







## NATIONAL SURVEY

OF THE

## **EDUCATION OF TEACHERS**

Bulletin 1933, No. 10

IN SIX VOLUMES Volume II .

## TEACHER PERSONNEL IN THE UNITED STATES

IN THREE PARTS

EDWARD S. EVENDEN, GUY C. GAMBLE and HAROLD G. BLUE



United States Department of the Interior - - Harold L. Ickes, Secretary - - - - George F. Zook, Commissioner

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## LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,

OFFICE OF EDUCATION.

Washington, D.C., June 1933.

Sir: The first State normal school in America was founded by the colleagues of Horace Mann at Lexington, Mass. It was legally established during the panic of 1837. The law which gave it birth passed in 1838, and the school opened in 1839. Later it was moved to West Newton and still later to Framingham, where it still exists. This, the first State institution especially designed for the preparation of teachers, was a specialized type of secondary school to which pupils who passed an examination in common-school subjects were admitted. A few States still recognize high schools and junior colleges as adequate teacher-preparatory institutions, but it is believed that such arrangements are now passing.

In 1894 Massachusetts again took the lead, in making graduation from the high school necessary for admission to the normal schools. This step automatically put these institutions on the college level. The presidents of these schools now undertook to establish the proper standards for teaching. It was logical that they should find themselves preparing teachers for a profession. In the meantime the universities and the liberal arts colleges gave some attention to teaching. Iowa began in 1873, and Michigan founded a chair of pedagogy in 1879. In general, these schools prepared the high-school teachers and the normal schools prepared elementary-school teachers.

Since these early beginnings much progress has been made in the. preparation of teachers. The majority of the normal schools have increased the length of their curricula and have become degreegranting teachers colleges and nearly all of the colleges and universities have larger numbers of their graduates going into teaching than into any other line of work. It was only natural that such a diversity of teacher-educating agencies should raise a great many controversial issues and that there should be numerous instances of overlapping and unnecessary duplication of effort. This was evident at the 1915 meeting of the National Education Association in Oakland, Calif., when the desirability of a survey was discussed and a committee to investigate its possibility was appointed. Mr. D. B. Waldo, president of the Teachers College at Kalamazoo, was a member of that early committee. At the time of the appointment of the board of consultants of this Survey only he and Dr. Lord were still living and in active service.

The Seventy-first Congress authorized a survey of the education of teachers on a Nation-wide scope which has been conducted during the last 3 years under the immediate direction of Dr. E. S. Evenden, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, who has served as associate director.

According to the Authorization Act the National Survey of the Education of Teachers was to study "the qualifications of teachers in the public schools, the supply of available teachers, the facilities available and needed for teacher training, including courses of study and methods of teaching." The data presented in this volume, the second in a series of six volumes in which the final report will appear, are concerned primarily with the present personnel of the teachers in the American public schools, conditions affecting the supply of and demand for such teachers, the characteristics of prospective teachers in teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges, and the qualifications of the staff members in higher educational institutions in which prospective teachers are being educated.

The data for parts I and III were obtained and tabulated by the central Survey staff at Washington under the direction of Dr. Guy . Gamble, senior specialist in educational surveys. Part II of this volume, the study of prospective teachers in higher educational institutions, was done as a cooperative study and directed by Harold G. Blue, head of the department of sociology, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo., and principal specialist in student personnel guidance. The data in the three parts of this volume present the most complete pictures thus far available of the three personnel groups studied. The data were collected in the same way and at the same time, which makes them more useful for comparisons among groups of teachers, sections of the country, States, types of educational institutions, and other bases. It is certain that data in this volume will be useful not only in the development of State programs for the preparation of teachers, but they will also serve as a very valuable record of conditions existing throughout the United States at the time they were collected. I therefore recommend that these three studies be published as one volume in the final report of this investigation. "

Respectfully submitted.

WM. JOHN COOPER, Commissioner

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.



### **FOREWORD**

In order to present the situation in the United States with respect to the education of teachers in the public schools, the National Survey of the Education of Teachers endeavored to obtain information about the personnel of three groups—teachers in service, students preparing to be teachers, and teachers of prospective teachers. Tables summarizing the most important of the personnel data from these three studies are included in this volume of the Survey report. The primary purpose of these three studies was to secure data which would show conditions as they were at the time the Survey was made and which would serve as the basis for recommendations for lines of future development.

A letter was addressed to State superintendents of schools, presidents and deans of institutions preparing teachers, and a selected group of city and county superintendents asking them to list the most pressing problems in the education of teachers in their areas. The answers to these requests were used in determining which of the many problems should be selected for study in the Survey. Survey staff then attempted to prepare the information blanks so that all data requested had a bearing upon one or more of the problems selected. In this way it was possible to reduce the number of questions asked, the time required to answer them and the time and expense of tabulating the answers. Many other questions, of course, could have been included, and individual members of the staff and special consultants in a number of cases suggested that additional data be requested. The policy followed, however, was to ask only questions related to the selected problems which the Survey expected. to use in its reports.

In order to make the data comparable for the country as a whole the information blanks were distributed to all teachers, supervisors, and administrative officers in the public schools and the answers sent directly to the United States Office of Education in Washington, D.C. (The method of doing this and of tabulating the answers is described in chapter I.) Almost the same procedure was followed in obtaining the data from the staff members of the cooperating higher educational institutions.

As a result of the way in which the data blanks were prepared, distributed, collected, and tabulated, it is the opinion of the Survey staff that the data presented in this volume show in a reliable manner

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the "personnel pictures" for the three groups studied as they were in the United States in the years for which the data were collected.

As was previously stated it was impossible to study all of the problems in the field of the education of teachers-not even all of the important problems. Neither was it possible to study for all groups of teachers the problems selected for study in the Survey. These limitations will appear as special groups of teachers or special workers attempt to secure data concerning their status in 1930-31 or 1931-32. Only the data for the largest groups were carried through the entire range of the studies and the smaller groups appear as separate groups in only a few of the tables. As soon as this policy was determined those in charge of the Survey offered to make available to interested and responsible representatives of the smaller and special groups the data which the Survey had collected concerning the personnel of those groups. The possibilities of such studies were made known through the columns of School Life, the Journal of the National Educa-TION ASSOCIATION, and through reports to the members of the Professional Advisory Committée (made up of representatives of many of the special groups). In response to this invitation a number of States and several special groups had duplicate Hollerith cards punched for use in more intensive studies than were possible in the Survey. Neither the names nor the addresses of individuals were recorded on the Hollerith cards so the identity of individuals could not be determined in any of these studies.

The personnel data procured by the three studies reported in this volume were of service in most of the special studies conducted by the These personnel data revealed in several of the fields of special study problems which had not been attacked, showed some problems to be more and others less acute than was generally thought. indicated the extent and location of problems not national in scope, changed the focus of some teacher-preparation problems and in a number of instances suggested next steps in programs for the improvement of teacher education and located the educational units responsible for those next steps. It is expected that national and State educational officials responsible for the education of teachers will be able to find numerous other uses for these data. This volume also contains much material for desirable educational publicity which will keep the important problem of procuring adequately prepared teachers for the public schools before the school patrons of the several States until subsequent State or national studies show that the inadequacies and inequalities of 1930-31 and 1931-32 have been removed.

Because of the importance of the personnel data obtained in these studies and the necessary delay between their collection and appearance in the final report the policy was followed of making the more important findings available as quickly as the returns were tabulated.



This was done through a series of articles prepared by Survey staff members and published in School Life and also by numerous papers and addresses given before national educational organizations by Survey staff members. Many of the tables were mimeographed and presented to the Board of Consultants and the Professional Advisory Committee and also made available from the Office of Education to interested individuals or organizations.

The data blanks used in parts I and III of this report were prepared by the associate director and Dr. Guy C. Gamble. Helpful suggestions on form and arrangement were obtained from Richard Warren, and from Samuel H. Musick, of the Planning Division of the United States Government Printing Office. The handling of the returns, their transfer to Hollerith cards, their routing through the mechanical tabulating machines and the preparation of the final tables were done under the immediate direction of Dr. Gamble.

Part II—Student Personnel—Prospective Teachers, was prepared by Prof. Harold G. Blue, head of the department of sociology, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo., and principal specialist in student personnel guidance. Professor Blue made this study in cooperation with the National Survey of the Education of Teachers and under the direction of a committee of the faculty of the school of education of the University of Chicago.

The Survey staff realizes that it would have been impossible to make the studies contained in this volume of the report had it not been for the cooperation of all of the people who supplied the basic data. We, therefore, wish to acknowledge our indebtedness and express our gratitude to (a) the State superintendents and State commissioners of education and the city and county superintendents who distributed Inquiry No. 1; (b) the 454,742 teachers, and administrative and supervisory officers who returned their data blanks; (c) the 12,880 students who supplied the answers to the student questionnaires; (d) the presidents of 637 cooperating institutions in which teachers are prepared who distributed the data blanks to their staffs; and (e) the 21,742 staff members who answered them.

In addition to these persons who supplied the essential material for the studies we acknowledge special assistance in connection with these studies from the Editorial Division of the Office of Education, the Tabulating and other units of the Miscellaneous Service Section of the Department of the Interior, the Mail Division of the Office of Education, and the Office of the Chief Clerk of the Office of Education.

E. S. EVENDEN,
Associate Director.



# PART



# TEACHER PERSONNEL IN THE UNITED STATES

# PART I. TEACHER PERSONNEL IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

## CHAPTER I

# PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THE TEACHING PERSONNEL STUDY

Educational expansion after the World War.—The decade following the World War was a period of rapid expansion for education comparable in many ways to the expansions in other lines of endeavor. Educational conditions revealed during and immediately following the World War made us as a Nation more education-conscious than we had been before. Teachers' salaries were increased, more preparation was demanded of teachers, new school buildings were built, school terms were lengthened, many new high schools and junior colleges were started and colleges and universities were forced, within the space of 2 or 3 years, to provide for twice as many students.

All went well as long as the rate of economic expansion was fast enough to pay for the increased services and the services increased

rapidly enough to absorb all the new recruits to teaching.

The financial crisis beginning in 1929 demonstrated to the economic and industrial groups that unplanned and unregulated expansion could not continue indefinitely. Two or three years before that date the educational leaders responsible for the preparation and certification of teachers were aware that the supply of new teachers had overtaken the demand and that something would have to be done about it.

From 1920 to 1930 the number of public-school elementary teachers increased from 576,246 to 640,957, an increase of 11 percent. Public-school secondary teachers increased in number from 101,958 to 213,306 or 109 percent. The increase for both combined was 26 percent. During the same 10-year period, the number of resident students in the normal schools and teachers colleges increased from 135,412 to 161,524, or 20 percent, while the attendance in the colleges and universities jumped from 462,445 to 924,275, or 100 percent, an increase of 82 percent for the two combined. Most of this increase came

during the first 6 years of this period, so that by 1927, presidents of normal schools and teachers colleges, deans of schools of education, and State superintendents of education were keenly aware that there were more certificated teachers than there were teaching positions. Placement offices and teachers agencies were unable to procure positions for their registrants. Student advisers and guidance officers did not know how to advise those interested in becoming teachers. Boards of education, especially in the larger and wealthier cities,

were deluged with applications for placement.

