given indiscriminately is confusion.

Conformity to the following principles will avoid these dangers:

1. The supervisor should be familiar with the procedure the teacher has been using heretofore and should know what the teacher is capable of doing in the way of a better procedure.

2. The teacher and supervisor should come to an understanding as to the reason for teaching the lesson.

3. The supervisor should be familiar with the subject matter involved.

4. The teacher should summarize the procedure at the close of the lesson, stating what she has learned or which features she thinks are worth trying out.

5. The supervisor should demonstrate only when there is no doubt about the advisability of so doing.

*The lesson taught by a teacher in her own classroom for a group of visitors.*—This form of demonstration is an effective supervisory agency because it is prepared for, represents a thought-out procedure, and thus has fewer possible dangers than the preceding type. Most teachers attempt to teach for others only after getting help from several sources. The best as well as the mediocre teacher is stimulated to further growth by this preparation. A teacher in a one-room school was asked to allow 14 other teachers in similar situations to observe her teaching. "No, I can't teach well enough for that," she said. "Do you plan to continue in teaching work?" asked the supervisor. "Yes, of course I do." "And do you plan to study any more to improve your teaching?" "Yes." "Well, this teaching for others who will be glad to discuss your work with you will help you to be a better teacher." "I see. I'll do it if you think I can." Result: The teacher demonstrated good classroom routine and good methods in primary reading, history, and geography.

Among the possibilities of this type of demonstration are:

1. To exemplify details of good management which would confuse the teacher if discussed during a classroom visit. Teachers learn



without embarrassment the advantages of such routine procedures as: (1) Demanding individual instead of concert responses, and (2) having pupils distribute materials instead of doing it themselves.

2. To reach the indifferent teacher without the personal element entering in. The demonstration exercise may help the fairly good teacher to realize the possibilities for improvement in her methods; and may help the mediocre teacher who hesitates to admit her difficulties to change her attitude as she observes another teacher willing to submit her teaching to the criticism of the group.

3. To illustrate desirable relationships between children and teachers. It is difficult to tell young teachers what constitutes desirable attitudes toward pupils; the right teacher can very easily *show* what is meant by desirable attitudes.

The dangers of this type of meeting (which may be offset by careful preparation on the part of the supervisor) are:

1. Too many lessons taught at one meeting, so that the observers are confused and fatigued. The number of lessons taught consecutively depends upon procedure demonstrated. A group might profitably sit through two or three hours of teaching in a one-room school if the goal was to study the following of the daily schedule with the attendant routine, assignment of work, rest periods, and the like. If the object is to study the qualities of a good drill lesson, moving from room to room is profitable. A group of teachers could profitably visit three different rooms observing three different drill lessons, two in arithmetic and one in primary reading.

2. Demonstrations may be too far beyond the resources of the observers. An excellent teacher in a nine months' school gave a socialized lesson in geography in which the pupils used many references, but no basic text, for a group of teachers from five months' schools. It furnished an ideal. But most of the teachers observing had no training beyond high school; their pupils did not know north from south on a map; they had no materials but textbooks. A more practicable demonstration would have shown how to use the available textbooks intelligently.

*Preparation for discussion.*—After the demonstration lessons have been planned, the supervisor must prepare for the discussion. Teachers should recognize good teaching and summarize the principles underlying this teaching so that they can apply them to their own work. A definite guide for observation in the minds of the teachers observing is helpful in summarizing. Observation outlines may be sent to teachers in advance of the meeting or given out at the meeting. At first they should include only a few outstanding features stated so clearly that misinterpretation will be avoided.



A supervisor whose objective was "Improvement in the organization of the recitation" used the following outline:

SUGGESTIONS FOR JUDGING A RECITATION

1. State the problem before the class for solution.
  2. To what extent was this problem an outgrowth of the needs and interests of the pupils?
  3. What provision was made for developing initiative among the pupils?
  4. State the leading questions of the recitation.
  5. Where was the recitation centered: Among the pupils? In the teacher?
  6. List the outstanding points in the organization of the recitation.
- Summary. Was this a good recitation?

1. What evidence was there that the pupils were personally concerned about the solution of the problem?
2. What point in the organization of the recitation did most to insure the success of the lesson: The summary? The assignment?

Another outline prepared for untrained teachers in the observation of drill lessons follows:

1. What was the best feature of each lesson?
2. Why do you think they were best?
3. Is there opportunity for improvement along these same lines?
4. What were other good features of the lessons just observed? Why do you think they were good?
5. Considering the three lessons, what are the qualities of a good drill lesson?

The real value of demonstration lessons is determined by the resultant improvement in classroom procedure. Just as the demonstration lesson should be preceded by a supervisory visit to the classrooms to be represented at the meeting, so it should be followed by supervisory visits for the purpose of (1) learning to what extent the teachers are profiting from the observation and discussion, and (2) discussing with the teachers the next demonstration meeting.

*Summary.*—The most practicable demonstration lesson is that which is taught by a teacher in her own classroom for a group of visitors. There are three important tasks for the supervisor in connection with this demonstration:

1. Visiting each school which is to be represented at the meeting for the purpose of becoming acquainted with needs and resources.
2. Planning carefully for the discussion which is to follow the teaching.
3. Checking the values of the demonstration and getting suggestions for the next meeting by making a second visit to the schools.



## THE VALUE OF A TESTING PROGRAM AS A GUIDE FOR SUPERVISION

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A general testing program should answer the following questions:

1. Which schools are the better?
2. Which pupils are—
  - A. The stronger?
  - B. The weaker?
  - C. Not doing their best?
3. Which grades are the weaker—
  - A. In the schools as a whole?
  - B. In each school?
4. Which subjects are the weaker—
  - A. In the school system?
  - B. In each school?
  - C. For each grade in the system?
  - D. For each grade in the school?
5. Which are the stronger pupils in each subject?
6. Which subjects are more difficult for each pupil?

The question as to which phases or parts of each subject need especial attention either in the system as a whole, in each school, in each grade in the system, in each grade in each school, or for each pupil will have to be answered on the basis of specific diagnostic tests which do not fall within the range of a general testing program; these diagnostic tests should be used only *following* a general testing program as a means of planning remedial measures for general weaknesses brought out in the general testing program.

The accompanying table shows results of a general testing program in two country schools. In this table the first column indicates the pupils by number. Two schools were included—each of them two-teacher schools for white children. There were 22 children tested in one school and 24 in the other. The second column (G) gives the grade placement. The third column (CA) gives chronological age by years. The fourth column (MA) gives the mental age in terms of grade placement. The first pupil, according to his mental age as determined by the Illinois Intelligence Test, should have been half way through the third grade. The column headed RR gives the reading rate according to the Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Test, expressed in terms of the grade.

GRADE SCORES—WHITE SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

## SCHOOL A-2-TEACHER

Pupil No.	G	CA	MA	RR	RC	WM	SR	C	S	P	Ach	Ach MA
1.....	4	10	3.5	3.4	3.8	3.9		4.0	4.3	2.5	3.8	1.1
2.....	4	11	2.33	3.3	2.7	3.3		4.0	2.7	5.0	3.3	1.4
3.....	4	12	2.85	2.6	3.0	3.8		4.0	2.0	3.0	3.0	1.0
4.....	4	9	4.0	2.8	3.5	5.0		4.0	3.3	8.4	4.0	1.0
5.....	4	10	3.2	3.3	3.8			4.0	3.3	2.5	3.3	1.0
6.....	4	13	2.5	2.6	3.3	3.6		4.0	2.0	5.0	3.5	1.4
7.....	4	10	3.67	3.9	3.8	3.9		4.0	3.0	3.0	3.9	1.0
8.....	5	11	2.85	3.2	3.5	4.6		4.0	3.7	5.0	4.0	1.4
9.....	5	13	3.2	10.0	8.8	3.5		4.0	3.7	2.5	4.0	1.3
10.....	5	11	4.5	2.6	3.5	4.4	3.5	4.0	3.7	3.0	3.5	.8
11.....	5	15	4.35	4.2	5.1	4.6	5.5	4.0	5.0	2.5	4.4	1.0
12.....	5	12	5.16	5.7	5.1	5.4		4.0	5.0	3.0	5.1	1.0
13.....	6	12	6.0	4.9	5.7	5.2	3.7	4.0	7.0	8.4	5.1	.9
14.....	6	14	4.65	7.2	4.3	5.2	6.5	4.0	6.0	3.0	4.9	1.0
15.....	6	16	5.0	5.6	5.6	6.4	9.7	4.0	7.5	5.0	6.0	1.2
16.....	6	18	6.75	6.2	4.3	3.9	8.0	4.0	3.0	3.0	4.2	.6
17.....	6	12	3.85	5.5	4.6	6.7	4.0	4.0	7.0	3.0	4.8	1.2
18.....	6	19	3.5	3.4	4.3	5.0	5.9	4.0	4.4	2.5	4.2	1.2
19.....	6	15	4.35	5.5	5.1	3.9		4.0	6.5	3.0	5.1	1.2
20.....	6	13	5.16	4.0	4.6	3.3	5.3	4.0	3.7	5.0	4.2	.8
21.....	7	14	6.5	4.3	6.5	6.7	7.2	4.0	7.0	6.6	6.6	1.0
22.....	7	16	5.0	3.4	4.3	6.4	6.9	4.0	4.4	3.0	4.2	.8

