

PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

A THESIS

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PREFACE

After a serious and extensive examination of educational texts I have become convinced that a very limited amount of material has been produced on the practical problems of beginning teachers.

A beginning teacher myself just six years ago, the necessity of adjusting to the difficulties of the classroom made me aware of the problems and sent me on the search for information and guidance. Over these past six years my interest in the problems of beginning teachers has grown more intense and I have made a conscientious effort to read as much education literature as I could find on the topic.

I have been unable, so far, to find any book or prepared text specifically on the problems of beginning teachers. I came close to reaching my objective when I read Gilbert Highet's book, The Art of Teaching. My objective, however, was not achieved. I found that Gilbert Highet's book did not concern itself with the practical problems of beginning teachers, but it did treat of the qualities that a teacher should possess if he wants to be a successful teacher.

The Beginning Teacher by J. C. Almack and The Beginning Teacher by W. A. Youch did not satisfy my quest. These two books were devised to give the beginning teacher a preview of

the teaching profession from a philosophical and social point of view.

The books and pamphlets which I have listed in my bibliography and the books that I have read during the past years appear slightly unrealistic and heavily philosophical in regard to the beginning teacher's problems. They do not treat of those things which are problems particularly for the beginning teacher. Occasionally, authors will intimate that a beginning teacher does have a problem with discipline, methods or knowledge of subject matter. They do not, however, stress these problems or suggest how to overcome them. Their comments are made as asides while they are discussing other major topics. I decided, therefore, to compile a type of handbook directed particularly to beginning teachers, a handbook which will not treat all the problems of beginning teachers, but will provide some guidance in the major problem areas.

The thesis begins by considering the problem of discipline as experienced by the beginning teacher. After that, consideration is given to the problems the beginner has in obtaining sufficient knowledge in subject areas and in general knowledge areas. Next a look is taken at the problems a beginner encounters with his use of methods of instruction. It is not intended to question the kinds of methods a beginner uses, but to indicate that he may have problems with each of these methods because of his lack of experience and skill in

using them correctly. Finally, there is a treatment of the problems discussed in the first three chapters, insofar as the solution to these problems may be found through supervision. Again, it is necessary to point out that this chapter is directed to the beginning teacher and not to the supervisor. It is recognized that the supervisor understands the needs of the beginning teacher, but the beginning teacher does not always realize that a supervisor is capable of helping him in many ways. My last chapter is designed to make the beginner aware of this contribution which the supervisor can make to his effectiveness in the classroom.

CHAPTER I

DISCIPLINE - THE PROBLEM FACING NEW TEACHERS

"Ability to discipline is the first essential of good teaching."¹

From what I have learned through reading different educational books, it seems that new teachers fail in their first year of teaching through their inability to handle children's conduct effectively.

Investigations show that approximately a fourth of the failures among teachers are directly due to weakness in discipline. It is the bane, too, of many who do not completely fail. Their inability to cope effectively with discipline causes nervous strain, poor health, and discouragement, and results in mediocre instruction.²

Potentially excellent teachers have been denied the opportunity to contribute maximally to child development because they have disregarded the above fact, have failed to recognize its importance, or seem unable to develop good procedures.

It would be erroneous to say that all school administrators insist upon formal discipline, on children's doing exactly as the teacher says. But it is not wrong to say that nearly all administrators make some of their most important judgments about teachers on the basis of the way the classroom is managed. Since the effectiveness of the learning experience is partly determined by the way children perform during the act of learning, discipline becomes an extremely important consider-

ation which may make or break a new teacher.

Before going on further, I would like to define the term "discipline", that is, the meaning it is to have throughout this chapter. Discipline is the techniques a teacher uses to obtain the kind of behavior of children that is inherent in a good learning situation. This is a broad term, but I hope to narrow it down as I treat the different phases of it.

From what I have already said, it is evident that I wish to treat that phase of discipline which the new teacher will meet on his first day, and every day thereafter, of actual teaching. I do not intend to go into the history of discipline, nor do I wish to prove that discipline is the only important thing in a school curriculum.

The big difference between the first actual teaching position and the student teaching assignment is the absence of the control exercised by an experienced teacher. A student can be a complete success in a student teaching situation and be a failure in his own classroom. The reasons for this could be numerous, but they may stem back to the idea that while being a student teacher, he misjudged the influence of the master teacher upon the class. There is also another important point insofar as he failed to see that securing the proper learning atmosphere is just as much teaching as explaining sentence structure and mathematical processes. To a certain degree it may be the teacher's fault, but then again, it might be the lack of knowledge of all the pupils, the absence of firmness in those important first days with the class in

the lower grades, etc. However, the teacher must face his own problems and therefore find means or techniques in bringing about that which he desires.

LIMITATIONS OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

Even before the teacher comes in contact with his pupils, there are legal and educational limits on children's freedom. These must be acknowledged by both teachers and pupils. First of all, it is a recognizable fact that children in school do not do entirely as they please. Any teacher who allows such things to happen is misguiding the children. Laws limit the freedom of everyone. Such laws refer especially to children's behavior. For instance, provinces establish the legal limits of the school day, the ages of mandatory school attendance, certain subjects to be taught and the amount of time to be devoted to each of them, and the legal authority of the teacher to act in place of the parent. The teacher can obtain this information from a book called School Codes, or P. F. Bargaen's book entitled The Legal Status of the Canadian Public School Pupil.

Next we have the rules and regulations established by the Board of Education. The local Board of Education, as the direct representative of the people in the community, is charged by the state or province with the responsibility of setting up an educational program. The members may set up certain additional restrictions on pupil behavior. These rules may be in the form of rules governing the curriculum to be

offered, the standards to be met for promotion and graduation. The teacher must know these provisions and is responsible for acquainting the children with their obligation.

In addition to what the state or province and the Board of Education may decree, the chief administrative officer or his subordinate may set up further restrictions affecting pupil behavior. They may also govern the behavior of children outside the classroom. Closely related to this idea is the idea that individual school policies may restrict children's behavior. By individual school policies is meant the teachers within a school may establish certain restrictions. It has been known that a school staff which has worked closely together over a period of time can set up or develop a tradition which is stronger than any legal code.

Last but not least is the teacher's own values which tend to restrict children's behavior. This, however, is our original problem. With the idea that the teacher knows what his role is, his next task is to inform his students. The first objective of the teacher on his very first day should be to avoid opportunities for disorder. Mr. Parker states:

If the very first day is begun with a businesslike spirit, if there are certain definite tasks to be accomplished concerning which there is a clear mutual understanding between the teachers and pupils, if the latter are seated to the best advantage, if materials are so placed as to obviate wasteful movements, conflicts and confusion, if the ventilating and lighting are so arranged as to contribute to vitality and comfort instead of fatigue, annoyance and irritability, if all these matters are properly provided for, then many opportunities for disorder are eliminated.³

Good classroom planning and procedure is the best guarantee against classroom disorder. Any teacher will, at first, usually list "discipline" as his number one concern as he undertakes his work in the classroom. How to win the respect of a group of children without having them take advantage of the situation is a common worry of a young teacher. To find the proper balance between strict formality and friendly help is indeed difficult for many young teachers.

The idea of good classroom planning, along with a good classroom is an example of what Canada asks and offers in group living. The classroom that reflects cooperative effort, with full respect for the rights and responsibilities of all the members there, is one in which effort and undertaking are in the limelight and which there is a minimum of those elements that bring the problem of control to the front. Out of respect for children, adequate planning, ample materials, ample things to be done in the classroom, a pleasing teacher personality, a democratic approach, and similar good pedagogical qualities, come good classrooms. Children sense early whether a teacher likes his work and is happy in it.

IDEAS CONCERNING DISCIPLINE

Before considering disciplinary control there are a few principles which every teacher should know. Children who are interested in learning are rarely behavior problems. Young people, especially school pupils, are interested in the world around them and will go to great lengths to discover this

world. The lack of interest arises when they are forced to do that which the teachers think they ought to do. However, the pupil will do what the teacher thinks he should do if the teacher makes it interesting and exciting. The teacher must never forget that study can be made interesting. The secret of control in regards to making study interesting is to channel the interest and excitement into directions which prove satisfying to the learner.

The next principle is, busy learners are seldom problem cases. We all know or realize the amount of energy a growing person has and we also know that this energy has to be expended. The idea here is to have the energy channeled in the right direction. According to the book, The Beginning Teacher, this is summed up by the words, "The devil finds work for the idle hands."⁴

Another thing a teacher should know is that children work best when they know the specific limits to their freedom. Every person during his younger years tries to exceed the limits without getting caught. Once again we find that if behavior controls in the classroom are specific, consistent, and well known, a more stable and secure environment is had.

The last standard to be considered on this particular phase is the idea that the teacher has a variety of disciplinary controls at his disposal. Four of the most important are: the level of self-satisfaction, the level of reward, the level of fear and threat, and the level of punishment. These controls do not work all the time nor do they work for any particular

group at any given time. They must be applied in a flexible manner with a functional attitude.

I already mentioned the idea of the teacher's attitude being a determining factor in discipline. However, I would now like to discuss it further, since I have been looking at the situation from the teacher's point of view up to this point. This particular section could be the pupil's point of view.

One of the most obvious facts in the maintenance of good order is the influence of the teacher's attitude toward the class, particularly during the first few weeks and months. The teacher has to draw the line between friendliness and dignified reserve, in order to preserve the respect by the children for their teacher's authority. A member of the Jesuit order has stated this problem rather clearly:

That master who goes off with such ease from the very first, to whom the carrying out of all the rules seems the simplest thing in the world, who in the very first hour he is with them has already made himself liked, almost popular with his pupils, who shows no more anxiety about his work than he must show to keep his character for good sense - that master is indeed to be pitied; he is most likely a lost man. He will soon have to choose one of two things: either shut his eyes and put up with all the irregularities he thought he had done away with or to break with the past that he would wish forgotten and engage in open conflict with the boys who are inclined to set him at defiance...⁵

The author of the same book from which the above quotation was taken stated that "dignified reserve" is one of the best terms that can be found to designate the appropriate attitude for a teacher to take toward a class. This is especially true in the lower grades where one can find such children who are obedient, orderly, courteous, and have consideration for one another. The above adjectives suggest an ideal picture

of a well-disciplined situation, but they would tend to be lessened without the idea of "dignified reserve".

While considering the teacher in regards to discipline, it is necessary for a teacher to be consistent and decisive in enforcing rules. The influence of lack of consistency is illustrated by teachers and parents who are always threatening and never executing. Pupils very soon learn that they are likely to escape the consequences in many cases, and are willing to take the chances or to gamble on the issue. The influence of lack of decision is illustrated by the remark often made by a teacher, "I don't know what I will do with you if you don't behave yourself." This is a particular instance when the teacher should take the time out to figure out the best course of action to be taken.

Another thing the teacher should not do is to regard all offences as against the teacher. These offences should be regarded by the teacher and pupils as essentially offences against the class or group whose progress is interfered with. An example of such an offence would be, a pupil is playing while a lesson is going on and the teacher's remark should be something of this nature, "John, you are distracting the class, please pay attention." This wording will give the offender the idea that he is disrupting the whole class and he is more likely to behave.

When teachers make rules they should be few and of a simple nature. "Have few rules. You can wreck character more quickly by making rules, and allowing them to be violated, than

you can in any other way."⁶ Abstract rules are ineffective.

