TRENDS IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

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CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
NUMBER 485

INDIANA STATE

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MASTER OF SCIENCE DEGREE IN EDUCATION 1942
The thesis of Sister Irma Agnes Kennedy
Contribution of the Graduate School, Indiana State
Teachers College, Number 485, under the title
Trends in the Philosophy of Supervision of Instruction,
is hereby approved as counting toward the completion
of the Master's degree in the amount of 8 hours' 
credit.

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Date of Acceptance
July 11, 1942
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

PROBLEM

What has been and what is the philosophy of educators in regard to supervision of instruction? It is the aim of this thesis on *Trends in the Philosophy of Supervision of Instruction* to discuss this question historically.

PROCEDURE

First, an exhaustive study was made, through the Teachers' Special Library in Indianapolis, of all the books that treated of supervision of instruction. The material was treated chronologically.

Secondly, magazine articles that seemed to deal with the subject were selected from the Readers' Guide and the Education Index. As many of these articles as were available in the Teachers' Special Library, were reviewed, and the material procured therefrom was used to amplify the contributions from books on the supervision of instruction.

No effort has been made to ascribe supervisory activity to any definite official. Emphasis has been placed on prevalent philosophies rather than on the persons who exercised the duties of the supervisor; hence, the term principal
and supervisor are used at various times during the discussion without intention, however, of implying that the one or the other was mainly responsible for supervision.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Perhaps no other agency has been so vitally influential in characterizing the educational aims and policies of any given time than has been the philosophy of supervisors of instruction. Their beliefs and procedures have colored teacher attitudes and teaching techniques. Consequently, a study of the philosophy of supervision of instruction is interesting, enlightening in the consideration of teaching, teacher growth, and pupil growth, and significant in viewing general educational trends and problems.

Basically, supervision of instruction is child-centered and through teacher-growth seeks to further maximum child growth. The influence of each teacher is unquestionably an important contributory factor in effecting the development of the child into the most efficient person he is capable of becoming, but the supervisor is the consolidating force which seeks to co-ordinate and unify the child's educational experience by guiding and integrating teacher efforts.

Supervision of instruction is, then, the process concerned with all those aspects of organized education that
tend to promote the growth of the teacher as an individual personality, as an instructor in the school, and as a participant in professional relationships. The great need today is for teachers who have the capacity for continuing growth. These teachers are not necessarily people who are primarily scholars, researchers, or especially gifted in any particular line, but they are big people, people who have a comprehensive, well balanced outlook on life, who know how to get along with other people and with themselves, who are well integrated personalities. To promote such teacher growth is the major objective of the supervisor of instruction.¹

In order to achieve such an objective there must be careful planning, a sound philosophy. William James defines philosophy as "an attempt to think clearly and methodically about certain notions which are always turning up in our thinking and which seem necessary to our thinking but which the special sciences do not tell us about."

Certainly, the philosophy of educators in regard to teacher growth is of such importance as to stamp its impress upon concurrent educational problems.

CHAPTER II

EARLY TRENDS IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF SUPERVISION
OF INSTRUCTION

Any conception of supervision is necessarily a direct result of a conception of society and of the function of the school in the social group. Early supervision, then, took its coloring from a society in process of organization. In American education, supervision had its inception in the early ideals and environmental factors which led the Pilgrim Fathers to co-operate in community enterprises undertaken for their mutual welfare, benefit, and progress.\(^2\)

The word *supervision* first appeared, according to Coffman, in the early 70's, but the attempts to define supervision were, he states, "grimly humorous." As samples, he cites the following,\(^3\) some of them gathered from writers of distinction:

> Supervision is taking a broad view, the general view, and seeing the back and middle grounds as well as the foreground with its details. Supervision is the vision in the old and beautiful sense of seeing things invis-


ble.

The supervisor, in relation to the scholarship of his schools, is as a traveler going into a far country to, earn wages and to bring back treasures from its vast stores of wealth. In relation to the children and youth, the supervisor is as a pioneer going into a great wilderness of primeval forests to make them a home of civilization. In relation to the schools, the supervisor is as a sea captain of the medieval time upon a chartless sea.

The business of a supervisor is to cast a genial influence over his school, but otherwise he is not to interfere with the work.

Pierce also shows that supervisory philosophy was indefinite. Quoting from the Annual Report of the School Committee of Boston, 1877, Pierce says, "Merely looking on and seeing teachers teach is not the supervision of instruction which is to be expected of a principal." Discussing the principal of the 80's, Pierce states that this official was expected to make the influence of his personality felt in every corner of the school and to be familiar with the personal influence of every teacher. He was expected in his round of brief daily visits to each room, to participate, even if only by a few words, in the work, thus showing his interest and making his presence felt.

The laissez faire attitude toward supervision is

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further emphasized by the following authentic copy of supervisory notes given to a rural school teacher fifty years ago.

January 10, 1889

Miss Davis:

Your school-room is tolerably clean for such a muddy time. What decorations you have are very nice. One of your outhouses is a little wet. Remember that the condition of the school-room, and of its surroundings has much to do in the moral development of pupils; also in developing order and system. Give the subject of unconscious education special thought. This will help you to do better work on the thought side. Employ the group method in teaching the primary pupils reading. The and a should be spoken as though they belong to the following word as follows: The boy, these two words should be spoken as one word; by this means you can secure naturalness in expression, and avoid word calling. Do not assist pupils too much. Remember that there are two reasons for teaching or studying any branch: the first and most important is to develop the mind by exercising it, and the second is to store the mind with facts and principles that may be used in the affairs of life, therefore give pupils plenty of mind exercise.

(I. Exercise is the great law of mental development.)
(II. Repetition of thought and feelings fixes them.)
(III. The work must be made interesting.) If your pupils are greatly interested in their work, it is evidence that you are doing work on the thought side.

