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CERTAIN PHASES OF RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION

ABSTRACTS OF ADDRESSES DELIVERED AT THE THIRD CONFERENCE OF SUPERVISORS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES, HELD AT NEW ORLEANS, LA. DECEMBER 17 AND 18, 1928

Prepared in the Division of Rural Education

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., April 12, 1929.

SIR: Rural school supervision is a matter of serious concern to 500,000 rural teachers throughout the Nation, and to nearly 4,000 county and other local rural school superintendents and supervisors responsible for improving the instruction imparted to 13,000,000 pupils. Progress in bringing about efficient supervision of rural schools has been made very slowly. A conference was called by the Bureau of Education at New Orleans, La., in December, 1928, at the request of a committee of State and county supervisors of the Southern States. It produced material which in my judgment is calculated to accelerate progress in improving the quality of rural supervision.

The summary of the proceedings of that conference includes information along certain supervisory lines authoritative as to authorship and sufficiently restricted in scope to adapt it to contribute materially and definitely to the in-service preparation of rural school supervisory officials, and thus to the improvement of rural school instruction generally. I, therefore, recommend its publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

Respectfully submitted.

WM. JOHN COOPER,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

Introductory Statement

This bulletin contains abstracts of addresses delivered at a 2-day conference of State and county rural school supervisors in the Southern States called by the United States Bureau of Education at New Orleans, La., December 17 and 18, 1928.

Abstracts of addresses were prepared from manuscripts submitted by the authors. In no case is an address reproduced in complete form.

The third southern supervisory conference was called at the request of the committee on future plans appointed at the second supervisory conference held in Raleigh, N. C., December, 1926, for the purpose of further developing certain phases of supervision discussed at that meeting and for the initiation of additional measures for the improvement of supervision.

The conference was attended by more than 100 rural education representatives, most of whom are engaged in State and county supervision. The States represented were Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, 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 of the conference was arranged to consider the four large problems indicated by the Roman numerals in the table of contents. Under each of these at least three major papers or addresses were presented, followed by free discussion from the floor.

The phases of supervision presented in this bulletin are concerned with the establishment on the part of county supervisors of effective cooperative relationships with principals of large rural schools, teacher-preparing institutions, research services in State departments of education, specialists in clinical psychology, in mental hygiene, in rehabilitation, and in allied forms of social service; the improvement of teachers' meetings through remedying defects thus far ascertained and those weaknesses brought to light in the future through continuous study of the organization, program activities, and qualifications of participating leaders in teachers' meetings; and the distribution of information concerning the need and value of rural school supervision by several educational agencies.

CERTAIN PHASES OF RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION

I. Problems of Special Current Interest in Rural School Supervision

Education of Mentally Defective Children

H. H. RAMSAY, M. D.

Superintendent, Mississippi State School and Colony for Feeble-minded

When the Austrian monk, Mendel, by experimentation with peas in his garden, discovered the law of heredity, the problems of education were explained. Human procreation, through the continuous mixture of germ plasm, reproduces not only a wide range of intellectual capacity but varied forms of emotions, resulting at times in the limited capacity of the mentally subnormal and at other times in stable and unstable characteristics. Intelligence is not all. The emotions must balance with it. There are very intellectual people who are so emotionally unstable that they are miserable failures.

We are forcibly impressed with the extent of the problem of safeguarding the welfare of subnormal children and of the corresponding educational program necessary by the large number of mentally subnormal soldiers drawn from the country at large whose services were satisfactory during the World War. According to Army records, about 200,000 men whose mental age ranged from 7 to 12 saw active service overseas. If the Government can take such an army of subnormal men and with a short period of drilling and discipline make of them good defenders of their country, it is reasonable to suppose that with the institution of proper educational methods subnormal children can be prepared to support themselves and render worthy service as well-adjusted citizens.

That the mentally subnormal, including even low-grade feeble-minded, can be educated on their level of intelligence there can be no doubt. We have succeeded in teaching idiots to dress and undress, eat with a spoon, etc., thus training them in habit formation which relieves the burden of their care and adds to their happiness and well-being.

Imbeciles are taught ditching, woodcutting, moving of materials, and other menial occupations which require repetition. If an imbecile can be taught to remove stones or weeds, and make a vegetable grow in the place of the same, I maintain that such training is of the greatest value to the country as a whole.

Morons or high-grade defectives have a wide range for valuable service when properly educated. Even though they can barely master the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic, training in handwork of various kinds makes useful people of them. Special schools for subnormal children and institutions for the feeble-minded have demonstrated satisfactorily that more than 50 per cent of their pupils have remained in useful occupations from 5 to 15 years after the completion of their education. We must admit these schools and institutions do valuable work, both from a social and economic viewpoint, remembering that this is the group from which we draw our criminals, prostitutes, paupers, and ne'er-do-wells where they are left to drift in darkness without the sharpening of their limited wits.

The need of special education for the mentally subnormal is becoming more and more evident. Our school standards for academic achievement are being raised, thus leaving an increasing number of children of subnormal intelligence doomed to failure almost before they start. Without special educational opportunity they become a prey to environmental trends and natural instincts and emotions. The great majority of these thus neglected become dependents or, at the best, adjustment problems, and are largely responsible for the increasing number of charity organizations drawing upon the public, in addition to such institutions as may be provided by public funds to care for these victims of the lower curve of heredity.

In a survey made in Mississippi by Dr. Thomas Haines, under the direction of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene in 1919, it was pointed out that many feeble-minded were found in the same classes with normal and superior children. It was this survey which resulted in the establishment of the State School for the Feeble-Minded at Ellisville. The report of a 1926 educational survey of Mississippi schools made by Doctor O'Shea, of the University of Wisconsin, indicates that imbeciles with I. Q.'s as low as 40 are found in the same classes with children having I. Q.'s up to 125 or 140; and that Mississippi pupils as a whole made a poor average showing because of the subnormal and feeble-minded in regular school classes.

Educational reform must come from the educational forces of the country and a great responsibility rests upon them in the matter of properly classifying children for the purpose of giving them an appropriate education. I find teachers everywhere begging for infor-

mation as to what to do with subnormal pupils, as no well-defined movement has been instituted to relieve the public schools of this growing problem.

Before any decided result can be attained the first move must be a campaign for reform in which the educational forces lead, supported by physicians, health departments, ministers, newspapers, and all public-spirited citizens. This campaign should have for its purpose providing the necessary organization for dealing with this problem and, briefly, should follow these lines:

1. Teaching the laws of heredity in our high schools. People should know something of the low curve of heredity which produces these incapables.

2. The initiation of mental examination of retarded and maladjusted school children in order that a census of subnormal and feeble-minded children may be possible. A mental clinic for such purposes would be composed of a psychiatrist, a psychometrist, and a social worker who would include in each case such recommendation as was indicated by the examination.

3. The organization of special classes and opportunity schools in communities in which they are found to be necessary.

4. A department in one teachers college of each State to train special-class teachers.

Only by use of such measures can we hope to make handicapped children of the high imbecile and moron levels useful and self-supporting citizens. The psychometrist must lead the way after the machinery is provided. No teacher can teach a feeble-minded child properly unless the child's capacity is first known. A cross section of the child can be given by the mental examination—mental age, family history, personality traits, environmental handicap, social trend, and emotional make-up should be known as truly as physical status. All point the road to educational capacity. We must first know the material we have to work with before success will crown our educational efforts.

Education of Crippled Children

TERRY C. FOSTER

Supervisor of Civilian Rehabilitation, State Department of Education, Alabama

Care, cure, and education of crippled children is a socially sound policy because to deny the right of development to a given group is to establish a caste system and is contrary to our conception of democracy. It is sound from a humanitarian viewpoint by reason of our Christian idea of right and justice. It is economically sound

for a productive unit is an asset to society, whereas, an unproductive unit is a social and economic liability.

I mention care and cure in connection with education because experience has shown that the three must go along simultaneously. There is a diversity of opinion regarding the method of educating crippled children, one group holding that special classes and special schools should be provided for them. Another group believes that the regular school is the proper place in which to educate them. Advocates of special classes and special schools are convinced that these children are subnormal in most cases and can not make normal progress; that they suffer from inferiority and other complexities; that they have special physical needs such as specially designed desks or other appliances; that they often require massage, exercises, and the use of physiotherapy and hydrotherapy equipment and frequent medical supervision, services that can not be rendered in the regular schoolroom. The other group is equally convinced that inasmuch as these children will ultimately have to go out to work with and in competition with the whole bodied they should not be segregated into special classes or schools to develop a "cripple psychology" and a feeling that they are mentally as well as physically different from other children, and that shielding them from experience with the activities of physically normal children merely delays their ultimate adjustment into the life of the community. There is reason in both arguments but the best thought and experience supports the establishment of special classes or special schools.

To face this matter squarely certain fundamentals must be kept in mind. First, whether in dealing with material things or human beings, there is going to be a certain residuum from which the social and economic return is not commensurate with the time, energy, and money expended in the effort to salvage it. Experience in Alabama, with some 3,000 crippled children examined in the clinics, indicates that one-third of them are positively hopeless as to restoration, education, and employment. A policy of "the greatest good to the greatest number" dictates that we make no attempt under present conditions to do anything about this one-third. A home for incurables will probably be the ultimate disposition of such cases.

Second, the machinery for educating crippled children must function under conditions obtaining (*a*) in the hospital for those under the immediate care of the surgeon; (*b*) in the home for those who are convalescing at home during a lengthy period of time; (*c*) in the school, whether in special classes, in special schools, or in the regular school.

The period of hospital care usually continues over a period of from one to three months, during which time competent teachers

should be provided to teach the children. To teach cripples in their own homes visiting teachers should be provided to travel from case to case. Children who are able to go to school constitute the real problem. They are in every kind and degree of disability: Some are on crutches, some are in braces, and others are in rolling chairs. They are of all degrees of mental capacity and temperament: Some are bright and cheerful; others are dull and morose. They live at all distances, scattered sometimes miles apart in a community. In some communities there may be three or four; in an adjoining community there may be a dozen, with an average of about 5,000 in every State in the Union. Most of them are located in the rural areas.

In some northern and eastern States laws permit the establishment of special classes at public expense where there are as many as eight crippled children in a community. Arrangements are made for transportation of crippled children to and from their homes; special classrooms are equipped to meet the needs. In communities where the number is not sufficient to warrant special classes money is available for boarding the children in centers where classes have been formed. This provision for maintenance has led to a new idea—that of establishing a special county school where all the crippled children in a county can be cared for, those beyond the transportation limit being boarded at the school during the week and sent home over week-ends. In such a school care, cure, education, and vocational training could be carried out. It would obviate a great deal of duplication.

Much progress has been made in the Southern States during the past three years in physical restoration of crippled children. Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Tennessee have State societies; and Alabama, Florida, Oklahoma, and Tennessee have some legislation for physical restoration. Education—to my mind the most important phase because in most cases the cripple must make use of his mind instead of his body in the business of making a living—has not received attention. Those who are able to get there attend the public school; the rest stay at home. As a natural result one of the biggest problems in the work of training and employment of the cripple of 16 years of age has been illiteracy—inability to read and write simple orders or instructions. Fortunately, a change is coming. Parents of crippled children are recognizing the paramount need of education for such children and are making desperate efforts to provide it.