Mr. Thorndike sums this up in the following words:

Avoid making rules involving distinctions which the pupils cannot make. No communication between pupils without especial permission except in the five minute recesses between periods, a ten year old can understand; the distinction between a period and the five minute recess is easy. But no communication between pupils that disturbs the work of the class, will be beyond him. ... Rules which vary in complex ways with attendant circumstances or with the motive for the act are unsuitable for young children and for the duller older children. Moral as well as intellectual progress should be made step by step along clear pathways.⁷

Personal appearance and habits play an important role in determining the teacher's reputation and control in the classroom. First impressions are lasting ones. New teachers should bear in mind that the public has invested great sums of money in the establishment and maintenance of schools, the major portion of which goes for teachers' salaries. Therefore, teachers should be moderate in dress and manners, to say the least. When students see that the teachers dress with the idea in mind that they respect their jobs, they may respect them also. Once again there is the possibility of eliminating classroom misbehavior.

Along the same lines, it is also a good practice for teachers to check the possible prohibitions against smoking and drinking. When poor example is shown, the pupils could also do likewise. There is the possibility that some teachers can make a neat distinction between public and private conduct. Others will need to struggle with the personal problem and decide whether the job is worth the sacrifice.

Teachers should watch out for disconcerting mannerisms.

The little peculiarities which make human beings different are inevitable. Some of these peculiarities can ruin a teacher if he is not on his toes insofar as control is concerned. In the book entitled The Beginning Teacher, the author states:

Students often engage in dormitory "bull sessions" in which each person frankly evaluates another's strong and weak points. If you have a chance to participate try to find out what others find objectionable in your conduct. This will be invaluable evidence of what you need to correct in order to get along well with your public.⁸

When the teacher has evaluated himself and the students and is still having trouble with discipline, then I think he should look for troubles that exist outside the classroom. By troubles outside the classroom I mean social and economic troubles, physical health, mental health and group influences. If these problems exist, then the teacher himself should try to do something about it or have someone else appointed to perform the task.

THE BASIC IMPORTANCE OF DISCIPLINE

Why is good discipline so important? Why stress it so much? The answer is simple.

A poor disciplinarian does irreparable harm to the pupils. Under such mismanagement they soon become firmly established in habits of disorder, disrespect, idleness, mischief and in many of the vices that flourish in an unhealthy social atmosphere.⁹

No group of people can share anything or work together without rules and regulations. This is true whether individuals are working as individuals or as members of a group. Along the same line, we may also ask the question, why the rules and regulations? These are necessary for the reason stated above;

rules and regulations are necessary in order that the group can function well.

Good discipline is a way of achieving team work towards goals. It is a way of helping the individual to rise to his potential. A classroom cannot function well without discipline. Teachers cannot teach unless they have the students' attention, their interest, their application of abilities and shared goals. The student has to be involved in the subject matter to be learned.¹⁰

Without good discipline a team is in trouble. Without good discipline, a school room is a waste of everybody's time. No wonder the teacher who has to spend most of her time on behavior problems cannot teach the youngster what he should learn. No wonder the teacher is tired out from tugs-of-war back and forth between herself or himself and the students. The teacher is spending too much time controlling them, and too little time teaching them.

So far I have been speaking of discipline in the sense of good discipline or how to achieve this good discipline. Facing facts, we know that discipline of some sort is with us to stay, in one form or another. Even those who have opposed it or played down its importance know that, sooner or later, they have to resort to discipline in some shape or form. It is, then, not a matter of whether we shall have discipline; rather, it is a matter of getting the best discipline we can.

Bad discipline, in the sense that it is too harsh, too quickly administered, too negative and discipline which emphasizes the person rather than the deed itself, also exists. Therefore, I think it is necessary to summarize a few facts which may act as an eye-opener to the new teacher with the hope that

these facts will not be overlooked.

Discipline which is too harsh: this means discipline which is too strong for the acts it seeks to correct. If one parked a car overtime and received a thousand dollar fine, we would say the discipline was too harsh. The corrective measure should fit the infraction in a way meaningful to the child.

Discipline which is too quickly administered is also undesirable. We have to wait to see if the child is going to follow through on our request. We do not want to "jump the gun" on him. Some children move slowly; some of them know perfectly well that they will follow your orders but they first want to make you doubt it. Ordinarily we should not expect children to "jump" when spoken to, but we do not want to wait indefinitely either. As long as the teacher concerned can see some evidence when the child is beginning to move toward compliance, this should suffice.

Sometimes discipline is too negative in its effects. Discipline should serve to correct an error or misapprehension or misdemeanor. As a corrective device it should point out the positive alternatives that are available to the person. It is far better and more in keeping with generally good educational practices to illustrate what is wrong and to go on to suggest positive alternatives.

A fourth characteristic of poor discipline is its defeating nature. This occurs when the teacher tries to get the child to behave or see through the problem; and when he fails to do so, becomes over-critical of him. If he is admon-

ished too much, is accused of being "dumb" or "hardheaded", has his whole personality included in the accusations, he may be overwhelmed, and stopped from gaining further knowledge.

One should not mix educational requirements with corrective disciplinary measures. A child does not profit from being made to study as punishment for some naughtiness. Such a procedure negates both the studying and the punishment, and mixes them into a confused and self-defeating concoction.

Sometimes, teachers with good intentions and good aims, over-discipline the child. In such instances, too much correction is placed at the child's disposal and he is thereby confused. If one were learning to drive a car and his tutor corrected every little mistake he made, he might become so exasperated with the tutor that he would give up in despair. The teacher may become too cautious, too attentive to trivialities - even if corrections are given in good spirit. The big goal is too easily lost sight of.

Perhaps the most common cause of poor discipline comes from the tendency of the teacher to take the child's protests or his retaliations too literally. If you give most children a chance, they will "protect" or "defend" themselves. This should be accepted as a natural tendency, especially since children are not fully socialized and often take a narrow view of matters affecting them. If we take their "lying" or "stubborn refusal to face the facts" too literally, they may be driven to taking a course that is momentarily logical to them, but harmful in the long run.

TECHNIQUES FOR OBTAINING GOOD DISCIPLINE

Now that a brief summary has been given on what to avoid in regard to discipline, I think it is feasible now to summarize a few techniques which a new teacher may use to obtain good discipline. Techniques for influencing behavior are as old as mankind's social relationships. Probably no one age or era has had a monopoly on effective disciplinary techniques. In some ways we are today only slightly wiser than people of past generations. If we are wiser it is because we can now, with the aid of science, test the usefulness of knowledge more readily, and we can communicate it faster and more effectively. Thus, if new or even old or revised techniques come to our attention, we can study them without delay and let others know of their effectiveness.

Good discipline is planned; it is not accidental. We must know as well as we can the child's present level of achievement, his abilities and his interests. On the basis of knowledge about his achievement in comparison to his abilities, we can infer his past and present motivation. If, however, he has performed very poorly in comparison to his ability, we have good reason to infer that he lacks motivation, has poor work habits, or does not know how to concentrate. This is where good discipline can help.

Next in importance would be the "teacher's personality" and "early contacts" but I have already discussed them under "Ideas Concerning Discipline."

The fourth technique for obtaining good discipline is to "add tasks". Give the students work which is commensurate with their ability, achievement and interest, note their strong and weak points in doing the assignment and proceed to build from there. Once you have a child achieving in this modest and simple way, keep on feeding him the work so that a pattern of successful completion begins to be established. In this way a success pattern - a pattern of self-discipline and achievement - is being formed. The child is continually forming habits contributing either to success or failure with respect to his work. As a teacher, one can help toward such a success pattern.

In connection with the latter, we as teachers must accept the fact that the child may not take readily and willingly to such an organized program. The child may be used to kicking up a fuss, to protesting, to sulking, or to resorting to a host of other techniques calculated to get the teacher either to do the work for the child or to relieve him from his responsibilities. The teacher should not naively assume that, just because he is doing the "right thing", the child will respond with one hundred per cent cooperation. It would be nice if children did thus respond, but in all probability it will not happen in this simple way. The teacher should therefore, be prepared to face the opposition that the child often develops. He should be armed with foresight and plans to cope with it. This technique is known as handling recalcitrance.

The need for follow-through is another technique. A teacher should be prepared to follow through indefinitely with

the procedure of making requirements and giving attention to the children's responses. It is pleasant to know that some children do not need more than a slight push of encouragement to be able to navigate on their own. But most children must have rather sustained attention, otherwise they feel the teacher no longer cares. The teacher's viewpoint and his expectations as to what the children should do must be reaffirmed to them. Indeed, most of us need some prompting each day to keep going with many of our own activities.

In setting requirements for children, try to make them as clear as possible without too much verbal explanation. A lot of talk to the children is generally negatively correlated with effective guidance; the more one talks beyond a minimal point, in the process of discipline, the less he is generally getting over to the children. Conversely, the less the teacher talks, the more he imparts to the children by his attitude, gesturing and general demeanor. "I just talk and talk to those youngsters; tell me where I go wrong." Typical of many, this teacher needs to talk less and become more efficient in other ways.

DISCIPLINE PROBLEMS AT JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVELS

I have eliminated discipline problems on the elementary level for two reasons: I am interested in teaching on the junior and senior level and from reading several books on discipline I came across the following quotation, which, I believe is significant: "The most severe disciplinary problems either begin at or stem from the junior high school years."¹¹ Many

authors agree with this idea, although the origin of these disciplinary problems may go back much further. The author of the book from which I just quoted stated that a check was made on twenty-one consecutive high school disciplinary cases and found that seventeen of them began to show their overt disciplinary troubles during the junior high school years.

What is there about junior high level that leads a youth to give vent to disciplinary problems? First, the students of this age range are moving rapidly into adolescence with its great emphasis on exploring new worlds of thought, feeling and action. There is a great tendency for them to assert themselves on their own terms, to challenge adult authority, to throw off the shackles of their childhood.

Second, the change from the elementary level where the child usually has one principal teacher, to a situation where he has four to eight equally important teachers, often very different in age, experience, and understanding, requires a sizeable adjustment from the child. The fact that each teacher has a speciality, that the child is required to meet often conflicting demands from the various teachers and their specialities and that each subject has to be pursued for its own values are new concepts for the child to absorb and follow.

Third, the junior high school child does not spend all day, or nearly all day, in one room, as in elementary school. He often moves about to as many as eight or nine rooms, besides which there may be a gymnasium, outdoor playgrounds, and special music or art rooms to find his way into and out of.

Junior high school students are often confused, at least initially, at the mass of classrooms, teachers, hallways, and school areas they have to get used to if they are to stay with the school routine.

Fourth, when the sixth grader comes to the junior high for his first classes, he is the "low man on the totem pole," compared with his superior status in the elementary school he has just left. He now takes the brunt of the teasing of the upperclass students. He sees boys and girls openly expressing interest in each other, and is introduced to actual cases of close social relationships between sexes. The complexity and pace of social relationships can be dazzling to the elementary age child when he first sets foot in the junior high school.

Perhaps age twelve is not the best time to expose children to this relatively mature and complex organization. As the age of adultlike responsibilities in church, home, and vocation is constantly pushed upward, perhaps the age of beginning high school should be raised a year or two. This, however, is another problem.

Senior high school age students may, as individuals, pose severe discipline problems, but as a group they are usually somewhat better adjusted to school than the junior high students. Some of the more recalcitrant and less able students have dropped out, and the remaining group is more homogeneous in achievement and amenability to good discipline. Many students, by the time they have reached high school, are seriously intent on their studies and regard misbehavior as

juvenile and unbecoming their more mature station. They tend, also, to censor others who misbehave unduly or who regard school as a joke.