Do not give so much attention to the form or expression side of your work. Let the thought side receive special attention. The form or expression should be incidental. Reach the understanding of pupils, that is get them to see clearly the true relation of ideas and thoughts. (Refer to Sandison's Theory of the School.) Be as cheerful as possible. Bring the sunshine of gladness into the school-room. Be enthusiastic, and do all in your power to work up a good school sentiment in your district. (Refer to the school Manual.) Your pupils seem orderly and most of them busy which speaks well for your work.
Your position and movements are good. Cultivate a pure tone of voice. Do all in your power to get your pupils to join the young people's reading circle. Let us assist them in forming the Reading Habit. We can do them no greater good than to help them form a love for good books. Let us protect them against the evil effects of impure literature. Do all in your power to make your institutes the best. Do not neglect the work of the Teachers' R. C. Cultivate a professional spirit. Read the manual carefully, and follow the course of study as closely as possible. Make special preparation for each day's work. Watch closely the language of pupils, also the pronunciation of words. From what I have heard, and can see, I am confident you are doing right well for a beginner. If we can assist you in any way, let us know.

Your sincere friends,

J. O. Lewellen
D. N. Peterson

The first years of the present century were marked by an extension of supervisory activities practiced by principals. The plan-book appeared in this period. In 1902, principals in St. Louis were required to evaluate the lesson plans of apprentice teachers. In 1903, the Board of Superintendents in New York characterized the time and energy spent by teachers in "writing out elaborate plan and progress books" as an unnecessary burden. They suggested in-


stead that the principal should co-operate with teachers in making a monthly or term plan, subject to modification.

Young principals in New York were commended, in 1905, for a "growing individuality" in their work and all principals were encouraged to make their schools eminent in some one phase of the curriculum on the supposition that, with this accomplished, they would not rest until their schools attained general excellence.

An associate professor of New York schools in 1909 sounded a warning that registered fear that principals were overdoing the introduction of new methods. The principals continue to show commendable zeal in their endeavors to improve the work in their schools; at times, however, a hint of warning is necessary to prevent the over-zealous from assuming that everything new is necessarily an improvement.

A leaning toward autocracy seems evident in the statement of supervisory duties by Associate Superintendent Calkins in 1910. The principal should direct the work of the teachers in unison. He should know what each class is doing at any hour and he should have all teachers intelligently working on the same general plan and accomplishing nearly the same excellent results.  


8 Ibid., p. 61.
The prevailing philosophy of this period is evident in McMurry's report of supervision in New York City. He stated that the principal was responsible for such an organization of the school as would secure a high moral tone and for such assistance to teachers as would place the institution on a high plane. Furthermore, he said that it was the duty of the principal to surround the teacher with such an atmosphere as would encourage her to think her own thoughts and to express them frankly, to be her normal self; also to impress upon her that he was ever watchful of her provision for self-expression among her pupils. The principal's worth, according to this educator, was to be judged primarily by his skill as a leader, as a teacher of teachers, and his first duty to his teachers was to help them grow professionally.

He described two types of supervision in another part of his report. In the first type, intensive supervision, the principal observed an entire recitation in order to study, together with the teacher, how even the smallest teaching unit was related to the aims and principles of education. They sought to discover wherein the recitation was

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strong or weak and wherein it might be improved. This method of supervision presupposed the principal to be a real student of education. "And that is," his comment ran, "what the great mass of principals are not."

The second type, extensive supervision, gave the principal an opportunity to study not the whole recitation but some important feature of it, such as the form of the teacher's questions, the proper use of voice, or clear enunciation. According to that plan, the principal remained with the teacher only long enough to observe her practice in any one case. Then, following some definite standard, he discussed his observation with her.

McMurry illustrated supervisory attitude by describing a visit to a third grade room in which the pupils were memorizing a poem. To the visitor the young teacher had seemed to be doing reasonably well. However, the principal, after a few minutes of observation, appearing to be dissatisfied, himself took charge of the class and taught for ten or fifteen minutes. He later pointed out to the visitor that the teacher had not followed his direction.

Did you not observe that the teacher was standing in the back part of the room? A teacher, when a class is memorizing, should never stand in the back part of the room except, (He mentioned three exceptions.) Then did you not observe that the stanza had not been written on the blackboard? It is one of my rules that the gem to be memorized shall be placed on the board in front of the class so that all eyes can be looking in the same direction at one time.
Each child had a printed copy of the poem in his text book. When the principal took the class, he summoned the teacher to the front of the room, bade her write the poem on the blackboard, and he proceeded through six or seven "steps" which had been typewritten and furnished to the teachers. The visitor was presented with a copy as he left the room.

Again, McMurry discussed the procedure of New York principals whereby their theory of supervision was to have all teachers instructed to teach a given topic in the same way and the supervisory visit checked their faithfulness in following the method. This mode of supervision, he believed, was the generally accepted plan in New York at that period.

His survey of New York schools led him to conclude that there is a serious lack of theory among the principals as to how the work of supervising instruction should be undertaken. The theory that seems most common is that based on the idea that the degree of uniformity secured is one measure of the excellence attained. Finally, the report stated that there was little study of the method of supervising, although it was even then considered the most important work of the principal.
CHAPTER III
THE EMERGENCE OF THE MODERN CONCEPT OF SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Early supervision was indefinite, groping. During the first decade of the present century, a consciousness of the need of organization in this field became evident. As with most human endeavors in their incipiency, much shifting of viewpoints characterized the period of initial organization of supervision of instruction. At the beginning of the second decade of the century, the pendulum swung from extreme vagueness in supervisory concepts to rigid dogmatism. Subject matter and uniformity of method were given precedence over teacher initiative and child need.