I believe that our first step in the Southern States will be to tie up with the consolidated school and arrange for transportation and special classes where conditions warrant it. Where classes are not warranted crippled children will have to continue in the regular school classes, or arrangements will have to be made for boarding

them in centers where classes are available. In any case the rural school supervisor has a distinct contribution to make: First, in assisting teachers, through the various tests available, to adjust the crippled child to the curriculum; and second, to give these children such educational and vocational guidance as occasion may demand. When the junior high school begins to function properly in its prevocational work, the establishment of special classes for crippled children will become more and more practicable. The fortunate combination of county child welfare and school attendance officer in one person will help us in Alabama.

The problem of the crippled child and the crippled adult is one problem. Service to cripples should be continuous and complete from the time the disability occurs until they have reached maximum recovery and are able to earn a living, whether the disability occurs in infancy or at 45 years of age. In accordance with this principle, Alabama carries on her work for crippled children and disabled adults as one program under the rehabilitation service of the division of vocational education.

I am thoroughly convinced that the whole problem of the crippled child is one to be guided and controlled by the educational forces of the State. True, physical restoration is in the field of surgery and medicine and public health, but surgery and medicine are only occasional services, whereas education and ultimate adjustment into employment are continuous. Divided responsibility never functions satisfactorily in any undertaking. Therefore, as educators interested in serving the cause of education for all classes and conditions of the people, let me urge you to think seriously and earnestly on this problem in your respective States.

I can not help being somewhat conservative in the matter of legislation for care, cure, and education of crippled children. It is a new field and very little experience is available upon which to base sane legislation. The needs of no two States in this matter are alike. In my State as a beginning, we asked for a permissive rather than a mandatory act under the provisions of which we are able to do whatever is necessary for crippled children in the way of care, cure, and education. When we feel that we know what we need in the way of further legislation I believe it will be forthcoming. Securing legislation for crippled children is easy because of its tremendous heart appeal, but it must be administered in such a way as to be justified from a social and economic viewpoint and in its proper relationship and proportion to normal growth in other fields of social endeavor.

Supervision of Elementary Instruction in Large Rural Schools by Principals

E. A. HUNT

State Department of Education, West Virginia

Duties and responsibilities of principals can be included under the following heads: Supervisory, administrative, and clerical. Five of the most important supervisory duties are observation of instruction followed by conferences and reports; helping teachers define their problems and suggesting solutions therefor; selecting and giving appropriate tests; interpreting results of tests and planning follow-up work; and classifying pupils, making in connection therewith a close study of all failures.

Among important administrative duties are employing, assigning, and promoting teachers; giving special attention to pupil attendance, health, and physical welfare; and holding conferences with superintendent, board of education, attendance officer, teachers, parents, and pupils.

Although many principals are assigned clerical duties, the commendable custom of employing part-time clerks in smaller schools and full-time clerks in larger schools is growing.

Principals find it essential to study local conditions in formulating a satisfactory program of time allotment for the multiplicity of duties assigned them. Much help relating to this and other topics included in the present discussion is available in the Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

II. Certain Significant Factors in the Solution of Supervisory Problems

Cooperative Activities of Supervisors and Principals

MRS. ELIZABETH MORRIS

School Supervisor, Buncombe County, N. C.

In North Carolina rural school supervisors are more and more concentrating their efforts on working with principals to increase in quantity and quality the supervisory activities of the latter. It is becoming increasingly evident that it is neither practical nor possible for counties to put on a sufficient number of traveling supervisors to meet, unaided by principals, all of the supervisory needs of teachers. A detailed plan of procedure of one study in process made in the expectation that it will shed light on the problem of how principals and supervisors can advantageously work together follows:

In Buncombe County, with 58 schools and 485 teachers, the supervisory set-up is perhaps as nearly adequate as can be found in the average county. There are three full-time supervisors—primary, grammar-grade, and high-school—and a fourth who devotes half time to the elementary schools and half to adult education. The average supervisory load for each supervisor is 138 teachers, and the average training of the teachers is four years of high school and one and a half of college. From 35 to 50 teachers are considered by many educational authorities an ideal load for a supervisor. But even taking 100 teachers, recommended by some investigators as a practical load for supervisors when principals share in supervisory activities, the Buncombe County supervisors have 38 more than this suggested quota. It is thus necessary for the principal to assume a share in supervisory duties.

The chief needs of the principals, as seen by themselves, in taking over their share of supervision at the beginning of the 1928 fall term were:

1. More study to overcome deficiencies of preparation and more professional reading to keep in touch with current progressive developments in education.

2. A plan of research whereby new techniques may be tried out, experiments conducted, and such records made as will be of value to the principal himself and to the other members of the group. Or, in the words of a principal, efficient enough to admit his limitations quite frankly, "We need more time for supervision and more knowledge of what to do when we have the time."

A group of eight principals, together with the grammar-grade and elementary supervisors, undertook to study the problem of cooperation through supervisor and principal. The principals decided they could give from an hour and a half to two hours a week to it during the entire school year, and the supervisors thought they could give four or five hours a week to this phase of their work. Dr. R. W. Tyler, of the University of North Carolina extension department, was called in as consultant and the group profited much by his practical suggestions.

After several weeks of preliminary planning the following major problem, including nine subproblems, was adopted: To set up attainable objectives in the supervision of the elementary grades by individual principals of 11-grade schools, with varying numbers of nonteaching periods and study-hall periods.

The list of nine subproblems reads:

(1) To collect best standards, based on expert opinion, for six important supervisory activities of elementary grades by principals: (*a*) Class visitation and observation; (*b*) individual conferences with teachers; (*c*) testing and measuring; (*d*) demonstration teaching; (*e*) pupil study and adjustment; and (*f*) teachers' meetings.

(2) To collect examples of present supervisory practice in elementary grades of eight county principals in these six activities.

(3) To determine which of the six activities in item 1 needs greatest immediate emphasis in each of the eight individual schools.

(4) To collect specific difficulties to be overcome in improving the quantity and the quality of supervision in the six activities.

(5) To collect efficient methods for overcoming the outstanding difficulties.

(6) To set up objective checks for each of the problems studied.

(7) To record the findings of the study in such shape that they will carry over into actual supervisory practice in the county.

(8) To determine which of the present activities of the principals can be delegated to someone else without loss of effectiveness.

(9) To revise the present practice of time distribution by eliminating activities which can be delegated, and including activities which could be carried on in the time thus saved to the greatly increased effectiveness of the principal's work.

The supervisors undertook to prepare all needed time distribution blanks and check lists and to summarize and organize the data

assembled through these sources. They also kept all necessary reference material immediately available.

Each principal determined upon that one of the six supervisory activities chosen for study which needed greatest immediate emphasis in his school. Two principals, with very little nonteaching time, chose "individual conferences with teachers," while two, who have no teaching periods, chose "class visitation and observation." The other four activities, "testing and measuring," "demonstration teaching," "pupil study and adjustment," and "teachers' meetings" had one student each.

In this way valuable data and findings on each of the six supervisory activities are being collected by one or two principals, coordinated by the supervisors, and put to use by all the members of the group. The potency of this plan of study is due to the fact that each principal can concentrate upon one major type of supervisory activity and work out effective methods for making that one type more successful than it has been. Procedures thus worked out are more stimulating and helpful to principals than procedures described in books or observed in schools in other localities.

The first difficulty encountered by the principals was lack of time. To determine how significant this problem is in Buncombe County, a control group of principals and the group working on the study kept a record of time allotment for a short period. These record sheets were kept upon the principal's desk and, as he started each new activity, he recorded the time and the activity. The activities were then classified as: (1) Supervision; (2) administration; (3) clerical; (4) coaching, teaching, or study-hall; (5) community activities, or other duties. The total time consumed by each type of duty and the per cent were then calculated. On the average, each principal from the control group spent 1¾ hours daily in supervision; that is, 23 per cent of his working-day. Thirty per cent of his time was spent in administration, 12 per cent in clerical work, and 31 per cent in teaching, coaching, and study-hall duty.

One direct effect of this study already observable is a budgeting of time which permits more time for supervision. The time distribution of principals working on the study shows 3 hours, or 33 per cent, of the time spent in supervision. Part of this increase in time by the group working on the study over that of the control group is due to lengthening the working-day from the 7½ hours of the control group to 9 hours, including nearly 1 hour spent on community activities. The remaining part of the increase in time is due to a reduction of time spent in clerical and in study-hall duties. Thus early in the study it is clear that emphasis upon supervision and an attempt at time budgeting do result in some increase in time spent in supervision.

In order to make supervisory efforts effective the principals decided to learn the teachers' attitudes toward various supervisory activities. Each principal asked his teachers to rate the six general types of supervisory activities with reference to their desirability from the teacher's point of view. To permit greater analysis of their reactions the teachers also rated each of 19 specific types of supervisory duties. They were not asked to sign their ratings as it was thought that if their identity was concealed they would express their real attitudes with greater frankness. The ratings of all teachers were then combined and summarized as follows:

Six supervisory activities were ranked in order of desirability from the teacher's standpoint, the most desirable named first and so on: Individual conferences with teachers, pupil study and adjustment, (including consultation with parents), teachers' meetings, class visitation and observation, demonstration teaching, testing and measuring.

Nineteen specific types of supervisory duties were ranked as indicated, the one considered desirable standing first, and so on: Hold office hours for teachers seeking help; plan with new teachers individually; give classroom demonstrations when requested; help teachers with broad and suggestive recommendations; hold instructional group meetings with new teachers; hold friendly personal conference with teacher following visit; send out mimeographed lesson helps; hold frequent instructional conferences with teacher groups; organize inspiration meetings with invited speakers; send out mimeographed suggestions for reading and self-help; advise and assist in the collection of collateral materials, visual aids, etc.; direct classification and instruction to meet individual differences; personally give prearranged model lesson at teachers' meetings; inspect and make recommendations concerning physical equipment of classroom; train and direct teachers in consistent use of texts; make silent, friendly classroom visits; organize special experimental work in the evaluation of texts and methods; give spontaneous demonstrations during visit; and encourage invitations from teachers for special visits to their classrooms.

It is apparent that teachers particularly desire individual help from their principals upon their problems, for "individual conferences with teachers" is ranked highest in the first list, while in the second list, "hold office hours for teachers needing help" and "plan with new teachers individually" are ranked highest. On the other hand, they would discourage visits and observations of principals even when, in the second list, the statement is "make silent, friendly classroom visits." This emotional reaction against visits represents

a basic problem in improving the effectiveness of classroom visitation and conference.

A further study of these lists will reveal other difficulties and interesting attitudes. We can no longer plan supervisory programs without considering the attitudes and wishes of the teachers to be helped, any more than children can be taught without consideration of their interests, prejudices, and desires.

The Buncombe County study of supervision has been in progress three months. It has not gone far enough to furnish definite solutions to outstanding problems in supervision. The most valuable contribution apparent is the plan of attack by means of which complex supervisory problems are broken up into smaller problems upon which each principal can then make an effective attack. In this plan supervisors cooperate by providing sources of data and in combining and summarizing individual results.

Other desirable outcomes observable are a clearer understanding of teachers' needs and wishes, increased ability to give to teachers definite and practical assistance in their problems, and steadily increasing interest in the study itself and in its value. It seems now that supervisors and principals working together can make supervision more effective.