Proposal for a survey of teaching.—These situations explain why the national organizations of the three groups most directly concerned with the education of teachers—the American Association of Teachers Colleges, the National Association of Deans of Education, and the Council of State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education—decided in 1928 to ask the Federal Government to include in its program of national surveys a survey of the education of teachers. With the aid of representatives of these three organizations, Dr. William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, procured from the Seventy-first Congress an authorization for such a survey at a cost not to exceed \$200,000 (later reduced to \$180,000). It was authorized to extend over a period of 3 years and to include a study of "the qualifications of teachers in the public schools, the supply of available teachers, the facilities available and needed for teacher training, including courses of study and methods of teaching."

Organization of the Survey.—As soon as possible after the survey was authorized an organization was perfected (described in more detail in vol. VI and shown on the inside covers of this volume) and inquiries were addressed to the presidents of all institutions educating teachers, to State superintendents of public instruction, and to representative city superintendents, asking them to list the problems connected with the education of teachers in their institutions, States, or cities which were most difficult to solve at that time. The replies were tabulated and, in the light of the answers, the problems to be included in

the survey were selected.

At the second meeting of the board of consultants it became apparent that the problems selected for study demanded certain data about the teaching personnel which were not available in the Federal Office of Education or in the several State departments. Many of the facts had been ascertained by one or another agency but were not comparable. They had been collected for different years or at different times in the same year. They were not obtained in answer to the same questions or on the same forms. They had been tabulated in different combinations and for different purposes. As a result, even though some of these studies were comprehensive and conducted very scientifically, the results could not be used for comparison with the findings from similar studies in other States.



In order to obtain the data needed to throw light upon some of the problems included in the survey and data which would be comparable for different States and for different sections of the country, it was decided to obtain the desired information directly from the individuals working in the public schools. Only in this way was it possible to procure data which could be used as representing national conditions.

A million questionnaires.—The number of individuals employed as teachers, supervisors, and administrators in the public-school systems of the United States in 1930-31 was nearly a million. Because of the number of blanks to be handled and answers to be tabulated it was imperative to reduce the number of questions to the smallest possible number which would give the data desired for studying the problems selected. To insure the inclusion of all essential data and to preclude asking for any facts which would not be needed or used the survey staff first drew up in "dummy form" the tables which were desired for the final report. The inquiry or data sheet was then prepared in the light of those tables and the items in the tables checked against the items in the questionnaires. Other factors, largely of cost, made it desirable to limit the questions asked to those which could be included on both sides of one page. This, of course, made it necessary to omit many questions which individuals or special groups desired to include and to which the answers would undoubtedly have been both interesting and valuable to the groups concerned. Preference was given to those questions which concerned the largest groups. Also because of the number involved it was necessary to make the inquiry as easily handled as possible both by those who supplied the data and by those who had to tabulate it. With this in mind the questions were "precoded" for use with Hollerith tabulating machines and a scheme of circling code numbers for the appropriate answers or inserting figures reduced the time needed to answer the questions to a minimum. This scheme also greatly reduced the time required to transfer the data from the questionnaires to Hollerith Inquiry 1 is reproduced as figures 1 and 2 because it will help in understanding the tables presented in this section and also because it has many features which will be valuable as suggestions to those conducting similar studies.

Distribution of the inquiries.—One or two other facts in connection with these inquiries will aid in the understanding of this study and explain some of its limitations. In the first place it was thought desirable to have the data sheets returned directly to the Office of Education in Washington by each individual. The assurance was given in Commissioner Cooper's letter on each inquiry that the answers would be used only in group tabulations which would in no way identify the individual answering. It was thought that in this impersonal way more accurate data would be given on all questions



than would have been obtained had the inquiries been collected by local administrators, even though nearly all of the data asked for were matters of record in many school systems (although not in the exact form asked for).

#### UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR OFFICE OF EDUCATION

TO TRACHERS, SUPERVISORS, AND ADMINISTRATORS:

ATY 18 1001.

The present unemployment of many expatienced and trained teachers professional organizations, to provide for a nation-wide survey of the dears, administrators and other specialists in the public school systems of silar questions for local studies. However, to secure data comparable sional employees are asked to reply to the same set of questions. This study is solely for the improvement of American education. Singusted, please respend promptly. Mail answers in the efficial envelope didential. They will be used for group studies only.

Cordially yours,

THE NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Beed carefully. DIRECTIONS: In the columns below are two types of question information requested in the space provided at the left of the question. of the one code number to the left of the item which best rep YOUR WORK IS-DONE IN @ Elementary School.

Use a red or soft pencil preferably. Draw the circle n

10 to \$1,000 PLOTED TOUT des 18, 11, and 18 wh IO SEE CHA IN SERVE CRADUS DOW TAVORT AND no or Two Tuesdor Band School DESCRIPTION OF YOUR MAIN WORK. Astend Do Trades and Ind

FIGURE 1.-Inquiry 1, page 1.

.In the second place, several conditions made it necessary to secure the cooperation of State and city superintendents in the distribution of the inquiries. There is no mailing list for all public-school teachers and the task of addressing a million letters, using the State directories



(not available in many States), would have been prohibitive in cost and time. It was necessary to ask State commissioners of education, State superintendents of education, and superintendents of schools in cities of 2,500 population and more to cooperate in the distribution of

AMOR  O White.  I Form.  I Form.  I Form.  I Delta.  O Obe.  EMERSET ENTER  Delta.  O Obe.  O Obe.  I Two power of high subset.  O Two power of high subset.  I Two power of subspa.  I Now power of embage.  One post of embage.  I Form power of embage.  I Form of good water we have been a face power of good water we have been delta.  I Form power of good water we have been delta.  FURIES OF TALES  FURIES OF TALES  OUTLINES.  O Ober Inches's Obliga.  I Brist Obliga of Water of Delta.  O Ober Inches's Obliga.  I Brist Obliga of Water of States of the States of the States of the States of St	OF TRAIN  TO TRA	TO DESCRIPTION OF THE PROPERTY	BOTE: Do eye in twent of man in the control in twent of the series in the control	residence in contract has a second contract	THE POT SEPLOTED IN COMMISSION OF SEPLOTED I	STEET OF STE	an and December Tellulage antiquency in and Prepared Referency, and Physical Referency, and Physical Referency, and Physical Referency, and Referency in the Community of the Community of the Community of the Control	THE COLUMN
Hajor Teaching Field			Tunching Field		Major Teaching Field	DUATE COLU	Miner Penalthy I	
230a	let.		Title	Seen.	Tale	The last	770	1
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FIGURE 2-Inquiry 1, page 2.

the questionnaires and the return envelops. Because the franking privilege could not be extended to these State, city, and county education officials the cooperation also involved the expense of mailing or

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delivering the inquiries and envelops to county superintendents, to superintendents of smaller cities, and to building principals, who in turn were asked to complete the distribution to the individual teachers and educational workers under their immediate jurisdiction. It is clear that the necessity of using this method of distribution resulted in a number of leakage points before the data sheets ever reached - the teachers who were expected to answer them. Subsequent checks on this item indicated that some State departments, a number of city superintendents, and many county superintendents and principals did not distribute the inquiries or did not distribute all of them. This may have been because they were not fully informed concerning the purpose of the study, or of the desirability of having replies from all teachers, or because they were too occupied with other things and did not distribute the material before the time set for returning data and decided that it was then not necessary, or because they did not choose to invest in this study the few dollars required for postage.

TABLE 1.—Distribution of inquiries to public-school personnel and total receipts by States, 1930-31

State	Grand total num- ber dis- trib- uted	Num- ber re- ceived and tabu- lated	Sam- pling per- centage	State	Orand total num- ber dis trib- uted	ber re-	Sam- pling per- centage
1	1			1	,	3	
Alabama. Arisona Arkansas. California Colorado.	13,770	7, 667 1, 957 3, 679 28, 553 4, 402	41. 8 42. 7 26. 7 55. 1 46. 5	Nebraska Newada New Hampshire New Jersey New Mexico	1,025 3,525	7, 701 571 2, 059 22, 328 1, 505	47. 6 55. 7 58. 4 79. 1 42. 1
Connecticut Delaware District of Columbia Florida Georgia	1, 850 3, 235 11, 650 22, 228	7, 154 813 1, 683 4, 258 8, 687	57. 8 43. 9 52. 0 36. 5 16. 6	New York North Carolina North Dakota Ohio Oklahoma	81, 600 27, 450 10, 280	48, 094 11, 882 5, 519 27, 439 6, 428	58. 9 43. 3 53. 7 57. 0 28. 8
Idaho	49, 235.	1, 518 16, 973 16, 570 16, 227 10, 308	28. 5 34. 5 63. 2 59. 5 47. 4	Oregon. Pennsylvania Rhode Island South Carolina. South Dakota.	67, 575 4, 325	5, 486 41, 161 1, 777 2, 504 3, 499	50. 5 0. 9 11. 1 17. 1 38. 4
Kentucky Louisiana Maine Maryland Massachusetts	12, 190 7, 141 9, 627 30, 550	6, 396 7, 308 3, 948 5, 606 18, 060	86. 2 89. 9 55. 3 88. 27 59. 1	Tennessee	21, 825 46, 990 5, 075	8, 522 17, 945 2, 318 1, 722 9, 327	39.0 , 38.2 45.7 46.9 51.1
Michigan Minnesota Missisippi Missouri Montana	24, 020 22, 100	21, 372 13, 966 2, 471 9, 647 8, 225	54. 4 58. 1 11. 2 34. 7 45. 0	Washington West Virginia Wisconsin Wyoming Total	13, 140 17, 180 22, 740 4, 100	8, 008 901 12, 128 1, 789	60. 9 5. 8 53. 3 43. 6

To the foregoing losses in possible replies must of course be added the number of individuals who received the data blank and for one reason or another did not answer it. Because of the simple nature of the questions asked, the ease of answering them, the impersonal handling of the replies and reports from several representative groups of teachers, it is believed that a very high percentage of the inquiries which were received were answered and returned to the survey headquarters at Washington. In any event, the number of replies received (463,141 in time to be tabulated, 2,601 too late to be used) represent 47.9 percent of the number sent out. The number distributed was based upon estimates of the number needed by the State and city superintendents who were asked to cooperate in the distribution. Since these estimates should have been slightly in excess of the actual numbers needed, the returns undoubtedly represent more than a 50 percent return. The number of inquiries distributed and the number of replies received by States is given in table 1.

Representativeness of answers received.—From this table it will be seen that the percentage of returns varies from 5.8 percent in West Virginia to 79.1 percent in New Jersey. It is also clear from this table that while some States were not adequately represented these States were not confined to any section of the country nor to any special type so far as industrial or economic status was concerned. The slightly lower percentages of returns from some of the Southern States is due, at least in part, to the lower percentage of returns from Negro teachers. This situation was indicated in volume IV of the Survey report—The Education of Negro Teachers—which was prepared under the direction of Dr. Ambrose Caliver, senior specialist

in the education of Negroes, Office of Education.
When possible throughout the preparation of the

When possible throughout the preparation of the report comparisons were made with data from other studies, particularly recent State surveys in order to determine to what extent the data obtained from this inquiry were representative. In almost all cases they have been found to be representative of conditions in 1930-31. In the instances where differences were found they indicated that the selective factors which operated in this inquiry tended to present conditions in a slightly more favorable light than would have been the case had 100 percent returns been received. A selective factor may have been introduced in the cities and counties which did not distribute the inquiry blanks. \*These may have included a larger proportion of the cities and counties with embarrassed budgets or those without professionally minded leaders. Even this possible selective factor did not operate uniformly because in some of the larger and wealthier cities and counties the blanks were not distributed because of the attitude of the superintendents toward any and all questionnaires.