## SCHOOL B-2-TEACHER

1.....	3	8	2.2	5.7	2.7	3.1		4.0	2.7	3.0	3.1	1.4
2.....	3	10	1.85	2.0	2.0	5.0			2.0	2.5	2.2	1.1
3.....	3	9	2.0	2.9	2.0	5.2		4.0	2.7	3.0	2.9	1.4
4.....	3	9	2.5	3.6	2.0	2.8			2.0	2.5	2.6	1.0
5.....	3	7	1.37	8.6	3.3	3.6		4.0	4.3	2.5	8.6	2.0
6.....	4	11	3.85	3.9	3.3	5.4	2.5	4.0	3.7	8.4	4.0	1.0
7.....	5	10	4.0	3.6	3.5	4.6	2.5	4.0	4.8	6.6	3.8	1.0
8.....	5	12	4.35	3.6	3.5	5.4	3.5	4.0	4.4	5.0	3.8	.9
9.....	5	12	3.67	4.6	3.5	6.4	3.5	4.0	2.0	5.0	3.8	1.0
10.....	6	9	6.32	6.2	5.1	5.4	5.7	5.8	6.5	6.6	5.8	.9
11.....	6	11	6.75	4.3	4.6	5.9	5.1	5.8	6.5	5.0	5.4	.8
12.....	6	11	4.5	4.0	4.3	5.2	3.5	4.0	5.1	5.0	4.2	.9
13.....	6	11	4.5	4.8	4.6	5.4	2.5	4.0	3.7	5.0	4.4	1.0
14.....	6	13	7.25	6.2	5.7	6.4	3.5	5.8	8.5	6.6	6.3	.9
15.....	6	11	4.65	4.3	4.6	6.1	3.5	4.0	5.1	6.6	4.5	1.1
16.....	6	11	4.0	3.1	3.8	6.1	3.5	4.0	5.1	5.0	3.9	1.3
17.....	7	12	5.16	3.8	3.8	7.6	9.6	4.0	5.1	3.0	3.9	.8
18.....	7	15	6.0	6.1	7.2	5.6	7.4	4.0	8.5	6.6	6.7	1.1
19.....	7	13	8.25	7.0	9.6	11.1	9.6	5.8	9.0	6.6	8.7	1.0
20.....	7	14	6.5	6.2	5.1	7.0	3.8	5.8	6.0	8.4	6.0	.9
21.....	7	13	5.33	4.0	4.0	5.9	4.5	4.0	9.0	6.6	4.3	.8
22.....	7	14	3.67	6.2	4.3	6.1	2.5	4.0	6.0	3.0	4.4	1.1
23.....	7	16	5.16	5.4	7.2	5.9	6.5	8.8	7.9	12.0	6.9	1.3
24.....	8	16	5.75	3.4	4.6	8.1	7.6	5.8	2.0	12.0	6.4	1.1

The first child in School A, according to his achievement on the Monroe Silent Reading Test, in rate was four-tenths of the way through the third grade. The next column, headed RC, gives reading comprehension according to the same test. The column headed WM gives the results of the Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamental Test, translated into terms of grades. The Illinois Intelligence Test

<sup>1</sup> Tests given during fourth month of school. Allowance was not made for this; therefore pupils are rated in achievement approximately four-tenths of a year in advance of where they should be.



and the Monroe Silent Reading Test publish scores which give the grade placement according to achievement of the children. The Woody-McCall does not do that. However, the grade scores are calculated on the assumption of the unilateral distribution of progress as between grades; that is, the difference between the grade norms for the third grade and the fourth grade was taken, and it was assumed that one-tenth of that difference represented one-tenth of the year's work.

The column headed SR represents the results of the Stone Reasoning Test, given in the fifth grade and above. The column headed C gives the results of the English composition as measured by the Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas scale. The test was applied but did not measure ability below that of the fourth grade. Most of the pupils in each of these schools had an ability which was not great enough to be measured by this scale. The column is included on this sheet as an illustration of the kind of thing to which we should pay relatively little attention, save as indicating a very low standard in general. The column headed S represents the results in spelling as measured by the Buckingham Extension of the Ayers scale; and the column headed P the results in penmanship measured by the Thorndike scale. The column headed Ach gives the average of the achievement in school subjects, stated in terms of grade placement. The column headed Ach/MA gives the quotient obtained by dividing the general achievement by the mental age. In cases where this is 1 it would indicate that the pupil is making the progress which with his intelligence should be expected of him; where the quotient is more than 1, the pupil is making more than satisfactory progress; and where it is less than 1, the pupil is failing to make satisfactory progress.

Returning to the questions which were proposed to be answered, the first one was, "Which schools are the better?" Taking these two schools as the basis of comparison, we find that the median of the final column, achievement over mental age, for School A is 1.05<sup>1</sup> and for School B is 1. There is some question as to the reliability of group intelligence tests as applied to country children. For example, pupil No. 5 in School B shows a mental age which would place him two-thirds of the way through the first grade. His achievement indicates that he is six-tenths of the way through the third grade, or approximately twice as far along in his school subjects as his intelligence would seem to warrant.

According to the measures as we have them, however, this median of achievement over mental age gives a slight preference to School A. According to the column headed Achievement, there are three pupils in School A that are up to the present grade placement, and in

<sup>1</sup> Carrying out the decimal.



School B there are five children who are up to their present grade placement. Between these schools there seems relatively little choice in regard to general ability and progress. Further standards or comparisons can be made, all bringing about the same conclusion. For example, the median pupil in achievement in School A is nine-tenths of a grade below the grade in which he is now placed. The median is the same in School B. Again, School A has only one pupil who is two years behind; School B has four pupils who are two years behind. The one case in School A is a 16-year-old child in the seventh grade, and it is entirely possible that it would be justifiable to promote an overage child to a point where he could receive a little more benefit in the short time he will remain in school. In School B none of the children were seriously overage. That would give a slight advantage to School A in regard to grading. Again, in School A no children have achievement materially ahead of their grade placement. No. 12 has one-tenth of a grade more than his placement at the beginning of the year, but, since the test was made in November, while the school started in September, it is obvious that, as a matter of fact, he is still slightly behind. In School B four pupils are ahead in achievement, two of them materially ahead. No. 5 is a 7-year-old child in the third grade; No. 19 is a 13-year-old child in the seventh grade who has a mental age placing him one-fourth of the way through the eighth grade and an achievement placing him seven-tenths of the way through eighth grade.

The second question was, "Which pupils are (A) the stronger, (B) the weaker, and (C) not doing their best?" It is supposed that in the column "Achievement over mental age," where we find that the result is less than 1, it is likely that the pupils could do better work than that which they are now doing.—Example, No. 10 in School A. In the two schools there are 12 cases of such weakness. It is suggested that the supervisor should, with the help of the teacher, check up on such factors as physical condition, outside work, attendance, home influence, special interests of the pupil, etc.

The third question was, "Which grades are the weaker (A) in the schools as a whole, (B) in each school?" Using the column Ach, which gives the achievement, we reach an answer to our question by finding for each pupil the acceleration or retardation in regard to grade placement. For example, School A, pupil No. 1, in the fourth grade, has an achievement in school subjects that would put him eight-tenths of the way through the third grade. He is two-tenths of a grade behind his present placement. His standing would be minus two-tenths. Pupil No. 2 is seven-tenths behind; No. 3 one year; No. 4 exactly right; No. 5 seven-tenths behind; No. 6 five-tenths of a year; and pupil No. 7 is one-tenth of a year below grade. These



seven pupils constitute the entire fourth grade. The measure used for the relative standing of the fourth grade in this case is the sum of these deficiencies divided by 7, the number of pupils in the grade. In School A it is indicated that the fourth grade as a whole is forty-five one-hundredths of a year behind the real placement of the children. The fifth grade, in the same way, is calculated to be eighty one-hundredths of a year below its present rating in the sixth grade the achievement is 1.19 years; and the seventh grade is 1.0 years below. In School B, using the same method, we find that grade 3 is twelve one-hundredths of a year behind; grade 4 at standard; grade 5 is one year and two-tenths; grade 6 is one year and seven one-hundredths; grade 7 is one year and fifteen one-hundredths; and grade 8 is one year and six-tenths below standard. This process of calculating the degree to which each grade is retarded or accelerated may be followed either for the school system as a whole or for each school separately.

The fourth question was, "Which subjects are the weaker (A) for the school system as a whole, (B) for each school, (C) for each grade in the system, (D) for each grade in each school?"

The procedure for determining the weaker subject is approximately the same for each of these four questions. Taking the last one of the four subheads as an example of the method of procedure and using the sixth grade in School B as an illustration of the point, the procedure is about the same as that which we followed in the previous question, using the arithmetic means of the algebraic sums of retardation and acceleration for each of the subjects. The results show that in the sixth grade of School B the reading rate is 1.37 years below present placement; the reading comprehension is 1.33 years; the Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals in arithmetic is twenty-one one-hundredths of a year below; the results of the Stone Reasoning Test indicate that they are 2.1 years behind; the English composition 1.25 years behind; spelling, one-fifth of a year behind; penmanship, one-third of a year behind. In rank of excellence, then, the sixth grade is best in fundamentals of arithmetic, next best in spelling, next best in penmanship, next best in English composition, next best in reading comprehension, next best in reading rate, and poorest in reasoning in arithmetic.