A Research Program for Rural School Supervisors

M. C. S. NOBLE, Jr.

Director, Division of Information and Statistics, State Department of Public Instruction, North Carolina

The research program which I shall recommend to rural school supervisors consists of: (1) Research to determine the relative status of educational opportunities in the county as compared with the status of educational opportunities in the Nation and in the State at large; (2) research to determine a solution of local problems; and (3) research for purposes of self-analysis and self-improvement, and specific recommendations along the lines mentioned.

Research of the first type promises an incentive for work, an up-to-date acquaintance with educational trends, and a broader insight into educational problems, and assumes that the ambitious supervisor possesses the desire for her local unit not only to keep pace with progress but to lead the State in its educational achievements. A supervisor knowing the values inherent in this type of research finds in data collected on a state-wide basis many important items apt to be overlooked in the hurry of local demands, but containing sugges-

tions for intensive local research. For instance, it is quite possible for a supervisor to become so interested in the problem of constructing larger unit studies as to forget entirely such studies as that of age-grade distribution until her attention is called to it in the State report.

Knowing the sources of data which show the educational status of the local unit relative to the status of education in the Nation or in the State, and making an intensive study of the data therein included, the supervisor is led to maintain a rather broad view of educational problems. "Statistics of State school systems," published by the United States Bureau of Education, is an example of one type of bulletin with which rural supervisors should be familiar. In North Carolina there are two publications: (*a*) The biennial report of the State superintendent of public instruction, and (*b*) a semimonthly report, "State school facts"; both published by the State department of public instruction. The desire and ability to interpret and wisely use the data which appear in such publications as have just been mentioned preclude merely collecting and interpreting them for personal use. Some items should be passed on to the superintendent of schools, some to teachers and principals, and others to the general public.

I submit the following as ways in which supervisors may develop research abilities along lines indicated: (*a*) Annual reports from supervisors to the central administrative agency should include an analysis based on an outline prepared by the central agency showing the status of education in the local unit relative to the status of education in the Nation and in the supervisor's State. For every educational weakness revealed the supervisor should suggest specific remedial procedures; (*b*) supervisory conferences within the State and within the Nation should include on their programs the presentation of techniques to be later published for making use of information showing the relative status of education in a local unit as compared with the status of education in the State and in the Nation; (*c*) individual supervisors should be encouraged and required to give suggestions to State and national agencies as to the types of data needed in addition to those already published. It is quite possible that speeches, articles, and letters on "What's wrong with the statistical data published by National and State agencies," stated of course in a friendly, constructive way, would do much to improve and to increase the body of data published by such agencies. There is, to my mind, every indication that the United States Bureau of Education, the National Education Association, the State departments of education, and those institutions of higher learning which maintain research bureaus will gladly receive suggestions as to the improvement of

the data which they provide for general use. When supervisors are sufficiently familiar with such data as to be in a position to make requests for alterations or for additional data they will also find ways for closer cooperation with the agencies mentioned.

In connection with the use of the second major type of research I make the following recommendations to supervisors:

(1) Carefully select local-research problems. A problem is well selected when the supervisor feels a vital interest in it, and when the problem is selected on the basis of the informational needs of the community or the possible benefits to the community of the data collected.

(2) State the problem clearly before attempting to solve it. The statement should be put in writing and should point directly to a definite body of information.

(3) Keep in written form a statement of the procedure to be followed in the solution of the problem.

(4) Collect accurate data directly related to the problem by such methods as insure most constructive interpretation.

(5) In the interpretation of data employ common sense and such techniques as are available, and make a sincere attempt to serve the best interests of the community. The body of data collected through a study of any one problem should be interpreted in terms of its relationship to the general aims of education.

(6) Use the data collected to further the educational interests and needs of the community. Every year a large number of research studies are conducted which are productive of highly valuable results.

The third type of research would require the supervisor to carry on research studies for self-evaluation to be followed by constructive action. As examples of this type of research I submit:

(*a*) The development by the supervisor of a personal record system to determine what books she has read to date and what books she should read in the future.

(*b*) The development of a time schedule by and for the individual supervisor.

(*c*) The development by the individual supervisor of a somewhat definite method for determining whether the research she is carrying on is well selected, well conducted, and the results appropriately employed.

(*d*) The development by the supervisor of a method of self-analysis to determine her professional efficiency and the type of further academic and professional preparation which will contribute most to her efficiency in order that she may embark upon the task of achieving such preparation.

To summarize, I have recommended three major types of research: (1) Research to determine the relative status of educational opportunities in the county as compared with the status of educational opportunities in the Nation and in the State at large; (2) research to determine a solution of local problems; and (3) research for purposes of self-analysis and self-improvement. And under each of these three major types I have given more specific subrecommendations which in an admittedly incomplete way constitute elaborations of the general types. Since each single research problem, when considered in a highly detailed manner, requires a particular technique, I have found myself constrained in this talk to more or less general conceptions.

Participation by Teacher-Preparing Institutions

E. B. ROBERT

Louisiana State Normal College, Natchitoches, La.

In spite of commendation by educational leaders of summer-school courses as a form of in-service training for teachers it is impossible for me to view summer-school attendance as in-service training. Unless the ordinary teachers college summer school undergoes radical changes, I do not see how it can contribute more to teachers in service than is contributed by regular college work, except for the fact, of course, that more teachers attend. I think there are great possibilities for the development of a type of summer school that will really meet the needs of teachers in service, providing an opportunity for them to teach and to observe work with special groups of retarded or other children taught in regularly organized rural schools, supervised by teachers college instructors.

A brief account of the services of the division of extension of the Louisiana State Normal School follows: Since 1918 extension classes have been held in 10 parishes, and correspondence study has drawn teachers from every parish in the State. The normal college is located in the northwest section of Louisiana, but it has held classes 140 miles to the south, 140 miles to the east, and 80 miles to the north. The enrollment in correspondence courses increased from 27 in 1918 to 367 in 1928; and in extramural courses from 39 in 1921 to 185 in 1928. In addition to correspondence study and extension classes the division of extension supplies free films and slides; sends specialists to assist in institutes and faculty meetings; gives individual help to teachers through correspondence; sends a monthly bulletin to every alumnus and to every school in the State; and administers loan funds aggregating approximately $20,000 to worthy students.

To the extension staff a trained research worker was added this year to follow up the work of normal-school graduates. This individual is now studying conditions in Louisiana and is making a survey of what has been done in follow-up work by other teacher-preparing institutions. His tentative program reveals the following aims: (1) To receive reports on the success of graduates from their employers using the same rating forms used by the critic teachers in the college. (2) To invite correspondence from graduates and to give advice as to problems on which help is sought. (3) To urge employers to report promptly all shortcomings in graduates who are not succeeding. Visits to graduates will be made upon requests of superintendents. (4) To make a series of scientific investigations to determine what factors in training have most to do with ability to teach. (5) To encourage and coordinate experimentation by alumni of the State Normal College.

The Normal College Practice School assists in field work. Recently a conference was held there for the benefit of teachers in the surrounding districts. One-half day was spent in observing demonstration lessons, and an afternoon session was devoted to a discussion of the lessons. Following the conference the director of training of the normal college, with several critic teachers, assisted the superintendent in a series of similar conferences.

The follow-up work by the State Normal College must be done through cooperation with State and local supervisors to effect worthwhile results. Supervision was introduced in Louisiana in 1918 in about 12 parishes; in 1928 there were only 14 parish supervisors, most of whom were in the larger parishes in which supervision was introduced. The State sets standards of qualifications for superintendents and supervisors, but pays no part of their salaries. Evidently the time has arrived when the State of Louisiana must take the lead and furnish trained supervisors for the parishes. Until this is done it is very doubtful whether the level of achievement in rural and elementary schools can be substantially raised except in the few parishes having adequate supervision.

There is only one way for teacher-preparing institutions to contribute to the improvement of instruction in rural schools. This way lies in the establishment of contacts with rural teachers actually confronting their problems. This is in-service training for rural teachers, and it is also training in service for faculties of teacher-preparing institutions. Moreover, until the State or county recognizes the importance of supervision by employing full-time qualified supervisors, we can hope for little progress. Even then progress will be slow unless school principals are relieved of teaching duties in order to allow time for supervision and are given pre-service and

in-service training in the technique of supervision. The problem can be solved by the proper cooperation among the State department of education, the teacher-preparing institutions, and the county authorities.

Participation by Teacher-Preparing Institutions

R. L. EYMAN

State College for Women, Tallahassee, Fla.

There is great need for State departments of education, State teachers colleges, and counties to cooperate in carrying out a plan of rural-school supervision. When they do this colleges will have a check on the work of those whom they have trained. They will learn how to improve their own teaching by ascertaining which portions of their training program actually function in the teaching work of their students. Rural-teaching needs will be constantly under the observation of teacher-training institutions, and immediate steps can be taken to meet these needs. Course of study construction for both teachers colleges and the schools where the children are taught will be a continuous thing and constantly be subject to change to meet the needs of prospective teachers and of the children.

We are all agreed that the purpose of supervision is the improvement of instruction and that we need an adequate number of supervisors. The recommendation in the Florida State Survey Commission report that there be a supervisor for each 50 teachers is a case in point.

When there is a unified effort on the part of all our agencies in public education to perfect a plan of supervision in which all participate, many opportunities will be afforded which can not exist when efforts in supervision are divided. A system adapted admirably to the training of supervisors will exist within the State. Studies may be made of the value and the various methods of supervision. Provision may be made for carrying out long-term programs in education and for placing teachers with desirable qualifications in special positions where they may be most needed. The best practices in education may be carried to every teacher, and assistance given in putting these practices into operation. Duplication of effort on the part of the various educational agencies may be avoided. Our State teachers colleges under such a plan will become a vital part of a State supervisory program and their staff will be in a position to make contributions to supervisory procedure.

Contributions of State Departments of Education

JOHN M. FOOTE

State Department of Education, Louisiana

State supervisory officers present their programs and purposes to the general public, to parent-teacher organizations and similar groups closely related to education, and to the public-school officers who direct education within State and local units. Intelligent understanding from all of these groups is highly desirable. But of far greater importance, especially to this group of State and county supervisors, is the supervisory service and leadership rendered by State departments of education to those immediately charged with the responsibility of teaching children—namely, supervisors and teachers. My remarks are limited to the service rendered to teachers and supervisors in Louisiana through the supervisory activities of and the program developed by the Louisiana State Department of Education, a program no doubt typical of those of other States. The supervisory staff of the Louisiana State Department of Education accepts as its general objective the improvement of classroom instruction and conditions. It always works in close harmony with supervisors, principals, and teachers.

Improvement of instruction is accomplished by setting up a number of major objectives or activities and developing them on a thoroughly cooperative basis over a period of years. Among these activities may be mentioned: (1) A state-wide program prepared annually in close cooperation with parish supervisors, and parish-wide programs coordinated therewith; (2) curriculum revision and construction; (3) improvement of teachers in service; (4) demonstration teaching followed by lesson analysis and constructive criticism; (5) definite lesson planning by teachers previous to going before their classes; (6) the use of educational tests and measurements in evaluating the results of instruction; (7) introduction of better textbooks and other materials of instruction; (8) parish surveys; and (9) an experimental study of the value of supervision.