TABLE 2.—Distribution of while personnel

	•				Work d	Work done in-	,					٠.
Main work	Nursery	Kinder- garten	Elementery	Junior	Senior	Janjor Junior	Evening	City	County	Btate	Total	Parent
1	•	•	•	•	•			•	•	=	2	2
Teacher of grades Continuation school Visiting teacher Teacher, agriculture Teacher, art and drawing	8	¥ . ¥	281, 557 2, 240 1,86 1,20 2,048	20 20 171 128 1.1 178 1.1	A 25 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -	1, 183	Edurr	- ZEZ#E	\$8000	8 759	¥4 44	F
Teacher, commercial Teacher, health Teacher, home economics Teacher, industrial arts Teacher, music		z	22.1.280 1.022.1.028	11.12 81.92 11.22 11.22 11.22	9.4.4.4.1. 2.1.7.4.2.1.	85248	g-gos	858 50.1 828 83.0 82 83.0	e31.0E	<b>38208</b>	Sec.	44444
Teacher, naturalisation Teacher, trades and industries. Teacher, vocational Teacher of blind Teacher of crippled.	ol gr		#E 28 8 28	230 811	25222	-53-	E99-	CB228		ESES.	. 44	
Teacher of cardiac Teacher of deaf Teacher of speech defectives Teacher of mergally gifted Teacher of mergally defective		~8~ <u>-</u>	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	E 17 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2	524-2	8		#88 m 2	m + 0 = 5	20 E	≓', ed	,
Twacher of disopplinary Twacher of other special classes Bupervisor, general Supervisor, art and drawing Bupervisor, exceptional children		88 -	25 8 8 E	÷ 2223-	-dear-	141	mana	28728	64F4	898-4	28 25 E	/
Supervitor, home economics Supervitor, commercial subjects Supervitor, industrial arts Supervitor, health Supervitor, music			¥ 258	2228	5.00 H 200	m en en en =		825.588				

	TEACHER PE	RSON	NEI	L	9
2 797 77	7 70 7 77	1	100,0		
**************************************	2225 235E	447, 888	447, 917		٠
-315- ee2-e s 3-e		2,156	2,210		
5 -e 'g2 u3	a	1, 817	1, 517		
54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 5	<b>阿索基拉斯 计正路器</b>	11, 477	11, 477	•	
. ag a oa	- ~ ~ ~	5	5		
8-w7 m8mu 8m-	**************************************	2,263	6 P		
#2 8 H.	7-887 5-46		8		
		80, 678	40, 578		
- 48 CH - 18 EN - 18 E	22 E	169	M4 173		
	<b>3</b>	8, 376 100	6		
	*	F 24	9		
• III		<b>A</b>			
or, trades and industries  I, mentally handicapped  I, physically handicapped  I principal  Boys  Boys  girls  endest  i superintendent  manager  sad grounds superintendent  nos officer  nos officer		tion			٠
5 25 a 28 a 3 6 a	ol dentist ol dentist ol unre- h (athletic) hologist tional guidance arch or gurvey her clerk	al chassifica			
the particular particu	School dentite School nurse Coach (athletto) Peychologist Vocational guidance Teacher cierk Other	Total Illogical class Grand total			•
##### PA### ##30A	THE PART		i i	. <b>9</b>	1

Representativeness of different fields of work. - A distribution of the returns to Inquiry No. 1 (table 2) in terms of the educational level and the kind of work performed is valuable for two reasons. In the first place it shows from another basis of comparison that the sampling was representative because such items as the proportion of teachers in elementary grades are similar to the proportion reported by the United States Office of Education in its statistics on publicschool systems. The returns from the Survey investigation indicate, for example, that about 71 percent of the teachers were in elementary schools and the United States Office of Education statistics indicate 75.03 percent.1 In the second place this distribution (table 2) gives the most complete distribution of the total educational personnel for public schools which has been obtained. This table should be of use to all persons engaged in vocational guidance and of equal use to all persons responsible in any way for the administration of institutions which prepare teachers. A few examples of the type of information which may be obtained from table 2 will be given but before listing them one important caution will be expressed. In any table in which the data have been combined for the country as a whole the national averages should not be used as the basis for programs of individual States. For example, there were listed 3,513 teachers of the mentally defective. This means about one such teacher per hundred teachers in the regular elementary and secondary classes. Owing to the fact that some States have made very meager provision for such children while others have been much more generous in providing for such unfortunates the actual percentages vary from a small fraction of 1 percent to 2 or more percent. National medians or averages may be considered only as rough guides or indices.

The distributions in table 2 indicate that for the country as a whole there were about 20 times as many teachers as principals—the next largest group. This does not mean that the average school building was one with 20 teachers and a principal because many teaching principals would have listed teaching as their main work. The fact, that the inquiry provided for only one answer—the main work of the individual—will also affect the national picture for some of the special forms of work, e.g., athletic coach, was reported as the main work of only 836 individuals but there were obviously thousands of teachers who gave some of their time to coaching athletics.

Table 2 also shows the very marked tendency in the United States have separate teachers for the so-called special subjects of agriculture, art and drawing, commercial education, health, home economics, industrial arts, and music. It also shows that except for commercial subjects these special teachers were used extensively in



Foster, Emery M. Statistical Summary of Education, 1929-30. Washington, D.C., U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1931, no. 20, vol. 2, p. 8.

the elementary schools as well as in the departmentally organized junior and senior high schools.

Similar observations may be made for the supervisors in those special fields. Obviously, most of the work in those special subjects was carried by the special teachers. Because the regular classroom teachers more frequently carry responsibility for instruction in art, health, and music these three fields showed the largest number of supervisors.

Table 2 also shows that the teaching of atypical children was very largely an elementary-school problem. A few teachers for these groups were listed for the junior high school level and an almost negligible number for the senior high school—the one exception being teachers for speech defectives. Comment could be extended on this table to indicate the significance of the presence in the distribution of such classification as deans of boys, deans of girls, school librarians, cafeteria managers, dietitians, school physicians, school dentists, school nurses, psychologists, vocational councilors, and research and survey specialists. The table indicates the growing complexity of the educational service rendered in American public schools and the wide range of positions for which special preparation may be made. While there is little doubt that the number of workers in these special and newer fields of service will increase it must be remembered that about 91 percent of the returns were from teachers, about 7 percent from supervisors and administrators, and only 2 percent from these special service fields. These percentages help to keep the whole picture of public educational service in mind.

Classifications used in part I.—The original authorization by Congress for the Survey placed certain limitations upon the money available, the time of the study, and the principal fields to be studied. These limitations made it necessary to select the studies to be made and the educational groups to be included. When during the second year of the Survey the remaining \$150,000 was reduced by \$20,000 and the working time of all employees reduced by more than 7 percent, it became necessary to abandon some of the studies already started in order to complete the ones considered more important. For these reasons many of the groups listed in table 2 were not continued in the remaining tabulations. Selection was made primarily upon the basis of the numbers involved and the relationship of the

groups to the other sections of the Survey.

Of the 463,141 answers received by June 20, 1931, the last date on which answers were included in the tables, 14,720 were from Negro teachers, 294 were from Indians, and 208 from school employees of other races. The replies from Negroes were used in volume IV of the Survey report and the replies from the Indian employees were turned over to the Education Division of the Bureau of Indian Affairs



for special study. The tabulations in this part of the report unless otherwise specified, will be for the 447,917 white employees whose answers were received in time to be used.

Rural teachers constitute one of the largest groups and so were selected for special emphasis in the tabulations. They are also involved in many of the controversial issues which were being studied in other sections of the Survey. In order to obtain a sharper classification of rural teachers they were selected by the use of classifications 12 and 14 houre 1. Teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools in the open country are called "rural teachers" throughout this part. In the tabulations they were separated from teachers in open-country schools with three or more teachers since these schools are more likely to be consolidated schools and represent in most cases higher standards than are found in the rural schools: The size of the community has been shown by many studies to have a direct relationship to its educational standards. For this reason many of the tabulations were made for communities of different sizes. The distribition of replies according to size of community was: Rural teachers, 61,552 (24.7 percent); elementary teachers in open-country schools with three or more teachers, 13,635 (5.5 percent); elementary teachers in villages with less than 2,500 population, 51,315 (20.6 percent); elementary teachers in cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population, 27,034 (10.8 percent); elementary teachers in cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population 45,364 (18.2 percent); and elementary teachers in cities of 100,000 population and more, 50,498 (20.2 percent). In all cases the number of replies was large enough to give reliable data for the entire country or for large areas but here again a caution must be given when the tables carry returns from individual States. For example, the percentage of teachers reporting as rural from Massachusetts was only 2.5 while from South Dakota it The mean for the country as a whole was 30.2. was 73.5.

Table 3—a comparison of the elementary teachers in communities of different sizes in Massachusetts and South Dakota with the percentage of the population living in those communities—is introduced to show the possibilities of variations if the Survey returns were used for descriptions of educational conditions in individual States unless the number of returns was very large and all other principal factors involved were known.

The distribution of returns to inquiry 1 from teachers in junior high school and senior high school distributed by size of community are given in table 4.



TABLE 3. Comparison of white elémentary teachers and population in areas of varying population

S			Percent in-		
State, elementary teachers, and total population	Rural	Villages of less than 2,500	Cities of 2,500 to 9,999	Cities of 10,000 to 99,999	Cities of 100,000 and more
1	1		h (		
Massachusetts: Elementary teachers. Population South Dakota: Elementary teachers. Population	2.5 9.8 73.5 60.2	11. 9 16. 7 20. 9	14.9 7.7 3.5 4.6	38. 6 40. 7 6. 3 13. 3	32.1 41.8

<sup>1</sup> Bureau of the Census. Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Vol. 3, pts. 1 and 2.

A comparison of these percentages with those for elementary teachers shows, as might be expected, the failure to provide secondary school facilities for the rural areas to the same extent as in the cities. Fifty and eight-tenths percent of the elementary teachers were in open country and in villages of less than 2,500 population compared to 11.2 percent of the junior high school teachers and 34.5 percent of the senior high school teachers. The other classifications stressed in the reporting of teacher personnel will be observed in the remaining chapters of this part.

Statistical handling of data.—As previously indicated the data from the answers to inquiry 1 were transferred to Hollerith cards which were sorted and counted for the different classifications used in most of the tables. Machine tabulation was necessary in order to deal with the large number of replies—nearly half a million.