The fifth question was, "Which pupils are the stronger in each subject?" This is answered by simple inspection to be checked up by teacher's judgment. For example, in the sixth grade of School A there are eight children. Which of these is the best in reading rate? Pupil No. 14 in the school has a reading rate which would place him two-tenths of the way through the seventh grade. In contrast to this, pupil No. 18 has a reading rate which would put



him four-tenths of the way through the third grade. Obviously pupil No. 18 is having difficulty with his reading rate and needs special work.

The next question proposed was, "Which subject is most difficult for each pupil?" This, again, is determined by simple inspection. Taking as an illustration pupil No. 18 in School A, the one who is having difficulty with his reading rate, we find that he is materially behind in all subjects since his median achievement would place him only two-tenths of the way through the fourth grade. The subjects, in order of excellence, for this pupil are Stone Reasoning, Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals, spelling, reading comprehension, English composition (remember that this score does not mean much), reading rate, and penmanship. Apparently pupil No. 18 is better in arithmetic than in any other subject.

After the general testing program has been given, it is very essential that individual diagnostic testing should be done both for individual pupils, to find out their particular difficulties, and for grades that are materially behind, to find out the apparent cause. These diagnostic tests may be either such standardized tests as the Cleveland Survey Test in arithmetic or they may be specific questions prepared by the teachers to determine proficiency in given points. For example, it would be very easy to devise a test which would determine whether a fourth grade knew how to handle ciphers in the answers to examples in long division; whether a fifth-grade class could divide a simple fraction by a simple fraction.

#### ANALYZING THE SCHOOL SITUATION—THE PLAN OF SUPERVISION FOLLOWED IN HALIFAX COUNTY, N. C.

ANNIE M. CHERRY

*Supervisor*

*Classification and curriculum.*—The first step decided upon was to classify pupils according to normal rate of progress, and then adjust the curriculum to the interests and needs of the various groups.

*The use of tests.*—Accordingly, the use of standard tests was begun in December, 1922, by giving the Thorndike-McCall Reading Test, Form 2, in all rural schools from the third through the remaining grades. The results revealed that children were reading slowly and without the desired accuracy of comprehension. There was a wide range of ability both within and among classes. After a study of results of these tests and concentration on remedial work for several months, a more comprehensive testing program was launched in February, 1923, including achievement tests in reading, arithmetic, and spelling, and the National Intelligence Test. All were given throughout the system.



After study and interpretation of the results of this testing program, it was decided to classify pupils on the basis of the tests at the opening of school the following September (1923). Pupils in each grade were grouped into superior, average, and low-average groups for teaching purposes. Diagnosis was made of special difficulties of the individuals in each group and a program of remedial work inaugurated.

The success of this experiment justified an additional testing program in the spring of 1924. The same grades previously tested were again tested, using the Thorndike-McCall Reading Test, Form 3, Woody-McCall Mixed Fundamentals in Arithmetic, Form II, spelling test from the Buckingham Extension of the Ayers scale, and National Intelligence Test, Form II. These tests showed progress in approaching higher class standards and marked improvement among individual children.

Before the close of the schools in the spring of this year it was decided to reclassify and promote pupils on the basis of (1) educational achievement in the fundamental subjects, (2) mental ages as derived from the tests, and (3) the teachers' estimates of their ability and achievement.

*Plan for 1924 and 1925.*—A detailed study of conditions revealed by results of a testing program extending over a two-year period was now made. On the basis of this study definite objectives for accomplishment on which teachers centered their work for the coming year were worked out. These included: (1) Securing better results in reading, arithmetic, and spelling; (2) elimination of the excessive number of over-age pupils; (3) better functioning of special classes.

In the fall of 1924, through group meetings, demonstration lessons, special visits of the supervisor to classes tested, and encouragement of teachers and pupils to improve class and individual scores, the objectives were concentrated upon. Definite remedial work was planned by teachers and supervisors. Mimeographed sheets of suggestions setting forth all possible helps were distributed from the county office to teachers throughout the county. Supplementary readers were made available for schools, and strict check was kept on the situation in the fundamental subjects. This kind of analysis of the children's work led to a more comprehensive study of work from the standpoint of the State course of study. A number of professional books were systematically studied by the teachers.

The problems which confronted the supervisor in regard to the special classes were to decide *what* material was of most value to children in these groups and *how* to obtain this material. A program of work was planned in terms of the individual needs of chil-



dren in the special groups. Elimination and reorganization, as well as supplementation of material, were found necessary.

*Preventive measures.*—The experience of two years of intensive supervision led to the determination to avoid recurrence of the situation encountered at the beginning of the work. Accordingly, it was decided to begin work in classifying children in the first grade, and Pintner-Cunningham Intelligence Test was given to children entering school for the first time and to those repeating the first grade. On the basis of this test the pupils were divided into three groups—fast-moving, slow-moving, and average. The purpose was to establish a rate of progress for each group. No definite changes were made in the content of the course of study, but adjustments to the needs of the children were worked out by the teacher and supervisor.

In March, 1925, tests were again given as an aid to promotion and to measure progress in achievement and general ability and to compare results with previous records. To the tests previously mentioned, which were again given, the following were added: First and second grade, Detroit Word Recognition Test; second grade, Haggerty Primary Reading; third to seventh, Buckingham Reasoning Problems, Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale, Huddleson's Composition Scale. Practically all grades surpassed the scores made the spring before, and the county medians for the subjects tested approached more nearly the national standard.

It seemed the part of wisdom to continue the same promotion scheme initiated the year before. Graphs and tables were made out and posted showing the extent of improvement over the three-year period. In general, there has been continuous growth in the various subjects, although errors presented have not been entirely eliminated; nor have all groups in the county been brought up to the standard for which we had hoped. Yet improvement has been creditable, with steady average gains.

## AN EXPERIMENT IN DIRECTIVE SUPERVISION

ANNE HOLDFORD

County Supervisor, Wake County, N. C.

*Interest in and time for supervision.*—Cubberley, in "The Principal and His School," says that the measure of a principal's interest in supervision is the means he employs to find time to do such work. Our problem was to interest principals in supervision to such an extent that they would make the effort necessary to find time for it.

*The situation.*—In our county of 824 square miles there are 231 elementary teachers in 70 white schools ranging in size from 1 to 25 teachers each. This is the beginning of the fifth year of continuous



supervision in the county. Going to one school each day it would take three months and three weeks to get around. Many of these schools have only a six months' term. This would necessarily mean that the supervisor would come in contact with some of the teachers only once.

*Beginning of the work with the principals.*—We adopted the State plan of group center teachers' meetings by which the county supervisor meets every one of the elementary teachers at least three times a year. The principals of the 11 largest schools in the county at which the meetings were held attended both the demonstration lessons of the morning session and the afternoon discussion. At these meetings many of them observed for the first time a class exercise from start to finish and heard it reconstructed later. In the conference following each meeting principals were asked to see that teachers were working along the lines suggested in the afternoon discussion. Not much was accomplished by this method to interest principals in elementary supervision. They were too "high-school minded" to be much attracted to the details of elementary-school work.

*Making use of high-school conditions to interest principals.*—In the spring of the 1923-24 school year achievement tests in reading, composition, vocabulary, and English forms were given to all high-school pupils in the county. The results graphed showed that the seniors measured by national standards were eighth grade in their achievement, though their rate of progress was normal from the eighth to the eleventh grade. According to the tests the high schools were doing a good job with the material the elementary schools were sending them. The trouble apparently lay in the elementary school.

The county seventh-grade examinations (consisting of achievement tests in reading, composition, arithmetic, and spelling) given in 1924 showed that pupils were being promoted to the high school on a standard of the fourth month of the sixth grade. For a second time the high-school improvement was shown to be dependent upon improved work in the elementary school.

*Result of a conference of high-school teachers and principals with the county superintendent and supervisor.*—The situation was put before the high-school teachers and principals at a county-wide conference, at which they agreed: (1) That a careful diagnosis of the situation in the grades below the seventh should be made in order to determine the causes of this low standard; (2) that remedial measures to overcome the difficulties found must be applied; (3) that there must be an accurate and intelligent checking in each grade from the third through the seventh; and (4) that the standard schools must be equipped so that the work outlined might be done effectively.



*A testing program.*—Early in the fall of 1924 achievement and intelligence tests were given by the supervisor. Principals were requested to see that each teacher inform parents about the standing of their children as shown by the achievement tests and post a graph in her room showing each child just where he stood. After some weeks a second series of tests were given to check progress. Results were discussed with each teacher and with the principal to acquaint him with the situation in each room and with the supervisor's suggestions. Early in the spring the county superintendent advised the principals of the large type schools to use tests as a basis for promotion. Every principal voted to adopt the scheme of promotions by standard achievement tests, teachers' judgment, and mental tests and stood firmly by this decision.