This is not to say that senior high problems in discipline do not exist. There has been more time for problems to develop and more seriously than at earlier ages; and the opportunities for freedom and self-direction that have not been taken advantage of in constructive ways will be accentuated in worse problems and habits. Here, again, choices in the curriculum, the great variety of teachers and teaching standards, the greater need to be a self-starter and a self-director, will pose problems which many students will not have developed the resources to meet.

PUNISHMENT

Considering the idea that most of the discipline problems arise in the classroom, the teacher has to solve the problem. When a bit of psychology does not work, then punishment has to be enforced. Under the heading "Punishment", we have two ideas or subheadings: punishment's nature and purposes.

"Punishment is the discomfort or restraint inflicted upon the individual, by the authority which he is subject to, for the commission of an offence."¹²

The fundamental purposes of punishment are: (1) to give manifestation to society's disapproval of wrong, and (2) to cause others to refrain from committing offences and (3) to

reform the offender. The school is concerned with the procedure which will reform the offender. Its purpose in psychological terms, is to enable the offender to form such association between misconduct and discomfort as will cause him to choose more desirable motives for conforming to the ways of his group.

Along with knowing the nature and purpose of punishment a teacher must know the characteristics of an effective punishment. One of the marks of an effective punishment is the certainty with which it comes when deserved. When punishment is certain, the element of adventure which is one of the attracting forces in continued disorder and misconduct is eliminated. Some teachers, particularly beginning teachers, make the mistake of not punishing early enough. Leadership is established by firmness and decision from the very beginning.

In order to fulfill its purpose as a corrective measure, a punishment must be accepted by the one who is punished as a reasonable and deserved consequence of his act. The child should realize the seriousness of his offence and the connection between it and the punishment.

An effective punishment must bring discomfort. The discomfort may be in the form of remorse or it may be physical; but whether mental or physical, it should be repulsive to the offender. Punishment must not be too severe, but it must be sufficiently discomforting not to render repetition. However, sometimes a child needs a real shock to bring him to the realization of his duty and responsibility.

Considering all things, any punishment that improves the relationship between the pupil and his teacher, and the pupil and the group, is good. The expressed displeasure of the group is the best type of punishment for more ordinary anti-social acts, because the group is the one affected, and social approval is a primary factor in controlling individual behavior.

The punishments mentioned so far are for the good of those concerned. There are also punishments of doubtful value. Most of the latter were used in the past although some teachers still use them. One type includes such procedures as standing the child in the corner, sending him out of the room, and keeping him in at recess or after school. These may not be punishments for some children. One harmful kind of punishment is personal, sarcastic remarks that reflect on the family or personality of the child. Other harmful kinds are slapping, striking with a ruler or rubber hose, boxing or pulling the ears, pulling the hair and violent shaking. "The horrible idea that the chief object of punishment is to cause pain is not accepted by modern teachers."¹³ The reason for doing away with this type of punishment is that punishment in the corporal sense of the term was a privilege that parents, teachers, and other adults could easily overdo. The child was the greatest immediate loser in such a program; the adults and society were the indirect losers, feeling the effects of the child's resentment at being so summarily and often brutally treated.

The reaction to physical or corporal punishment became so great that most provinces and states possess laws against

the "laying of hands" on the child at school. Only recently, with a revival of interest in firmer discipline in the schools, has repeal of this type of law been considered in some areas. Some schools will administer restricted measures of corporal punishment if the parents allow it.

For the beginning teacher the following ideas should be kept in mind:

The question of the "reasonableness" of any disciplinary action taken by the school is basically a question of common law rather than of statute, for the statutory law is limited in the extent to which it can prescribe a specific punishment for a specific misdemeanour.

In all legal cases involving the discipline and control of pupils, Courts must ask themselves three basic questions:

1. Was the teacher acting within the scope of his legal authority? This question involves the statutory authority of the teacher as well as his authority "in loco parentis".
2. Was there cause for punishment? In answering this question the Courts have indicated their reluctance to set aside a teacher's judgment.
3. Was the punishment reasonable under the circumstances? This question generally constitutes the heart of any litigation and must be answered on the basis of precedent and common law.

The first question is a question of law; the last two are questions of fact.¹⁴

Today we go along with the idea that reward is sometimes the answer to student's problems. Floyd L. Ruch in his book entitled Psychology and Life states:

Reward has more predictable results than punishment. Reward says "repeat what you have done." Punishment says "stop it." Punishment aids learning most effectively when it is used in combination with reward. If the undesirable response is suppressed because of punishment, the subject may make some alternative, more desirable response which can be reinforced by reward. In this way reward and punishment may set up cues as to what is bad - something that punishment cannot do alone.¹⁵

In concluding this chapter, I think the following should be words of wisdom to all future teachers:

... It is not necessary for all children to love you for your every act. They are well able to distinguish between fairness and sloppy sentimentality. They are anxious to be treated as respectable human beings, and are quite ready to accept the punishments which stem directly from their recognized misbehaviors. In the long run, the teachers who base their relations with pupils on mutual respect and a rigid impartiality will wear better than those who use too much emotional appeal...¹⁶

CHAPTER II

KNOWLEDGE OF SUBJECTS

"All other reforms are conditional upon reform in the quality and character of those who engage in the teaching profession."

- John Dewey

In his book entitled The Art of Teaching, Gilbert Highet has this to say concerning the qualities of a good teacher:

First, and most necessary of all, he must know the subject. He must know what he teaches. This seems obvious; yet it is not always practised. It means that, if his job is teaching chemistry, he must know chemistry. It is not enough for a chemistry teacher to know the exact amount of chemistry which is taught in schools and required for the final examinations. He must really understand the science of chemistry. Its upper regions must be clear to him, at least in outline; and he should know what are the most important new discoveries made each year.¹⁷

We can ask ourselves why a teacher must know the outer limits of a subject, and at the same time the answer is self-explanatory. First, we cannot teach anyone to understand the rudiments of a subject without first knowing the outer limits ourselves. Secondly, the human mind is infinitely capacious. We will never know the maximum quantity of knowledge a child can digest. Finally, if a teacher does know the outer limits of his subject, then it is most likely that he believes in the value and interest of it. If a teacher neglects this aspect of his subject, he will probably find that the pupils will dislike his teaching and will lose interest in that valuable

field of knowledge.

If a teacher does like his subject and knows it well, he will always have his pupils believing in him. This ties in directly with my first chapter on discipline. We can see in the latter case that a teacher would not have discipline problems, whereas in the former, the opposite would be true.¹⁸ This is further proof that a teacher must choose his subjects carefully if he intends to be a successful teacher. "A wise teacher will choose particular areas of his subject which he believes will be interesting and illuminating, and will find that his increasing knowledge of them will give him a sense of mastery, will keep him from feeling he is merely plying a trade, and will somehow carry over to the pupils."¹⁹

In the next few pages I will outline the academic background which is necessary for anyone entering the teaching profession.

HOW MUCH IS ENOUGH?

Extensive training will not of itself develop a successful teacher from someone who lacks the qualities of mind and personality that make for good teaching. But, just as a diamond must be cut and polished to acquire its brilliance so the skillful teacher is the product of suitable and adequate preparation.²⁰

It goes without saying that a teacher should have a good background of knowledge in his subject field. However, where are we going to draw the line? When can we say that a teacher has had an "adequate" knowledge in a specific field or fields?

In a pamphlet entitled Canadian Conference on

Education, I read the following, which represents the minimum requirements for entering the teaching profession:

Elementary - within two years of a B.A., plus one year of professional training; Secondary - a University degree plus one year of professional training; University - high marks in University work, plus one year of professional teacher training.²¹

This is not an accurate picture of what is required in academic background in order to enter the teaching profession. Therefore, I am going to break away from the conventional standards, and use some of Dr. James B. Conant's ideas on standards that should be used for evaluating "how much is enough".

First, let us consider high school preparation. When we consider the knowledge and talent of would-be teachers, we should consider the high school preparation of these teachers. The reason for this is that too many are graduating from high school without having studied a wide academic program. Therefore, if teachers are to have a good background, they should have good academic preparation before they enter teacher college or universities. Dr. Conant suggests the following high school program for those who plan on entering the teaching profession:

English (including frequent practice in writing)	4 years
Foreign language (one language studied consecutively)	4 years
Mathematics (four years preferred)	3 years
Natural science	3 years
History and social studies	3 years
Art and Music	2 years ²²

The above program is subject to the fact that only

those are considered whose scholastic aptitude places them in the category of the top 30 per cent of the high school graduating class on a national basis. (The I.Q. range which corresponds with the upper 30 per cent mentioned would be from 111 upwards.)

Now that we have an idea of the high school preparation which is necessary for teachers, let us look at the general requirements which such people should have for the Bachelor's degree. First, two years at college could be spent in developing competence in the usual academic areas. Such areas would be: literature, history, government, mathematics, the natural sciences, geography, art and music. Dr. Conant believes that it is of utmost importance that an introductory college course should be given in another five areas of knowledge: philosophy, sociology, anthropology, economics, political science, and psychology. The following table is a summary of what was mentioned for the first two year's program:

	<u>No. of Courses</u>	<u>Equivalent Sem. Hours</u>
Subjects already studied in high school		
The English language and composition	2	6
The Western world's literary tradition	2	6
History (at least one-half other than American)	3	9
Art appreciation and music appreciation	2	6
Mathematics	2	6
Science (physical and biological, each studied consecutively)	4	12
Subjects not studied in school		
Introduction to general psychology	1	3
Introduction to sociology and anthropology	1	3

	<u>No. of Courses</u>	<u>Equivalent Sem. Hours</u>	
Introduction to the problems of philosophy	1	3	
Introduction to economics	1	3	
Introduction to political science	1	3	
Total	<u>20</u>	<u>60</u>	23

After the two-year course has been completed, there is the problem of selecting courses for the last two years of college. Actually, there should not be a problem. If a teacher is to be qualified in a specific area, then there is only one answer; concentration in a specific field. Dr. Conant suggests that a minimum of 36 hours be included in a four-year program. A concentration of 48 semester hours, or 16 courses would be appropriate. The other semester hours could be filled in with electives - electives which will be useful to him not only as a teacher, but also as a citizen. He also believes that before "adequate" knowledge can be had in a specific field or fields, "a decision must be made as to whether the institution is to certify any given graduate in more than one field." He further believes that it is impossible to study two academic fields in sufficient depth in four years.

An institution should award a teaching certificate for teachers in grades 7 to 12 in one field only. The fields would be as follows: social studies, English, mathematics, physics and chemistry combined and biology.²⁴

The above argument is made from the point of view that the small American high schools of today would consolidate, and could therefore afford a separate teacher for each subject.

In order to show Dr. Conant's ideas on specialization, I will outline the time which should be devoted in two subject fields - English and history.

The future teacher of English (it is assumed that the teacher had a comprehensive examination at the end of four years of study) should have studied not only British and American literature in some depth, but also the structure of the English language, and modern grammar; in addition he should have given some time to familiarizing himself with adolescent literature, with reading problems, with speech and drama, and with composition at the advanced level.

I will not break these areas down into time allotments. A sample will be given after I have outlined the areas which should be studied by the social studies teacher.

The future social studies teacher's program should include work in at least economics, geography, and political science in addition to history, and preferably anthropology and sociology as well. A study should also be made of American history.