Eliot was the first to foreshadow in definition the modern idea of supervision. According to him, "Supervisory control is concerned with what should be taught; when it should be taught; to whom, by whom, how, and to what purpose." 10

Very interesting is the enumeration in an article 11 on


Supervisory Leadership in 1919, of decidedly progressive needs: co-ordinating departmental efforts, delegating responsibilities, and maintaining a high standard in the professional knowledge of the supervisor.

Gray's article\(^\text{12}\) five years later shows further progress. He described the function of supervision as the improvement of instruction, the constructive elimination of inefficient efforts and misapplied energy. He advocated seeing the work of the grades relatively and with a view to the final outcome.

In 1920, Nutt\(^\text{13}\) asserts that the goal of supervision is to improve teachers in service and to secure efficient teaching results. He would have the supervisor select and organize the subject matter for courses of study, direct teaching activities of his teachers, and measure the efficiency and progress of pupils and teachers. The supervisor, according to Nutt, is there to help the teacher. She should feel free to consult him at any and all times and upon any phase of her work. His endeavor should be to develop independence and efficiency in teachers. The supervisor's


ideas and techniques should not interfere with the development of reliability, of judgment, initiative and originality on the part of the teacher. Supervisory criticism should be constructive and techniques should vary to meet circumstances.

Nutt's principles of supervision were revolutionary. He presented supervisor and teacher as co-workers with common knowledge of the basic educational factors; namely, the school as an institution, the pupils and their characteristics, and the various teaching techniques. The supervisor was no longer in the role of an all-knowing autocrat, but his contribution to the education of pupils taught was made through the work of the teachers under his direction.

A further advance toward the modern conception of supervision is evident in Burton's statements in 1923.

Supervision has to do with

1. The improvement of the teaching act.

2. The selection and organization of subject matter: evaluation of subject matter and text books, revision of courses of study, study of learning motivation.


4. The improvement of teachers in service through teachers' meetings, professional reading, bulletins, intervisitation.

5. The rating of teachers: teacher self-rating.¹⁴

Commenting on these principles in a later text, the co-authors pointed out that this definition did not distinguish between major and minor functions. Persistence of earlier ideas was evident, especially in the insistence on improving the work of the teacher.

Fannie Dunn in the same year writes:

Instructional supervision has the large purpose of improving the quality of instruction, primarily by promoting the professional growth of all teachers, and secondarily and temporarily by correcting deficiencies of preliminary preparation for teaching by the training of teachers in service.

Repercussion to the idealism herein described is found in a magazine article of the time. The author states that John Dewey has placed educational practice in this country twenty years behind educational theory; hence, most teachers of the period were giving lip service to a co-operative type of supervision in which teaching was regarded as a profession. Nevertheless, the supervisor set up rigid standards, put a premium on rule-of-thumb teachers, and was unduly concerned about method, and not at all aware of teacher background. The final paragraph of the article evinced definite protest: "The determination of aims, policies by a superior


force with no participation of the teacher is bound not only
to stunt teacher growth but to stultify him.\textsuperscript{17}

The fact that teachers were circumscribed is demonstra-
ted by Cubberley's planned supervision. He would have
the supervisor make a monthly plan for classroom supervi-
sion; mimeograph the plan, and place it on the teacher's
desk. The role of the supervisor was to inspect the work
thus carried on. One such plan follows:

\textbf{October Classroom Supervision Program}

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Supervisory purpose: to ascertain the effectiveness of the Language Work instruction, grade by grade, from 1st to 8th, A and B sections, oral work.</th>
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<td>Main objectives: Is growth regular and constant? Are there lapses? If so, where and why? Where most difficulties? Of what nature? Are we trying to do the best things, and in the best way? Special difficulties of our school?</td>
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<td>Supplemental objectives: Art of questioning Thought-provoking instruction Lesson assignments</td>
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| 9-13 | Supervisory purpose: Same as preceding week, but concentrated on the written work. Some written test work. Main objectives: Same as preceding week. Supplemental objectives: Character of the written work, with reference to suitableness, thought-provoking quality, and correlation. Note: Supervisory results of this and preceding week to form basis for discussion at building teachers' meeting of October 17th. |

| 16-20 | Supervisory purpose: Instruction in oral reading |

\textsuperscript{17} Jesse N. Newlon, "Reorganizing City School Supervision," \textit{Journal of Educational Method}, p. 404, June, 1923.
and phonics, grades 1-3, all sections, and transfer-
value of instruction to silent-reading work of grades
3 and 4.
**Main objectives:** Pupil growth in mastery of word
forms? Growth in power to pronounce quickly and read
accurately? Value or otherwise when transfer comes
to silent thought-getting reading? Is the transfer
easy and natural, or is there a loss that may be
prevented?
**Supplemental objectives:** Do we use a means to an end,
as measured by subsequent power and growth, or do we
overemphasize (or underemphasize) the means? Where
is the desirable balance? Do we make the transition
easily from the word and short sentence to the para-
graph as a thought unit?

23-27  **Supervisory purpose:** Pronunciation, spelling, and
word-analysis power of pupils grade by grade. Some
written and oral tests.
**Main objectives:** Is there a gain in power? Do the
upper grades continue to increase power? Overempha-
sis? Lapses? Improvements? Time allowance and
effectiveness?
**Supplemental objectives:**
- Teaching technique.
- Pronunciation drills.
- Lesson assignments on words.
- Training in dictionary use.

**Note:** Supervisory results of this and preceding week
to form basis for discussion at building teachers'
meeting of October 31st.