*Plans to enlist more active cooperation from principals.*—The supervisor next decided to limit her activities to directing the work through principals rather than teachers and to put the major part of her time on classifying the pupils in the first and second grades—an important piece of work which had not been done up to this time.

The county superintendent called a meeting of the high-school principals to present the matter to them. He pointed out that, if the high schools were to continue to develop as they should, the principals would have to pay more attention to the elementary-grade work; and that better work in the elementary grades would result in well-prepared pupils in high school, a larger percentage of whom would remain until they were graduated. Conferences were held by principals with the county superintendent and supervisor devoted to elementary-grade work. Under the leadership of the supervisor a definite program for improving the work of grades three to seven was inaugurated.

*The 1925-26 program.*—This program agreed upon follows: (1) To check with teachers the classification of every pupil as shown by record sheet; (2) to hold meeting with teachers to determine how to meet the specific needs of each conditioned pupil as shown by spring test papers; (3) to administer achievement tests during third week of school to (a) all conditioned pupils, (b) all pupils entering from schools other than standard elementary, (c) all pupils entering third grade; (4) to direct teachers in the correcting, scoring, and recording of the results of standard tests given; (5) to assist teachers to classify pupils on basis of test results; (6) to prepare and post in each room by the first week of the second month a chart showing the standing of each pupil on the last standard test; (7) to acquaint parents with the standing of their children as shown on the chart; (8) to promote the greatest possible progress of each pupil in grades three to seven; (9) to give mid-term tests, score, tabulate, and chart



results, regrouping pupils where necessary and informing parents of the progress made by their children; (10) to give tests near end of term for promotion.

*Principals agree to study time allotment.*—To help principals find time for all these duties the county superintendent is conducting a study of the amount of time devoted to each of his various duties by the principal. Discussion of the results of the time distribution study and the working out of a time budget to fit the needs of each individual principal will follow. This, it is hoped, will reduce the amount of time given to relatively unimportant matters and lead to a better time distribution.

*Helping principals through demonstration lessons.*—To carry the work a step further the forenoon program of the next all-day meeting devoted a 30-minute period to discussion led by the supervisor as to what to look for in two-class exercises by a first and a third-grade class in arithmetic which were conducted for demonstration.

During the afternoon period a primary teacher discussed the attitude of the teachers as a whole toward the supervisory activities of their principal. A discussion period followed in which principals asked such questions as: (1) "What can I do when I observe a good teacher like Mrs. S. who knows more about teaching fourth grade arithmetic than I do?" (2) "What shall I do with two 16-year-old pupils who came into my school from a small school and say they are in the fourth grade but the tests show them to be second grade in ability?" (3) "When our next series of tests are given in mid-term will the supervisor help us decide on those pupils who need reclassification? I feel that this is one of the most important and difficult things we have to do."

*Results of the Wake County experiment.*—Principals have carried out the supervisory programs outlined and are developing initiative. The teachers have done the work, but the principals have directed it. Instead of sending for the supervisor to settle minor points, they seek an opportunity to talk matters over with her and then work them out with the teachers themselves. We are developing a county-wide plan of directive supervision whereby well trained and capable principals in our larger rural consolidated schools may direct and supervise the work of both the elementary and high-school grades in their schools.



### III. The Value of Supervisory Plans and Programs

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One of the chief defects in the past has been that supervisors have not made definite programs nor set up objectives or goals toward which to work. This has resulted in much vague and ill-directed effort. While much good work has been done, it has been limited narrowly to classroom supervision and has not attacked any broad general problems.

Planning is a fundamental principle of supervision. Mr. John M. Foote, of the State Department of Louisiana, said, "A supervisor without a program has no point of departure and no destination." Dr. F. G. Bonser, of Teachers College, said that it is impossible to estimate the worth of supervision unless there is a program definite enough to measure. A carefully planned program is an essential in any scheme of supervision. Superintendents, supervisors, and building principals should construct such plans.

Several reasons may be given:

1. A planned program insures that the supervisor has thought his situation through, analyzed it, and selected for attention weak spots or new needs.
2. It insures a definite program of professional activity directed toward the achievement of certain definite objectives. It tends thus to displace mere routine visitation and inspection, vague and general supervision.
3. It is a source of professional stimulation to all concerned.
4. It gives the administrative officers, the school board, or other lay observers definite ideas of the work attempted and a basis for judging and evaluating supervision.
5. Making a good program tests the ability of the supervisory staff.
6. Definite programs constructed by all supervisors make for easier coordination of their work.

Despite the theoretical support for the principle that planning is a fundamental of supervision, it is not carried out in practice as it might be. A survey of programs planned for 259 cities and counties throughout the country recently conducted indicates (1) that super-

vision is planned in less than 50 per cent of the cases; and (2) that some of the best supervisory programs come from rural sources.<sup>1</sup>

From the above and other sources<sup>2</sup> it would seem that the essentials in planning are that the supervisor or principal or a department of supervisors and teachers should survey their situation, discovering by analysis the objectives of their work and planning carefully an attack upon each of them. Attention should also be given to the matter of checking the program as it progresses and at the end of a unit of time.

Good supervisory programs will possess the three following elements:

1. A set of clearly stated definite objectives.
2. A clear-cut outline of the means, devices, and procedures to be utilized in the attainment of the objectives.
3. A clear-cut outline of the criteria, checks, or tests to be applied to the results of supervision in order to determine the success or failure of the program.

Some necessary steps in constructing supervisory programs are the following:

1. Study or survey the situation by any means available and fitting, in order to determine the needs of the system or building.
2. Construct a total list of needs, problems, defects, or new departures which might be made into definite objectives.
3. Select from this list a small number of these problems and state them definitely as the objectives for the term or year.
4. Outline for each objective the specific and detailed procedures which will be utilized in achieving the ends sought.
5. Outline clearly the criteria, tests, or checks which can be fairly used to determine the success or failure of the plan at the close of the period of its operation.
6. Publish this plan in printed or mimeographed form. Place it in the hands of teachers, supervisors, principals, and, if necessary, devote a general meeting to explanation and discussion. (The amount of teacher participation used in constructing the original plan will determine in some measure the course to be followed here.)
7. Provide for flexibility.

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<sup>1</sup> Chapter IV, "Supervision: A General Volume," A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, D. Appleton & Co.

<sup>2</sup> Pittman, "The Worth of School Supervision." Foote, J. M., "School Supervision," Journal of Rural Education, May, 1922.



## IV. Intelligent Use of the Textbook

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*Significant part played by texts.*—Practice current in rural schools seems to justify revising the old dictum, "As is the teacher, so is the school" to read "As is the textbook, so is the school," for textbook assignment page after page and textbook recitation page after page make up in large measure the daily round of the school activities. There is small chance that the average rural teacher with many duties, relatively limited background and professional preparation, can dispense with a textbook; yet something can be done to secure a more intelligent use of this valuable teaching instrument.

*What intelligence is.*—It is important that we have a usable idea of what intelligence is and how it works. Intelligence means effective adaptation of means and ends. Note the word "and" is used in place of "to." This difference is significant. An illustration: The intelligent farmer planted corn in the South when the boll weevil was rampant and uncontrolled. He does not raise corn on buckwheat land nor practice intensive farming on the New England hills. He varies his treatment of the soil as the seasons change. He takes account of the factors conditioning his work, such as soil, temperature, rainfall, market facilities, the presence or absence of insect pests, the demands of various crops and animals, and his own resources in ability, interest, strength, time, and money. Through a study of all these factors and a consideration of his own appropriate reaction, he lays out a *plan* to secure results. In contrast to this, the unintelligent, ineffective farmer follows a course determined without reference to the facts in the case. An intelligent worker considers the facts in making his original plan and changes his plan as conditions at any time vary from those at first anticipated. Intelligent action means action continually modified in keeping with changing conditions. Supervisors and teachers have certain things to do, certain resources with which to do them, and certain obstacles with which to contend. To the extent that *all* these are considered in determining action, supervisors and teachers are intelligent. Anything that arbitrarily fixes ends or dictates the use of means and resources obstructs the action of intelligence.

*Growth activity of the child and the means available in its stimulation.*—Education to-day aims to promote child growth, to enrich



the child's life with meaning, to develop his potential abilities that he may be happy, and society well and abundantly served. The quality and range of these abilities vary with the individual. Each is unique. Society, democratic and progressive, has no one pattern; so there is room for all. The child, on the other hand, is innately social. The resources, opportunities, and responsibilities of associated living are sources of his growth, and between these and him there is constant interaction. During these interactions the available means and accompanying conditions continually vary.

The textbook is only one of the means to be used in this process of growth activity whose ends or purposes are as constantly changing as are the child and his world, both physical and social. It should be variously used as the purposes and other means vary. Intelligent use of the textbook implies that at the time the child uses it he has in mind certain consequences or outcomes and sees the relation of the content of the textbook to his purpose and plan. To suppose that intelligent use is uniform use is to misconceive the basic nature and function of intelligence.