TABLE 4.—Distribution of secondary teachers answering the inquiry by areas of varying population, 1930-31

			Pe	rcent from	1—	
Type of school	Total	Open country	Villages of less than 2,500	Cities of 2,500 to 9,999	Cities of 10,000 to 99,999	Cities of 100,000 and more
. 1	3	3	4			7
Junior high school	36, 040 84, 501	2.2 4.6	9. 0 30. 0	13. 7 15. 5	39. 8 21. 2	- 35. 8 28. 7

Before transferring the data to the Hollerith cards each inquiry blank was checked for completeness and at 2 or 3 points for consistency of replies. These checks may easily be seen by referring to figures 1 and 2. Examples of these checks are found in items 9 and 21, and any answers to items 39 to 48, inclusive, or items 27–28 and items 32, 33, or 34.



Various checks were made to determine the reliability of the tables. Progressively larger samples were taken in several of the groups to determine the smallest frequency at which the means and standard deviations became fairly constant. It was found for most of the groups that a sample of 40 or 50 cases gave reasonable reliability, providing that the returns from the larger group from which the sample was taken were adequate in size or proportional to the other groups in that State. If the group from which the sample was drawn was affected by some selective elements the effect of those elements would also be found in the samples.

In the tables in which returns are reported by States there are numerous instances in which the number of cases in some classification was too small to give reliable measures of central tendencies. All such cases will be evident from the distribution of the number of replies included in the tables. It was thought best to include the percentages and medians in most such cases in order to make a more complete record with the hope that this reservation will be borne in mind when the tables are used.

The form in which the data were obtained from the tabulating machines made it easier and more economical to use medians and the quartiles as measures of central tendency and deviation than to use means and standard deviations. Numerous checks were made against skewed and irregular distributions and the greatest differences between medians and means were usually very small. For example, in 12 distributions of "age at nearest birthday" the maximal difference between the median and the mean was 3 years and the mean of the differences 2.1 years.

Limitations of this study.—Aside from the limitations already mentioned or implied specific reference to 1 or 2 others will aid in a more accurate interpretation of the data in part I and will also assist those directing future studies in this field to improve their inquiry forms.

In limiting the size of the inquiry blank and the number of items to be studied it was also necessary to make certain arbitrary classifications which did not fit equally well all sections of the country. An example of this difficulty is shown in the list of school divisions as given in item:9, figure 1.

The questions on the number of semester-hours of "education" and "practice teaching", items 35 and 36, figure 2, were not satisfactorily answered in a number of instances. This may have been due to such difficulties as: No record of the number of semester-hours of education or practice teaching; inability to remember the numbers; confusion between semester-hours and clock-hours; and in a few cases difficulty in transposing quarter or term-hours to semester-hours even though the formula was given in the question. The wording of item 12,

"Number of teachers of type you checked in no. 9 in building in which you teach", caused some confusion, especially for high-school teachers.

The data on the "supply" side of the supply and demand section are only partially satisfactory because they do not reveal the number of teachers who were available or the number who were prepared during the year for which the data were obtained but merely the sources from which the "new" teachers were drawn who were placed that year.

The difficulties in the way of procuring accurate data upon the number of new teachers educated each year and the number of certificated teachers available during, any one year will be discussed in chapter V.

Changes since data were collected .- The greatest limitation to the data in this section is due to the fact that they were collected for the year 1930-31 and that the continuation of the period of financial difficulties has caused a number of changes. Studies conducted by the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education of the National Education Association, under the direction of Dr. John K. Norton as chairman, have shown that the 2 years since those data were collected have seen a number of very important changes, many of them representing financial retrenchments which in most cases also reduced the number of teachers and effectiveness of the schools. It is improbable, however, that these changes in salaries and length of school years would have resulted in radical changes in most of the personnel data for teachers as shown in 1930-31. For example, it is improbable that such items as age, experience, the number of school systems in which the teacher taught would have changed, and it is probable that the amount and professional nature of the teacher's preparation may even have been increased as a result of the increased competition for The data presented in part I should therefore be interpreted with the foregoing facts in mind. It should also be realized that they represent the record of a school year which had not been materially affected by the "depression." The 1930-31 data will probably stand as a record of achievement in some phases of education against which data for subsequent years will be compared.

State comparisons.—Another value of the data in this study is that they show more clearly than in any other study the very great variations among the States in the teaching personnel of the public schools. These variations were probably more pronounced in 1929–30 and 1930–31 than for any year before that time or for any year since then. The basis for this conclusion is that before 1930–31 the wealthier States and cities expanded their educational programs most rapidly and since that date there has been some utilization of Federal funds to equalize educational opportunity, and keep schools open. In presenting tables in which these State differences are shown the reader should be



reminded that the Survey staff had no desire to make or to supply the material for making any invidious comparisons. Instead it is hoped that the recording of data as completely as space and funds will permit will supply information which can be used in the discovery of conditions unfavorable to the best interests of education and also used in helping to indicate the best methods of correcting the unfavorable conditions. If educational conditions appear better in one State than in another the policies of the better State may suggest ways of improving conditions in the poorer State. If educational conditions are much the same in two States in which other conditions are radically different the similarity may be a cause of concern to the wealthier of the more progressive of the two.

Summary.—This chapter has described the place of the teaching personnel study in the plan of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers; the method by which comparable data were secured; the adequacy of the responses; the teaching and administration groups represented; the method by which the tabulations were made; the principal limitations to the data as obtained and tabulated; and the value of the 1930-31 data.

Tabulations of the several personnel factors which were studied are presented in greater detail in the other chapters of part I.

Throughout the remaining chapters of part I the personnel data collected and tabulated will be presented with relatively little comment. The data collected in this part of the Survey were intended primarily to uncover problems in the professional preparation of teachers and to furnish supporting evidence for proposals made in the other sections of the Survey. While the tables in many instances are long and somewhat cumbersome, they are, nevertheless, in most cases quite simple and may be easily interpreted by readers interested in the data presented. Only enough comment will accompany the tables in these chapters to direct the attention of readers to some of the high lights and to suggest samples of interpretations which may be made. The more significant findings from these tables and the recommendations to which they lend support will be presented in volume VI, although many of these recommendations are mentioned or implied in the discussions in this part, and are summarized in chapter VI.



## CHAPTER II

# AGE, SEX, MARITAL STATUS, AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE 1

#### AGE OF TEACHERS

While it is clearly understood that the age of teachers is only one factor of many which indicate the status of the group it nevertheless may be used as one diagnostic element in the total picture. For example, a large percentage of very young teachers would indicate that the standards of pre-service professional preparation are necessarily low. If the median age of teachers is relatively low the indication is that tenure is short and the group transient. If the groups display large percentages of very young teachers and also large percentages of very old teachers this shows a situation of maladjustment so far as steady recruiting to teaching is concerned.

A number of States have attempted to protect the schools against immaturity on the part of teachers by prescribing minimal age limits below which teachers will not be certificated. Thirty-two States had such regulations in 1931. Of these, 1 State specified 16 years as the minimal limit, 4 States 17 years, 26 States 18 years, and 1 States 19. These are, as would be expected, all younger ages of entrance than would be found in such established professions as medicine, law, and the ministry, for most of which 21 is the youngest age for legal en trance to practice. The ages at the nearest birthday of teachers in the elementary, junior, and senior high schools in communities of various sizes are given in table 5 for the school year 1930-31. The table also carries for each community size the Q1, median, Q2 and number of cases. These are given in the table by States. The most significant figures in this table are the median ages for the different groups and for communities of different sizes as well as the range of the middle 50 percent as shown by the differences between the Q1 age and Q2 age For example, the median age of rural teachers (open-country 1- and. 2-teacher schools) for Alabama was 25 with a range for the middle . 50 percent of the group extending from 22 to 30. Comparable figures for California showed a median age?7 years older with a range for the middle 50 percent extending from 24 years to 42. These figures show very clearly that the rural teachers in California were a much more experienced group than were the rural teachers in Alabama in which State only, a fourth of the teachers were 30 or more years of age. The rural teachers in two New England States-Vermont and Rhode



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Quoted paragraphs not otherwise acknowledged in chapters II and III are from a manuscript prepared by Guy C, Gamble on the topics included in these chapters.

Island—presented a sharp contrast in the matter of the age of the rural teachers. The range of the middle 50 percent in Rhode Island extended from 23 to 46, a period of 23 years, whereas the range for rural teachers in Vermont extended from 22 to 29, a range of 7 years, showing a much younger and more transient group in Vermont than in Rhode Island.

TABLE 5.—Age at nearest birthday of elementary, junior high school, and sensor high school teachers, 1930-31

	-						Ele	mentar	y ten	chera						
State	1	en and :	2-10	try 1-	1	en or m		stry 3 teacher				s than	0,	ity o	d 2,5	00 to
1	Qı	Me- di- an	Qa	Number of cases	Qı	Me di- an		Num- ber of cases	Qı	Me- di- an	Qı	Num- ber of cases		Me di- an		Num ber of
1	2	8	4	4	6	- 7	8 .	01,	10	11	12	18	14	15	16	.17
Alabama Arizona Arkansas California Colorado	22 25 22 24 21	25 30 25 82 24	30 39 33 42 31	1,040 182 629 967 926	22 24 28 24 23	25 25 25 29 25	29 35 30 38 32	847 69 205 600 - 158	23 24 23 24 23	26 27 25 29 26	33 34 32 38 32	1, 011 290 577 1, 564 735	94 24 24 25 26	27 27 27 30 29	34 32 35 39 41	41 27 22 1, 70
Connecticut. Delaware Florida Deorgia daho	25 22	23. 32 26 25 25	32 43 35 31 30	270 60 130 173 163	23 24 22 22 23 23	25 27, 26 25 25 25	33 43 34 33 32	21 20 116 216 44	23 24 23 23 22 22	25 28 28 25 24	34 37 37 34 29	639 136 519 462 315	28 24 25 24 24	27 27 29 29 27	37 34 38 38 35	63 4 41 28 17
llinois ndiana owa Cansas Centucky	22 23 20 20 21	25 27 22 22 23	30 36 25 25 25 26	4, 835 1, 183 5, 127 3, 156 1, 112	23 23 21 22 23	27 26 24 24 24 26	34 33 25 30 31	126 818 257 121 188	24 24 23 23 22	27 27 25 26 26 25	34 34 29 30 31	1, 058 2, 273 2, 304 1, 158, 708	26 25 25 24 24	28 31 29 27 27	37 44 38 35 34	80 92 68 58 39
ouisians faine. % faryland fassachusetts fichigan	22 21 22 22 21	24 24 24 24 24 24	29 81 29 88 88	402 629 518 159 2, 705	NNNNN	25 24 26 25 25 26	30 37 33 48 32	671 32 122 52 319	NNNN	25 27 26 27 26	30 37 36 40 32	1, 300 772 840 990 1, 495	24 24 24 25 24	27 29 30 29 27	35 40 42 41 35	46 42 18 1, 24 99
(Annesota". fississippi. fissouri. fontana. febraska.	21 23 21 22 20	25 25 25 24 21	26 35 26 29 24	3, 887- 206 646 1, 109 2, 957	23 23 22 24 20	25 26 25 31 22	27 30 27 49 25	154 801 58 45 96	****	25 27 25 26 26 26	28 34 29 30 28	1,868 374 1,108 488 922	25 25 24 25 25 25 25	28 28 27 29 28	34 38 34 34 34	52 19 20
levada lew Hampshire lew Jersey lew Mexico lew York	RNNNN	28 24 26 25 27	40 82 84 85 87	135 267 339 218 4, 152	22 22 24	25 27 29	34 32 38	3 5 318 90 398	****	30 26 26 27 29	38 37 34 34 39	108 452 1,940 315 3,108	25 24 23 25 25	27 31 27 30 31	31 42 34 38 40	2, 450 11, 850
orth Carolina. orth Dakota. hio. kiahoma	21 22 22	26 22 25 24 25	31 25 32 29 33	668 2,745 1,811 1,262 960	23 22 23 22 23	25 23 26 24 28	30 26 32 28 39	1,607 137, 862 853 160	RESER	27 25 26 25 27	31 27 33 28 36	2,056 959 2,748 794 676	25 27 25 24 26	28 31 29 27 29	35 37 37 32 36	725 91 1, 633 431 425
ennsylvania hode Island outh Carolina outh Dakota ennessee	28 23 24 21 22	25 28 28 28 23 24	35 46 39 27 29	3, 872 41 164 1, 796 1, 676	****	26 41 25 24 25	34 48 33 28 30	851 11 223 67 848	23 25 24 23 23	25 35 27 26 26 28	35 47 36 29 38	71 187 379 422 1,107	24 25 26 26 24	27 29 30 29 28	87 40 38 84 36	2, 513 109 212 87 439
exas	22 22 22 22 22 23	24 25 24 24 25	29 29 29 29 29 34	1,000 68 451 1,374 905	SHEEK	24 25 31 26 27	28 30 50 30 34	611 142 15 727 266	23 23 24 23 24 23	25 25 27 26 26	30 31 37 31 31 33	2,026 554 487 1,276 1,309	24 28 27 24 24	27 26 34 27 27	34 30 48 35 35	1, 455 208 162 453 389
est Virginia isconsin yoming	22 21 21	24 23 22	26 26 27	29 8, 552 505	28 23	25 24	30 36	9 158 35	23 23	27 25 26	36 29 29	32 837 376	23 24 25	26 27 28	34 36 33	516 94