The following is an outline for a program in social studies:

General education, including 9 hours in history, 3 hours of sociology and anthropology, 3 hours of political science, 3 hours of economics, and 3 hours of general psychology	60
Educational psychology	3
Philosophy or history of sociology of education	3
Future history	33
Future political science	3
Future economics	3
Geography	6
Practice teaching and special methods	9
	<u>120</u> ²⁵

After four years of academic preparation similar to that which has been outlined in the previous pages, I would recommend a year of study in the field of education. This

year would be equivalent to our Bachelor of Education year.

From what I have said, it might seem that the stress is on the number of courses taken. This is not true. What is important is the level of competence. James D. Koerner stated:

But more important than any talk about the quantity of courses in teacher education is, of course, their quality; for only when the critical element is dealt with are we in any position to consider the question of quantity. ²⁶

INSERVICE EDUCATION

The first essential characteristic of a good teacher is that he must know his subject. This means that he must continue to learn it. Mr. Hight states:

He or she must know much else. The good teacher is a man or woman of exceptionally wide and lively intellectual interests. It is useless to think of teaching as a business, like banking or insurance: to learn the necessary quota of rules and facts, to apply them day by day as the bank manager applies his, to go home in the evening and sink into a routine of local gossip and middle-brow relaxation (the wireless, the newspaper, and the detective story), to pride oneself on being an average citizen, indistinguishable from the dentist and the manager of the gas works - and then to hope to stimulate young and active minds. Teachers in schools and universities must see more, think more, and understand more than the average man and woman of the society in which they live.²⁷

From the above quote we can understand that teachers do not finish their education when they have taken the required degrees. They must keep up with advances in the theory and practice of teaching. This leads us to the field of inservice education.

There are four purposes for inservice education:

- (a) to remove the deficiencies of preservice education,
- (b) to help the adjustment of new teachers or those undertaking a new type of work,
- (c) to promote the improvement of teachers and teaching, and
- (d) to sustain the enthusiasm of career teachers.²⁸

I wish, at this time, to give a summary of some of the widely practiced devices and procedures in inservice education that have proved successful:

1. Organization of teachers into committees to study specific problems - Teachers can learn to iron out their own problems in an environment of mutual understanding. This practice allows a free exchange of ideas.
2. Provision of professional books and magazines in the teacher's rooms. Professional books can help in overcoming lack of background in educational theory. Professional magazines discuss the latest methods of presenting subject matter, summarize new laws affecting the teaching profession, and throw light on many of the teacher's everyday problems.
3. University extension courses - Teachers can become part-time students. Frequently extension classes can also be focused on the solution of immediate and urgent classroom problems.
4. Summer school courses - These courses can have the same advantages as university extension courses.
5. Correspondence - This consists of instruction conducted by mail.
6. Reviews of current educational magazine articles - No teacher can read all the educational magazines that exist. Various teachers could read different articles and write reviews on them.
7. Observation of superior teachers at work - This can be

done in the teacher's own school or in other school systems.

8. Demonstration teaching - Model schools can be provided where student teachers and teachers in service can observe approved classroom procedures.
9. Workshops - A workshop is a kind of educational conference without formal class or course organization and without examinations.
10. Forums - This is a lecture or series of lectures followed by informal debate and discussion.
11. Conferences - These may be of many kinds. One type is the discussion of particular problems by a teacher and his supervisor. Other types are group discussions where several teachers plan, reorganize, or evaluate their respective tasks.
12. Institutes - An institute is a formal meeting of teachers sponsored by the county, or school district for the purpose of discussing educational and professional problems.

Other types of inservice education are: independent research and experimentation; travel; lectures; concerts, plays and operas; part-time or summer employment; and participation in community organizations.

There is one final idea which I would like to state regarding inservice education - no teacher should participate in inservice education with the basic idea that this education can be converted into college credits.

THE TEACHER

Before completing this chapter, I wish to give to the beginning teacher a few ideas as to what some of our more knowing people expect of the people in the teaching profession.

Mr. Oliver stated the following in his book entitled

Effective Teaching:

Those who embark upon a career in teaching without some knowledge of the aims and objectives of education are like rudderless ships. If any port is reached, it will be more a matter of luck than good management. It would be unreasonable to expect the young teacher to develop within a few weeks, or even within a few years, a mature and complete philosophy of education. Nevertheless, it is obviously necessary for him to acquire, as early as possible in his experience, some knowledge of the purposes underlying his daily work, and the more or less distant objectives which, as a teacher, he should strive to attain.²⁹

Mr. G. K. Hodenfield stated the following:

Since research advances our knowledge of the fundamental principles of the various subjects to be taught, of how youngsters live and learn, the education of a teacher can never stop. The teacher must, in college and throughout his professional career, be in close contact with the scholars who are creating in their fields.³⁰

Mr. Conan believes that teachers must be academically prepared, but he also looks at the teacher from another point of view:

... The type of teacher we need is one who is, in the highest sense, himself a man - a man of faith, a man of vision, and a man of love. By his faith he sees not only this world but another world, and a plan of God which alone can answer the eternal questings of the human heart. A man of vision because he has developed his own intellectual insights to the point where he can understand man with a breadth and range of true wisdom. A man of love because he must stand among the little ones, among the lesser ones, in order that he may give of what he has received.³¹

At this point, the beginning teacher will probably wonder if he is in the right profession. The following quote should put him a little more at ease.

We regard him not as an admirable Crichton or as a missionary, but as an average person, with a desire to earn a living in the honorable profession of teaching, and to do his best for those who come under his care. He is not a complete novice, because consciously or not, he must have tried to teach someone; at any rate he knows what he has to teach, and has seen boys and girls before. But he has to learn the craftsmanship of his profession, and get over his awkwardness as speedily and as intelligently as possible. He should strive to attain "style" in teaching no less sedulously than the young cricketer strives for "style" in batting or in bowling.³²

Again, we may find that some of our beginning teachers may feel that too much knowledge is required to enter the teaching profession. I wish to use a quote which will not necessarily prove what I have been writing about, but it certainly makes one think for a second time about the idea, "You can't teach what you don't know."

Margaret Mead, famed anthropologist from the American Museum of Natural History told a conference:

Then there was a very interesting line which said, "You can't teach somebody something you don't know." Now that fascinated me, because if we can't, we had better quit right now. If we can't teach every student we've got something we don't know in some form, we haven't a hope of educating the next generation, because what they are going to need is what we don't know. We need to teach students to think, when you don't know what method to use, about a problem which is not yet formulated.³³

To conclude this section and this chapter, I wish to use the words of G. K. Hodenfield:

This then, is the teacher - the teacher who must know what he teaches, but be able to teach what he does not know; who must understand his pupils, be they mentally

retarded or geniuses, guide them, give to them of himself, and draw from them their utmost potential. Always there stands the teacher, whose one and unchanging job is to enlarge the students' understanding of the universe.³⁴

CHAPTER III

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

Beginning teachers have problems with their methods of instruction. There are many reasons for this, which I will illustrate as I treat different methods of instruction from the beginner's point of view. Admittedly, however, limited material exists on the problems which beginners have with their methods. First, beginning teachers do not wish to admit that they are having problems with methods. Someone may get the idea that they cannot teach, and therefore they will lose their jobs. Secondly, beginners are too busy with discipline problems to have any real success with trying out any methods they might have. Gilbert Highet stated in his book, The Art of Teaching, that he tried to find a book which would help him learn more about what he was doing. (He had been teaching for twenty years at the time.) He could not find one so he wrote one of his own.

Method is obviously important in teaching, and certainly it is a matter of great concern to the future teacher, who is likely to worry about how to proceed when confronted with a class; there ought to be limitless amounts of good material on the subject of teaching method. Yet there are not.³⁵

Thirdly, experienced teachers have problems with methods, student teachers have problems with methods, and therefore, even without other proof, it is a fair assumption

to say that beginners have problems.

If someone does mention the fact that beginning teachers have problems with methods of instruction, immediately we hear the old cliché, "They should have taken methods courses at college!" The answer to this is a simple one. James Koerner stated the following concerning college method courses:

... Most attention is given not to active case histories, but to hypothesized and idealized classroom problems that teachers find have little relevance to what their work turns out to be. There is also strong tendency, despite contrary statements in the texts, to give ready-made answers to instructional problems instead of exploring with the future teacher a dozen different illustrative approaches to common problems. ... I would hazard the guess that the typical textbook in methods of teaching, or in curriculum development, or in school administration could be reduced by 75 per cent without the loss of anything important.³⁶

Although student teachers have had many courses in methods at college, some do not fully understand the relationship of learning to teaching methods and techniques, so that they may have a superficial or partial understanding of why a given teaching method or technique is desired and why another is not.³⁷

There is still further proof that college method courses are not ideal. James Conant referred to the situation this way: "and now I come to a red-hot question: How about those terrible methods courses, which waste a student's time? ..."³⁸ These quotes offer sufficient proof that a beginning teacher does not ordinarily have sufficient knowledge of methods to do a good teaching job.

PRINCIPLES OF GOOD INSTRUCTION

Before considering the problems a beginning teacher can have in methods of instruction, there are general prin-

principles of instruction which all teachers should know. First, instructing is an art, not an exact science. The methods to be employed will vary according to the type and standard of the class. If a beginning teacher forgets this idea, he will have problems before he starts teaching. It is a definite rule that a thorough knowledge of subject matter is an essential of any instructor but he will only be really successful if he combines this rule with the principles set out below. These principles are not rules to be rigidly observed. They are guides, of which every good instructor must be constantly aware and which he must apply with common sense according to circumstances. These principles may be examined under the following headings:

The Aim

Planning and Preparation

Motivation

Use of the Right Senses

Maximum Activity

Simplicity

The Human Factor

Confirmation by Stages

The Aim - The aim of the instructor should be to know exactly what he wants to achieve at each stage of his work. A clear aim will tell you what to teach and often how to teach it. Harl Douglas stated that beginning teachers have problems with their "aims" because they are misled by experienced teachers who do not have aims.³⁹

Planning and Preparation - Thomas Brown believes that difficulty with planning is a problem which is common to beginning teachers.

Planning as described in the last two chapters is obviously a complex process, and you may now have a clearer idea as to why there are not more good teachers. To be a good teacher you must plan your work.⁴⁰

Well planned instruction and the preparation of equipment, work places, aids, etc., help to ensure that your instruction is remembered by the class. They will also be impressed by the way you present the subject and will want to learn more from you. Before starting detailed preparation, the beginning teacher must ask himself the following questions.⁴¹

- (a) What is the aim of the period?
- (b) Have I the necessary knowledge? If not, I must acquire it.
- (c) Is it facts or skills or both?
- (d) What does the class know already?
- (e) What type of class, how many persons and how much can they take in?
- (f) How long is required to teach the subject?
- (g) What time is available?
- (h) At what time of day am I going to instruct and where?
- (i) What are the important points - the must knows?

The beginning teacher will seldom have time to teach everything that he would wish to teach. The problem here is that he tries to teach everything, and does not realize that he should break his material down into:

Must Knows - Vital points necessary to achieve the aim of the period.

Should Knows - Desirable but not essential.

Could Knows - Relatively unimportant.

The "musts" have to be included in the period, the "shoulds" according to the time available, and the "coulds" only if you have time left.

The next principle of good instruction is motivation.