Among the means employed to make the program effective are the following: (1) Field visitation in which members of the staff visit in company with the parish supervisor and superintendent a group of representative schools in every parish in the State; (2) a State conference with supervisors, superintendents, and principals; (3) group conferences within a parish; (4) distribution of printed and mimeographed matter relating to the program and means for achieving its ends; (5) actual classroom demonstration of improved methods and materials of instruction; (6) lesson observation followed by analysis

and criticism; and, (7) reports on field work distributed to the school forces of a parish.

The effectiveness of the activities and means employed may be illustrated by citing the work now going on in curriculum construction. One subject of the elementary curriculum is studied thoroughly each year. A new course of study in preliminary form is issued and subjected to trial and criticism the following session, after which a final draft is prepared. The whole enterprise is highly organized on a cooperative basis. First, a State or central committee is named; second, a general committee in each parish appoints grade or subcommittees among the teachers and distributes the work to be done. During the year these grade committees prepare their material and report to the parish committee, which refines the product and reports to the State committee. This State committee, headed up by a member of the State supervisory staff, then prepares a final draft of the work. After publication and trial of the course of study for one year the State committee rewrites it in its final form. Courses of study for language and arithmetic have recently been completed and the reading and drawing curriculums are now going through a similar procedure.

Activities of State Departments of Education

J. T. CALHOUN

State Department of Education, Mississippi

So much of the time of members of the Mississippi State Department of Education, including that of the State supervisor of rural schools, is absorbed by administrative affairs that we are at a disadvantage in advising county superintendents to spend less time in administrative and more in supervisory activities. However, the services of State and county educational officials along the following five supervisory lines are considerable:

(1) A number of the activities in which these officials engage in the establishment of consolidated schools serve the interests of supervision, for it is relatively easy in large schools with well-trained principals at their head to provide for supervision. (2) In some of our counties in which 80 per cent of the rural school pupils are in the 10 or 12 consolidated schools of the county, the county superintendents are developing into effective supervisors who use objective tests and follow their administration with the necessary remedial measures. Initiative in regard to the introduction of testing programs is frequently assumed by the State rural school supervisor.

(3) The writer plans during the present school year to carry on a cooperative enterprise with the five county primary school supervisors recently employed in our State. In the four corner counties and in the most central county of the State five college graduates with special preparation for supervision began work in September, 1928, as the result of the permissive law relating to supervision passed by the last legislature. (4) The State supervisor of rural schools renders supervisory assistance as chairman of the committees of teachers who every few years revise the State course of study. (5) Another supervisory duty of the Mississippi State Department of Education relates to the classifying of the elementary schools every year by means of the use of the State score card, which serves as an administrative and as a supervisory measure. In order to make at least the minimum score on each of the required items listed on the card tens of thousands of dollars of teaching equipment have been added to our schools and several hundred teachers have gone back to school to get credits. Both the added equipment and the additional preparation secured by the teachers result in improvement of instruction, and thus the use of the score card in facilitating the classification of our schools deserves mention in any account of the services of the Mississippi State Department of Education along supervisory lines.

Service Rendered by Social Workers

N. B. BOND

Professor of Sociology, University of Mississippi

Education is a social science. This fact must be accepted if education is to be democratic and efficient. When two children react differently to a given stimulus in the schoolroom it is because their heredity and experiences are different. Fortunately the great masses of children vary but little from the hypothetical average child for whom we have built the school system. With the help of laws and policemen we are able to graduate a goodly number from the fourth grade, some from the high school, and a few from college. Our system fails to the extent that it fails to provide for the differences of pupils. The system will succeed with all children to the extent that it recognizes individual differences and gives all children a democratic chance at preparation for life.

Compulsory education that does not recognize and provide for the different types of children is unwise, and this penalizing of children not like most children is an important factor in the causation of distorted personalities, dependency, delinquency, and criminality. There is no economy in educational neglect. A given child who is

mentally defective may become self-supporting if he is given proper training and supervision, while if these are not provided he becomes a dependent and possibly a criminal and a menace to society.

The failure of a child in the public school must be a matter of great concern to the faithful supervisor. If the failure lies in mental deficiency, the child should have the training he can profitably receive either in a special class or in a special institution. If he is sick in either mind or body, he should have intelligent attention and treatment. If his trouble is moral delinquency growing out of home or other social influences, the State, acting in loco parentis, is bound to change such influences and give the child his right to normal social influences. The reason we are not doing this in the rural school is that we have not yet set up the means for doing it. The rural school must call to its aid the great profession of social work.

Every county (or parish) in our Southern States should employ a social worker. In addition to having a college education, with fundamental knowledge of the social sciences, she should have special training in public school social work, psychiatric social work, the administration of mothers' pensions and other poor relief, and in probation and parole of juvenile delinquents.

The county social worker should form a close alliance with the county supervisor of rural schools. When pupils are seriously retarded in school work she should be called upon to study the causes. There is no good reason why she should not be able to deal in a preliminary manner with the cases of feeble-mindedness and psychopathy and suggest to teachers and parents their proper handling. Rural schools and communities are troubled with feeble-minded persons, and in some cases with entire families of them. The average teacher and community leader do not understand these unfortunates and many tragedies might be prevented if each county employed a worker familiar with all aspects of the problem of feeble-mindedness.

It is well known that through the great rural areas there are slum sections, and the usual factor in producing these is feeble-mindedness. The county social worker among other duties would direct the State institution for the feeble-minded to persons suspected of mental defect and secure the early training of aments, a need now acutely felt by all who are familiar with the problem. The social worker can be of great service also in (1) providing (*a*) proper supervision of the trained ament in the community and in giving regular reports to the institution discharging him; (*b*) case histories of incoming patients to hospitals for mental diseases; (*c*) information to hospital authorities concerning the home and community conditions to which the patient discharged or paroled will re-

turn; (*d*) advice to the patient's family; (2) administering mothers' pensions and other poor relief; and (3) in gradually bringing about on the part of the public an intelligent appreciation of the principles of mental hygiene.

As a probation and parole officer the social worker can work in connection with courts and industrial schools. A survey of the Louisiana Industrial School at Monroe a few years ago revealed that practically all the boys there began their records of delinquency with truancy from public schools, and that more than half the number were feeble-minded. Probation and parole work alone will save the State in dollars very nearly as much as the social workers will cost.

In order to give the service suggested in Mississippi it would be necessary to employ only 82 social workers. This would cost at the most not more than a quarter of a million dollars a year. The cost in other southern States would be similar in proportion to their size. There is no additional expense that we can incur in connection with rural education that will add so much to the efficiency and social value of rural schools as the relatively small sum which we should spend in adding intelligent and thoroughly scientific social service.

III. Extension of Information Concerning Rural School Supervision

(A) By Teacher-Preparing Institutions

NORMAN FROST

Professor of Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

The need for trained people to go into the work of supervision is now hampering the development of rural school supervision. The general belief of people in the program of supervision has grown much more rapidly than has the available personnel.

Since the question of personnel for rural school supervisory positions is one which is the special responsibility of teacher-training institutions, it seems obvious that their programs of publicity should be aimed particularly at the task of securing more suitable people to prepare themselves for these positions, admittedly superior in dignity, in opportunity for service, and in salary to teaching positions in city schools. In order to secure capable people the publicity of the institutions should reach at least the following groups: The student body, faculty members and administrative officers, State and county school administrators, and superior teachers who enjoy elementary rural school work.

Available means helpful in stimulating capable people to prepare themselves for rural school supervisory positions include instruction in regular classes, assembly talks, personal conferences by faculty members, cooperation on the part of the appointment committee, a catalogue write-up of courses offered in supervision, lectures before teachers' organizations of various types, and articles in educational journals and in alumni publications.

Responsibilities of teacher-preparing institutions include also extending aid as opportunity offers, in formulating and furthering passage of laws dealing with the subject and in educating school patrons to the necessity of adequate supervision; and stressing this necessity in any rural school survey reports with which members of their faculties are connected.

(B) By County Superintendents

KATE WOFFORD

Superintendent, Laurens County, S. C.

There is perhaps no better way for a county superintendent to extend information on the value of rural school supervision than through desirable school publicity. The press, as a rule, will cooperate. Of one thing we may be sure, it will cooperate with somebody. The wise county superintendent will see that it cooperates with him. We have recently seen this demonstrated in Laurens County. Last year the county board of education, feeling the need of expert advice on a rural school consolidation program, asked the rural education department of Peabody College to make a county educational survey. It was impossible, through lack of an appropriation, to have the report printed, but we took the local newspaper editor into our confidence and he agreed to print extracts from it, with comments from the county board. The two discussions in the public press which brought the most fire were not on the questions of consolidation and transportation, as we had feared, but on the advisability of adding a supervisor and a school nurse for each of whom the county board particularly asked. As a result of the discussions we hope to secure both of these needed additions to the county superintendent's office when the legislature meets in January.

County superintendents may also extend information on supervision through local trustees. In South Carolina their support of any school measure is absolutely necessary. The superintendent of York County initiated supervision in the current school year with four supervisors. He assures us that this happy result is the outcome of 20 years of work with the local trustees who finally accepted rural school supervision as a necessity. His plans included attention to the question of supervision at the annual meeting of the local trustees of the county. He made use also of graphic representation, of addresses by superintendents of high schools in which rural school graduates were enrolled and of talks by outside speakers stressing the county's need of proper supervision.

(C) By County Superintendents

A. G. BOWLES

Superintendent, Tulsa County, Okla.

Rural supervision has passed the experimental stage. We know that it leads to better school buildings, to more adequate school equipment, better prepared teachers, improved classroom procedure,

and a more comprehensive educational program. Yet the movement lags. Leaders, groups occupying strategic positions, and the public are not informed relative to the value of rural school supervision, and consequently are not demanding that supervision of rural schools be given major consideration in programs for the improvement of rural schools.

In what way may county superintendents assist in extending information relative to this important question? In my judgment, the first thing county superintendents who appreciate the value of supervision should do is to try to sell supervision to county superintendents as a group. This will be a difficult task in States like Oklahoma, where qualification standards are low and where the county superintendent has to face a political election every two years. But, difficult as the task may be, it must be attempted.

Much may be done through State and group conferences and short courses. In Oklahoma, for the past five years, we have been holding an annual short course for county superintendents in connection with the meeting of the State education association, and have had on the programs outstanding national leaders who have done much to familiarize county superintendents with rural school supervisory programs. The employment of county supervisors in three Oklahoma counties, in one of which I am the county superintendent, is a direct result of these meetings.

County superintendents, fully realizing the value of rural school supervision, can be of great help in extending information to the legislative group as to the improvement which may be expected in rural schools when adequately supervised. In this endeavor superintendents should enlist the cooperation of the State department of education, city superintendents, the State education association, and all other groups who are interested in rural education. When legislators are fully informed they will provide the necessary laws, without which county superintendents' hands are tied.

Shortly before or at the time of initiating supervision the county superintendent must so present rural school supervision to the teachers that they will not assume an attitude of resentment. He may suggest that there is more real joy in the work when all the teachers of the county are cooperating with a trained supervisor toward some definite objective, than when each teacher is struggling alone trying to put over an isolated program. It has been my experience that this part of the county superintendent's responsibility is easy.