Discussing supervision in the high school in 1925,
Johnson deplored the fact that although supervision had been
practiced in the elementary school for a considerable time,
there was no book dealing expressly with supervision in the
high school, and very few helpful articles on the subject
had appeared in the journals. He contended that supervision

18 E. P. Cubberley, *The Principal and His School*
includes much more than the attempt to improve the technique of teachers merely from the observation of their work in the classroom. Fundamental to supervision is the consideration of educational aims and values and the selection and organization of the materials of instruction to meet these aims. According to him, an effective program for the improvement of instruction would include:

1. A liberal allowance of time for observing teachers at work.
2. A detailed knowledge of what constitutes good teaching.
3. A technique of supervision.
4. A spirit of co-operation on the part of the teachers based on a recognition of the value to them of such a program.
5. The testing of results.  

The emergence of modern trends in supervision appear at intervals in the educational literature of this decade. Frazier²⁰ states that teachers must be made to feel their responsibility for a supervisory program by assisting with the formation of courses of study and by contributing ideas to supervisory procedures.

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Blackhurst\textsuperscript{21} also tends to introduce a note of democracy into his conception of supervision. After stating that teacher and supervisor are both artists commanding great skill in carrying out educational principles equally understood by each, with the pupil as a common interest, he said that supervision means co-operation, the teacher being as much a party to the procedure as the supervisor. Ideally, the teacher is not an inferior professionally, but in every sense of the word an equal.

In 1926, Gist brought the child into prominence in his understanding of supervision. He said the supervisor should effect:

1. The improvement of teachers in service. The principal should recognize that the growing teacher secures the best results.

2. The improvement in the quality of instruction. This deals with tools and instruments of teaching.

3. The establishing of standardized goals of attainment.

4. Co-ordination of work.

5. Characterization of the pupil from all angles: physical, mental, social, and moral.\textsuperscript{22}

Collings also was mindful of the place of the child\textsuperscript{23}


\textsuperscript{22}A. S. Gist, \textit{Elementary School Supervision} (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926), p. 1

when he directed the supervisor to aid the teacher in overcoming particular difficulties of teaching, such as teacher participation instead of child participation, teacher goals instead of child goals, and teacher drives instead of child drives.

"Supervision of some kind is as old as American education, but supervision of the kind we are discussing today is yet in its infancy."24 Thus wrote Bertha Holmes in an article in Education, and justifying her statement she quoted a superintendent of schools as condemning much supervision because it has been "narrow-visioned dictation" and "strait-jacketed response" based on domination rather than inspiring leadership. Following Dewey's philosophy that the "end of growth is more growth," she contended that teacher growth means pupil growth and that supervision represents a new profession which will in time play an important part in the development of American life.

Uhl25 in speaking of supervision on a secondary level, stressed the need for teacher improvement as the first challenge to the supervisor. Supervision, as he saw it, also


included the selection and encouragement of significant teacher-pupil activities and the regulation of subject matter so as to avoid duplication.

Developments in supervision very much resemble the unfolding of a progressive historical plot. The men of one generation stand on the shoulders of those preceding them, using their discoveries and embellishing them with experiences of their own. Thus Stone more nearly approached the ideal stressing leadership rather than dictatorship in his seven points to secure instructional improvement:

1. Correlation, co-ordination, and integration of the work of teachers and supervisors. This precludes effective educational leadership of the principal to procure the maximum opportunity for pupil growth in each subject.

2. Adaptation of the course of study to local needs and provision for needed supplements. Flexibility of courses of study is recognized.

3. Improvement of materials and instruments of instruction.

4. Improvement of classroom organization and pupil placement.

5. Location and strengthening of weak spots in total instructional program. This can be done through continuous supervisory survey and the inauguration of co-operative supervisory projects to strengthen weak places.

6. Development of a good school spirit, commendation of pupils and teachers in this connection.

7. Improvement of instruction through teacher growth. Making teachers self-helpful should be the objective
of all supervisory activity.26

Stone conceived supervision as professional guidance applied to the various situations in which the teacher finds herself. He would have supervision scientific in this guidance. To this end, the principal was directed to use the best standard measures available, to base his diagnoses upon a set of guiding principles, to be able to suggest to the teacher remedial measures. In order to exercise scientific supervision, the principal must be an untiring student of scientific investigation bearing on his particular problems; he must acquire the scientific attitude of going wheresoever an adequate accumulation of indisputable evidence leads; he must proceed by the scientific method.

Finally, he would place supervision on a democratic basis. He said that in many instances supervision has been either merely inspectional in character or it has involved on the part of the teacher conformance to plans, requirements, procedures, and devices determined without her participation or choice. In this connection, he quotes Professor Charles H. Judd:

It seems to me that one of the great defects of supervision in times past has been that the supervisor has

26 Clarence R. Stone, Supervision of Elementary School, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929), Chapters I and V.
regarded it as his major duty to see that the teacher conforms to some fundamental principle of teaching or some favorite mode of procedure that the principal knows about.

Opposed to this supervision imposed from without is that which begins where the teacher is, attempts to locate her teaching problems and difficulties, furnishes a guide and co-worker in a common undertaking, and provides opportunity for the teacher to purpose, plan and experiment under expert counsel and guidance. This is essentially a democratic procedure.

Stressing democracy further, Cubberley would have principals understand that supervision of classroom instruction must be a co-operative affair between teacher and supervisor; that the work of the supervisor is to diagnose difficulties and needs, and to offer helpful suggestions rather than critically to evaluate what the teacher does; that expert technical knowledge is needed less than is the knowledge of sound teaching procedures common to all subjects.

Cubberley again stressed supervision on a democratic basis when he stated that all supervision should be constructive, that it should be characterized by kindness, consideration, and helpfulness, that it should promote unity of purpose and cooperation.