*Intelligence in adults and children.*—Dewey says, "A man is stupid, blind, or unintelligent—lacking in mind—just in the degree in which in any activity he does not know what he is about; namely, the probable consequences of his acts." (*Democracy and Education*, p. 120-1.) If the child is to grow adequately in his power to live *intelligently*, he must so live during his 8 or 12 years of schooling. The movement to center the attention of educators upon *purposeful* activity and to organize school work under larger problems or activities is an attempt to give the child's intelligence a chance.

*The intelligent use of textbooks.*—A textbook is used intelligently when it is made a means to the attainment of ends. Ends vary and the use of textbooks should vary. If concerned about writing for the school paper, the language book and the dictionary are sources to be used. If contrasting life of the present and colonial times, appropriate chapters in history text render service. If the child is reading history to gratify random healthy curiosity or for the enjoyment of history itself, he may well follow the book from start to finish.

The use of the textbook by the teacher must be judged by similar standards. She should know it as a whole in order to use it with discrimination to meet her own needs and to suggest its specific contributions to the needs of her pupils.

An intelligent use of the textbook by any one teacher, or any group of teachers, will vary with the varying interests of children. It will vary as one group of children differs in ability and heritage from another. A history book in Texas can not be used in the same way



with maximum effectiveness for a migrant rural tenant group, a Mexican group, a group of foreign children, and a group from well-to-do cultured homes. Adaptation of the text on the teacher's part is a mark of intelligence.

The use will vary with the nature of the textbooks. Some arithmetic books are expurgated and practical. Others are not. Some histories have dropped some of war content and pass lightly over dates, names, and details. A speller containing a scientifically selected and graded list of words can be followed religiously, allowing, of course, for the addition of words of immediate interest and those meeting individual needs.

The teacher's use of the textbook must vary also according to other available resources and her mastery of them. The teacher with a single text in geography or hygiene can not be so free from the text, nor secure as much critical comment by the class, as if the school were well equipped with supplementary texts and other reading material. The teacher with no other facilities for teaching elementary science than the book must be judged by a different standard than is the teacher with a well-equipped laboratory. Another factor is the teacher's personal resources. If one has a wealth of experience through reading, travel, social contacts, he need depend less upon the textbook than one who lacks these advantages. Especially is this true if the first teacher is ingenious and resourceful in utilizing resources and the second has little resource and imagination.

An intelligent use of textbooks connotes an adaptation of educational means and educational values so as to realize the most effective working harmony. Intelligent users of textbooks, like intelligent farmers, exhibit practices as varied as the complex forces at work. In the light of the foregoing discussion *uniformity* of actual classroom practice within a State or system stands condemned.

*Some causes responsible for misuse of texts.*—In a recent State educational meeting a group of teachers spent a large amount of time reporting upon the topic "How I get my children ready for the examinations." In this and some other States state-wide examination questions and answers over a period of years have been published. In one such State a lesson assignment was observed directly from this book which the children studied instead of the text.

Busy teachers who follow the textbook day after day, those who cull all textbooks used with an eye single to the examination, and those who neglect the textbook for the more concise question and answer books exhibit a practical intelligence for the inflexible goal established by school administrators. The measure of their success is the percentage of pupils who successfully pass an examination calling for a re-citation of the textbook materials. Of course, this



is not what we want. My point is we can not call it *unintelligent* teaching technique. Until we modify the values toward which the school is to strive, until we create a situation in which the teacher is free to use her intelligence for worthy ends, until we free her mind from ingrained standards and practices, until we provide resources both within the school and within the teacher herself, we can not justly hope for ideal use of textbooks.

*Responsibility of supervisors and administrators.*—"Intelligent" supervision and leadership would not seek an equal independence of the textbook by all teachers. The best thing that many teachers can do for their children, considering their own limited resources, training, and insight, is to stick closely to the book. For these teachers the most we can hope to do is to provide them with a *good* text or two. For a few the coercive and specifying examination may be quite necessary. Others can profitably utilize a greater freedom, varying in degree from the "book teacher" to the teacher to whom any text is merely one of many sources of enriching experiences for children. The pity is that so many teachers are working on such a low level and are confirmed if not confined in their present practice by the conditions surrounding them.

*Changes in examinations, textbooks, and standards demanded.*—Some change should be wrought in examinations before we can expect more "intelligent" use of textbooks. The State seems too large a unit for examination. If the teacher herself does not frame the questions, then the building principal, the helping teacher or supervisor, or the county superintendent should. The responsibility for deciding on success and promotions can not be any further removed without great educational sacrifice. The practice of securing the cooperation of teachers in the forming of examination questions and in proposing standards for promotion should be further developed and should become far more common.

We need to set up before teacher and child additional, if not different, standards if we expect a more intelligent use of the textbook. We must stress qualities more closely related to intelligence and character. Here our ideas are vague. Our achievements along these lines, compared with the fairly defined minimum essentials and standard tests, are small indeed; yet there is promise. We must elevate to a position of first importance the characteristics of intelligent activity on the part of the child.

We must supply better books and provide the teacher with more texts, library books, and reference materials. The teacher with a single textbook in history or geography finds it difficult to do problem teaching.

*The cooperation of teachers in solving their own problems.*—Two problems that would make excellent topics for discussion at teachers'



meetings are: (1) The discussion of educational aims and values in connection with the formulation of yearly or grade objectives and the making of examination questions. (2) The evaluation and selection of textbooks. Teachers should profit greatly in their use of textbooks by a study of proposed criteria for judging books and by developing and applying their own. Teachers should compare the merits credited to books by publishers with their own reactions after careful examination. Supervisors should know what teachers think about the books assigned to them for class use. This kind of study and discussion will secure better textbooks and will foster a more intelligent use of the material now at hand.

To force all the teachers of a State to use the same textbooks does not seem wise. In a State recently surveyed a teacher of Mexican children who heard no English at home complained because the children did not use English outside of school. The reason was plain. The stories in the basal and supplementary readers used did not contain the words, sentences, and phrases used by these children out of school. These Mexican children needed a reading text written specifically for them, one that would incorporate in story form the recurrent expressions of their everyday lives, in order that the English learned might function and become an established skill.

Teachers should be permitted, encouraged, and helped to a greater independence of the text. In accordance with ability they should be stimulated by the supervisor to develop outlines or syllabi for teaching certain topics in history, a continent in geography, or an entire year's work in some subject. Mistakes will be made, of course, but the returns to education as a whole would be of tremendous value.

Another plan for promoting intelligent use of the text is to help teachers make an educational diagnosis of their communities. A teacher who discovers the sanitary practices of her community, the health needs of her boys and girls, the social problems of the local neighborhood, the civic attitudes of the parents, can be led to see that the recitation of textbook material is not doing the children the most good. Above all, the administrative and supervisory force must encourage and build up a spirit of freedom in the teaching force.

The supervisor must constantly remember that an intelligent use is not a uniform use. Just as the intelligent child and intelligent adult make the best adaptation of means and ends, so must the supervisor. Children's needs and abilities, teachers' training, ability, and teaching resources vary. The supervisor, considering the forces at work, must seek in any one instance the best use that this particular teacher can make of the text. In so far as this is not ideal, seek to change the situation.



## V. Problems Concerned with the Course of Study and Its Use

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### SOME EDUCATIONAL TENDENCIES AND THEIR BEARING UPON THE RURAL ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM

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There is special danger in the field of rural education, where many conditions retard educational progress, that those responsible for educational practice may not readily take advantage of the results of educational investigations and educational thinking. For this reason I should like to bring before you *five* of the major tendencies in modern education. They are not inclusive. Neither are they mutually exclusive. They are convenient ways of viewing the present educational situation.

1. Modern education is committed to the principle of profiting by the labors of research workers. The rural schools are not using fully the results of research which apply to this as truly as to other divisions of the educational field. Those responsible for educational leadership must keep in touch with and incorporate in their practice the results of research with subject matter and method. They should see that the time of children is not wasted in learning material found by research workers to be useless or of little value.

2. Modern education is becoming increasingly interested in revising curricula and getting rid of curriculum rubbish. Great improvement has been made in the spelling vocabulary,<sup>1</sup> but the content of even our best spelling books is still undergoing critical study and is sure to be revised. Many topics in arithmetic have been omitted. Simplified examples in the fundamentals, simple and practical problems in the applications of arithmetic, have been substituted for the difficult and technical. Formal and technical grammar has given way to the more practical aspects of language teaching. Emphasis on conventional language errors is giving way to attention to errors of greater functional significance. Hygiene and civics have replaced their more formal counterparts. Names and dates in history are being critically surveyed and discarded in large numbers. Curric-

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<sup>1</sup> See What Words Should Children Be Taught? *Bread. Elementary Sch. Jour.*, Oct.-Nov.-Dec., 1925.



ulum reorganization is engaging the best efforts of trained specialists and deserves the careful study of those directing rural education.