Motivation is the key to any good lesson, and the most difficult part of the plan for a beginning teacher. There are two reasons for this difficulty. First, as a beginning teacher you are not certain what will catch the attention of students and you may confuse your acquired interest in some aspect of subject matter for their interest. The second reason for the difficulty experienced in choosing adequate motivation is that good motivation must not only catch the attention of the pupils, but must also lead toward the chosen purpose of the lesson, and enable the supporting subject matter of the textbook, a lecture, or the experiences of the pupils to provide relevant material for the problem posed for the class to struggle with.⁴²

The fourth principle I mentioned was the use of the right senses. Every beginning teacher must remember that learning comes through one or more of the following: touch, sight, hearing, smell and taste. In normal instruction touch, sight and hearing are the most important senses. Therefore, it should be kept in mind that one should explain (hear) for ten per cent of the time, demonstrate (sight) for twenty per cent, and practice (touch) for seventy per cent of the time. In short, one should do less talking and more seeing and doing. Many beginning teachers think that they must talk for the whole period. They do not realize the value of the other senses for imparting knowledge.

The principle of maximum activity can be achieved by allowing the student to do something for himself and to think about it at the same time. I already mentioned this idea in chapter one. It is sufficient to say here that beginners do not always know how to plan sufficiently well to profit from this principle of instruction.

There is one important idea which one must consider under Simplicity - you must realize that the standard of intelligence of classes varies. You must adapt your instruction to what the class knows. The beginner usually does not know what to expect from the class. He thinks that students know more than they do.

The second last principle is the Human Factor. When one considers such a principle in relation to teachers, he immediately considers qualities. I have taken the liberty to choose certain qualities that I feel a teacher must possess.

- (a) Consider your class as individuals and not as "the class".
- (b) Be firm but sympathetic.
- (c) Be approachable.
- (d) No sarcasm, bullying or bluffing.
- (e) Be patient.
- (f) Encourage by praise, when deserved.
- (g) Be confident but not boastful.
- (h) Set an example at all times.
- (i) Maintain discipline.
- (j) No favouritism.

The problems which beginning teachers encounter with

the above mentioned have already been discussed in chapter one.

The last principle of instruction is Confirmation by Stages. I stated earlier that instruction must be by limited stages,⁴³ leading up to the final aim. Therefore, tests should be used to confirm each stage so that the class will have a chance to digest the teaching, and the teacher will have a chance to find out if the class mastered that stage before proceeding to the next one. In this area, beginners run headlong into problems because they do not have sufficient experience in setting valid tests. Confirmation can only be obtained by valid tests.⁴⁴

PROBLEMS A BEGINNING TEACHER HAS WITH METHODS

After a teacher has prepared his subject, he has to communicate his knowledge of it to his pupils.

This is where the teacher must pass on to the pupils the recorded experience of the race; the method of transmission of this crystallized race experience must be such as to inspire these pupils with principles that shall be active forces in their lives, and at the same time furnish them with an instrument of research and further study, - this is the very heart of the work of the teacher the condition and instrument, as well as the culmination and the fruit, of all the rest.⁴⁵

Now, let us look at some of the methods a new teacher can use to impart knowledge to his pupils, and at the same time let us examine some of the problems which occur while he is using these methods. Also, the following ideas should be kept in mind:

A new teacher should want to experiment with differing methods of teaching. He should therefore be aware of the various possibilities and of their advantages and dis-

advantages. It is not good teaching where poor learning is taking place. And yet the same teaching with another form, of a different age and ability, or at another time other surroundings, might produce excellent learning.⁴⁶

First, let us look at the project method. This method is a radical departure from the whole conception of formal classwork and teaching subjects. It requires learning to be done through the solving of practical problems. John Dewey was an advocate of this method.⁴⁷ He criticized traditional education for trying to mould to a pattern by imposing a rigid routine and a cut-and-dried subject matter, instead of fostering the proverbial curiosity of the young.

These project methods have been claimed to give training in initiative and responsibility and provide motivation for learning: that they encourage creative activity, co-operation with others and develop open-mindedness and tolerance. It is also claimed by traditionalists that learning tends to be haphazard and incidental. John Dewey forewarned teachers in this respect:

The teacher must be cautioned not to be deceived into thinking that because a child adopts external postures as those of attention or effort, he is necessarily interested.⁴⁸

Communication is the basis of our civilization, and progress is intimately connected with it. However, in the project method, communication seems to be subordinated to the glorification of active learning.

Projects are time-consuming and are limited by availability and cost of materials. There are many occasions when information or explanation can so much more economically and

efficiently be conveyed to a whole group at once, that to insist on learning only through the project becomes an absurd concentration on means rather than ends. Finally, no new teacher can operate the project method as conceived by Dewey, for this requires a complete reorganization of the school.

Another teaching method is that first formulated by J. F. Herbart.⁴⁹ This method is designed to make the best use of the existing curriculum, timetable, and classroom. Formal lessons progress through clearly defined states or steps based on a predetermined pattern. These are the Herbartian steps which may be briefly explained as follows:

1. Preparation - reminding the pupils of what they know already, so as to be ready to pin on it the new knowledge.
2. Presentation - the actual lesson providing the new material.
3. Association - deliberate forming of bonds between old knowledge, of which the pupil has been reminded in step one, and the new knowledge in step two, and also the forming of links within the new knowledge itself.
4. Generalization - the formulating of a general rule or the emergence of a general principle from what has been taught.
5. Application - the using of the new knowledge.

The Herbartian Method is primarily of value for imparting new knowledge. The virtue of the method is that it conceives of a lesson as a plan and emphasizes orderly pro-

cedure. The steps do not all have to be covered in one lesson. This plan is particularly suited to the more academic pupils.

The major defect of the plan is that it tends to encourage a rigid uniformity of method instead of variety. There is too much talk and chalk and too little active participation by the pupils. The emphasis is laid on what is taught rather than on what pupils learn. John S. Brubacher stated that Herbart's method must be supplemented with directions on how the teacher is to motivate the lesson as well as to explain it.⁵⁰ This is where the beginner fails when he uses this method of instruction. Also, because there is a built in plan, the beginner thinks that the lesson should teach itself.

The Morrison Plan corresponds closely to Herbart's Plan.⁵¹ There are, however, different names for the sequences.

1. Exploration
2. Presentation
3. Assimilation
4. Organization
5. Recitation

These methods, because of the problems associated with them, may not appeal to the beginning teacher, therefore, I will go a few steps further and outline some of the more modern methods. Beginners also have their problems with these methods.

THE LESSON

What is meant by the term "lesson"?

..., the basis of this method is, as I have said, the study of a single book, or one set of documents, or one well-marked area of knowledge. The class sets out to read Macbeth or to study Stubb's Charters, or to learn the anatomy of the thorn. The teacher divides the subject into sections, each of which is to be studied privately in preparation for one session of the class. When the class meets, he has two duties. One is to explain what the pupils have been trying to learn: this is done by filling in the gaps in their understanding, pointing out things they have missed, sometimes helping them by practice and repetition and public reading to deepen their confidence. The other is to ensure that they have actually done the preparation. The second of these is less important than the first, but unfortunately it has come in many schools, to seem much more important. The real job for which teachers are trained and paid is to help the young to learn. It should not be necessary also to make them learn.⁵²

Now that we know what is meant by the term "lesson", let us look at some of the advantages of such a method of imparting knowledge.

First, it has the advantage of combining teaching practice and confirmation. The class takes part and performs the actions, thus interest is aroused and activity is present. It allows the students to see what they are learning, and at the same time they can slow down if a problem is met. It also allows the students to go on to new material only when the old has been accomplished. The latter is accomplished through tests or examinations, at different stages. Finally, the students are given responsibilities insofar as they are supposed to study on their own. This responsibility will carry over to post high school days.

Beginning teachers meet problems in the lesson method in the following ways:

1. It is not unusual for teachers to set their pupils to studying new lessons, or even new subjects, for which they are inadequately prepared or not prepared at all, either by previous study or by experience.
2. Many teachers neglect entirely to ascertain carefully the pupils' equipment with which to begin the subject.
3. A common error is the failure to connect the new lessons with those that have been done before in such a way that pupils can carry over what they know or have learned into the new field.
4. Oftentimes past acquisitions are considered goods stored away, instead of instruments for future use.
5. Too often elementary facts and definitions are not made thoroughly familiar.
6. Every step is not always thoroughly understood before the next is attempted.
7. Some teachers err in assigning lessons that are too long for the powers of the pupils, or for their time, making impossible an adequate mastery of principles, that may be needful for future progress in the subject.⁵³

THE LECTURE

What is meant by lecturing?

... Here the teacher talks more or less continuously to the class. The class listens, takes notes of the facts and ideas worth remembering, and thinks over them later; but it does not converse with the teacher. At most, it may ask a few questions but these are for the sake of clarification, not discussion. The essence of this kind of teaching, and its purpose, are a steady flow of information going from the teacher to the pupils.⁵⁴

At this point one may ask if lecturing is a good method of teaching for the beginner who intends to teach on the high school level. The following quotes will help to answer this question.

By common consensus there is no place in the high school for "lecture" courses. There are some who would go so far as to say that there is no place in high school for lectures. The latter, however, is an unfortunate

overstatement. As a matter of fact, it is reasonable to assume that there should be more and better lecturing and telling in the high school. It is most probably true that there is too much lecturing in the college and university and too little in the lower schools and that there is a need for better lecturing all along the line. It is also true that the younger the audience, the shorter, the clearer, and the more interesting must the lecture be.⁵⁵

... There are some occasions when the teacher may, for a few moments, become a lecturer and, from his own more extensive experience, give his pupils broader, richer, and clearer views of the field of their work.⁵⁶

The predominant method of teaching in higher education is the lecture. Unfortunately, the same procedure is used in one form or another by many high school teachers.⁵⁷

Lecturing as a method of teaching is more suitable to older pupils than younger. The more effective lectures are those which keep within clearly defined limits. Though not every digression is injudicious, they should be infrequent.⁵⁸

Despite the shortcomings of the lecture as a teaching method, it has value in secondary education, limited though it may be. Most important among these values are:

1. The lecture may be useful in the development of general interest.
2. The lecture may be a useful means of giving vocational guidance by placing before the students the advantage of a particular vocation.
3. The lecture is useful in providing supplementary information and background on various subjects....
4. The lecture is particularly useful in presenting information about material that is not readily available; e.g., a discussion on the production of molded plastics or on the manufacture of synthetic gasoline.⁵⁹

Since some of the advantages of lecturing have been mentioned, I will list also a few of the disadvantages:

1. It is difficult to get and keep the attention of the students.
2. The learner is not active but passive.
3. There is not time enough for explaining.

4. The lecture wastes time. (It is unwise to use the lecture method for material which can be read quickly and understood.)
5. The lecture is likely not to be understood by young learners.
6. School teachers are not good lecturers, especially beginning teachers.

There is another problem which beginners have with the lecture method of instruction. They lecture as would a college professor to mature students and run out of material in ten minutes, or cover in one class period material which would take pupils three weeks to master.⁶⁰ The beginner may also find that he cannot think clearly when standing before the class.

THE DEMONSTRATION

The demonstration may be a simple one of a few minutes as part of a lesson, or it may be full scale, one lasting one or more periods. In either case the instructor must be quite clear of its aim.

The demonstration is useful for showing:

- (a) A standard to be achieved.
- (b) Actions to be performed by the individual or team.
- (c) Organization and equipment and how they work.
- (d) The correct way of using materials, equipment, etc.

Demonstrations are invaluable for arousing interest, and can cater to relatively large numbers. It is a

particularly good method which has been used in industrial courses and laboratory work. However, a demonstration requires a great deal of careful organization.⁶¹ It is expensive in preparation time, instructors and equipment. Also, it is not normally possible to have confirmation during a demonstration. Discussion and practice should follow.