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To summarize: The period from 1910 to 1929 tends to feature definite goals in supervision. For the most part, effort was centered on improving the work of the teacher. By 1925, the principal was expected to be scientific. Pierce quoted several annual reports to confirm this idea. He said that the principal was expected to know the conditions of his school in a specific sense: what methods were to be employed according to scientific principles in the various grades in each subject. Principals began to utilize scientific studies to discover in what grades oral reading was effective and the lists of Horn, Ashbaugh, and others were their guides in the supervision of spelling. Graphs and other statistical devices were employed in illustrating pupil progress in arithmetic computation. Controlled experiments were conducted in testing remedial procedures in arithmetic and in evaluating the effectiveness of flash cards for developing speed and comprehension in primary reading. Principals devised special aids for new teachers and printed lesson plans for study periods.

An outstanding development since 1918 has been the emphasis placed upon the principal's ability to stimulate

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the professional growth of his staff. Prior to this period, teacher training was stressed. The modern point of view is that the best method of training a teacher is to stimulate in her an attitude of self-improvement.

Among the means cited for promoting professional improvement of teachers have been compilations of individual records of each teacher as a basis for future professional endeavor, provision for using professional literature, conducting of professional study classes by principals in connection with local educational institutions, encouraging membership in teachers' professional organizations, and discussion of professional problems in conference. Such activities proceed from the principal's own growth. The trend of the modern principal has been toward professional leadership; supervision itself is assuming the aspects of a profession.
CHAPTER IV

MODERN TRENDS IN SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

During the last period considered, the seeds of modern supervisory thought have been effectively sown. However, education is a changing, growing process as many sided as the human mind. Therefore, the very important educational function, supervision, will continue to strive for the ideal in bringing to fruition the best in supervisory thought of the past.

Historically speaking, enlargement of experience and development of ideas are not always concomitant with growth. Nevertheless, it is true that on viewing, kaleidoscopically, the life patterns of succeeding generations, one sees definite growth, enrichment in each successive age. So it is with supervision. The historical picture presents not mere enlargement of perspective, but definite growth in professional standards, in understanding of the agencies involved, especially the teacher and the child, in the laying aside of the proverbial bag of tricks and in the considering of basic concepts.

Supervision is a continuous and permanent function rather than an occasional and sporadic one. It is conceived in recognition of pupil and teacher needs. It is characterized by personal contacts and working relationships
of many types. It requires officials of intelligence and preparation, of tact and judgment, of professional vision and courage.

The supervisory activities purport to improve the instructional work and to enrich the immediate and life-time results of each pupil's school experience.

The supervisor of instruction endeavors to adjust teachers to their working environment. He leads them to real consideration of the pupils, of each other, of the community, and of the profession. He is a controlling and unifying influence, a correlating and integrating agency. He promotes or brings into being a helpful association of pupils, grades, and teachers.

He is concerned with the appropriateness of the materials of instruction, the effectiveness of their organization, the validity of the methods employed, and the worth of the measurement of results. He strives for uniformity in standards of accomplishment. He assists teachers to sense the unity of such curricula as may have been adopted. He reduces pupil and teacher failure, discovers deficiencies and shows how improvements can be made. He is at once critic, coach, and counselor directing and appreciating teacher efforts and encouraging teacher initiative.

In calm, studious, yet persistent fashion, he builds the working morale which insures returns in every part and
in the whole. He is a master teacher and a friend. He tells and shows teachers how to instruct, draws out their initiative and awakens their confidence. He helps them to feel their dignity as teachers and to be constantly better prepared. He makes them critical of themselves. He utilizes their special talents and abilities in bringing them to full stature because he knows that progress is instinctive to the few but that the majority need leadership and incentive.

This idealistic portrayal of a supervisor and of supervision from an unidentifiable source is a fitting prelude to the consideration of some modern philosophies.

Several modern writers distinguish four major attitudes toward supervision: Laissez-faire, autocratic, objective or scientific, and democratic.

The laissez faire attitude is self-explanatory. Teachers were inspected and rated. This was as far as the procedure went. If teachers wished to improve, they were at liberty to do so. If they were unsatisfactory and seemed unwilling or unable to improve, effort was made to eliminate them.

Discussing the coercive or autocratic attitude, Barr, Burton, and Brueckner describe it as a move away from

laisséz faire. It was based on the recognition of definite lack of training and low level of efficiency on the part of the teachers. Improvement was needed and coercion was deemed the best means to this end. The dominating philosophy holds that responsibility and authority are both vested in the upper levels. It was the role of teachers to carry out directions of those who see ends and who plan activities to achieve these ends. Learning was looked upon as a mechanical process which could be directed in definite grooves by rule of thumb, by aggregate planning of the supervisor, as has been pointed out elsewhere. Teachers were cast in a mold and expected to emerge using the same plans and achieving the same results. This is probably as far as possible from the modern democratic conception under which the teacher is assisted with her own program of personality development, is encouraged to initiate programs of study and to make her schoolroom a laboratory wherein she discovers new procedures to insure more adequate all-round development in the child.

Alberty and Thayer summarize the weakness of this mode of supervision:

1. The concept assumes that there are known best methods of doing anything. These are in the possession of the supervisor and may be handed out to teachers. It ignores the precarious, uncertain, and experimental aspect of life and of education.
2. This concept is destructive of personality values, particularly of initiative and originality. Repressions, inhibitions, and even complexes may result.

3. The concept sets up a highly improper relationship between supervisor and teacher. Fear and distrust enter. Insincerity and dishonesty result.

Two attitudes toward supervision are well illustrated by the following quotations from letters of teachers. It is interesting to note by the second that the autocratic philosophy of supervision is not altogether without merit.