3. There is a growing tendency to make children, not books, the center of educational endeavor. The traditional belief that the teacher's task consists in teaching the book, not the child, practically pushes the latter out of the picture. School work consists all too frequently in the dusty, deadening round of assigning a textbook lesson, followed by study on the part of children, reciting the text, another assignment, and so on. The examination (again upon textbook material) follows and perhaps a formal report card stating that the child made 90 per cent in reading, 75 per cent in arithmetic, 80 per cent in geography, and 85 per cent in "deportment" (whatever that may mean). What does such a report card tell about any child? The teacher has not been noting the things that relate to child character. What effect must this have upon the child? His idea of what is honest, good, and worth while is learned from his associates. For eight years his teacher, his classmates, and his parents, through approval or disapproval, emphasize rate of reading, accuracy in spelling and arithmetic, speed in the fundamentals, accuracy of memory for facts in history and geography. Meanwhile the attributes of worthy character are ignored or at best incidentally touched upon.

If we take as our task teaching children rather than books, we enter a different world. Social virtues and the desirable attributes of child life take precedence over scholastic attainments. A high premium is placed upon sympathy, kindness, honesty, and courtesy. We ask "Is the child developing more initiative? Is he more ingenious and original in solving problems? Does he persist in the face of difficulty? Is he more responsible and trustworthy? Are his interests improving in number, scope, and quality?" We will be concerned with his ability to read, but more so with *what* he voluntarily reads. Reading is a key. The important questions are, "What doors does it unlock? To what does it give the reader access?"

If one is going to teach children, she must know them. Teachers learn subject matter and certain general laws of learning during their period of professional preparation. They learn little of children. In this most important and difficult task of learning to know children they should be guided and helped by a supervisor. Children vary in amount of intelligence, but little provision is made for this in our rural schools. Children vary also in the quality of intelligence and personality. Each child is in a sense unique. For his own maximum development and happiness, and in order that



he may render the greatest social service, education must take account of these inherent differences.

Other differences are due to the nature of the physical and social environment. Many school problems are due to the shortcomings of the community. Health problems are to be found in the health practices of the community. The task of civic education should be determined in part by the civic attitudes and habits of the adults and children outside of school; the nature of the work in literature should depend on the level of the reading done at home. Education is further localized and individualized by the fact that the most effective results are secured by relating the work to the child's interests, voluntary activities, and problems.

A superior State course of study is undoubtedly better for the schools of the State as a whole than the courses we could secure by having every county or village make its own. But a blind following of any course of study ignores the principle that "the master is to teach the children." If we are to teach children instead of books, in making and using the course of study or examination material we face a different situation from that confronting us if subject matter is the main consideration. Achievement in the fundamentals must be taken account of, but this is neither the full, nor the most important, measure of success. The situation demands a thinking teacher, for by this means alone can the necessary adaptations of subject matter to the needs of the children be secured. Administration and supervision that do not foster in the teacher a sense of independence and a feeling of responsibility for using her intelligence are falling far short of the demands made upon them by modern education. They are falling short if they fail to encourage, guide, and assist the teacher to discover children's individual interests and needs and to make necessary adjustments.

4. The nature of the child's mind demands a new type of school. The psychological theory implied in the old type of school and in much of the school work of to-day is that of Herbart. According to the Herbartian theory the child's mind was like a blank tablet of plastic wax upon which impressions were to be made by the teacher which would inherently issue into action. The child was a relatively passive recipient in this process. His task was to be quiet, sit in his seat, learn his lessons, and remember what the teacher—the important, active, and determining factor—said. The teacher or administrator was to select suitable subject matter, organize it properly, prepare the child's mind for it, and present it effectively. The selection was of fundamental importance, but subject matter was selected, not in terms of pupil interests and problems but in terms of the kind of adult one wished to create. We no longer agree with Herbart in theory, but our school practice practically fits Herbart's theory. The



same point of view is expressed in our supervision. We supervise the teacher's activities and not the child's. Our rating scales, with few exceptions, are teacher-rating scales, as if the teacher's conduct were the more important factor.

Dewey holds that the child is a bundle of impulses seeking expression; of purposes stimulating and guiding his activity. Learning is an active, not a passive affair. The school should be a workshop, not a "listening-reading" place. Give the child something to do, not something to learn; if the doing is of such a nature as to demand thinking, learning naturally results. Dewey's interpretation of the child mind is commonly accepted in theory and is surely but slowly finding its way into practice. Children illustrate this conception of learning when they are studying spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, sentence structure, and other characteristics that make for force and clarity in writing in order that their stories for the school paper may be as free as possible from mistakes along these lines and may have a greater effect upon the reader.

The school should be a place where children have the necessary facilities and the freedom to carry out their purposes. Material is available for delving into the simpler laws of physics, chemistry, plant and animal life, and the principles and processes of agriculture. There should be a well-equipped shop for the many forms of industrial arts; materials for art work in color and in clay; and a library that is really an aid to the solution of the many problems that arise. These aids to learning the better schools are getting. All schools should have them. The rural education worker has an advantage, for about the rural school, accessible to the pupils and awaiting the use of the teacher, lies an almost ideal laboratory, rural life itself. Agriculture, home making, play life, community activities, and nature offer abundant problems, abundant activities of an educative sort, abundant facilities if we will only incorporate them into our program of school activities.

5. There is a growing acceptance of the principle that the modern conception of society and of the nature of the child demands a new type of school. The change is our conception of the nature of society, the social nature of the child and the relation of the one to the other, has tremendous significance for education. Education in the past centered its attention too largely upon passing on the accumulated social heritage and upon so transforming the savage, antisocial disposition of the child that he might be a trustworthy guardian of this heritage and an agreeable associate for his fellows. It thought too little of improving and adding to this heritage, of developing the critical intelligence and creative ability of each unique individual. Education has been primarily a conserving and a conservative force. It must become a transforming and creative



one. Given the belief characteristic of all static societies that what is, is sacred, and a belief in an antisocial child, the old idea of education was inescapable. Given a progressive society seeking ever better ways of associated living, given a belief in a unique normally social child, and given a democratic society that respects this uniqueness, then one must arrive at a quite different type of school which we shall designate as the modern school.

In the modern school children are treated as naturally social beings. The free give and take of normal social life, not disciplinary restrictions; furnish the education for social membership. Self-expression and creative work in language, music, dancing, in the fine and industrial arts, are replacing the formalizing and conventionalizing procedure of the older school. Little children are taught to create poems and sing them to music of their own fancy. They are encouraged to express themselves in clay and color rather than to make a copy of some standard product, or to master the technique as a thing apart.

In the so-called content subjects thinking, not learning, is the primary consideration. Thinking is personal, creative. Learning is a means of promoting more accurate and effective thinking. By thinking, men find new and better ways of living together, new and better ways of achieving ends, of carrying out their activities, of finding satisfaction. The social heritage is preserved, for it is extremely useful. But it is used, not merely mastered. This social heritage we now take such pains to pass on is the fruit of creative minds. Some one contributed it. If we really value our social heritage we must seek to add to it. By continuing out-of-date methods of teaching we stultify the very powers that have in the past given us what we now value so highly and seek with such ardor to pass on. Dewey says the mind of man is taken captive by the spirits of previous victories. Changing the figure, we might say that our past methods have killed the goose that laid the golden egg, namely, the creative genius that exists in some degree in every child. To promote and cultivate this to the end that each child may be happier and society better served is the aim of modern education.

### NEXT STEPS IN THE RURAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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We need more curriculum material rather than less. We should have a curriculum of maximum possibilities not minimum essentials, to which the teacher can go for help in subject matter and in methods of procedure in time of need.



A course of study may be bulky without being adapted to teachers' needs. Teachers have a great variety of needs which a course of study should meet, although they go to it for only one prescription at a given time. Compilers often clog courses with useless material because they as well as we are better classifiers than analysts. After analyzing children's needs (with many omissions) and selecting those portions of a course which give what the compilers are certain children will need, they fill in the gaps left to make a perfect system. Thus the completed course contains unusable sections, adding to its length but detracting from its value.

A complete analysis of the needs to be met by a course of study would result in more complete, longer, and more discriminative courses of study than are common to-day. The recent St. Cloud course of study in reading, with 300 pages devoted entirely to one subject, illustrates the tendency to make the course one of maximum possibilities.

*State courses of study helpful to teachers.*—I am one of those who believe in a State course of study constructed by the State department of education, with the help of county superintendents, supervisors, and principals: (1) To direct teachers with little professional preparation. Without the guidance of a course they squander the pupils' time by making no use of it; or waste their time by disproportionate emphasis on some subjects; (2) to help better prepared teachers realize their ideals. The course furnishes organized materials not readily obtainable elsewhere; suggestions and references to valuable materials. Teachers seek in the course of study for details of activities and for better procedures evolved from experience useful in carrying on these activities. Where ability permits, the county might well construct a course supplementary to the State course, based more immediately upon the specific needs of the local environment.

*Limitations of textbooks.*—It is often true that teachers have only textbooks to guide them; such books do not and can not take the place of a course of study. Textbooks unduly emphasize knowledge as an aim. The textbook treatment fails to suggest connections among subjects and among texts. We want an organic child (not a child specialist) brought into contact with all the rich fields of subject matter and acquainted with their interrelations. The use of textbooks to the exclusion of courses of study fails to give us such a child. Textbooks are valuable reference and supplementary materials in working out the units of subject matter comprising the course of study.