In extending information to rural school boards and the public the county superintendent must use every available opportunity. After its initiation he should inform them of the achievements of their schools both before and after supervision. He will find the comparison of results in standardized achievement tests an effective means.

County superintendents can and should be expected to assist materially in the extension of information relating to the value of rural-school supervision. It is unnecessary, however, for each of the above groups to be unanimously sold to the idea before rural-school supervision becomes a partial reality. Activity should be centered on key individuals in each group. After the necessary legal provisions for supervision have been made others will gain their information through observation of its beneficent activities and results.

(D) By Parent-Teacher Associations

MRS. S. M. N. MARRS

President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers

Since the parent-teacher association is an organization of parents and teachers, one of whose purposes is to learn first-hand the needs of the schools and then to interpret this information to the public, it is obvious that such a group is a logical one to extend information on the value of rural-school supervision. And how can this be done?

First, there must be such an organization. Unfortunately the parent-teacher movement has not yet penetrated rural districts to any great extent. While the National Congress of Parents and Teachers and the State branches are expending a great deal of money and effort toward this end, it is impossible to succeed to any measurable extent without the cooperation of superintendents and teachers who are the logical community leaders in educational matters. So it would seem necessary for the school people to interest themselves in the formation of the parent-teacher association as a first step in this cooperative program.

After the organization is formed definite programs that call for the study of the question of rural-school supervision should be carried out. Patrons will wish to know what it is all about; why it is needed; some of the tangible results; how much it costs; and how to get it. When parents are made to realize the value of supervision they will become stanch advocates of the movement, for what people desire most for their children they will somehow manage to get.

A parent-teacher association having the kind of success indicated will tell others with whom it comes in contact through county, district, and State meetings of the value of supervision and thus will create a desire in other districts for this educational advantage. The association will be ready also to work for taxation and legislation necessary to provide finances and machinery for proper supervision.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers from the beginning has sponsored programs to provide proper educational facilities

to meet the needs of to-day. The State organizations have likewise stood solidly behind forward-looking education programs for their respective States. But after all, it is the local group that holds the strategic place, and although much of its information and inspiration come from the larger organization, it must depend upon the interest and guidance of the teachers of the community and the county in its efforts to bring to local children the educational opportunities which they should have. The parent-teacher association is the great receiving as well as the broadcasting station for educational information and educators should use it as such.

In conclusion may I suggest that the United States Bureau of Education could make a very definite contribution to the progress of the campaign for rural school supervision through the preparation of a course of study on the subject for rural parent-teacher associations. This course of study should be very simply planned with all the necessary source material furnished in such a form as to be usable by the smallest and most inexperienced group. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers will be glad to cooperate with the bureau.

(E) By Supervisors of Rural Schools

LENA LATKIN

Supervisor, Pulaski County, Ark.

Extension of information concerning the value of rural school supervision is an integral part of the work itself. Whether the supervisor wishes to extend information, whether she plans for it carefully or not at all, information will nevertheless be spread abroad concerning either the value or the worthlessness of her work. Children are the best purveyors of information in the field of news extension. Whether the supervisor smiled or whether she didn't, whether she brought a picture or gave a test, is all grist for their information mill.

There is no provision for supervision of instruction in the Arkansas State department of education. Inspectors and rural agents paid by the general education board gave attention to high-school rather than to elementary-school conditions. When this support was withdrawn the State department of education continued the services of staff members in the same fields but did not include supervision among their duties.

Reports of studies of distribution of the county supervisor's time indicate 5 per cent given to community activities in one report; 8 per cent in a second; and 7 per cent in a third. Expert opinion, as

reported by one investigator, suggests that 17 per cent of a supervisor's time should be spent in noninstructional activities, which activities would certainly include extension of information concerning the value of supervision.

Among activities for extension of information, used by one county supervisor in Arkansas, are: Publishing bimonthly reports of group teachers' conferences held and annual reports of work in State and county papers; delivering addresses on supervision at parent-teacher association meetings and at the State educational association; distributing copies of reports and of monthly and yearly programs within and without the State.

Conditions became more favorable to extension of information concerning supervision when the county unit system of schools went into effect in Pulaski County, Ark., October 3, 1927. During this first year the new organization has helped much (1) through its consolidation and building program, with its attendant pooling of interest at fewer centers (we have 34 schools this year as compared with 54 last year, and 5 one-teacher schools as compared with 24 last year); (2) by making possible the survey and testing program directed by the State normal college and the supervisor. The county board paid $300 tuition fee to the normal college so that every teacher in the county might be enrolled in the testing course, and the parent-teacher association gave the whole experiment its heartiest cooperation; (3) through its publication, The County Unit, our school paper.

County supervisors desiring to extend information concerning the value of rural school supervision should stand unequivocally for, (1) the best possible education of the whole child; (2) the significance of the early years of a child's life.

(F) By State Education Associations

KYLE T. ALFRIEND

Secretary, Georgia Education Association

The two chief needs of rural education to-day are better administration and efficient supervision. If more money is to be put into rural education that all children may have an equal opportunity to be trained for good citizenship, then the office of county school superintendent must be taken out of politics, must be made appointive, and the county board of education must have the privilege of selecting the right person wherever he may be found. The minimum requirements for the office must be raised and so restricted that none but a competent and well-trained educator can be selected. Then that officer must be so well paid that his full time can be devoted to

professional duties. Wherever these conditions prevail to-day, good rural schools are the rule and not the exception, and the county as the unit of administration is never questioned. But so long as the best qualifications for selection as county superintendent are a good handshaker, a shrewd politician, or a lawyer or preacher out of a job, so long will our rural schools suffer from poor administration and supervision.

Second to good administration is efficient supervision, and the two are indissolubly connected. The superintendent who is not filling his job is unwilling to have a competent supervisor to make his faults more glaring. Some incompetent superintendents may urge supervision thinking that by so doing they evidence their progressive leadership. Others may favor supervision because it will relieve them of many unpleasant duties about which they know little or nothing. It furnishes a means of avoiding the responsibility for some things which are unpopular and hence undesirable. Under unfavorable conditions like these the best of supervisors can do very little good. With a superintendent who opposes or who is unable to cooperate, what chance has even an efficient supervisor to carry a supervisory program to a successful end? Before we can have proper supervision we must educate and convince the superintendent of its value. If good city systems need strong supervision even if they have the best of teachers under competent superintendents and principals, how much more do rural schools need intelligent leadership?

Many rural schools are taught by young teachers without experience. I care not from what teacher-preparing institution they come, they need intelligent guidance. Teaching school in the model training school under ideal conditions does not fit a teacher to meet the hard problems of rural districts. In the one case they taught under an expert. In the other they face, untried and untaught, the hardest of problems.

Again, in our rural schools we find those who have grown old in the service and who, from lack of training or leadership, have formed habits of teaching contrary to modern thought. Ignorance and poor methods, with no one to guide, has left the old teacher without a vision of the work, with no conception of the great opportunity God has placed in her hands. She needs the guiding hand of a sympathetic leader as truly as a ship needs a pilot. Conditions of this kind should convince all superintendents that supervision is a vital factor in rural school betterment.

Proper supervision needs, next to a sympathetic superintendent, a board whose members are willing to cooperate in creating a situation where the work can succeed. A board that calls new ideas "frills and fads" will destroy the success of any work however valuable it

may be. Whether the board believes in supervision or not depends on the leadership of the superintendent and the confidence the board has in his leadership. An informed board is a helpful cooperating force that can not be overestimated.

Supervision, its value and its need, must be sold to the teachers; a task belonging primarily to the supervisor who must be not only efficient but tactful and sympathetic with the teachers' point of view. Every good teacher does not necessarily make a competent supervisor. The supervisor must know what and how to teach adults. Modern education to-day is loud in its advocacy of certain qualities in the teacher. Scholarship alone is not enough. Personality, tact, character, sympathy, and magnetic leadership are demanded.

These facts must reach also school patrons and citizens of every community before intelligent supervision can be a part of every rural-school program.

What can State education associations do to carry to superintendent, board, teachers, and patrons the value and need of supervision? Educational journals may carry the "message to Garcia" through articles telling of successful supervision in cities; and of what supervision can do to improve teaching. Our State conventions should stress these matters in their programs. Departmental programs can show what good supervision is. The main program can inspire bigger and better leadership. Cities where conventions meet may well be visited the day before by teachers that they may see in actual operation the best schools under the most intelligent supervision.

But after all this is done our task is not complete. The patron, the citizen, and the taxpayer must be convinced. The public press, both weekly and daily, must be enlisted in the work. I have found the State press always ready and willing to publish whatever articles we give them on education. Here, then, is a field for the State secretary and others connected with the State association. Through the columns of the press supervision must be sold to the public. The taxpayer must be made to know that the supervisor is not an extra expense but an actual saving, that the supervisor sees that the taxpayer gets value received for the taxes he has paid. Accounts of school systems where supervision is a success must aid in convincing those who do not know that it is useless to expect to run schools efficiently without intelligent supervision.

It is for the State associations to show that in order to prepare the army of 15,000,000 boys and girls enrolled in rural schools for the highest citizenship they must have not only good teachers but that these teachers must have supervisors to lead them to the highest ideals of efficient teaching. Publicity is essential. No organization is better able to give that publicity than the State education association.

IV. Improvement in Teachers' Meetings

Report of the Cooperative Study of Teachers' Meetings

ANNIE REYNOLDS

United States Bureau of Education

In accordance with the recommendations of the committee appointed at the Raleigh supervisory conference of 1926 to select studies to be undertaken by rural school supervisory officials of the Southern States, in cooperation with the Bureau of Education, a questionnaire study of teachers' meetings was made.

A questionnaire was compiled in accordance with suggestions received at the Raleigh conference and subsequent thereto from supervisory officials in the Southern States. Copies were widely distributed among southern county superintendents and supervisors. Forty county school supervisors and 37 county superintendents of schools responded. Almost all of the 77 supervisory officials (called supervisors in all subsequent references in this bulletin) left a number of questions unanswered.

The factors selected for study in the questionnaire are organization, characteristic program activities, supplementary measures, and time-distribution. In addition to stating facts relating to the above factors, supervisors were asked to express their judgment as to achievements of meetings and ways in which improvement can be brought about. A résumé of the findings, including a few comments by the writer, follows:

Under *Organization* 53 per cent of the 77 supervisors hold 1, 2, or 3 county-wide meetings a year. Forty-seven per cent report from 4 to 20 meetings. The total number reported is 261. Fifty-one supervisors gave information as to the number of county-wide meetings held on school days or during school hours; 21 report 36 such meetings; 30, none.

Thus 27 per cent of the 77 cooperating supervisors report one or more county-wide meetings on school days or hours; 39 per cent report no such meetings. If to 39 per cent is added the 34 per cent (26 supervisors) who did not reply to the question a total of 73 per cent of the supervisors indicate that no county-wide meetings are

held on school days or hours. County-wide meetings on school days or during school hours assume still less importance when it is noted that 36, the number held, is only 14 per cent of 261, the total number of county-wide meetings reported.

Fifty-six supervisors, or 73 per cent, distributed among 11 of the 12 States represented, use the term "institutes" for 88 county-wide teachers' meetings.