Whether or not one's individuality is hampered depends on the supervision. I think of two supervisors who were entirely different, the one allowing me to use my judgment on all matters, but at the same time keeping in close touch with what I was doing and offering constructive suggestions, the other narrowing me to details so that I felt pinned down and hampered in a great many things. I never knew whether by taking the initiative I was doing the right thing or whether the supervisor would object. I felt that he paid too much attention to trifles and this tends to narrow a teacher, certainly.

At the beginning of my career I was subjected to rigid discipline by the head of my department. The man knew how to teach German and his results were remarkable, but he had the reputation of not being able to keep teachers in his department; he treated them so severely. The man nearly killed me with supervision, example, direction, but I owe everything today to him. I hated him, but "stuck" because I felt he had something fine. I remained with him five years, and we became fast friends. Today I teach according to his ideas, with some changes. He taught through inspiring terror; I give the boys and girls fun—and get just as good results as he did—using methods similar to his. No day goes by but that I real-

ize what I owe to his supervision. But he nearly drove me mad.

Two more quotations from teachers' letters portray vividly supervisory philosophy.

Principals come and principals go in our schools--some for one reason, some for another; and this fall we have a fresh specimen pausing with us en route upward. (He told us so himself.) It's amusing, even if a little difficult here and there, to recall the procession since I came ten years ago. First there was A, a pleasant, slap-you-on-the-back sort of person, whose whole notion of running a school was to jolly everybody into a sort of pseudo-happiness. He was "promoted" into business, where he is succeeding well enough. We "carried on" next with B, a cold-blooded executive. He didn't talk education with us either, but how wise he could look and how non-committal he could be when we went to him--until we learned better--for "advice"! But if he didn't talk education, he did talk--nay he preached--economy. Dear exuberant, little Johnnie Phillips he suspended a week for throwing away a piece of chalk. After two years he became superintendent--naturally. Then came C. He was the tragedy of the series, a man of sound common sense and generous impulses, but Nature hadn't blessed him with early culture. He wore his school clothes to President Bradley's dinner and ate ice cream with a spoon; so of course he had to go. D doesn't count--at least, he didn't, De mortuis nihil.

And now we have E. He is a trained educator, he knows the conventions of life, and he is industrious. So far, so good. But he won't last. With all his advantages, the poor boy has already doomed himself by his patronizing airs. At the first teachers' meeting he antagonized all of us whom he didn't amuse by his calm assumption that after all our years of service here we knew nothing or less than nothing about our work. As he talked on and on I glanced about and took inventory: Miss Wilkins with her refinement and tact, Mr. Frank with his imperturbable

calm and patience, Lucy Yoncey with her tremendous energy and sharp tongue, Lola Bell who has nursed more discontented pupils back to interest and industry than the rest of us together, and so on through the corps. Of course, the usual crop of new teachers we don't know yet. But Mr. E. knows, he said he did, and he never forgot to imply our ignorance and incompetence.

Then at assembly he offended half the old pupils and failed to stimulate the new ones. I wonder what reports went to three hundred homes after that first talk, and what support he can count on. Poor boy, he's in bad at the start—all, or almost all, because he can't imagine how other people feel and think, or that they do feel and think. He's off on the wrong foot, and at the end of the year he'll be off on the right train.

And finally—I mustn't bore you too long chattering about this temporary disturbance of ours—when he made his first round of "inspection" he found nothing but faults, and he made no bones about telling us about them, even though the pupils heard or guessed all he said. What will it profit the school if he convinces everybody, us included, that we are all wrong, and he is entirely right? After all we have put into the school the best we had, and I have a notion it's quite as much ours as his anyway.

The second letter is more encouraging.

The only thing new is the principal, and he is dreadfully new. He is young and I feared he would do as his predecessor did two years ago, try to change everything—not because everything was wrong, but because he felt it necessary to do something to make us know he was on the job.

But I must say this for our young friend, we got under way this morning with the minimum of confusion and loss of time. Of course there was at first the boisterous noise of pupils as they came in bubbling over with animal spirits accumulated during the summer, most of them ready, I dare say, to give or to accept a challenge from teachers and principal alike. But our young boss, instead of spending futile effort trying to shut them up, gave them something to do. He had his plans all ready and in an hour we were under way as if we'd been running a week.
This morning he came into my room as unostentatiously as a friend, and gave me a nod to go on, and sat quietly through the whole period. Think of it, a whole period with never a peep, and he a principal! But he seemed to know what he was looking for and the word he said as he left the room made me think he was looking for the good.

It was the first recognition of what I've tried to do, the first real honest-to-goodness praise I've ever had. Other people have superficially flattered me, but this man knows good teaching, I can see that, and overlooking my blunders he saw into the heart of my effort. I'm for him--strong! And when he comes again I'm going to show him how really good I can be.32

These letters do not define a philosophy of supervision, but they certainly give a supervisor a chance to view his philosophy in practice. If theory and practice could give the kiss of peace, ideal supervisory endeavor would result.

An intermediary step between an autocratic philosophy on the one hand, and a scientific and democratic philosophy on the other, is described by Barr, Burton and Brueckner. They would characterize this type of supervision by the words training and guidance. It was still maintained that the supervisory levels knew best. The teacher was to be trained and guided, but the fact that many teachers were


poorly trained bulked large. Training and guidance came from above, but there was clearly the thought that the training was for the good of all—to be directed toward the betterment of the teacher herself as well as her technique. Personal development was indicated however dimly. In this type, there was no idea of teacher experimentation as a technique of growth. Self-development was not yet clearly seen. However, this was a marked advance over earlier conceptions. Doubtless the bulk of supervision is today dominated by principles of training and guidance. The better type of truly democratic, cooperative, and participatory supervision is increasing but not yet dominant.