Some beginning teachers have the following problems when dealing with the demonstration method of instruction:

- (a) They have a poor introduction and therefore interest is not aroused.
- (b) Too much commentary is had on points that are not important.
- (c) Discussing controversial points during the demonstration rather than afterwards.
- (d) Not summarizing the important points at the end.
- (e) Not repeating a part of the demonstration which was carried out incorrectly the first time.

THE DISCUSSION

The simplest definition of discussion is "organized argument". However, if we go back to early Greek times we find that discussion meant the asking and answering of questions. Socrates used this method of teaching. He wanted to make every pupil realize that truth was in the pupil's own power to find, if he searched long enough and hard enough, refusing all "authoritative statements" and judging every solution by reason alone. He had a very clear, though very

broad, idea of where the truth lay. His questions always steered the pupil, slowly and imperceptibly with frequent failure and digression, and pauses to meet sudden objections, towards that region.

Mr. Hight, speaking on discussion, stated:

This system is the most difficult, the least common and the most thorough way to teach. It is most difficult because it demands constant alertness, invariable good humor, complete earnestness, and utter self-surrender to the cause of truth on the part of both teacher and pupil. It is least common because it is expensive in time, money and effort.⁶²

One can use the discussion method of teaching when dealing with the following:

- (a) After a film or demonstration.
- (b) To confirm and clarify a series of periods on a certain subject.
- (c) To teach certain subjects by obliging the class to study the subject beforehand.
- (d) To clarify controversial subjects, usually of an abstract nature.

Although the discussion method of instructing can be a thorough way to teach, beginning teachers have many problems with it. Some of these problems are:

1. Good control is one of the secrets of a successful discussion. Beginners have problems controlling pupils.
2. Beginners cannot resist the temptation of taking part in the discussion. Hence, it becomes a lecture.
3. After the subject has been introduced and explained, the beginner fails to invite contributions from the class.

4. The beginner fails to have the contributions addressed to him in order that he can pass them back to the class.
5. The beginner sometimes fails to let the speaker know when he is off the point which is being discussed.
6. The beginner fails to prevent the discussion being monopolized by a few people.

To conclude, beginning teachers sometimes fail to recognize that the discussion is not suitable for all subjects.

THE FILM AND FILM STRIP PERIODS

Effective learning is dependent upon accurate concept formation. Sensory experiences serve as the basis of all understandings which pupils acquire in classroom situations. While direct sensory experiences would, no doubt, form the soundest foundation of learning, the practical limitations upon the scope and variety of such experience make it necessary to resort to the use of verbal symbols.

Unless the learner can associate the spoken or written work with some past or present perceptual experience, the resulting concept will most likely be vague, meaningless and ephemeral. ...⁶³

The previous quote stresses the importance of sensory experiences in the process of learning. However, the greatest problem with beginning teachers is that they do not fully realize the importance of visual aids. The following quote emphasizes this fact:

All visual devices are vital aids to learning. They are not only attention-getters, but also interest retainers. Visual aids present, in concrete form what often is either difficult or almost impossible to describe adequately with words.

The image of visual exposure has a greater impact on the memory than words and is easier to recall. The longer one teaches, the more one will become aware of the difficulty in communicating with his students. This concept is a subtle one. Most new teachers will assume that correct English will guarantee mutual understanding.

They fail to realize that meanings and shades of meaning in the spoken word contribute much to the range of comprehension of students. Visual aids carefully made and properly used assist in establishing the correct interpretation and relationship of the object or other material being taught. In short, words may confuse, but a good visual aid will clarify understanding.⁶⁴

The following quote has some very important ideas for beginning teachers in relation to the use of films.

Proper utilization of films for classroom purposes is dependent upon an understanding of their role as supplementary teaching aids. They are not designed to replace books or the teacher. They cannot serve all the purposes of instruction. In fact, except in cases when an understanding of processes is involved, films may be inferior to other types of visual aids, such as film strips. Good teaching techniques based upon sound educational principles are as essential in the use of films as of any other type of instructional materials.⁶⁵

One last word on visual aids - the effective use of these teaching aids requires careful planning, not only in terms of the outcomes sought, but also in regard to the proper facilities. Beginning teachers sometimes multiply their problems by not adhering to careful planning when using visual aids.

In concluding this chapter, it is necessary to re-establish the fact that all the methods of teaching have not been discussed. Furthermore, it is not intended that any one of the discussed methods is the right method. The quest for improvement in methods of instruction is continuous. The beginning teacher should never forget this idea.

CHAPTER IV

SUPERVISION

It is my basic intention, in this chapter, to discuss supervision in relation to problems which beginning teachers have with discipline, knowledge of subjects, and methods of instruction. Before this can be done, however, we must have an understanding as to what is meant by supervision. In most instances the beginning teacher does not have any concept of supervision, and in some instances a false concept prevails. Therefore, in order to bring the beginning teacher up to date, I will give a brief outline of the changing concept of supervision.

In discussing the changing concept of supervision, we must go back to the traditional concept of the principal. I think that this is the starting point because the principal was, and still is to a certain degree, the school supervisor.

Everyone is familiar with the traditional concept of the principal as head teacher. It originated when schools became large enough to require staffs of more than one teacher. Certain management jobs emerged affecting the school as a whole, and someone had to be designated to assume responsibility for them. Usually the member of the staff who had been in the school the longest, or perhaps the one who

had demonstrated superior teaching ability was selected and became the "principal teacher", or in short, the "principal".

For years the principal of the school was merely that member of the staff who, in addition to his regular teaching duties, took on certain other responsibilities such as keeping school records, organizing whole school activities, and generally resolving problems concerning more than one classroom. Even today this is not an unfamiliar concept; it contains certain elements which remain as part of today's image of the principal. Its chief fault, perhaps, is that it is too narrow.

This fault of which I speak may be narrow, but it does not indicate a lack of duties or a lack of variety in duties. If we were able to examine the principal under this concept we would find that he is correspondent and form filler, letter writer, supplier of information for questionnaires, mathematician, statistician, philosopher, judge, inflictor of punishment, etc.

Keeping the old or traditional concept of the principal in mind, we can proceed with the new concept which is emerging. This new concept portrays the principal as educational leader of his school, and the community which it serves. It is a much broader concept than that of head teacher. It requires the principal to interest himself in matters affecting not only the operational efficiency of his school, but also its effectiveness in terms of the educational services which it provides.

There are three main factors which have been particularly related to the bringing about of the new concept. The first one is the increasing size of our schools. For many years our schools had fewer than ten classrooms. Today, schools of ten, fifteen, twenty and more classrooms are common even in rural areas.

The second and third factors are closely related to each other and pertain to the high school. One is the greater range in abilities and interests which we now find among our high school students, and the other is the expanded and more flexible curriculum of today. How to use this expanded curriculum to provide the best educational services for a more heterogeneous high school population has become one of our most talked about educational problems. The high school principal is involved in this problem.

Developments such as these have not only turned the spotlight on the principal, but have also added new dimensions to his job. This makes his job a more demanding one and to represent the new concept of the principal, a person must have many qualities: wide interests, broad understandings, and a measure of vision.

To fulfill this new concept a principal must be a business manager, that is, a technical-managerial person. This deals with the non-human aspect of management, the writing of letters, ordering of supplies, making of schedules, distributing of books, etc. This principal clears his desk in order to devote more time to the instructional program.

Secondly, the principal is a group leader - the human-managerial person. He works towards the purposes of the school through other people. He stimulates and influences others. In a very real sense he must have the capacity to work with others and mobilize their efforts.

Thirdly, the principal must be a master in technical-educational skills. Here he gives leadership in curriculum, program development, methodology and at the same time is capable of appraising teaching and learning.

Finally, the principal must be an expert when it comes to dealing with conceptual skills. It is not enough that a principal be satisfied in mastering technologies of education as now practiced in so many cases. He must envision what the educational institution might become in the future, he must be interested in trying out new ideas and gaining new insights through innovation, debate and reflection.

With the preceding ideas in mind, we can see that a broader concept of the principalship is emerging, one that places the principal in a relationship to the school as a whole as the teacher is to the classroom, as the superintendent is to the division or county - one that requires him to be an educational leader.

In discussing the changing concept of supervision, I have mentioned the old concept of the principal, and the new concept. However, supervision does not stop at this point. We also have what is known as a "supervisor". This is, once again, a still newer concept. Why is he needed and what are

his functions?

The first part is easier to answer than the second part. The need arises from the increasing size of our schools, the greater range of abilities and interests on behalf of our students, the expanded and flexible curriculum, the fact that some principals still teach and do not have sufficient time to supervise, the teachers themselves require guidance in relation to teaching methodology, the fact that we do not have sufficient qualified principals to do supervision, etc.

Some of the functions of a supervisor are:

- (a) The primary aim of supervision is to aid teachers to become self-directive.
- (b) Through supervision teachers learn to isolate and analyze their problems.
- (c) Supervision gives teachers security and develops confidence in their ability to solve problems.
- (d) Through supervision teachers become acquainted with sources of aid in solving their problems.
- (e) Supervision helps interpret the school program to the community.
- (f) Supervision strives to develop with teachers a sound educational philosophy.

The above mentioned functions seem to be clearly defined. However, conflicting educational theories today make it mandatory to re-examine the basic concepts and purposes of supervision. Dr. Gwynn states:

There is a disagreement among both professional educators and the public as to what supervision is today. For example, some authorities would make the supervisor a strictly professional official, highly trained to do a major administrative job. Another group would go far in the opposite direction, divorcing the supervisor from administrative duties and responsibilities; this action would result in a supervisor whose main responsibility is to help teachers to meet their problems. A third group of educators would make the supervisor's position mainly that of a teacher of teachers, improving instruction through programs of in-service education. A fourth group, active and vocal, would center the emphasis around human relations; they would interpret the supervisor's responsibility as the effective use of group processes with teachers, pupils, and other school personnel. A fifth group regards supervision as a task including both supervision and curriculum revision or curriculum building; in this dual role, the supervisor has to add to the responsibility of helping teachers the allied responsibility of stimulating curriculum improvement.⁶⁶

We can see immediately that a problem does exist.

I am of the opinion that proper supervision can be the solution to many of the problems of the beginning teachers. The following quote will help validate this belief:

In the historical development of supervision, the weight of evidence is clearly in favor of supervision and supervisors helping school personnel to improve the teaching-learning situation creatively. This must be achieved within the framework of the current understanding of supervision by both school people and the lay public. Since this is so, the supervisor will have to concern himself primarily with the task of helping teachers and school personnel to solve problems that arise or are concerned with a desirable learning situation for children.⁶⁷

Throughout this chapter I will be considering supervision in relation to the help it can give the beginning teacher. As stated in the preface of my thesis, a supervisor is aware of the fact that the beginning teacher needs help but the teacher himself is not always aware of the help he can receive. The following material, is, therefore, directed

to the attention of the beginning teacher.

In presenting this material it is intended to make the beginning teacher aware that not only does the supervisor understand the problems which the teacher faces but has the knowledge and experience to assist the teacher in overcoming them. The primary purpose of the chapter is to make the beginning teacher receptive to the guidance of the supervisor, and to make communication between them easier.

SUPERVISION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS - IMPROVING DISCIPLINE

The few studies which have been made of the main problems of beginning teachers indicate that the new teachers identify that of pupil control and discipline as one of the most crucial.⁶⁸

... Almost all first-year teachers find and report discipline to be their chief problem. These teachers usually ask for much more emphasis upon discipline techniques in their professional educational courses. This is a legitimate complaint by these teachers and certainly they need help if they are to survive their first year.⁶⁹

What can the supervisor do to help the beginning teacher with his disciplinary problems?