Sixty-three per cent of the county-wide meetings reported differentiated programs; in 69 per cent of these cases differentiation is on the "grade" basis.

From data submitted by 66 supervisors the percentage which the average number of teachers present at all meetings held formed of the total number of teachers supervised was computed. A summary of the results obtained follows:

Extent to which teachers attend county meetings

Range of teachers attending (per cent)	Number of supervisors reporting	Range of teachers attending (per cent)	Number of supervisors reporting
1–25	1	176–200	1
26–50	4	201–225	4
51–75	5	226–250	1
76–100	34	251–300	1
101–125	3	301–350	--
126–150	3	351–400	1
151–175	4	Above 400	4

In 44 cases, forming 66⅔ per cent of the total number reporting, average attendance was equal to or below the number of teachers supervised. In 22 cases—33⅓ per cent—the average number present was in excess of the number of teachers supervised.

In 10 of the 44 cases, or 15 per cent of the number reporting, the average number of teachers present did not exceed 75 per cent; in 34 cases, or 51 per cent of the number reporting, from 76 to 100 per cent of the total number of teachers supervised were present. In other words over half of all the supervisors furnishing information report that the average number of teachers present at a meeting varies from three-fourths to the entire number of teachers supervised. Under such favorable attendance conditions supervisors are in position to make teachers' meetings effective supervisory agencies for the entire teaching body.

The replies furnish no information explanatory of the 22 cases in which the average number of teachers reported present is in excess of the number of teachers supervised. Possibly city-school teachers or teachers from other counties attend, or persons other than teachers may attend and be counted as teachers. If this latter supposition is true, in 11 of the 22 cases teachers form half or more of the group

assembled; in 11 cases they form less than half of the assembled group. If persons whose chief occupational interests lie outside the teaching field form a larger part of the audience than do the teachers, it seems doubtful that attention can be concentrated on improvement of instruction.

Situations similar to those obtaining in the 22 cases should lead supervisors (1) to consider carefully the composition of audiences at teachers' meetings and to question seriously the advisability of continuing to invite citizens generally to them, and (2) to unite their efforts with those of interested lay groups to extend facilities for adult education.

Forty-one supervisors, or 53 per cent of all replying to the questionnaire, report that programs were distributed, 33 that they were not. The distribution of programs prior to the meeting date has a wholesome effect on program makers, participants, and teachers. It has a tendency to stimulate supervisors responsible for their preparation to exercise care in the selection of topics and participants.

Under *Time distribution*, the heading of the fourth section in the questionnaire, 62 supervisors assigned ranks based on time allotment on programs to nine features of teachers' meetings named in the questionnaire. Information as to the names of the nine features, the ranks assigned them by supervisors, and the relative importance of each as evaluated by respondents is indicated in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Features of teachers' meetings ranked according to time devoted to each*

Feature	Number of replies giving rank designated (1 designates the longest time, 2 next longest, etc.)									Total number ranking feature	Number not ranking	Feature ranked among 5 most important by number designated
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
Instruction in methods of teaching special subjects	35	5	3	1	...	3	3	3	2	55	7	44
Acquainting teachers with State and county educational programs	11	14	12	6	6	4	2	....	1	56	6	49
Stimulation of wider professional reading	....	7	11	13	8	8	4	1	3	55	7	39
Instruction in subject matter	1	9	3	6	5	2	4	2	7	39	23	.....
Inspiring teachers with professional idealism	7	10	8	11	8	6	2	1	2	55	7	44
Establishing social and professional contacts	2	6	5	4	13	9	8	5	3	55	7	.....
Acquainting teachers with developments in educational research	2	7	6	3	5	4	6	12	3	48	14	.....
Discussion of immediate problems in management, curriculum, etc.	2	7	11	14	4	5	5	4	3	55	7	38
Individual conferences between teachers and superintendent or supervisor	5	3	2	4	8	6	4	10	4	46	16	.....

Further analysis of the table discloses much of value including the following: (1) "Instruction in methods of teaching special subjects" is considered the most important feature by 35 supervisors, or 56

per cent of the respondents, who give it first place, whereas 11 (17 per cent) is the largest number of supervisors giving any other feature first place. In spite of this, "Instruction in methods of teaching special subjects" is outranked among the five most important features by "Acquainting teachers with State and county educational programs"; 49 supervisors (79 per cent) include the latter feature among the five most important, and 44 (71 per cent) include the former. (2) Evidently not much time is allotted to "Instruction in subject matter," as 23 supervisors, or 37 per cent of the respondents, did not give this feature any rank; two other features to which 23 per cent and 26 per cent of the respondents, respectively, allot no time in teachers' meetings are "Acquainting teachers with developments in educational research" and "Individual conferences between teachers and superintendent or supervisor." (3) "Inspiring teachers with professional idealism" presents some interesting contrasts. Given first rank in time allotment by only 7 supervisors, 44 of the 55 supervisors assign it a place among the first five features exactly the same number as assigned "Instruction in methods of teaching special subjects" a similar position. "Inspiring teachers with professional idealism" is a significant feature in teachers' meetings in the opinion of supervisors reporting.

Under *Summary of achievements*, the fifth heading in the questionnaire, 55 supervisors stated the results which they credited to the features of teachers' meetings ranked among the five most important (see Table 2). The achievement and the number of supervisors including it are as follows:

Better professional attitude or more active cooperation on the part of teachers, 24; general improvement in instruction or increased interest in improving instruction, 19; increasing interest on the part of teachers in obtaining further professional preparation, 14; improvement in teaching one or more subjects such as reading, arithmetic, language, and the like, 12; objectives of State or county programs realized to a greater extent than formerly, 12; improvement in school management, in discipline, and in type of curriculum taught, 6.

Replies to the final question asked in the questionnaire, "What changes do you think should be made in order to improve teachers' meetings to be held in your county next year?" were received from 62 supervisors, or 80 per cent of the 77 assisting in the study. In a number of instances several changes were advocated by one supervisor. The replies were so varied in nature that an inclusive summary is out of the question. Changes named by five or more supervisors, and the number naming each are: Plan programs in which definite objectives are kept in mind, 8; increase the number of demon-

stration exercises, 8; plan programs more limited in scope, 7; give teachers a larger share in program activities, 6; secure speakers with specific preparation along lines appropriate for the obtaining of objectives selected, 6.

Summary and conclusion.—The problem of improving teachers' meetings in so far as the cooperative study sheds light on such improvement is to be solved by greater and more intelligent attention on the part of supervisors (1) to improving organization, program activities, supplementary measures, and time allotment; and (2) to evaluating teachers' reactions and to interpretations of content offered by the practical application they make of it in their schoolrooms, following the evaluation with such modifications in content offered in future meetings as the results indicate.

The following specific suggestions are based upon returns from the questionnaire; upon suggestions included in the abstracts of the addresses by Mr. Jaggers, Mr. Turner, Doctor Carr, and Miss Nefflen; and upon considerable observation of teachers' meetings in various States:

(A) Readjustments in the organization of teachers' meetings should be preceded by a careful survey of the physical conditions of the county and of the teaching personnel.

(B) The selection of appropriate program activities and of especially qualified personnel is imperative. To the extent that this selection is discriminating (1) demonstration classes will exemplify skill in teaching curriculum units representing modern educational theory and of significant value to teachers; (2) addresses will be delivered by competent persons possessing first-hand knowledge of the subject matter on which they speak; (3) discussion techniques will be studied and experiments therein conducted to create conditions conducive to effective informal discussion in which teachers freely participate; (4) committee membership will be considered a responsibility for the performance of an important service.

(1) Demonstration teaching exercises are among the new features which have been grafted on traditional program procedures.

(2) Content presented in addresses should reach a high standard of usefulness. Success in reacting favorably on teaching practices is dependent in large measure on the care exercised in choice of participants.

(3) In order to realize on his opportunity a discussion leader should know how to create conditions conducive to free expression of opinion, to evoke discussion to which teachers generally contribute, and to use contributions offered to good purpose. Knowledge as to various essential elements in discussion technique awaits further analysis and experimentation.

(4) Proficiency in the composition of circular letters whose exact meaning is easily comprehended and the establishment of the habit of writing and distributing such letters tends to eliminate the necessity of using much program time for oral announcements.

(5) If committees are to function satisfactorily they should be appointed in advance of the meeting at which they are to report. Committees assigned appropriate work and meeting under conditions lending themselves to reflective thinking and careful composition of reports to be submitted have much to contribute to teachers' meetings.

(C) Under the heading "Supplementary measures" in the questionnaire information relating chiefly to teacher participation was requested. A few suggestions for developing teacher participation are expressed or implied in paragraphs (1) to (5).

(D) Improvements in the time assigned various program features and in achievements of meetings are dependent to a great extent upon improvement in organization, in activities, and the development of teacher participation as already discussed.

This cooperative study of certain phases of teachers' meetings, the first of its kind to attack these particular phases so far as information is available, should be considered only as an initial investigation. Further detailed study is necessary.

General Organization

J. E. JAGGERS

State Department of Public Instruction, Kentucky

In securing data on teachers' meetings in Kentucky, a study after the type of the one by the cooperating committee was made in 50 unselected counties. These counties, in common with practically all others in the State, hold a 2-day planning conference in the county seat prior to the opening of the fall term, presided over by the county superintendent. The primary purpose of the conferences is to afford an opportunity for the superintendent to meet with the teachers and organize them into working units for carrying forward the program for the year's work.

Of the counties studied, 92 per cent last year held on an average six county-wide meetings in addition to the 2-day conference. Thirty-five per cent of the meetings were held on school days or during school hours. In 46 per cent of the counties provision was made for differentiated programs. Ninety-six per cent of all teachers, with a range of 75 to 100 per cent, attended county-wide meetings. In 56 per cent of the meetings programs were either printed

and distributed or published in the local press. The teachers were formed into an association for succeeding meetings; the program of objectives for the year was informally discussed and finally adopted in definite form. In most cases the bases used in arranging for sectional meetings were geographical units or size of school. Practically all teachers attended.

Examples of three specific types of organizations for teachers' meetings as found in Kentucky counties are given to illustrate desirable practices in different rural situations.

In a Kentucky county, with an area of approximately 300 square miles and with six small well-distributed high schools, a superintendent with office help only one day each week and no supervisory assistance carries on supervision almost wholly through a program of cooperation. In addition to county meetings he uses group teachers' meetings at the high schools supplemented by circular letters on routine matters and occasional visits to schools. At the 2-day county conference the teaching force is divided into six groups, ranging in number from 9 to 15 persons. Each group consists of the principal and teachers in the central school and the teachers in the adjacent territory. The chairman (usually the high-school principal) appoints two teachers who, with him, constitute a committee. Each member of the committee selects a group of teachers, three to five in number, and becomes its chairman. Every teacher thus becomes a member of a working unit. The 18 division and subgroup chairmen meet occasionally at the county seat with the superintendent and plan work. Each chairman is prepared to act as leader of his group. The six division chairmen with the chairman of the county teachers' association constitute the county committee assigned chief responsibility with the county superintendent for carrying forward the program of objectives. Each teacher is given a mimeographed detailed plan for the year. All activities, correspondence, and meetings point to the achievement of the program. In October, 1928, meetings were called in each division on successive days. The testing program, one of the items among the current year's objectives, was planned in detail in each meeting with the group assembled, and persons were selected to give the tests. The actual work of testing followed the next week.