TABLE 5.—Age at nearest birthday of elementary, junior high school, and sensor high school teachers, 1930-31—Continued

-6	1			lement	ary	teac	pera									
State	C	ity 0,900	pop	0,000 to ulation	C	ity 00,00	of me	ore tha	n	reac	h	in jun igh	ior	Teac	ht	in senior th
	Qı	Me di-	Q	Num ber of cases	r Q	M	- Q	Nun ber e	of (	51 6	ij-	Qa Nu ber	of	QI	de- di-	Qu Num- ber of cases
1 .	18	19	20	21	22	. 11	34	25	1	6 1	17	28 2		30	M I	13 13
Alabama Arizona Arkansas California Co'orado	25 25 26 27 27	30 29 32 34 36	39 37, 39 42 46	290 248		36	44	2,97	2 2	5 2 4 2 8 3	18	36 3 42 2,5	37 14 36	27 24 30	30   2 27   2 37   6	34 968 36 326 32 501 44 4,952 10 -786
Connecticut. Delaware District of Columbia. Florida. Georgia.	25 24 26	30 28 31	40 .A. 36 39	1, 866 8 482 448	25 27 25 25 25 25	38 32 30	47 42 38	637 103 534 356 480	2	3 3	0 1	18 4 14 1 16 1 17 5	95 81 69	26 3 33 4 35 2	1 3	0 1, 211 175 1 252 6 646 8 561
Idaho Illinois Indiana Iowa Kansas	REAL PROPERTY.	30 31 33 30	35 39 40 41 39	37 2, 598 1, 600 1, 198 678	27 28 33 29	37 35 41 34	48 43 51 40	200 1, 532 212 282	2	3	1 3	0 7 9 1,00	3 2 2 2 2	15 2 16 3 16 3 14 2 15 2	1 3 3 7 3	4,780 4,114 3,2670
Kentucky Louisiana Maine Maryland Massachusetts	25 . 25 28 24 25	29 30 38 27 31	38 36 49 39 44	500 356 508 263 3, 218	28 24 24 27	26 32 29 35	36 41 46 49	498 788 1, 039 2,/678	24 24 25 26 27	31	8	5 11 0 16 0 38	9 2 4 2 4 2	5 2	7 36	1, 299 797 798
dichigan dinnesota dississippi dissouri	25 27 25 25 26	29 32 29 30 31	36 40 39 39 40	2, 191 405 236 816 358	24 31 27	28 36 35	36 45 47	2, 052 1, 321 1, 389	26 27 24 26 26	30 34 28 30 30	33	95 15 65	3 2	5 26 4 27 5 31	332	2, 472 492 1, 997
ebraska evada ew Hampshire ew Jersey ew Mexico	28 28 29 24 25	33 32 39 29 30	41 42 51 37 37	288 31 167 4, 257 109	32 25	39	46	343 3, 068	24 25 24 27 25	28 28 28 32 30	42	144 1,738	26 26 27	26 29 27 33	37 34 34 41	1, 285
hioklahoma	27 25	33 29 31 30 28	42 37 37 40 36	3, 888 816 94 2, 985 320	25 26 27	31 34 32	41 ' 44 40	12, 378 4, 221 363	29 25 25 25 26 25	36 28 27 32 29	45 33 32 41 35	3, 687 366 126 2, 766 497	24	26 26 31	41 31 31 40 34	8, 665 1, 719 600 5, 897 1, 124
ennsylvania hode Island outh Carolina outh Dakota	24 27 26	34	387 39 50 42 35	219 4, 729 338 347 162	36 26 25	42 84 32	49 48 44	6, 028 188	26 26 26 26 26 25	30 31 32 29 28	39 40 43 34 35	257 4, 189 183 82 115	26 26 28 24 24	31 31 34 28 27	40 40 46 34 30	1, 277 6, 721 276 514 431
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In comparing the median ages for elementary teachers in different groups one is impressed with the similarity of ages. A few extreme differences can be found but in the main the figures in table 5 indicate that in most of the States teachers probably began at about the same age and continued for approximately the same number of years.



The median ages for rural teachers in 31 States fell within the 3-year range of 23 to 25. Another observation which is supported by inspection of the median ages given in table 5 is that there was a general tendency for the older teachers to be found in the larger population areas. Massachusetts furnished a good example in which the median ages for the successive size groups were 24, 25, 27, 29, 31, and 35. In general, junior high school teachers were slightly older than senior high school teachers probably due to the fact that many junior high school teachers were recruited from successful, experienced elementary teachers. The median age of junior high school teachers exceeded that of teachers in the senior high school in 24 States and was the same in 10.

By taking a median of the median ages for each group an approximation of conditions for the country as a whele in 1930-31 may be obtained. Such a measure would give 24 years for the rural group, 25 for the three or-more-teacher open-country schools, 26 for the elementary teachers in villages with less than 2,500 population, 28 for teachers in cities of 2,500 to 9,999; 30 for the elementary teachers in cities of 10,000 to 99,999, and 34 years for elementary teachers in cities of more than 100,000 population. The corresponding approximate median ages for junior high school teachers was 30 years and for senior high school teachers, 29. Occupational data of the Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce, showed an increasing proportion of older persons giving teaching as their occupation. The percent of teachers who were 45 years of age or older in 1890 was 8; in 1910, this had increased to 11, and 20 years later in 1930, to 17 percent. Apparently the percentage of teachers 45 years of age or over has more than doubled in the 40 years since 1890. The 1930 census data gave the median age of 943,683 white teachers as 29.1 years; of 54,343 Negro teachers as 29.2 years.

The situations presented in table 5 suggest the possibility of increasing the minimum age at which teachers may be certificated as one means of increasing the time of preservice education and thereby raising the level of professional preparation.

#### SEX AND MARITAL STATUS OF TEACHERS

Sex of teachers.—"Teaching in elementary schools is distinctly a woman's occupation. In 1930-31 women outnumbered men at an approximate ratio of 19 to 1 (table 6). However, there were variations in the proportions when comparisons were made among areas of different sizes. In 1930-31 the 1- and 2-teacher schools had the largest percentage (12.2) of men; the 3-or-more-teacher schools in the open country, 10.8 percent; villages of less than 2,500 population, 8.2 percent; cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population, 2.4 percent; cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population, 1.3 percent; and cities of more than 100,000 population, 4.3 percent.



"State variations in the practice of employing men in elementary schools are clearly indicated in table 6. Indiana returns showed that men constituted 40.6 percent of the 1- and 2-teacher school staffs while in New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Maine less than 2 percent of these teachers were men. Of all other elementary teachers in Idaho, Indiana, New Mexico, and Utah, men constituted more than 10 percent of the teaching staffs. In Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, and Massachusetts, however, less than 1 percent of the elementary teaching staffs were men. Both sets of data are consistent in showing a difference between Eastern and Western States.

"Men have entered the field of secondary teaching to a greater extent (table 7). In 1930-31 approximately 1 of every 4 teachers in junior high schools was a man, the corresponding ratio for senior high schools being 1 in every 3. Delaware, Iowa, Vermont, and Virginia had low proportions (below 15 percent) of men employed in junior high schools and Alabama, Idaho, and Utah high proportions (more than 35 percent). The District of Columbia, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Vermont, and Virginia had a lower proportion (less than 25 percent) of men teachers in the senior high schools than other States. Idaho, Indiana, Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Utah had the highest proportion (more than 40 percent) of men teachers in senior high schools.

"The Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year ended June 30, 1909, presented a table relating to the number and sex of teachers and covering a period of years. In 1870-71, 41 percent of the teachers of the country were men; in 1879-80, 42.8 percent; in 1889-90, 34.5; in 1899-1900, 29.9; and in 1907-8, 21.1. Similar data in the Office of Education Biennial Survey of Education for 1928-30 indicate that men constituted 16.5 percent of the teaching staff for 1930. The returns of this survey for combined elementary and secondary teaching staffs give a corresponding figure of approximately 12 percent.

"Occupational data from the United States Census in each of the five periods, 1890, 1900, 1910, 1920, and 1930, gave 17.4, 18.8, 23.4, 21.1, and 22 percent as the respective proportions of men teachers in the teaching population. In four decades, according to this source of information, the percentage of men teachers has increased from 17.4 to 22 percent.

TABLE 6.—Sex and marital status of rural and elementary school teachers, 1930-31

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TABLE 7.—Sex and marital status of junior and senior high school teachers

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Sex of teachers in European countries .- "The Yearbook of Education for 1933 (Yearbook of Education, 1933. Editor-in-chief-Lord Bustace Percy, M.P. Evans Bros., Ltd., Montague House, Russel Square, London) presents data in section 1, table 56, which are of interest in showing practice in foreign countries. In 1928 women constituted 35 percent of the primary school staff and 31 percent of the secondary staff in Norway. In 1927 in Germany only 25 percent of the primary school staff and 29 percent of the secondary staff were women. In 1928 in Czechoslovakia women constituted 26 percent of the elementary staff and 12 percent of the secondary. France in 1929 showed similar data of 65 and 17 percent, respectively. The percentages of women teachers for the United States for 1929 in the two divisions were 89 and 63. Of the 24 countries cited in the table, Czechoslovakia had the lowest percentage (26) of women in the primary schools and the United States the highest (89). Switzerland had the lowest percentage (11) of women in secondary schools and the United States the highest (63). The median percentage of women teachers in primary schools for 23 countries was 60 and the median percentage of women teachers in secondary schools was 33. European practice tends to disprove that teaching below college level is distinctly an occupation for women."