Much discussed in the educational literature of today is the next type of supervision to be considered; namely, scientific supervision. Now, science may be said to be research to establish principles and facts. Bobbitt defines science as "the best vision of reality which mankind has yet been able to achieve." Proceeding from definition, Gist says that the research for scientific data in education

34 Franklin Bobbitt, "Educational Science and Supervision", First Yearbook, Department of Directors and Supervisors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1928, Chapter XVIII.

35 Arthur S. Gist, The Administration of Supervision (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), Chapter VI.
and the organization and application of the best known principles and techniques discovered for the improvement of teaching may be said to be scientific supervision.

In scientific supervision, therefore, basic principles are not only discovered but they are organized and applied to teaching situations. Many busy persons engaged in supervision will have little time for the discovery of new scientific data, their main duty being, the application of established principles. The supervisor must know and utilize through adaptations to his own unique situation such scientific conclusions as we have.

At its worst, scientific supervision means over-emphasis upon quick and narrowly objective results in fundamentals. As Barr, Burton and Brueckner point out, it may force teachers to adhere closely to the "normal curve" in distributing marks. Detailed rating schemes may be used. There may be remedial programs of a mechanical and "subject-matter" type. There is danger of too much reliance upon limited, fragmentary, and misleading, although truly objective data. Often, there is no careful consideration of what is objective. These authors say, "Science aided us in disposing of the highly undesirable personal authority of individuals in power. There is often substituted an equally
At its best, scientific supervision promotes constructive, critical thinking. It looks upon measurement as a means of refining thinking. Considered in this light, standardized tests, whether they gauge intelligence or achievement or are used for diagnostic purposes, are in their proper perspective. It will be remembered that the results of the testing of the human variable will always have limitations. There is no doubt, however, that standardized testing does much to clear the atmosphere of educational thinking in the field of evaluation. Such testing tends to replace the haphazard and the casual by competent, objective, analytic methods.

Briefly, then, scientific supervision consists in the employment of orderly, systematic, critical methods in studying, improving, and evaluating anything within its province, including its own materials and procedures. It should derive and use data and conclusions which are constantly more objective, more precise, more efficient, more impartial, more expertly secured, and more systematically organized than are the data and conclusions of opinion.

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Objectivity does much to bring into relief the aims, purposes, and activities of education and the concept of supervision which rests upon these aims and purposes may be characterized as educational leadership. The function of such supervision, according to Douglas and Boardman, is to guide, help, stimulate, and lead the teachers to a criticism, appraisal, and study of their individual attitudes and practices, and of the educational activities and procedures consistent with progress toward the objective of education. To this end all individuals, both teachers and supervisors, will work together, using all the known tools of educational method. The development of the highest potentialities and efficiency of each person is sought. Independence of thought is encouraged. Differences of opinion are recognized as source of progress. Experimentation, collection and evaluation of data with the resultant conclusions often wholesomely follow such alterations. Cooperative activity is fostered so that each individual may contribute to the common cause.

The philosophy dominating the supervision implied in the preceding paragraph is certainly democratic. Democracy

in supervision, as well as in education presupposes, first, according to Barr, Burton and Brueckner, the recognition of individual worth, not of individual equality. Men are enormously unequal in knowledge, in insight, in appreciation, in honesty, in ambition, in resourcefulness, in motor skills. Men are not considered equal but they are to be considered. They are to be recognized for their contributions, however unequal they may be. Thus is attention directed to individual differences and to the value and uniqueness of each individual.

Democracy, in the second place, duly respects the group, society and its institutions. These are co-important with the individual. The individual and the group are not stationary concepts governed by a set of fixed values to be perpetuated by indoctrination. These social units are evolutionary and flexible.

Thirdly, democracy emphasizes responsibility and leadership rather than the traditional authority. Briggs suggests that the leader in a democracy is chosen and

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maintains his position because he is able not merely to convince others of the soundness of his ideas, but also to recognize the soundness of those contributed by others and to help incorporate them into a general plan. As Alberty and Thayer have well stated it, "The democratic leader expresses the common will resulting from cooperative thinking." 40

Lastly, democracy in supervision means that teachers have a right to grow. Good supervision encourages initiative, originality, self-reliance, self-expression. It stresses success and lets failure slip into oblivion. As Douglas and Boardman express the idea, supervision allows a teacher "to have freedom to think his own thoughts, to develop self-reliance, and to assume responsibility for the intelligent participation in the direction of instruction." 41 Thus does good supervision glean and adopt from rich teacher personality the best in inspiration, the most advanced in education, and the fullest cooperation offered by those whose educational background is being ever enlarged and enriched.


Barr, Burton, and Brueckner give five characteristics of democratic supervision. They say it

1. Respects the personality of the teacher: her ambitions, special capacities, and personal idiosyncrasies.

2. Recognizes and deals sympathetically with the human element of supervision.

3. Stimulates and encourages initiative, self-reliance, and individual responsibility.

4. Provides opportunities for and encourages freedom of expression in matters of instructional policies.

5. Emphasizes the cooperative character of supervision.42

No discussion of a democratic program of supervision should neglect to mention the salutary effect of judicious, well-deserved praise. Laudatory recognition of a teacher's work by her superiors stimulates more than any other technique and often influences the teacher to explore new fields in education and to become proficient in them.

Foster mentions four implications of the acceptance of democracy as the basal philosophy of supervision:

1. That the school exists for the pupil, not the pupil for the school. Democratic supervision is the supervision not primarily of teaching, but of learning, and of teaching only because it conduces to learning.

2. That the organization of the school must provide for the social functioning of the educative activity, with each number contributing to the good of all and sharing in the benefits of the contribution of all.