In a second Kentucky county, with an area of 350 square miles and 109 teachers, the superintendent with one full-time office assistant but no supervisor organizes the teachers present at the annual county-wide meeting into seven working groups according to their interests: Teachers of home economics; primary, intermediate, grammar-grade, and junior high school teachers; high-school principals and teachers; and teachers in 1-room schools. The following committees on extracurricular activities are appointed: Field day, athletics, and literary. Monthly meetings with general and group sessions are held

at the county seat. Each group performs a definite piece of work. The county superintendent is ex officio member of all groups through which he is able to carry forward his program of "long-distance supervision."

In a third county, in which all the teachers are located in eight consolidated schools with well-trained principals in charge, the following plan is used: Before the date set for the opening of the schools (Tuesday following Labor Day), the county superintendent holds individual conferences with each principal and discusses plans and objectives for the year. The Saturday preceding the opening date teachers and principals meet at the county seat for a 2-hour session with the superintendent, who explains plans for the year. The county teachers' association is formed with officers in charge, and a committee appointed to prepare programs for the monthly half-day session county-wide meetings, at which the county superintendent uses 10 or 15 minutes' time for announcements and routine matters.

On Labor Day at each consolidated-school building principal and teachers meet and tentatively organize and plan for succeeding conferences. At the end of the first week, after having studied for several days the tentative organization and plans, they meet again and adopt permanent plans for organizing the school and for future faculty conferences held weekly for the first two months of the year and biweekly thereafter. The first 20 minutes of each conference are devoted to routine matters and the remaining 40 minutes given to professional discussion.

Outstanding features of these three types of teachers' meetings are: Each member of the teaching personnel has a definite responsibility in developing the year's program and is given an opportunity to develop leadership; the meetings provide for consideration of subjects that vitally concern all the teachers; and routine matters take very little time.

Characteristic Program Activities[1]

H. L. TURNER

State Teachers College, Conway, Ark.

The cooperative study of teachers' meetings indicates current practice as to the nature and extent of characteristic program activities of rural school-teachers' meetings classified under six headings: Demonstration classes, addresses, discussions and conferences, extension courses, reports of committees, and announcements.

[1] A few minor additions were made to Mr. Turner's address in the United States Bureau of Education with Mr. Turner's consent in order that consideration of replies relating to Characteristic Program Activities might all be included under Heading IV.

Twenty out of thirty-six replies indicated that demonstration classes were included in programs of general county-wide meetings; 39 out of 47 replies stated that they were included in sectional programs; thus, approximately 55 per cent of the replies indicate demonstration classes as a part of the program for general county-wide meetings and 83 per cent indicate that they are used in sectional meetings.

The data indicate that outlines covering the main points in the demonstrations are placed in the hands of teachers more frequently in sectional than in general county-wide meetings. In the latter, out of 31 replies 17 stated that outlines were distributed. In the sectional meetings, out of 43 replies 29 indicated their distribution. In approximately 55 per cent of county meetings and in 67 per cent of sectional meetings, including demonstration teaching exercises, provision is made for distribution of outlines.

Forty-five reports gave information as to the subjects taught in demonstration classes. Thirty-four indicated reading as one of the subjects. Next to reading came arithmetic, reported by 21, geography by 17, language by 14, and history by 12. Spelling, penmanship, phonics, and science followed in the order named. It would seem that those responsible for the planning of programs for teachers' meetings consider demonstrations in reading much more important than those in any other subject.

Of 29 replies stating names of elementary grades taught in demonstration classes, 28 include the first grade, 26 the second, 25 the third, 19 the fourth, 17 the fifth, 19 the sixth, 14 the seventh, and 2 the eighth. As these figures indicate, there is a marked tendency to extend demonstration teaching to several grades in counties in which demonstration teaching exercises are used, with a less marked but evident tendency to devote more attention to demonstration teaching in the primary than in the upper elementary grades. The choice of the primary as the preferred grades for demonstration may be due to one or a combination of the following reasons: A belief in the greater need for demonstration of methods in teaching young than in teaching older children; the fact that primary are less self-conscious than higher grade pupils and enjoy exhibiting recently acquired skills in reading and arithmetic; and the assumption that teachers observing follow the instruction of youngest pupils with most interest.

Fifty-five replies were received to the next item: "Indicate by check person who taught demonstration classes: Superintendent ———; supervisor ———; rural teacher using her own pupils ———, using her own and other pupils ———, using children other than her own pupils ———; city teacher ———." It will be noted that

four educational officers are named and that three rural teaching situations are specified.

An analysis of the replies indicates that: Rural teachers did demonstration teaching in 46, city teachers in 9, supervisors in 13, and superintendents in 3 counties.

Further analysis discloses that:

Rural teachers did all the demonstration teaching in 15 out of the 46 counties; city teachers did all in 2 out of the 9 counties; and supervisors did all in 4 out of the 13 counties. In no county did the superintendents do all of the demonstration teaching.

Rural teachers, city teachers, supervisors, and superintendents shared in doing the demonstration teaching in the remaining 33 counties; in 18 it was done by rural teachers and supervisors; in 5 by rural teachers and city teachers; in 4 by rural teachers, city teachers, and supervisors; in 3 by city teachers and supervisors; in 1 by rural teachers and superintendents; and in 2 by all four educational officers.

In the following summary the three situations specified above will be referred to as indicated: Rural teacher using her own pupils (situation No. 1); rural teacher using her own pupils and others (situation No. 2); rural teacher using children other than her own (situation No. 3). An analysis of the replies indicates that: In 28 counties rural teachers taught in situation No. 1; in 5 counties rural teachers taught in situation No. 2; in 2 counties rural teachers taught in situations Nos. 1 and 2; in 4 counties rural teachers taught in situations Nos. 1 and 3; in 7 counties rural teachers taught in situations Nos. 1, 2, and 3.

The evidence submitted suggests (1) that supervisors are tending to delegate responsibility for demonstration teaching to rural teachers. Ability and willingness on the part of rural teachers to do demonstration teaching of a high standard is a test of professional attitude and success. Efforts to attain proficiency in demonstration teaching afford valuable in-service preparation. The returns indicate that a number of rural teachers undoubtedly spend much time and effort in in-service preparation along these lines. (2) That it is customary for rural teachers to demonstrate with their own pupils; that occasionally they include also other pupils; at other times they demonstrate with their own, with their own and others, or with others alone, depending upon the local provision made.

Who addresses teachers' meetings? Sixty-seven replied to this question. The following tabulation indicates the number of appearances reported for each person listed:

County supervisor	287	Elementary principal	93
County superintendent	240	Health workers	82
Member State department of education	123	County agents	53
High-school principal	139	City grade teachers	43
Rural teacher	111	Boys' and girls' club leaders	20

Occasional appearances are made by officers of the State teachers' association, teachers college instructors, ministers, school board members, representatives of publishing houses, city superintendents, citizens, representatives of women's clubs, Red Cross workers, judges, doctors, editors of farm papers, extension workers, directors of physical education, and supervisors of music and vocational supervisors. It is evident that county and State educational officers and high-school principals give most of the addresses; rural teachers, elementary principals, and health workers taking second place; with those not directly engaged in the profession of education assuming relatively minor rôles so far as their number of appearances before teachers' meetings is concerned. It might be of interest for educational officers to make a careful study of what teachers think of the persons addressing them. For securing unbiased replies it might be better still if some other agency could discover the real opinions of teachers as to whose addresses benefit them most.

Titles of addresses are indicated in 30 replies received. The following are representative of subjects on which educational officers of the type designated in each case speak: County supervisors: Teaching language in the grades, objective tests and standards for promotion, causes of failure in teaching reading, four sides of community life, better systems of promotions, cooperation of supervisor and teacher, and the use of the State course of study. County superintendents: Improving our schools, teaching arithmetic, the county program, modern schools, discipline, county needs, improving the attendance record, and the county unit. Members of State departments of education: Analysis of the recitation, certificates of teachers, the teacher's obligation to pupils, tests and measurements, the new register and the State school program, legislation and funds, professional growth of teachers, care and upkeep of buildings, and the artistic schoolroom. High-school principals: The school paper, problems of the rural high school, and standardizing the junior high school. Elementary principals: The teacher's attitude toward the country, supplementary reading material, teaching citizenship, and teaching respect for property. Teachers college instructors: The county program, fundamental qualifications of the teacher, and the teacher's living conditions. Ministers: The church and school and growth of education in the county.

Discussions, whether based on addresses, teaching of demonstration classes and professional reading, or arising from other sources, are used to a considerable extent. Discussions following the teaching of demonstration classes head the list, being reported 358 times by 46 supervisors; discussions following professional reading circle work for credit are reported 346 times by 28 supervisors; discussions after addresses, 107 times by 29 supervisors; discussions following professional reading to which credit is not attached, 73 times by 13 supervisors. Thirty-three supervisors reported a total of 241 informal discussions not based on any of the above. Teaching of the various school subjects, seat work, grade requirements, memorizing, and standards for teachers are illustrations of subjects discussed following demonstration lessons. After addresses such topics as attendance, discipline, teaching of reading, and lesson planning are discussed.

The reports of the questionnaire on extension courses as an activity of teachers' meetings are meager and on the whole give but little information as to the relation of extension courses to teachers' meetings, the number of teachers enrolled, the number receiving, and the nature of credit offered. The 14 supervisors stating official titles of instructors offering extension courses indicate that in most instances the work is offered by instructors from State universities or teachers colleges; and the 32 replying as to subjects taught indicate that courses in education predominate, although courses (presumably subject-matter ones) in English, sociology, history, and the like are occasionally mentioned. It is entirely possible that extension courses are not thought of as a part of regular teachers' meetings, but rather as independent of them. This is the case in Arkansas. During the year 1927–28 the one State teachers college enrolled 4,138 teachers from 56 counties in extension classes; it has enrolled during the present school year up to December 1, 1928, 2,500 teachers in 43 different counties where extension center classes are conducted. In addition to the work of the State teachers college, the university and four district agricultural schools do extension work. The extent of this work in Arkansas is partially explained by the fact that the legislature of 1927 passed a law requiring earned credit as the basis for the renewal of teachers' certificates.

Forty-one of 77 supervisors did not answer the question as to names and work of committees. Twelve of the 36 who replied stated that there were no committees. (Terms of the questionnaire eliminated those on necrology and resolutions from consideration.) Twenty-four reported names and 19 the work done by one or more committees. The committees reported functioned along the following lines: Athletics; contests; teaching of reading, of spelling, of arithmetic, and of picture study; organization of the county; plans for

teachers' meetings; research work for teachers; better system of grading; standardized tests; recommendations for next year's work; and arousing interest in the State education association.

Fifty replies indicated that time is taken on the program for announcements, chiefly by the county superintendent and supervisor. The range in time so taken is from 10 minutes to 1 hour. The per cent of the program time taken for announcements ranges from 1 to 50 per cent, with a median of 10 per cent. The median would seem to be a fair percentage of the time of any program necessary for announcements.

Certain Measures Useful in Supplementing and Adding to the Value of Teachers' Meetings [2]

JOHN W. CARR

Professor of Education, Duke University, Durham, N. C.