Until the new leader, the teacher, establishes his leadership, he cannot be fully effective. But he can be partially effective and can become more effective as he develops leadership competencies, and qualifications "on the job". Therefore, the supervisor's task here is to help the beginner. (1) to analyze his leadership competencies or lack of these competencies, (2) analyze his group and the potential or actual leaders in it, and (3) improve his qualities and skills of leadership.⁷⁰

It is obvious that the sooner a beginner is given supervisory help in establishing himself as a leader, the sooner he will get down to real teaching. Thomas Brown goes along with this idea when he states that a beginning teacher must be in control from the time he takes the class roll.⁷¹

A supervisor can be very helpful towards the beginner and his disciplinary problems by making sure that the beginner plans his work well. The following quote emphasizes this idea:

The teacher who thoroughly plans both his instruction and his administration will find class control becoming easier, and discipline problems fewer. Good class control aims at achieving order, regularity, and

efficiency in each pupil's conduct. Such discipline can hardly be expected of the pupils if there is not a clear, reasonable, and planned environment in which the individual may respond.⁷²

Another way in which the supervisor can help the beginner with his disciplinary problems is to act as a guidance officer.

... Guidance involves pointing out the roads that may be taken, providing the information necessary for making a choice, outlining the procedures to be followed along the way, and helping solve the problems that are encountered.⁷³

Harl Douglas stated a similar idea in which help can be given to lessen discipline problems.

Since most chronic cases of misbehavior, misconduct, and unnecessary and excessive absence are the results of maladjustments of some sort, it is important that the administrator enlist the services of the counselor in probing the causes of these deviations from the norm, understand the motivations of the individual, and apply measures designed to remove the causes, manipulate the environment, improve pupil attitudes, and ameliorate or cure the difficulty. Careful thought and planning must be applied to the question of how these ends may best be attained, so that discipline may be effectively maintained, teachers strengthened and supported in their disciplinary efforts, pupil morale and attitudes effectively enlisted, and the counselor's position in the schools, as viewed by pupils, parents and teachers, enhanced.⁷⁴

Supervision of pupil activities helps with control of disciplinary problems of beginning teachers.

A more satisfactory concept of control is that of supervision of pupil activities. The function of supervision may be carried out, either formally or informally, with individuals or with the class as a whole. They do not involve mere policing, but are concerned with giving directions, evaluating progress, removing difficulties, and co-ordinating effort. As used in education, supervision is directed towards the achievement of more effective learning by producing self-controlled, independently effective students.⁷⁵

If a beginning teacher, along with other members of the staff, is having problems with discipline, the principal or supervisor can set up a discipline committee.⁷⁶ A discipline committee consists of teachers who are selected to check the actions of pupils who are misbehaving. They are also given the authority to carry out disciplinary action. Also, a discipline study group can be formed.⁷⁷ Such a group is formed by a group of teachers who come together on a voluntary basis because of a common interest. They explore problems in the area of discipline and pass on suggestions and reports to improve staff functioning.

Before ending this section, it is necessary to point out that I have chosen only a few of the means by which a supervisor can help his beginning teachers with their disciplinary problems. The beginner must realize in the early stages of his teaching career that he will have to learn to handle his own problems.

In the final analysis, no individual can teach a teacher how to handle problems of pupil management and discipline; the teacher has to learn how himself.⁷⁸

SUPERVISION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS - IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

What can a supervisor do to improve instruction?

To prescribe a formula for the teacher, to wrap up a set of instructions for him, neatly labeled with price tag, is a threat to freedom in the classroom and could easily bring forth a type of uniformity not conducive to good teaching.⁷⁹

It is obvious that a "package deal" is not the answer. The answer, however, does seem apparent when

we consider the following:

... In order to teach well teachers must possess a sound philosophy of education and must clearly formulate, and consistently seek general objectives which are in accord with this philosophy. Good teaching is not only a matter of possessing the right professional motivation, good will toward children, and mastery of some important techniques of the craft; basically it involves intelligent awareness of the purpose and direction of the educational process. At all times teachers must know and consistently keep in mind why they are teaching and what goals they hope to attain.⁸⁰

This is where the supervisor comes into the picture.

This is his task: how to influence the teachers continuously to direct their instruction toward educational goals which are sound and clearly recognized. The following quote emphasizes this more fully.

It is clearly the supervisor's responsibility to help establish teachers in the habit of planning their instruction in terms of purposes which are worthy, definite, and specific. Such help cannot but result in teaching that is not only more intelligent and more effective, but that is also conducive to professional growth in independence and self confidence. In the long run the best way to provide this help is by continuously influencing teachers to be mindful that they are educating not for subject-matter mastery but for happy and efficient living in the complex, modern world. Not until teachers become conscious of their role as educators can they achieve true and continuous self-directed growth. To assist teachers toward this end, the supervisor will naturally avail himself of every means at his command, influencing teachers by personal example and by explicit suggestion, by referring them to helpful literature - both of a general kind and that which pertains especially to their fields of instruction - and by encouraging the formation of small teacher groups for the cooperative planning of educationally purposeful instruction.⁸¹

Now I will discuss some of the devices or techniques which a supervisor can use to help teachers with their instructional methods.

Probably the best place to start would be with the

assignment of teachers. Many people consider the assignment of teachers an administrative function, but if they could foresee the problems that may occur they would readily agree that it is a supervisory function. The immediate success or entire career of a teacher can be affected. If a teacher is given an assignment for which he is not qualified emotionally as well as academically, he may be a complete misfit and beyond any real supervisory help; such misplacements exist in our school systems.

In the assignment of teachers, administrators frequently give inexperienced and other teachers new to the district the worst teaching situations. The best assignments are awarded to staff members on a seniority basis or, in some cases, as a reward for conforming. On the other hand, rarely do the senior citizens (those within five years of retirement) receive the consideration they should have.

As a supervisory technique, the qualifications of each teacher should be carefully studied before an assignment is made. Teachers should be placed, with their consent, in positions for which they are best qualified, taking into consideration all their characteristics as well as their education and years of teaching experience.

The beginning teacher deserves the right to feel success on the job the first year. If possible, the supervisor should lighten the load of the new teacher to enable him to achieve that success. This extra time can be spent in planning and observing the good work of other teachers.

The leadership approach - here I am concerned with the initiative of the supervisor in the instructional field - with the force exerted by the supervisor for instructional improvement. In this particular area the principal, as a supervisor, and the supervisor are directly concerned.

The following conditions are found in schools where faculties are working effectively toward better practices.

1. Lines of communication are open. The principal is available to the staff. A teacher doesn't have to wait until the principal is in the proper mood to be approached, because he is always the same person. He is accessible to everyone, but is not unduly influenced. Teachers bring their concerns and plans to him just as he brings things to them.
2. Matters of concern are approached with a wide exchange of views and the common knowledge of all. Committees are not selected just to serve the principal's point of view, and frequent progress reports are made to keep the staff informed and to enable them to make contributions.
3. There is full recognition of the importance of everyone, with a full use of faculty resources. All this effort is judged in terms of the welfare of the child.
4. There is no feeling of uncertainty among the staff. There are no surprise announcements of changes, no secret inner councils making decisions. The decisions affecting instruction are arrived at through maximum participation, with time taken to ferret out the facts.
5. Appreciation is shown for accomplishment and contributions, and credit is freely given. The principal is not stingy with or neglectful in his praise. He gives it not as though the thing was done for him, but as the representative of the school.⁸²

Classroom visitation - This is still the most important means by which a supervisor can become acquainted at first hand with the work of the beginning teacher in the classroom.

In the minds of many persons, both teachers and principals, classroom visitation has been so closely associated with supervision that the two terms are virtually synonymous. Some teachers would include in supervision only classroom visitations; others would include the conference following visitation and teachers' meetings.⁸³

It is impossible for the principal or other staff personnel to serve effectively in a supervisory capacity without seeing the pupils in action. If the objective of supervision is to improve the learning situation, the supervisor must spend a great deal of time in the places where the learning is taking place.

Through classroom visitation the supervisor learns how effectively the teaching tools are being utilized. Are the pupils using reference materials other than the basic text? How effectively are workbooks being employed? Are audio-visual materials being utilized to the greatest advantage? What is the quality and quantity of homework that is being assigned? Complete answers to these and other similar questions cannot be obtained except through classroom visitation.

Next, how can the supervisor help if he sees that the beginning teacher requires aid in instructional method? Through visitation and observation the supervisor is able to build a storehouse of excellent teaching techniques and procedures. Filing examples of good teaching practices under appropriate headings is a very practical way to obtain a reservoir of instructional techniques that will be invaluable in working with different teachers under varying conditions. This should not be interpreted to mean that the supervisor would expect a teacher to use a suggested technique without adaptation to his situation or modification to meet his particular needs. It is true that what will work for one

teacher under certain conditions will not necessarily produce the same results for another teacher in a different situation. Nevertheless, a supply of proved devices increase the versatility of the supervisor in helping teachers to solve their problems. Perhaps the most important contribution of observational visits lies in the assistance they render the supervisor in enabling him to see the over-all pattern of instruction in the school, to identify instructional and curriculum problems common to many or all teachers, and to unify and coordinate the school program.

The following quote sums up what is required of a supervisory program in relation to the improvement of instruction through classroom visitation:

The real test of the efficacy of any supervisory program is in terms of what takes place in the classroom. A program of supervision should result in the improvement of the quality of instruction, affecting the teaching materials used, the methods of teaching, and the substance of the child's learning experience. Pupil learning cannot be much improved except as teaching is improved. An effective supervisory program should show definite results in the classroom, and part of the evaluation should be made in terms of continuous appraisal of the quality of instruction.⁸⁴

Conferences - Next to classroom visitation, the supervisory conference is the most direct procedure to assist each individual beginning teacher.

Every visit must be followed by a conference between the supervisor and the observed teacher. Again the supervisor's actions will be determined by remembering his main purpose, to help the teacher improve his instruction. The supervisor will be constructive; he will select strong points; he will suggest techniques or materials to strengthen weak points, he will use illustrations; he will suggest specific readings; he will offer help in planning or evaluating. It is this conference, not the visit, which furthers the program of supervision in the school.⁸⁵

Demonstration teaching - Harold Spears highlights its role when he writes:

There is nothing old fashioned about demonstration teaching in a supervisory program. From the point of view of one receiving help it is observation, and the observation of the good work of another teacher is a sound practice in teacher training that begins in the undergraduate school and continues throughout the professional career of a teacher.⁸⁶

When an experienced teacher observes the class of another experienced teacher, the situation is somewhat different. Even if the visitor is a beginning teacher, there is more dissimilarity than similarity between the two situations. The teacher visits to discover methods which he may adapt to his own purposes. He does not go to the other teacher's class with any idea of disparaging criticism. He takes with him not a guide sheet but the sum of all his experiences in teaching and the problems with which he is confronted at the moment.