Some recent textbooks show marked improvement over those formerly available. They suggest that children use what they have learned in one subject in another subject. They illustrate better organization of knowledge and provide for its acquisition and for



the formation of habits, the increase of skills, and the development of attitudes and appreciations. The use of problem organization, the presentation of definite motives for the stimulus of teachers and pupils, show the improved status of a few recent textbooks.

*Supplementing courses of study and textbooks.*—Teachers and supervisors should get acquainted with and utilize the best courses of study and the best texts. They should supplement and strengthen both courses and texts in the following ways: (1) Acquire a background for constructive work by making a survey of rural children's status, covering their attainments and the contribution of their homes in health practices and ideals, social and civic experiences and attitudes, recreational resources, æsthetic development, progress in using tools of communication and intercourse, and efficiency in daily duties.

(2) Set up some such definite lines along which to work for growth as the following: Choice of food and clothing; ability to make the environment beautiful; appreciation of and tendency to call on expert medical service; equipment for wholesome games and plays for social occasions; ability to use books as tools; standards and skill in daily duties; sense of community pride and responsibility.

(3) Canvass the rural environment for educative experiences to supply recognized needs and to promote further growth. These experiences include opportunities: To develop sanitary ideals and practices in performing chores of dairy or kitchen; to develop vital knowledge concerning the health situation;<sup>2</sup> to awaken scientific interest or develop æsthetic appreciation in nature-study excursions; to stimulate historical inquiry; to arouse the desire for knowing and practicing the social amenities in indoor entertainments and outdoor sports; to develop appreciation of civic responsibility, involving, for example, the reason for the visit of the State dairy inspector to the locality, or appreciation of the good to be derived from bonding the district for a new schoolhouse, with an understanding of what this means, how it is done, and how the debt is to be paid off.

(4) Canvass the educative possibilities of school life. Children through school enrich their own lives in the following ways: By acquiring habits of order, cleanliness, and industry in school behavior and through the school housekeeping; by learning the principles of nutrition, hygienic practices, and cost estimates, as in the preparation and serving of a school lunch; by improving their work in English through participation in programs and entertainments which cultivate and elevate their tastes; by acquiring social attitudes in the use of books, games, music, and conversation; by augmenting their skill in written composition through the ordering of supplies, writing for bulletins, requesting a new stove from the

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<sup>2</sup> See Collings—An experiment with a project curriculum.



parent-teacher association, or formulating plans for spending the library fund; by developing initiative through planning remedial measures for deficiencies revealed by the use of standard tests; by learning to work with and for other people through planning for school fairs and county commencements.

(5) Accumulate curriculum materials relating to potential problems and projects, the solution of which involves a supply of appropriate materials in hand. Among commendable types of readiness are: Essential information, suggestive plans, etc., for ready reference; a growing mass of practical experiences evaluated and selected; practicable and profitable activities for primary and preprimary children; specifics for remedial work (in the form of commercial practice exercises where possible); the gradual acquisition of a set of books of special use to the teacher collecting them; school lunch equipment, sewing, and other materials for constructive activities.

(6) Collect suggestions from pupils to incorporate into a growing list of potential experiences of the neighborhood and school with materials for realizing them. In the study of where rocks come from or how to make a bird shelter, and in similar experiences, pupils profit much from preparation on the part of the teacher.

After checking up the minimum essentials covered in (1) to (6) the teacher should: Provide for other necessary subject matter not included by (1) organizing their content into problem units which require extensive reference, in investigation of which pupils get away from following any one text or any combination of texts; (2) compiling lists of potential needs, uses, or applications of all skills in arithmetic, English, etc. This checking, organizing, compiling, and rejecting enables a teacher to eliminate all useless material. It cannot be done once for all. Constant evaluation and revision of lists and extension of compiled materials is necessary.

*Primary children need special consideration.*—Use of the newer types of activity for primary children in rural schools must provide—(1) A definite time for such activities on the program; (2) a plan of grouping grades and subjects, and of combining classes and alternating the work by years; (3) a definite time for noisy activities for all, and for quiet activities for all. In the past teachers have forgotten this and their demand for quiet activities all the time has resulted in "screwed-down" children, a far greater calamity than screwed-down desks. Grant freedom and privileges and train children to use them. Schools must provide space for activities other than those in which children sitting at their seats can engage.



*The supervisor's responsibility for curriculum reorganization.*— In formulating the program for this newer type of work and in securing official recognition for it the supervisor shows her leadership. By applying criteria and by setting up yearly goals in modern lines as well as in the formal achievement in the three R's, the supervisor launches new types of activity and makes their contributions permanent.

Timid teachers and supervisors may fear community disapproval. This is generally less real than imagined. Take the community into your confidence and explain how the members may help. Insure that the children find newer experiences satisfying. In addition, do well the fundamentals that we all know should be well done, such as the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic.



## VI. Equitable Distribution of the Supervisor's Time

### A STUDY OF THE TIME DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISORS

ORA DEVERB

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*The study.*—The purpose of this study was to determine how the typical rural elementary school supervisor distributes her time among her various duties.

Contact was established with supervisors at work in the rural elementary schools of 10 of the 33 States having rural school supervision. In response to questionnaires furnished them, 59 of these supervisors, representing a widely distributed group, submitted a series of daily reports ranging from 6 to 27 days. Each report gave a time analysis of the working day.

A study of these reports was made and the findings were compared with the consensus of expert opinion obtained, by questionnaire, from 38 persons who are considered to be experts in the field of supervision.

*A typical day used for activities other than visiting schools.*—Table 1 shows the time used in the principal activities of the supervisor on days given to duties other than visiting schools. The table reads: "The typical supervisor gives from 0 to 6 hours 6 minutes, or an average of 41 minutes per day, to correspondence on days assigned to office work and activities other than visiting schools." The "highest," "lowest," and "median" are given to each activity on the basis of one day's time. The total of these medians can not be accepted for the length of a typical working day because a number of these activities did not appear on every day used for activities other than visiting the schools.

The actual length of the average working day given to activities other than visiting the schools was found to be 7 hours 11 minutes, or 25 per cent less than that recommended by expert opinion.



TABLE 1.—A day on which schools are not visited

Activities	Highest	Lowest	Median
	H. m.	H. m.	H. m.
Correspondence.....	6 6	0 0	0 41
Professional reading.....	2 3	0 0	18
Planning visits to school.....	2 55	0 0	412
Collecting material and planning demonstrations.....	1 37	0 0	12
Interpreting teachers' reports.....	3 57	0 0	20
Preparing materials for teachers' helps.....	5 30	0 0	40
Keeping records in office.....	2 22	0 0	19
Personal conferences with teachers.....	2 33	0 0	28
Special group conferences.....	1 7	0 0	0
Conferences with parents and citizens.....	1 30	0 0	9
Planning and preparing for teachers' meetings.....	3 0	0 0	5
Attending teachers' scheduled meetings.....	3 18	0 0	33
Attending special or public programs.....	4 17	0 0	0
Miscellaneous activities.....	4 33	0 0	4

A typical day spent in visiting schools.—A visiting day in the schools is shown in Table 2. Some of the activities may or may not appear on any specific day. All would seldom appear on the same day. Attention should be given to the broad range between the "highest" and "lowest." The "median" is probably the best distribution to be made of the supervisor's time. The time given to any one of these activities may be more or less than the time given in the "median," as determined by the immediate demands being made upon the supervisor.

TABLE 2.—A day on which schools are visited

Activities	Highest	Lowest	Median
	H. m.	H. m.	H. m.
Travel.....	3 30	0 25	1 40
Routine office work.....	3 30	0 0	53
Observing classroom instruction.....	5 5	5 5	2 12
Demonstrating in the classroom.....	2 49	0 0	27
Holding conferences with school authorities.....	2 20	5 5	55
Holding conferences with parents and citizens.....	1 53	0 0	14
Examining teachers' daily records.....	2 30	0 0	14
Examining teachers' plans, outlines, etc.....	4 5	0 0	11
Rating teachers.....	32	0 0	0
Examining children's work.....	45	0 0	8
Locating available teaching material.....	2 14	0 0	2
Improving physical condition of classrooms.....	4 0	0 0	1
Inspecting for sanitation of schools.....	25	0 0	0
Investigating playgrounds.....	25	0 0	3
Miscellaneous activities (testing pupils, etc.).....	2 35	0 0	13

TABLE 3.—Actual practice compared with expert opinion

Distribution of time	Actual practice	Expert opinion
Days per week visiting schools.....	4.....	3.6.
Days per week in other activities.....	2.....	2.4.
Days used for visiting.....	Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Monday.	Friday, Thursday, Tuesday.
Days used for office work.....	Saturday, Friday.....	Saturday, Mon- day, Friday.
Days used for teachers' meetings.....	Saturday, Friday.....	Saturday, Friday.
Average length supervisor's working day.....	7 hours, 48 minutes.....	9 hours.
Per cent of time in schools, exclusive of travel.....	45.....	40.
Per cent of time in actual classroom work.....	42.....	33.
Per cent of time in general school supervision.....	3.....	7.
Per cent of time in routine office work.....	22.....	20.
Per cent of time in teachers' meetings.....	7.....	8.
Per cent of time in noninstructional activities.....	7.....	17.
Per cent of time in travel.....	19.....	18.