There are numerous opinions concerning the desirability of having more men teachers especially in the elementary schools. None of the data assembled in the Survey throws any light upon this issue. They merely present the situation as it existed in the several States in 1930-31. Conditions with respect to the number of men teachers are probably little changed since that time. Any significant change in the ratio of men teachers to women teachers in the United States will involve changes in a number of educational, social, and economic factors. The situation is so complicated that a few cities and some States might be able to work out plans for securing more men teachers if they desire to do so, but it is improbable that any marked change will occur within the next decade in the proportion of men and

women teachers in this country.

Marital status of teachers.—During the period of the World War and also during the period of rapid educational expansion following the war an increasing number of married women entered teaching. Some school districts did not encourage the selection of married women as teachers or the retention of teachers who married. There was, however, no widespread question of the practice until the unemployment of many unmarried teachers brought the issue before the public. In order that the existing situation might be known the teachers were requested to indicate in item 13 of inquiry 1 (fig. 1) their marital status. The answers to this item are also reported by States for rural teachers, all other elementary teachers, junior high



school teachers, and senior high school teachers in tables 6 and 7. "The data in these tables show that in 1930-31 approximately 1 in every 6 elementary-school teachers, 1 in every 10 junior high school teachers, and 1 in every 14 senior high school teachers, was a married woman. Commencing with the elementary teacher in the 3-or-moreteacher school in the open country, as the size of the community increased the percentage of married women decreased (22.5 to 12.2) but advanced to 17.7 percent for elementary teachers in cities of more than 100,000 population. Tables 6 and 7 exhibit wide differences between States. Of Nebraska's 2,866 rural teachers who answered inquiry 1 in 1930-31 only. 8.1 percent were married women. In contrast 47.5 percent of California's rural teachers were married women. Among all other elementary teachers in 1930-31, the percentage of married women teachers ranged from 5.7 in Kansas to 38.1 in Florida. Among junior high school teachers, the percentage of married women ranged from 2.4 in Utah to 29.2 in Florida. Married women constituted only 1.3 percent of the senior high school staff in Rhode Island but 17.8 percent in Florida."

Policies concerning employment of married teachers.—"In a study of policies concerning employment of married women as teachers in 1930-31 in 1,473 cities of more than 2,500 population and reported in Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers, National Education Association Research Bulletin, (vol. 10; nos. 1 and 2, January-March 1932), 76.6 percent of the cities were reported as giving a negative answer to the question, 'Are married women employed as new teachers?' In regard to policies concerning single women teachers who marry, 33.2 percent of 1,466 cities required an immediate resignation and 28.5 percent required a resignation at the end of the year; 37.1 percent permitted a continuance of teaching, and 1.2 percent left it optional with the board.

"In Indiana, New Jersey, Maryland, New York, Oregon, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia various decisions have been handed down by either courts, State boards of education, or chief school officials to the effect that marriage does not constitute a reasonable basis for dismissal. These decisions established a precedent where teachers are serving under permanent tenure by statutory enactment, that they are protected from local board rules which terminate contracts on account of marriage; in such States, however, boards through dismissal reservation clauses in their contracts may terminate the contracts of probationary teachers who marry. The anomaly may arise that a board may refuse to employ a married woman and yet after retaining a single woman under tenure cannot dismiss her when she marries. Since State codes are silent upon the subject of dismissal of married women teachers, apparently boards arbitrarily make such discriminatory rules, irrespective of the estab-



lished principle of common law that woman's rights to the fruits of her labor are established in the United States."

#### **EXPERIENCE**

Required experience .- A number of studies conducted under the auspices of the National Education Association have shown during recent years a marked tendency for city school systems to demand some teaching experience as a prerequisite to appointment as a teacher The Research Bulletin, Administrative Practices in these cities. Affecting Classroom Teachers, published by the National Education Association as its Research Bulletin for March 1932 (vol. X, nos. 1and 2) showed that the following percentages of cities required teaching experience for newly appointed teachers in 1930-31: 58.5 percent of 1,470 cities having more than 2,500 population did not specify experience as a prerequisite for appointment as a teacher; 18 percent required 1 year of experience; 22.4 percent 2 years, and 1.1 percent more than 2 years. Forty-seven and three-tenths percent of 1,198 of these cities employing junior high school teachers required no experience; 19.3 percent required 1 year of experience; 30 percent, 2 years, and 3.4 percent more than 2 years. In 1,391 cities reporting experience requirements for senior high school teachers the corresponding percentages were 47.3, 17.7, 30.6, and 4.4. The extent to which experience is required as a prerequisite is in a measure an exploitation of the rural and smaller areas by the larger and wealthier urban districts since the experience must be gained largely in the smaller school systems.

The relative value of 1 or 2 years unsupervised experience in a situation different from the one which the teacher is to occupy in the city compared with the same period spent are cadet or interne teacher in the city system under careful supervision has never been accurately determined. A number of leaders in the field of educational supervision would approve the second method as not only more efficient but probably just as economical so far as the city is concerned, not to mention the fact that it is obviously much more just to the rural and small school systems.

Experience of elementary and secondary teachers.—The experience of elementary and secondary teachers for the school year 1930-31 is presented in table 8. These data are presented by States and for communities of different sizes. The experience for each group of teachers is presented by means of the Q<sub>1</sub>, median and Q<sub>3</sub> of each State's distribution. The number of cases is also given in each instance. As was true with the data on the age of teachers, there are some instances of rather wide differences between States for the teachers in any one group. Mowever, in the main the similarity of medians is more striking than the diversity. The transiency of the rural teachers particu-



larly can be seen by the years of experience indicated for the first quartile of this group. This is represented by 2 years in more than half of the States which means that the least experienced quarter of the rural teachers in those States were teaching their first or second year. The median length of experience for this group is less than 5 years.

Casual inspection of the data in table 8 indicates an increase in median years of teaching experience with each increase in the size of the community groups The data on experience of junior high school teachers and senior high school teachers confirm the observation made in connection with table 5 that the junior high school teachers as at group are more experienced in seaching than are the senior high school teachers. An example of conditions which were found in separate States (from the more detailed tables not give in the final report) is shown by some 1930-31 statistics from Wisconsin and Pennsylvania. In Wisconsin 722 rural teachers out of 3,553 were teaching their first year and 647. their second. Thus, nearly two-fifths of the rural teachers in Wisconsin were teaching their first or second year. contrast to this, only 50 of the 1,187 elementary teachers reporting from cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population in the same State were teaching their first year and 56 their second year. Less than one-tenth of the teachers in these cities were as inexperienced as the two-lifths in the rural schools. The problem at the other extreme was presented from 6,027 returns from elementary teachers in cities of more than 100,000 population in Pennsylvania. Approximately, 18 percent of these teachers had 30 or more years of teaching experience. The establishement of a satisfactory balance between young and inexperienced teachers with the older teachers approaching the period of retirement cannot be established until there is more regulation of the supply of teachers and until there is a better plan for retaining the services of successful experienced teachers in the rural and village schools.

Table 8.—Total number of years educational experience of elementary, junior, and senior high school teachers, 1930-31

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ouisiana Maine Maryland Massachusetts Michigan	3 2 3 2 2	5 4 5 4 4	9 9 11 . 8	408 629 519 159 2,707	33434	6 5 7 6 6	10 15 13 16 10	671 32 122 -62 319	3 4 3 4	67776	10 14 15 15	1, 300 773 840 989 1, 496	5 6 5 4	8 9 11 9	13 18 21 18 12	46 42 18 1, 24
Minnesota Mississippi Missouri Montana Vebraska	2 3 2 3 2	4 6 4 5 3	7 10 6 8 5	3, 892 205 650 1, 110 2, 956	3 3 3 2	5 5 8 2	70000	154 302 58 45 96	3 4 3 4	57566	8 12 9 10 9	1, 869 376 1, 110 488 923	5 5 6 5	8 8 8 8 9	13 17 13 14 13	565 88 53 197 200
Nevada New Hampshire New Jersey New Mexico New York	2 2 8 2 3	6 5 6 5 6	13 10 11 10 13	135 267 340 218 4, 157	3 34	6 5 8	12 9 14	318 90 398	5 3 4 3 4	9 6 7 6 9	15 135 12 11 16	108 450 1,939 315 3,106	45455	7 9 7 8 10	10 18 13 12 17	13: 2, 45: 11: 1, 85:
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TABLE 8.—Total number of years educational experience of elementary, funior, and senior high school teachers, 1980-31—Continued

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Connecticut Delaware District of Columbia Florida Georgia		10 8 10	19 12 16	482	5	10 16 11 10 12	19 26 19 15 17	638 103 525 356 483	6 3	11	23 23	493 81 146	1	5 8 0 18 4 7	18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 1	1, 211 175 254 646
Idaho Illinois Indiana Iowa Kansas	6 8 7	10 11 12 10	12 17 19 20 17	37 2,600 1,600 1,200 678	6 8 13 9	15 14 20 13	27 21 29 19	266 1, 531 212 282	6	10 10 10 10	16	113 714 1,097 989 690	1 3	5 8 9 5	15 15	437 4,729 4,115
Kentucky Louisiana Maine Maryland Massachusetts	5 7 8 4 6	9 11 16 8 11	15 15 27 17 22	602 356 508 264 3, 218	5 8	7 12 9 15	15 21 23 27	501 782 1, 039 2, 683	4 4 5 6	8 9 10 12	13 14 16 19 23	468 119 164 384 2,358	3 4 3 6	7 7 7	13 13 13 14 21	1, 004 1, 301 797 793 3, 606
Michigan Minnesota Mississippi Missouri Montana	5 7	9 12 9 10 11	15 19 16 18 20	2, 193 407 236 818 359	6 10 7	8 15	15 22 26	2, 054 1, 324 1, 393	5 7 3 5 5	8 12 6 9	15 20 11 17 16	2, 422 959 153 656 138	3 3 5 3	7 6 9	13 14 10 17	4, 050 2, 476 492 1, 998 532
Nebraska Neyada New Hampshire New Jersey New Mexico	88655	12 12 10 9	19 25 21 16 13	290 34 266 4, 256 110	6	18	25 ,	346 3, 067	4 3 6 4	7 6 7 10	13 10 18 19 13	359 40 144 1,740 99	3 3 6 4	7 6 5 10 6	14 9 10 18 10	1, 285 101 428 3, 349 255
North Carolina	5	8	19 15 17 18 14	2, 983 320	7	13	22	2, 374° 4, 225 363	7 4 4 5 4	14 7 7 10 8	22. 11. 11. 18. 14	3, 697 366 126 2, 768 497	53344	9 5 5 8 7	18 9 8 16 12	8, 665 1, 721 600 5, 601 1, 125
ennsylvania.	5 7 6 6	9 16 11 10	14 18 27 19 14	219 4, 729 339 347 162	6	13,	28 26 21	582 3, 026 188	4 4 4 4	8 8 7 8	15 17 17 12 12 12	258 4, 186 183 82 117	4 6 3 3	8 8 10 7 5	15 17 19 11 18	1, 277 6, 723 276 513 431
exas tah ermont irginia ashington	5 1	9 9 14 10 1	15-4 21 17	182 1,589 47 75 654	5	8 1	5	965 813 172 418	5 6 4		14 23 15	1, 283 377 60 . 513	4 4 3 3	87856	9	915 3, 343 420 285 1, 362
est Virginia isconsin	6 1	1 1	16 18 17, 1	353	8 1		5	872	5 5	8	15 16 15	538 118 926 91	4 6 4 8	10 8	15	1, 893 161 2, 269 354

Other factors affecting experience.—Other factors affecting the length of time that teachers remain in teaching will be discussed in connection with the personnel data presented in other chapters. The longer period of preservice training expected of secondary teachers, the higher salaries paid to secondary teachers which encourage elementary



teachers over a period of years to secure the additional training which makes the transfer to the secondary schools possible, the tendency to provide high minimum salaries which encourage the use of teaching as a temporary "stepping-stone" occupation, the relative availability of remunerative work in other occupations, the curtailment of special educational services, the reorganization of elementary and secondary curricula and the establishment of junior colleges—these and other factors have tended in recent years to shorten the period of actual teaching service, especially of elementary teachers, so that while it is considerably longer than prevailed immediately following the World War, it is not as long as it should be or as long as it could have been had some of these factors been handled more intelligently.