The four questions asked under *Supplementary measures*, the topic of the third section of the questionnaire, and the replies received thereto are tabulated below:

Question: In what ways, if any, did teachers (1) make specific preparation for participation; (2) assist in planning programs?

Number of supervisors reporting on: (1) Ways in which teachers made specific preparation for participation, 57; (*a*) no preparation, 4; (*b*) prepare for demonstration teaching exercises, 7; (*c*) prepare by reading along specific lines, 12; (*d*) prepare lesson plans, 8; (*e*) prepare papers, addresses, or reports, 11; and (*f*) preparation indicated, but its nature not specified, 15. (2) Ways in which teachers assist with programs, 35 replies; (*a*) no assistance given by teachers, 14; (*b*) assistance given through suggesting topics, activities, preparing exhibits, and the like, 21.

Question: What, if any, means were used to ascertain from teachers in what way and to what extent the program met their needs?

Number of replies received, 52: (*a*) No means used, 10; (*b*) supervisors observe work of teachers following meetings, 7; (*c*) informal inquiries made of teachers as to appropriateness of program, 23; and (*d*) questionnaires distributed to teachers asking for specific information along this line, 12.

Question: What, if any, assistance was offered to prepare teachers to meet higher certification requirements?

Number of replies received, 52: (*a*) No assistance offered, 13; (*b*) extension courses, 19; (*c*) summer school courses, 9; (*d*) reading

[2] In the preparation of the abstract of Doctor Carr's address in the United States Bureau of Education this introductory paragraph was added, with Doctor Carr's consent, in order that a statistical summary of the replies relating to *Supplementary measures* might be presented in its appropriate place in the report.

courses, 4; (*e*) correspondence, 3; (*f*) individual conferences, 3; and (*g*) refusal of authorities to grant lower grade of certificate, 1.

Question: What, if any, provision was made for assisting principals with their specific problems?

Number of replies 52: (*a*) No provision made, 7; (*b*) individual conferences, 14; (*c*) general conferences, 19; (*d*) principals' conferences, 10; (*e*) reading circles, 1; and (*f*) analysis of course of study, 1.

The inclusion of the foregoing items in the questionnaire implies that teachers' meetings would be more effective if measures functioning along the above lines were used. Assuming that those who left items blank had nothing to report under them we may draw the following conclusions from the questionnaire returns:

Teachers make little specific preparation for participation in meetings; they do not assist directly in planning programs to any large extent, although supervisors may have teachers' needs in mind. Little or no effort is made to ascertain from teachers in what ways and to what extent programs meet their needs. Some assistance is offered teachers in order to prepare them to meet higher certification requirements, but much of this has no connection with teachers' meetings.

Very little provision is made to meet specific needs of school principals other than by having them attend general teachers' meetings.

It is possible that failure to use effectively some of these supplementary measures may account for the lack of effective accomplishment in teachers' meetings. The general principles of education which we expect teachers to apply in the schoolroom should be embodied in meetings which supervisors organize for the in-service training of teachers. Progressive elementary education advocates "projects" and "large units" as bases for school work. Is there not also a need for project or large unit supervision, organized around the needs and interest-centers of teachers? In a progressive elementary school one would expect children to make specific preparation for participation in class work and to assist in some degree in planning the work for their class conferences. Most supervisors would insist that teachers should adapt work to the needs of children, check constantly to see that their needs are met, give them definite educational credit for successful class work, and provide for differences in the needs of individuals and groups. Yet results of the study indicate that similar measures are not extensively applied in the conduct of meetings which supervisors hold for the improvement of teachers.

An account of a series of meetings recently held in the Raleigh, N. C., city school system may suggest similar procedures that would

add to the value of rural teachers' meetings. In Raleigh a curriculum-revision program has been carried on for the past five years, whose aim is to set up a curriculum based on child activity and organized around large units in which children seem naturally to be interested. The central ideas have been to allow children to a large extent to follow out such of their interests as seemed to promise most in educational values and to keep them supplied with materials needed in connection with these activities. As the teachers developing the new curriculum felt a need for additional supplementary reading materials and visual aids relating to the activity units, and as principals felt a similar need for becoming better acquainted with supplementary materials available in their schools, Duke University was induced to offer an extension course on materials of the elementary curriculum, taught by a professor from the department of education.

The supervisor of the Raleigh city schools enrolled for the course and persuaded a number of the principals and two or three experienced teachers to do so. The classes met for two hours every other week and the university allowed two semester hours of credit for the year's work. Prior to the first meeting of the group the supervisor found out which activity units were being carried forward in the various schools, summarized the results, and presented the report to the members of the group. Several changes and additions were suggested by members. They were then asked to decide just which units should be studied and in what order, and what materials were needed in each case.

Some features, all of which are in accordance with approved principles of teaching which probably helped to make this series of meetings a success, were: (1) The meetings grew out of a definite unified program of supervision of sufficient scope to last for a number of years. They were based on clearly stated objectives and were planned to meet the needs of a particular group. (2) They came as result of a need very apparent to the supervisor and evident, in part at least, to others in the group. (3) The supervisor's spirit and her willingness to learn helped. She did not say to the teachers: "Go ahead and do this job"; but, "Come on! let's do the job!" (4) Members of the group were consulted as to the work to be done in the meetings. (5) The work accomplished helped the members to do better the things they were then doing. Members saw the need of assignments made. Specific preparation for participation came almost as a matter of course. (6) The university professor leading the meetings in order to keep the work continuously adapted to the needs of the group spent about two days each month in observing and working individually with teachers in the school system. (7) Credit in the extension department of the university

applicable toward the raising or renewal of certificates was allowed for the work; thus those attending the meetings felt that their work was being recognized in a definite way. (8) The meetings recognized the fact that there are individual differences in teachers. The group was formed on the basis of voluntary cooperation.

The educational principles underlying the conduct of the Raleigh series of meetings, whose leading features have been presented in the foregoing, are basic to the thesis previously indicated in this paper: Any measures useful in supplementing and adding to the value of supervisory meetings must be in accordance with those principles of teaching which we are all trying to apply in our classrooms.

We want our students to make specific preparation before coming to class—similarly we should expect teachers to make preparation before coming to meetings. Progressive schools stimulate pupils to assist in planning their own work—mature teachers should take some responsibility for such planning. Our schools give recognition for students' work in the form of promotion, credits, and graduation; schemes should be set up to give teachers proper recognition for work done in teachers' meetings of the supervisory type. Where extension credits can not be allowed for such work, arrangements should at least be made for "master teachers" to be excused from meetings which are of value only to the novice. Modern classroom work tries to provide for individual differences—teachers' meetings should be organized for groups of similar training, experience, and needs. There should be special meetings for principals of rural schools if it is found that their problems are essentially different from those of teachers. Effective teachers of children use every possible means to find out in what ways and to what extent the program of work meets the needs of their children; effective supervisors—as trainers of teachers in service—should use various devices to ascertain from teachers just how the programs of meetings are helpful to them. If such programs are not helpful, the procedure should be changed to meet the needs of those participating.

Suggestions for Improving Teachers' Meetings

MYRA M. NEFFLEN

State Department of Education, West Virginia

Two obvious reasons for improving teachers' meetings relate to their cost and to their potentialities for rendering valuable service as supervisory agencies.

In West Virginia attendance at teachers' institutes is compulsory. In 1928, 11,870 elementary teachers attended institutes five days each. In 1927, 4,300 teachers attended the State educational association; in addition, many attend annually district and regional meetings or round tables.

A number of the meetings convene on school days, and teachers are usually allowed regular pay by the district for school days spent in attendance at meetings. Allowing one such day annually and computing the average teacher's salary at $100 a month, the West Virginia taxpayers contribute approximately $50,000 annually for meetings at which attendance is voluntary, besides twice that amount for the compulsory 5-day institutes. The additional expense which teachers themselves incur increases the total cost of West Virginia teachers' meetings greatly and suggests the wisdom of a careful study of their offerings in order to assure ourselves that we get our money's worth from them.

The part played by teachers' meetings as a supervisory agency deserves investigation also. To quote from State Superintendent Cook, of Maryland: "The character of the programs for teachers' meetings growing out of classroom work of pupils and teachers and the extent of intelligent participation by teachers afford perhaps the best means of forming a definite judgment of the quality and efficiency of the supervision of instruction."[3]

Agreement is quite general among supervisory officers that teachers should themselves do more of the demonstration teaching so frequently done by supervisory officers; that homogeneity of vital interests should be substituted as the basis of group meetings for convenience as to geographical location of schools, the most frequently used basis at present; and that kind and amount of professional training and experience of teachers count as factors in teachers' vital interests. The following illustration of well-directed enthusiastic group participation on the part of teachers indicates what may be accomplished through meetings growing out of teachers' vital needs:

In the recent revision of the "Elementary course of study" for West Virginia, 17 State committees, comprising county and district superintendents, principals, and teachers, numbering in all more than 300, organized and met with local committees until the total committee personnel numbered more than 1,800, all of whom served voluntarily to achieve the objective, a better course of study. Altogether, approximately 5,000 teachers tested and offered constructive criticism on different phases of the prospective course of study. As chairman of one committee, the speaker was present at 11 meetings

[3] Worth-while teachers' meetings. Research Bulletin, State department of education, Maryland, 1923.

held in 6 places. From 7 to 30 persons were at each meeting. One evening a district supervisor was holding a regular meeting with his teachers from 6.30 to 8.30. Learning on short notice that the general chairman could be present that evening, the teachers agreed to have a 30-minute recess and reconvene to do this special course of study work. The meeting lasted until after 11 o'clock—and some of the teachers had to drive several miles home afterward—all had to teach the following day.

The following suggestions are offered as possible of realization and as embodying reforms needed:

(1) Procure experts with specific training in educational psychology to talk with, not at or to, teachers concerning school practices from the standpoint of educational psychology when, and only when, the teachers are ready and eager to test the psychological soundness of their everyday school activities.

(2) Give definite suggestions for professional reading and aid in the acquisition and systematic distribution of professional library material.

(3) Utilize faculties and facilities of teacher-training institutions so located as to be natural centers for meetings. In September, 1926, State Teachers College, Chico, Calif., held an institute for one week following a mutual arrangement among six counties, two districts, and the college. The institute was a "program of unit courses—dealing with practical problems," providing two 70-minute recitation periods twice daily and one 60-minute round-table period daily for each teacher, and a final test for teachers wishing one hour's college credit. Teachers were allowed first choice of courses as far as possible. The 17 group conferences, called "round tables," for which provision was made daily, were as well attended as the class recitations, and the questions submitted by the teachers covered the "entire elementary field in administration, discipline, and subject matter." At the conclusion of the institute the teachers were asked, "Do you approve this type of institute?" Six hundred and thirty-nine answered "Yes," 7 voted "No," and 6 said "In part." Of the 652 enrolled, 644 requested that this form of institute be repeated.

(4) Foster a spirit of loyalty and cooperation among teachers by observing a few precautions, too often considered of minor importance, such as beginning and closing the meeting on time, with the same treatment for all periods scheduled; providing social and recreational relaxation through songs, games, and the like; and conserving time by omitting details of administrative routine, which can be handled through typed, mimeographed, or printed bulletins.