*Conclusion.*—While Table 3 reveals lack of an entire agreement between actual practice and expert opinion in the major items of the distribution of the typical supervisor's time the "present day practice" shows a significant similarity to that of "expert opinion." Since we have supervision in actual practice and have not as yet determined what the time analysis of the rural elementary school supervisor should be, the typical situation given in actual practice may be modified by expert opinion and accepted as a working hypothesis until a more scientific procedure is determined.

### QUESTIONNAIRE STUDY OF ALLOTMENT OF TIME OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERVISORS IN SOUTHEASTERN STATES

REPORT BY ANNIE REYNOLDS

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This study of time distribution is based on reports received in response to questionnaires from the United States Bureau of Education to one State supervisor in each of several Southeastern States. Each was asked to fill one of the questionnaires himself and to distribute copies among representative local supervisors of the State. Replies were received from nine members of State departments of education, of whom five were State rural supervisors; one was a supervisor of colored schools; one of home economics; two of agriculture. Table 1 summarizes the percentage of time devoted to each of several duties by these supervisory officials.

TABLE 1.—*Time distribution of State supervisory officials*

Distribution of time	Highest percent- age	Lowest percent- age	Median percent- age
Visiting schools.....	60	10	50
Traveling.....	25	10	20
Teachers' meetings.....	10	3	5
Community activities.....	10	2	5
Office and clerical work.....	40	5	20
Other work.....	45	5	10

The replies indicate that all State supervisors spend time visiting schools, traveling, assisting with teachers' meetings, and doing office and clerical work. Six of the nine do community work, seven of the nine have "other duties," including in at least two cases attendance at fairs and rallies. One State supervisor working among colored schools devotes 45 per cent of his time to "other activities," including helping in attendance campaigns, building Rosenwald schools, and inspection of buildings. Because of the variation in the fields of service and the small number of supervisors reporting,



Table 1 should be considered only as an indication of present practice among State rural supervisors.

Replies summarized in Table 2 were received from 17 supervisory officers distributed among five States, 14 were county supervisors, one a county superintendent, one a district superintendent, and one an assistant parish superintendent.

TABLE 2.—Time distribution of county supervisors

Distribution of time	Highest percent- age	Lowest percent- age	Median percent- age
Visiting schools.....	78	20	50
Traveling.....	40	1	15
Teachers' meetings.....	20	2	5
Community activities.....	10	0	2
Office and clerical work.....	35	5	15
Other work.....	25	0	0

A comparison of Tables 1 and 2 shows that the median percentage of time devoted to visiting schools and to teachers' meetings coincides exactly for both State and county supervisors; no State supervisor spends so high a percentage and no State supervisor spends so low a percentage of his time traveling as one county supervisor does in each case; however, the median percentage of time spent in traveling is higher for State supervisors. As not all county supervisors do community work and all State supervisors do, the median percentage of time spent in community work is higher for State than for county supervisors, although the highest percentage of time thus spent is the same for both. The highest percentage of time devoted to office and clerical work and the highest median for this activity are found among State supervisors. The lowest percentage is the same for both State and county supervisors.

Of the eight county supervisors devoting a percentage of time to "other work," one specifies planning, outlines, etc., which properly come under the description of office work in the questionnaire; two do not specify the nature of "other work"; five name such activities as educational exhibits, county fair, school paper, committee work outside the parish; looking after transfers, study, and individual conferences at office.

It is interesting to note the high correlation between the percentage of time devoted to each of the several activities in this study and the percentage devoted in each case to similar activities in the study reported elsewhere in this bulletin. Both studies are valuable at this time, considered as initial investigations of a subject whose detailed study should lead to (1) a more equitable distribution of time among supervisory duties, (2) a more careful limitation of a supervisor's work to supervision interpreted from a modern point of



view, and (3) improvement of the technique of supervision which will enable a supervisor, after a careful analysis of conditions, to choose the agencies and means best adapted to render efficient service to the teachers and schools assigned her.

### GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR TIME ALLOTMENT FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE STATE SUPERVISOR

D. L. LEWIS

*State Rural-School Supervisor of South Carolina*

The State supervisor in South Carolina does not directly reach and influence, as do the teachers, the children of the schools under his supervision. He can reach and influence superintendents and teachers in their work with the children. The three most important general principles relating to the distribution of the State supervisor's time may be formulated as follows:

1. Helping the teachers in service. The State rural-school supervisor of South Carolina assists teachers through visits to schools. He spends four days of each week from October 1, to May 1, in visiting schools in each county selected, meeting with the county teachers on Saturday to discuss with them the school conditions observed, offering suggestions based on such conditions.

2. Helping the county superintendent and other school officials in service. The State supervisor visits schools in company with county superintendents or supervisors in order to assist such of these school officials as are not well prepared to do supervisory work and to help county superintendents new to the work to become acquainted with their official duties before the schools open.

The State supervisor advises the county trustees on their powers and duties, their relation to the teachers, to their schools, and to the county superintendent and other school officials. Trustees are inclined to assume a good deal more authority than they should, due to the fact that the county superintendent, who is elected by popular vote, is often afraid to exert his authority over them. Trustees fail to see the advantages of building schools for large school communities and of providing better school buildings and equipment, longer terms, and better-paid and better-prepared teachers.

3. Helping the people to appreciate the educational needs of their children. The State supervisor reaches school patrons through addresses to school improvement and parent-teacher associations and meetings of citizens in which he discusses the necessity for an increase of school taxes, consolidation of schools, new buildings, and the like.



The office work of the State supervisor is mainly correspondence with (1) superintendents, (2) other school officials, and (3) patrons. After a visit is made to the schools of a county a letter is written to the county superintendent reviewing the work of the teachers, conditions of grounds and buildings, needs of consolidation, high schools, etc., and suggesting improvements. Copies of this letter are sent to local papers in the county for publication. Frequently a county superintendent is unable to induce trustees, board, and school patrons to improve school conditions; so he writes to the State supervisor outlining the improvements needed and requesting him to write the trustees showing the advantages of such improvements. Through letters to trustees written in compliance with such requests from county superintendents the State supervisor persuades many trustees to agree to the necessary school expenditures. The supervisor also carries on correspondence directly with trustees and patrons, advising them as to the best school policies to pursue.

Other duties assumed include: Revision of the elementary teachers' manual; compilation of a new public-school library list; rearrangement and codification of the general school laws of South Carolina; conducting classes in summer schools for teachers.

As may be inferred, the nature of field and office activities necessitates a variation in time allotment from year to year. The State supervisor should make as intelligent a distribution of his time as seems possible under the circumstances. The more carefully his schedule is worked out, the more effectively he can distribute it, however varied the duties may be.

#### GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR TIME ALLOTMENT FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE COUNTY SUPERVISOR WITH IN- ADEQUATE ASSISTANCE

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Conditions in the county considered here are similar to those in other counties with inadequate supervisory assistance. There are 321 teachers in the county and 94 schools, 41 of which are of the one-teacher type.

Objectives for 1924 and 1925 included interpreting the new State course of study, improving the teaching of silent reading, and sharing responsibility for such forms of emergency work as homogeneous grouping of children, betterment of library facilities, encouragement of health campaigns, and provision for more adequate equipment.



After experimentation the supervisor, instead of apportioning time among these various objectives, decided to apportion it among the various agencies used to carry on the objectives.

An equitable distribution of time among various activities depends on such factors as (1) the general organization of schools; (2) the attitude of teachers and pupils; (3) the attitude of different communities; (4) results disclosed (a) by the administration of standardized achievement tests in various subjects, especially reading and arithmetic; (b) by achievements in a few well-organized informal tests; (5) records and questionnaire and other reports giving information on a county-wide sixth-grade examination given by the supervisor; (6) the time demanded by committee reports and principals' conferences.

A summary of guiding principles used in Walker County to help in arriving at an equitable time allotment follows:

1. Study the county in order to determine the major objectives.
2. Concentrate on some specific program before trying to make plans or list agencies to be used.
3. Adopt a program sufficiently limited in scope to accomplish lasting results along some one or at most a very few lines in one year.
4. Use all available and serviceable agencies for supervision.
5. Study the amount of help each available supervisory agency is capable of rendering.
6. Assign visitations, demonstrations, and conferences their rightful place and time as the remedial measures par excellence.
7. Use daily, weekly, monthly, and annual plans for following up work and checking on accomplishment in order to revise specific allotment of time frequently.

The percentages of time devoted in Walker County during 1924-25 to the various supervisory agencies follow:

	Per cent
1. Class visitations (including travel) .....	54.5
2. Office hours (including conferences with individuals, committee meetings on the study of procedure on objectives, clerical work, and a newspaper project) .....	20.5
3. Teachers' meetings (county-wide, group center, principals' conferences, and local faculty) .....	12.0
4. Community activities (parent-teacher association, various clubs, reading programs, ordering library books for clubs and teachers, directing play, suggesting equipment) .....	8.0
5. Other work (State conferences, visits to other supervisors, and miscellaneous) .....	5.0
<b>Total</b> .....	<b>100.0</b>