3. That the school's organization be that of an institution rather than of a mere aggregation.

4. That the school is an institution of active persons, not of passive things. Under good supervision, pupil and teacher activity are based on the initiative of the learner for better learning. Such learning involves the creation of some educational experience. Creativeness is basal in learning and hence in supervision. 43

Creative supervision naturally follows from the tenets of democracy in supervision. If the individual considered in his relation to the group, is to be encouraged in the practice of self-expression and responsibility, he must necessarily be stimulated to creative thinking. Supervision is creative when, according to Douglas and Boardman, 44 it seeks latent talents, provides opportunities for the exercise of originality and for the development of unique contributions, and shapes and manipulates the environment for the furtherance of these ends.


Smith and Speer say,

Creative supervision is the essence of supervisory excellence. It adapts supervisory activities to the requirements of teachers, pupils and community. It uses methods, based perhaps upon previous experience and study, but accurately adapted to a particular teaching situation. Creative supervision encourages and assists the processes of creative instruction. It helps teachers, as well as pupils, find beneficent self-expression through socially useful enterprises.\(^{45}\)

Shannon states as the aim of creative supervision the "creation in the entire faculty of a new philosophy, a new attitude, a new level of ability, or a new level of professional knowledge."\(^{46}\)

Briggs\(^{47}\) says that creative supervision attempts to free teachers for the largest possible contribution that they can by ingenuity devise for more effectively achieving the ends of education. Confirming this attitude, Cubberley writes, "The chief purpose of all classroom supervision is that of liberating the teacher, freeing her from set procedures and definite prescriptions, and developing her as


far as possible, into a master teacher." 48

Creative supervision concerns itself mainly with persons and principles, rather than with processes and practices. It "provides an opportunity for each teacher and each child to grow through the exercise of his talents and abilities under expert professional encouragement and guidance." 49

Creative supervision is a signpost of progress; professional progress and progress in the understanding of democratic ideals.

In summary and conclusion is quoted Arthur Gist's contrast of autocratic and democratic supervision.

**Autocratic**

1. Leadership of teachers through appeal to fear of higher authority.

2. Repression of interests, enthusiasms, and individualities and opinions.

3. Emphasis upon strict rules and regulations administered in a dictatorial and arbitrary regime.

**Democratic**

1. Emphasis upon harmonious supervisor-teacher cooperation.

2. Inspirational leadership which respects and develops the personality, abilities and enthusiasms.

3. Emphasis upon interests, co-operation and helpfulness which results in a happy, pleasant regime.


49 "Creative Supervision", *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, Chapter XII, Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, p. 344.
4. Emphasis upon routine routine passiveness. 4. Emphasis upon human factors. 50

Supervision of instruction has run the gamut of the philosophies. At first, shedding of the benign influence was the extent of supervisory endeavor. From extreme indulgence and laissez faire, the supervisor proceeded to his pulpit to legislate as to lesson plans, methods, results. The teacher more or less mechanically carried out his will. He had an exalted idea of his own importance and superiority, and he considered it his duty to improve the teacher by the imposition of his own ideas and practices. Progress was evident when the attitude of guidance emerged.

For a score of years, the idea of democracy has been found in educational literature. Much talking of it, much theorizing, much idealizing have resulted. In practice, the philosophy of democracy in supervision is in its "growing pain" stage. Longing looks are cast by some administrators and teachers at this Utopia. Painfully, yet hopefully, do teachers await the day when democracy in supervision will bring about a reasonable freedom for the exercise of initiative and for experimentation. Grudgingly do some rather narrow-minded supervisors recognize that modern trends make it inevitable that they surrender their autocracy. However, general whole-hearted acceptance in practice of this
vitalizing philosophy will be possible only when teachers and supervisors are educated, not trained. Adequate background does not consist of the ability to cope with educational devices: standardized tests, the unit plan, the normal curve, etc. True education must include an understanding of the principles of Christian philosophy to attune the mind to logical thinking and accurate judging of what will lead to the true, the good, the beautiful. Thus, many unsound educational tricks and trends remain without the experience of the educated supervisor and teacher. They will be guided by a philosophy which has for its purpose the development of the whole child: physically, emotionally, intellectually, spiritually.

Well could supervisors take for their model the Great Educator, Christ, Who practiced the tenets of democratic supervision:

1. Regard for individual worth as was illustrated by His parables and teaching of those in every life situation: the sower, the shepherd, the fisherman, the husbandman, the prodigal son, the Samaritan, the pharisee and the publican.

2. Recognition of the individual's place in relation to society as a whole: "Render to Caesar the things that are Caesar's, and to God, the things that are God's."
3. Promotion of the idea of participation in responsibility. The disciples, His "teachers," took part with Him in the working of many miracles, in His teaching, and in the Last Supper. They received the commission to do as He had done. Most important of all, Christ lived intimately with them. He was their model, their inspiration. This is the supreme contribution a great leader makes to educational growth and development. This continued contact of mind with mind is the factor that leaves the most enduring impression.

Within the last decade, educational literature refers to an even newer philosophy which has for its aim the improvement of instruction through the improvement of the supervisor in service. In the light of this philosophy of the supervision of instruction are the following legitimate aims:

1. Improving constantly the quality of supervision by training-in-service of supervisors.

2. Encouraging and motivating teachers to seek and partake of supervisory help through an obvious excellence of supervisory assistance.

3. Assisting teachers in the highly technical parts of his job as he desires and seeks assistance.

4. Co-ordinating the lines of supervision and assistance and organizing the results of the assistance so that
it will be readily available. 51

Wisdom and service will always enthrone its possessor without help of artificialities and self aggrandizement. This program will develop true educational leaders, even one of whom can by the sincerity, integrity, and idealism of his life influence mightily, not only his school and community but leave his "footprints on the sands of educational time."

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