The purposes of observing good teaching may be multiple and varied; usually they include learning to use some particular technique or method, such as the art of questioning, the project method, the socialized recitation, the introduction of a unit, or the use of visual aids. Purposes for making observations may grow out of group or individual conferences which the supervisor has had with the teachers. Sometimes teachers find it difficult to put into practice concepts which emerge from discussion, study, or conference; an opportunity to watch someone make the actual translation is helpful.⁸⁷

Department head - The department head is a special supervisory officer directly responsible to the principal. Ideally a department head should have the same general attributes as a principal, being professionally minded, alert, tactful, understanding of people and sensitive to their problems and needs. He should be the ideal person to help in

the instructional field. Because he has teaching responsibilities, it is easy for him to maintain a peer relationship with the other members of the department. New teachers readily come to him for counsel, advice, and assistance, and most teachers respect his ability as a teacher.

Team teaching - This concept has been identified clearly only recently. It involves basically the extension of supervision and supervisory leadership to master teachers who are in charge of instructional teams, with the instructional program planned by these teams; such teams would use under this team leader other personnel such as interns, fellows, and cadet teachers and librarians and assistants in charge of materials centers. The central office would be responsible for curriculum and instructional designs, the development of instructional teams, and for instructional research and experimentation.

How would this benefit the beginner's instructional methods?

In effect, such an organization for instruction provides built-in-supervision for interns and beginning teachers who are included. Because team members work closely together planning the total program of instruction for a unit of students that may include 200 or 300 or as few as 50 or 60, graduated professional experiences can be arranged for inexperienced and less able members. At the same time, more professional help is available from team leaders who assume in addition to master teacher responsibilities many of the duties related to the improvement of instruction that central office supervisors typically perform.⁸⁸

Besides the individual techniques, there are also group techniques for improving instruction. I intend to mention only a few of these without discussing their

advantages and disadvantages. (1) Faculty Meetings (2) Group Conferences (3) Workshops (4) In-Service Education Activities (5) Team Teaching.

As I mentioned earlier, these are only some of the devices or techniques that a supervisor can use to improve the instruction of the beginning teacher. The supervisor must use the techniques which he thinks are most useful to a particular teacher at a particular time.

SUPERVISION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS - IMPROVING KNOWLEDGE

Teaching is an art which is achieved through long and carefully directed practice. One is not "born" a good teacher. One must have a sound cultural and professional preparation, interest in teaching as a career, intellectual alertness and desire for self-improvement. Good teaching results from rigorous efforts to improve one's teaching by application of high standards, and from honest and critical appraisal of one's professional virtues and limitations. It is evident that in this process the supervisor can be of great assistance to the beginning teacher.

The beginning teacher requires immediate supervision because the help which can be given to him will pay dividends throughout his entire career. Furthermore, a beginning teacher probably would not realize that he needs guidance at this stage.

A beginning teacher is more than an untried worker whose immediate effectiveness in his job can be greatly enhanced through the sympathetic help and guidance of

his more experienced colleagues, the supervisors. He is, generally speaking, on the threshold of admittance into a lifelong professional career; what he becomes as a practitioner in the profession, the influence that he eventually exerts on successive classes of children over a period of many years, depends in great part on the professional values and ideals he forms in the first few years of teaching. The supervisor has a great responsibility in this matter: not only must he help the newcomer over the "rough spots" in his immediate assignment, but he must also help him obtain a broader professional orientation of the proper kind - an insight into the ethics of the profession, the standards of professional competence, the necessity for continuous self-improvement, and other controlling ideals and aspirations of the really good teacher.⁸⁹

It is obvious that the beginning teacher requires supervision, the problem is finding out what techniques can be used to improve the beginner's knowledge of his subject matter and professional competence. Again, I intend to outline only a few of the techniques which have proven useful during the last ten years and many of which are unknown to the beginning teacher.

Not so many years ago the synonym of in-service education was summer school attendance in a college or a university. That is, the concept of in-service development was narrowly restricted to courses taken in college or university. Additional college courses still constitute an important part of in-service development, but the scope of "growth on the job" has widened until workshops, conferences, etc., have become of great importance.

It is the supervisor's job to take steps to provide means in a school for professional staff members to keep themselves abreast of developments in teaching, both in general

aspects and in their subject matter fields. The means which is most easily provided, and which forms an essential basis of all professional growth, is the professional library.

Some schools combine the professional library for teachers with the curriculum library or laboratory. Other school supervisors maintain that each school building should have its own professional library: that its books, periodicals, and materials should be carefully selected for teacher growth and improvement; that it should be a pleasant and relaxing room, with easy chairs, excellent lighting, and good equipment; that it should be growing constantly by the addition of new and pertinent materials; that teachers should be supplied with individual keys to it to be free to come and go and take materials as they wish; and that it should be equipped also for the meeting of small groups on common problems.⁹⁰

The library is the main place in the modern school for the teacher to locate, read, organize, and evaluate information. To help the library and the librarian to carry out these purposes, the supervisor has several major responsibilities. First, he should help to coordinate the efforts of the teaching staff in suggesting new materials which the library can provide. In the second place, the supervisor can help materially in the planning and scheduling of library periods. This way everyone can get to use the material which is available. A third responsibility of the supervisor is to help schedule special services of the library. In a larger school system one may find a central depository or bureau for all kinds of audio-visual materials and vertical files; these would contain current materials clipped from magazines and newspapers, such as accounts of interest concerning the current elections and the like. In many school buildings, moving picture machines, record players, recorders, pro-

jectors, maps, charts, etc., become a part of the library and its service to the school, in effect, a "materials center" or "instructional center". Since different teachers will want to use the same materials or equipment, a planned schedule is necessary. The supervisor can help in working out such a schedule to make possible maximum use of these materials.

Another responsibility of the supervisor in regard to effective use of the library revolves around a weakness in teacher training. A large percentage of both new teachers and seasoned teachers do not know how to make effective use of major reference sources and lists in the library. Since they have come this far in their careers without being taught how to use these basic references, they are very hesitant about asking for help. The supervisor can be of great help to the beginning teacher in planning a unit with his competency in the use of such basic tools as the Readers Guide to Periodical Literature, and indexes of all sorts of books for various grade levels.

Supervisory conferences help to improve the knowledge of beginning teachers. A supervisory conference refers to a discussion which takes place between a supervisor and a teacher relative to some matter touching the common educational enterprise in which they are engaged.

As a means of fostering growth and furthering the professional competence of teachers, the supervisory conference is potentially of utmost value: an able, experienced, understanding supervisor in whom a teacher has confidence and to whom he turns without hesitation can, over a period of time, contribute more to that teacher's growth than attendance at any number of summer session

and "alertness" courses. To a good supervisor, supervisory conferences afford an opportunity to serve his colleagues by sharing with them what he has learned out of his own training and experience; to an ambitious teacher the opportunity to have frequent professional discussions with an older and wiser colleague is an excellent means of achieving greater mastery of his craft and greater personal development in a shorter time than if he relied entirely upon his own resources or even pooled his resources with those colleagues of equal maturity and experience.⁹¹

The educational Workshop is a good means of improving professional competency. Workshops have been described as flexibly, organized, informally conducted, short-term programs of study in which teachers and other educators work intensively upon a need or a problem that has arisen out of their daily occupations. These Workshops are most beneficial to the beginning teacher because they supply immediate solutions to problems which the teacher had not anticipated through his lack of experience. Harold Spears identifies as many as seven different types of workshops, two of which I will mention.⁹²

The faculty workshop, either throughout the school year or for preschool planning under the general direction of the supervisor or the principal.

The summer workshop, either (a) at an institution of higher learning in a particular field or area of interest, or (b) in the local school system at a camp or place away from the school grounds. Many schools pay part or all expenses to these, or obtain scholarships for teachers to them from sponsoring organizations or colleges.

Intervisitation - This is a technique that supervisors

have been using for years to improve the knowledge of weak teachers. Some beginning teachers fit into this category.

This can be valuable for the teacher in several ways - to see new methods or materials in use, to observe the use of new equipment, to see a "master teacher" in action who is successful in those ways in which a particular teacher is weak or ineffective. Like demonstration teaching and observation, the purpose of the intervisitation should be very clear; notes should be kept on the intervisitation and the teaching; and the visit should be followed by a conference and discussion of the practices and outcomes in the light of the purposes.⁹³

Robert Hammock and Ralph Owings have this to say about intervisitation:

Intervisitation is a form of sharing. Teachers share with one another their skills, experiences, and strengths. Intervisitation is a means of supervision or in-service development, which does not have the wide implications of the workshop or the study group. It is a small thing within itself and may even be a part of the larger procedure of the workshop or study group. It can bring much improvement to some individual teachers.⁹⁴

College or University attendance - The following quote proves that supervisors should assume a more active role in assisting teachers to select college or university courses.

If they are going to prove helpful to the teacher in his present teaching situation, supervisors should assume a more active role in assisting teachers to select courses offered on campus and in extension centers. The writer has advised hundreds of students in planning their graduate programs and he has found only a small number of students who actually recognize their strengths and weaknesses. This awareness seems to increase somewhat with experience. Too many teachers (particularly men) take graduate work to prepare for another type of educational position instead of to improve themselves for their present assignment.

Another manner in which supervisors can help in this respect is to sponsor college or university extension classes in their own school buildings or districts.⁹⁵

Since it has been proven that experienced teachers need guidance in selecting college or university courses, it

goes without saying that beginning teachers require even more guidance from their supervisors in this regard.

It is generally agreed that university or college courses are of help to most people. It is also agreed that there can be misgivings involved in attendance at such courses. Again, this proves that supervision is required.

Attending a college or a university after a teacher has begun his service is a basically worthy means of in-service development, but such attendance is wrought with possible defects as a single means for significant development of professional staff members. Supervisory personnel have an obligation to aid teachers in using college attendance as a technique of improving themselves as staff members in the school:

1. College or university attendance after service in teaching begins must be planned so that it is not merely "education" in its narrowest concept - winning additional college or university credit.
2. College or university courses should be related to the kind of development needed by the teacher and to the objectives of the supervisory program in the school.
3. College or university attendance should be looked upon as only one of many means of improving the teacher in service.
4. Higher institutions should be selected on the basis of the kind and quality of the teacher and the school. College or university attendance after service begins can be a most excellent means of improvement in service if it is planned carefully.⁹⁶

In concluding this section, the following ideas concerning in-service programs should be kept in mind by the beginning teacher:

The orderly way to promote continuing professional growth is through an organized program of in-service training. An in-service program that is co-operatively planned by administrators, supervisors, and teachers to meet a wide variety of educational needs saves the time and energy of all concerned and at the same time gives greater assurance of more functional outcomes. Suffice it is to say that an in-service program developed co-operatively for a large or small city or county system is an essential of good curriculum development. It provides for better communication between the various working groups and also between the various teaching levels.⁹⁷

CONCLUSION

It is my hope that I have demonstrated the major problems which the beginning teacher may encounter in the areas of discipline, knowledge of subjects and methods of instruction, and some of the ways to overcome these problems. More important, however, is the need for the beginning teacher to accept the idea that he can save himself much time and energy by studying some of the pitfalls that have plagued other teachers, and by so doing he can spend his saved time really educating children. Perhaps this thesis may make this acceptance a little easier.

In summary, its basic aim is to provide a simple practical look at some of the problems of a beginning teacher, and at the same time offer a few solutions to these problems. It is not intended that every conceivable problem that a beginning teacher could encounter be mentioned. This would be an impossible task. My purpose would be achieved if the beginning teacher would admit to himself that these problems could be his problems. If he would admit this fact, then my thesis could be of further help to him insofar as he would have to admit that he requires help. The last chapter of my thesis is designed to supply the answer to this situation.

The beginning teacher will find that his supervisor is the person to whom logically he must go. If this course of action is taken, then my compilation of material will have achieved its essential purpose.

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