TABLE 9. - Transiency of elementary teachers, 1980-31

Location of tecchers	Total	1	Percen vai	t of teachers	having b	een emplerent syste	oyed in
	100	,,	1 ]	. 2	3	4	5 or more
1	1	-	3	4	8		1
Open-country 1- and 2-teacher schools 9. Open-country 3-or-more-teacher schools Villages of less than 2,500 population. Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population. Cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population. Cities of more than 100,000 population.	61, 557 13, 609 51, 294 27, 025 45, 289 50, 458		45. 8 43. 8 35. 0 32. 1 37. 2 62. 1	23. 0 23. 8 26. 9 28. 6 26. 5 15. 7	13. 1 14. 6 17. 4 18. 7 17. 5 10. 0	7.4 8.1 9.9 10.4 9.8 .6.0	9.7 10.8 10.4 9.0

Transiency of elementary teachers .- "Stabilization or permanence of personnel may be considered a basic prerequisite of a profession. Adjustment to a community, acquaintance with its traditions, and knowledge of its social needs can come only through continued residence, The high rate of transiency among teachers in public-school systems, in the past has been detrimental not only to educational planning but unquestionably has also been of signficance in lowering the professional status of teaching in the public mind. presented in tables 9 and 10 on transiency of elementary teachers indicate that the problem varies by States and by population areas. It will be noted in table 9 that in 1930-31 62.1 percent of the elementary teachers in cities of more than 100,000 population had been employed by only one school system but in villages with less than 2,500 population, 35 percent of the elementary teachers had been employed in one school system, and approximately 27 percent in two. In referring again to table 8."Total number of years educational experience of elementary teachers 1930-31", the approximate median (median of medians) number of years' experience of elementary teachers in villages of less than 2,500 was 6 years and in cities of more than 100,000 population, 12 years. It is to be expected that superior working conditions, tenure laws, pension systems, higher salaries, and .\* better social conditions in the larger cities tend to hold teachers for a longer period.

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"The principle of tenure has been advocated among educators for the past decade, a strong argument being that teacher turn-over is reduced in States with tenure laws, thereby showing a stabilizing effect. These are other groups of schoolmen who are in opposition to tenure laws because of certain undesirable results said to accompany tenure laws. Among the advantages of tenure frequently cited, other than decreased turn-over and greater stability are: Protection of the teacher from petty political or personal attacks; relief to the teacher from worries over uncertainty of employment; higher quality of personnel secured due to increased attention to selection of teachers; and greater value of the teacher under tenure to the community because of longer period of service. Tenure of teachers meets opposition from those who feel that the weak and ineffective are protected by tenure; that the feeling of security offered by tenure makes teachers less cooperative and less ambitious to grow professionally; and that dismissals of teachers within the usual periods of probation are more pronounced.

"In the main, the factor contributing chiefly to teacher transiency is the salary consideration, which, of course, diminishes in importance as districts are more populous and more prosperous. A salary increment, secured either through local taxation or State subsidy, might be given in the areas where salaries are low as a means of reducing withdrawals. Unquestionably many teachers change because they secure more advantageous positions; just as many others change because of dissatisfaction with conditions other than salary. It is true that the person with initiative who has prepared for positions of greater responsibility may profit by changes, but in the case of the more passive teacher a change in position does not necessarily mean professional advancement."

Transiency of secondary teachers.—"In table 11 the data presented on transiency of secondary teachers revealed State differences as well as variation between junior and senior high school teachers. In comparing elementary and secondary teachers, the latter exceeded the former in number of positions held under different school systems. This was presumably due to the large number of secondary teachers who had their initial experience in elementary schools, acquired more education, and then secured a position in high school.

TABLE 11.—Number of different school systems in which junior and senior high school leachers have taught, 1930-91

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"In a time of financial depression there is a natural tendency to hold a position rather than change to another system or seek a new position. As professional requirements increase there is less incentive for an individual to change to another type of work. Despite the decreases in salary of teachers so prevalent during the school years 1931-32, 1932-33, and budget cuts for 1933-34, teachers with positions have a tendency to retain them. Accordingly it is felt that the data presented in tables 9, 10, and 11 are hardly representative of the personnel for the school year 1933-34. Present indications point to a decrease in the amount of transiency of teachers at all levels."

#### SUMMARY

From the data presented in this chapter concerning the age, sex, marital status, experience, and transiency of teachers in public schools in the United States some generalizations are apparent.

1. In 1930-31 American public schools were taught predominantly by young, unmarried women with little teaching experience and that little obtained in two or more different school systems.

 Marked differences in the items presented in this chapter were disclosed among the States but the differences among sections of the country, between urban and rural areas and among communities of different sizes were more significant than the differences among States.

3. Data presented on age, experience, and transiency of teachers indicate very conclusively that the rural schools have suffered a serious educational handicap because they have had to take young teachers for their first teaching experience and then were unable to retain the services of those teachers after they had gained their initial experience at the expense of the rural children.

4. Transiency and its resultant "turnover" among teachers was caused largely by teachers moving to positions in larger communities and from elementary schools to secondary schools.

The minimum age at which persons may be certificated to teach is so low in many States that both inadequate preparation and transiency are encouraged.

6. Seven-eighths of all rural teachers in 1930-31 were women. Nine-teen-twentieths of all other elementary teachers, three-fourths of the junior high school, and nearly two-thirds of the senior high school teachers were women.

7. The fact that the medians for teaching experience were in nearly all instances very much closer to the first quartiles of the distributions of experience than to the third quartile indicates that there was a heavy loss of young teachers. This fact may also be taken as an indication that teaching is not considered by many of the young people entering it as a permanent career. To the



extent that teaching is regarded as a "stepping stone" or "stop-gap" occupation, its progress toward professional status is definitely retarded.

8. The fact that transiency among teachers was greatest in rural schools and small communities indicates the need for programs of equalization of educational opportunities, with special attention to the improvement of working conditions for teachers in rural and village schools.



## CHAPTER III

## EXTENT, SOURCE, AND NATURE OF THE EDUCA-TION OF TEACHERS<sup>1</sup>

### EXTENT OF TEACHERS' EDUCATION

Increase in the amount of teachers' education .- There are today many criticisms directed toward the amount and quality of the education of our public-school teachers. The data presented in this chapter show, all too clearly, that much of the above-mentioned criticism is justified if teachers are expected to be as well educated as members of the professions of law, medicine, and the ministry. This expectation has not been a general one, however, and a very different view of the situation is obtained when the education of teachers of today is compared with the education of teachers in past periods of our historysome of them not so long past. In such comparisons it is soon obvious that while we still have much to accomplish we have made remarkable progress in the upgrading of American public-school teachers. progress is more clearly presented in volume V, part 1 of the Survey report.2 Even at the turn of the present century many States were admitting prospective teachers who had finished the eighth-grade' work to 1- and 2-year courses in normal schools, the completion of which entitled them to some form of teacher certification. Less than a decade ago half of the States, representing all sections of the country, were preparing teachers in secondary schools. In 1933 there were only seven States with such courses. · Facts similar to these, already presented in greater detail in other volumes of the Survey report, should be borne in mind when considering the data of this chapter.

The World War in a number of ways made the American people conscious of the inadequacies of the public schools and also aware of the important role which education has to play in the perpetuation of a democratic form of government. As a result of this awakened interest in education very rapid progress was made during the 5 or 6 years immediately following the War in the matter of increasing the amount of preparation of teachers—not only new teachers but those already in service. Several States passed laws setting a date—a few years in advance—by which all teachers would be required to have a specified minimum amount of educational preparation. The remarkable increase in the attendance of teachers in summer session during

<sup>1</sup> Quoted paragraphs not otherwise acknowledged in chapters II and III are from a manuscript prepared by Guy C. Gamble on the topics included in these chapters.

Frazier, Ben W. The History of the Education of Teachers in the United States. U.S. Office of Education. Bulletin 1933, no. 10, National Survey of the Education of Teachers. Vol. V, pt. 1.

that period as well as the increased number of teachers who attended college on some form of leave of absence were direct results of the general desire of American school patrons to have better-prepared teachers for the schools and their willingness to support the schools in such a way as to secure that increased preparation.

Quantity not quality the measure. - During the period of this rapid upgrading of teachers much work was done by research students in education to establish methods by which the teaching merit of individual teachers could be established. While significant contributions were made 3 no acceptable means of evaluating the quality of a teacher's work was presented. It was therefore necessary, during these years, to evaluate the preparation of teachers in terms of such quantitative elements as number of years spent in college, degrees held, and years of teaching experience. Obviously no one would contend that "a year in college" is a constant quantity. It varies according to the individual, his previous preparation, his vocational interests, the college attended, the year in the college curriculum, the location of the college, the extra-class opportunities, the individual's social adjustments, and a host of other factors. Even with all these variables it was more of a constant, more acceptable to teachers and more understandable to patrons than any qualitative measure which was available at that time. This situation should also be kept in mind in interpreting the tables presented in this chapter.

Difference in standards for elementary and secondary teachers.—There exists at the present time a very definite distinction in the minds of American school patrons as to the amount of preparation needed by teachers of elementary and secondary schools. Since the period immediately following the World War it has been generally accepted that the desirable minimum of educational preparation for elementary teachers was 2 years beyond the completion of high school while the desirable minimum for secondary teachers was 4 years of college work. This double standard has persisted in spite of attempts to remove it. A few cities have been operating upon the assumption that elementary teachers should be as adequately prepared, even though differently, as are secondary teachers. Data obtained by the National Education Association show that these cities are still very much in the minority.

One other element in the question of standards for the preparation of teachers was forcibly presented by Frank P. Bachman 5 in his



Betts, Gilbert L. The Education of Teachers Evaluated Through the Measurement of Teaching Ability.
U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1933, No. 10. National Survey of the Education of Teachers, vol. V, pt. II.
Evenden, E. S. Teachers Salaries and Salary Schedules in the United States, 1918-19. Washington,
D.C., National Education Association.

<sup>.</sup> Bachman, Frank P. Training and Certification of High-School Teachers. Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, Field Studies No. 2, 1930.

Education and Certification of Elementary Teachers. Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, Field Studies No. 5, 1933.

studies of certification practices in the several States. That element was the minimum level of preparation for teachers set by each State. Dr. Bachman contended that the lowest amount of preparation which would be accepted for certification in a State was in a very real sense the standard for that State because during periods when conditions were unsettled that was the standard which was enforced. Considering the fact that so many of the States have, in one way or another, permitted teachers to enter teaching at the completion of the high school or by means of examinations with even less than that much preparation the progress made during the 15 years following the World War is a source of encouragement to those interested in the professional preparation of teachers.

Highest level of training.—In the inquiry which was sent out by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, every teacher was asked to indicate the highest level of his training (items 27-28 fig. 2). A summary of answers received arranged according to levels of

training and size of communities is presented in table 12.

"Considering 2 years of college education as a standard for elementary-school teachers, table 12 reveals that of 248,593 elementary teachers who answered the question as to the highest level of their training, 46.2 percent had attained the standard; 27.6 percent had surpassed it, and 26.2 percent had fallen below. Considering 4 years of college work as a desirable standard for secondary teachers, 43.7 percent of the junior high school teachers and 58.1 percent of the senior high school teachers had reached the standard, 16.7 percent of the junior high school and 29 percent of the senior high school teachers exceeded the standard, and 39.6 percent of the junior high school and 12.9 percent of the senior high school teachers had not reached it. In comparing the training of elementary-school teachers by size of location, the following proportions of elementary teachers were below the standard: Open-country, 1- and 2-teacher schools, 61.8 percent; open-country 3- or more-teacher schools, 28.4 percent; villages of less than 2,500 population, 21 percent; cities of 2,500 to ... 9,969 population, 12.6 percent; cities, 10,000 to 99,999 population, 10.5 percent; and cities of more than 100,000 population, 9.2 percent."

The data in table 12 indicate clearly the double standard to which reference was previously made. If, for example, the same standard of 4 years beyond high school was accepted for elementary schools then by a strange coincidence the situation in both groups can be expressed by the fraction seven-eighths. For the elementary teachers, however, seven-eighths do not meet the standard (4 years of college work) while for the senior high school teachers seven-eighths do meet the standard.



TABLE 12—Highest level of training of elementary teachers by location and of junior high school and senior high school teachers, school year.

Non- Gradu-ste of high of hi		Total				•			7.	Level of training	aining							
9. s. obert         61,200         0.1         0.6         0.4         1.0         1.1         9.0         0.9         6.1         33.6         28.7         6.0         30.0         0.0         6.1         33.6         27         3.4         2.6         17.9         47.0         13.4         10.2         8         2         1.0         1.1         9.0         0.9         6.1         23.6         23.7         6.0         3.0         6.1         2.7         3.4         2.6         17.9         47.0         13.4         10.2         8         2         1.0           Oppulation State of Marketon Sta	Location	number fin- volvèd				2 years of high school	3 years of high school	4 vears of high school	6 to 12 weeks of col-	Half year of college	1 year of col- lege	2 years of col-	3 years of col- lege		1 year of grad- uate work	2 years of grad- uate work	3 years of grad- uste	More than 3 years of grad-
ols, open 61,290 0.1 0.6 0.4 1.0 1.1 0.0 0.9 0.1 33.6 28.7 0.0 0.4 0.1 0.1 0.0 0.9 0.1 33.6 28.7 0.0 0.4 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1	1	-	••	•	-	-	1	•	-	=	-		:	1	:	-		
ols, open 61,299 0.1 0.6 0.4 1.0 1.1 9.0 0.9 6.1 23.6 28.7 6.0 3.0 0.4 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.0 0.9 6.1 23.6 28.7 6.0 3.0 0.4 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1	Elementary teachers:												2	4.	:	=	11	2
population         26, 126         1         3         2         4         26         26         17.9         47.0         13.4         10.2          1           pulation         26, 946         1         2         3         6         2.8         2.4         2.1         12.4         54.0         15.7         8.4         7         2         1-           opulation         45, 278         1         2          5         2.8         1.3         1.3         8.4         7         2         1.2         1.3         1.3         1.3         1.3         1.1         2         1.1         2          5         2.1          6         55.1         19.7         13.0         1.3         1.1         4         1.2         1.3         1.3         1.1         4         1.2         1.2         55.1         1.0         8         5.2         55.1         1.3         1.3         1.1         4         1.1         4         1.1         4         1.1         4         1.1         4         1.1         4         1.2         1.2         1.2         1.2         1.2         1.2         1.2         1.2	J. and 2-teacher schools, open- country outline teacher schools, open Villages of these schools, open	61, 299	2 -	0 0	0.4	1.0	17	o.	6.6	6.1	ä	14	0 '6	3.0	,0,	9	0.1-	1.0
Depulation 45, 278 11- 12 11- 13 15 2.5 1.0 18 5.2 55.1 18.8 12.2 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.2 1.			-						4		17.0	47.0	13.4	10.2	*	~	1	
50,384         .1-         .1         .2         .5         2.1         .6         .6         5.1         47.0         21.8         16.9         3.3         1.1         .4           248,663         .1-         .3         .2         .5         .7         4.0         3.6         .5         1.1         .4           36,186         .1-         .2         .3         .7         4.0         3.6         .4         3.2         1.3         .4         .1         .4           84,767         .1-         .1         .1         .1         .5         .2         .2         .1         .1         .3         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .8         .1         .1         .8         .1         .1         .1         .8         .1         .1         .8         .1         .1         .8         .1         .1         .1         .8         .1         .1         .1         .1         .1         .1         .1         .1         .1         .1					:		600		1.34	21.8		222	15.7	424	1.2			
84,767 .12 .1 .2 .3 .11 .6 .4 .2 .15 .10.2 1.3 .4 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1		50, 394	1 1	-   -	- 0	64	. 10	2.1	•	9.	5.1	47.0		16.9		es =	-: •	
		36, 186	11		777	·	r.w.1	0 - 10	w	4-7	14.5 1.1 1.1	17.5	16.5	10.2		¥		3 44

Although the percentages are discouraging, especially among the elementary teachers with no more than high-school preparation, it should be remembered that many of these represent older teachers who entered teaching when standards of preparation were very much lower and who have, in the majority of cases, improved their preparation in connection with their work. Attention should not be given entirely to the low end of the distributions in table 12. There is ample ground for encouragement in the increasing numbers of teachers who have taken 1 or more years of graduate work in preparation for teaching. This is noticeable among elementary teachers in the larger cities and especially so among junior high school and senior high school teachers. Even more encouraging and significant is the percent of senior high school teachers who have had 2 or more years of

graduate work-nearly a tenth of the total group.

"The appendix to this study, tables I to VIII, inclusive, presents data by States on the highest level of training attained by elementary teachers in various population areas and by junior and senior high school teachers. It is to be noted that States differ widely in their policies of teacher employment. Within individual States the standards for certification advance steadily from those for the rural teacher to those for the largest cities. Selecting Iowa as an example of difference within an individual State, 55 percent of the elementary teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools responding to the inquiry had less than a half year of college; 28.4 percent, no college training whatsoever; and 26.8 percent, 4 years of high-school training only. It is to be noted that Iowa maintained a system of teacher training on the secondary level, the last half year of high school being devoted to teacher preparation for rural schools. In the 3-or-more-teacher schools in the open country, 1 in 6 of Iowa's elementary teachers had only secondary training. In villages of less than 2,500 population, 71.4 percent of the elementary teachers had reached or surpassed the standard of 2 years of college preparation. Corresponding data for larger cities are as follows: Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population, 86.5 percent; cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population, 83.2 percent; and cities of 100,000 and more, 88.8 percent reaching or exceeding the standard of 2 years of preparation on the college level for elementary teachers. Such evidence indicates that Iowa would be justified in raising the standard to 3 years of collegiate training for new elementary teachers in all areas excepting the open country. For this rural area the standard minimal certificate requirement might be raised to at least 2 years of college preparation. This policy would assume a discontinuance of preparation of teachers in secondary schools."

The data presented in tables I to VIII, inclusive, of the appendix contain information of very great value to those responsible to the education of teachers in the several States. This information can be

used as a basis for determining State programs of certification and it can also be used for publicity purposes in campaigns to acquaint people with the educational conditions in their States and with the educational reforms which are needed. The distribution for each State has many diagnostic implications and in addition to these there are the many comparisons which may be made with neighboring States, with States in the same area and with States with similar industrial or agricultural problems. One or two examples of the conditions revealed in these tables may be cited from table I, appendix. In Arkansas 36.2 percent of the rural teachers had no more than 4 years of high-school education, while in Oklahoma only 3 percent had as little training as that. The four North Central States of Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin had 74.4 percent, 53.4 percent, 79.1 percent, and 85.4 percent of their rural teachers with less than 2 years' preparation beyond high school. In contrast to these the percentages of rural teachers with less than that amount of preparation in Arizona, Maryland, Utah, and Washington were 6.9, 14.3, 8.6, and 6.8, respectively.

At the other extreme Arizona, California, South Carolina, and West Virginia had respectively 26.4 percent, 19.5 percent, 33.4 percent, and 24.2 percent of their rural teachers with 4 or more years of college work compared with 1.3 percent, 0.8 percent, 1.3 percent, 1.3 percent, 1.3 percent, and 1.2 percent, respectively, for Connecticut, Florida, Maine, Nebraska, and North Dakota.

These States are scattered in location, different in their wealth and ability to support educational programs and yet some of the poorer ones excelled the wealthier ones in the standards maintained for rural schools. It seems to be clear that States can maintain higher standards once such standards are generally accepted as desirable.

# DEGREES HELD BY PUBLIC-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Relation to extent of education.—The percentages of teachers actually holding bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees in 1930-31 are presented by States in table 13. Slight differences will be observed in the percentages of teachers reporting 4 years of college training and those reporting a bachelor's degree. This is because some students may procure a degree in 3 years by virtue of extra work, summer work, extra high-school credits, or merit credits while others may spend 4 years in a college and still not meet all of the requirements for a degree. These differences can be seen by comparing the percentages, in column 2, table 13; and column 14, table I, appendix.



TABLE 13.—Percentage of teachers possessing earned degrees, 1930-31

				Bachel	achelor's degree								Mas	Master's degrees	200		٠		79	Doctor's degrees
			Elemen		ary teachers							Elen	enthry	Elementiary teachers	2		_	_		_
	Rural	· dd	Villages of less than 2,500	City of 2,500 to 8,500 to 9,500 to popula-	City of 10.000 to 90.000 to population	Cky of more than 100,000 popula-tion	Total Been	Jun	E SE	Russ	Compo	Villages of less than 2,500	City of 2,800 to 9,900 popula	City of 10,000 to 86,889 popula- tion	City of more than 100,000 popula-tion	Total Hero.	a of	S P P	a o d	E P E
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Connecticut. Delaware District of Columbia Florida.	-8 24	10 80 7.7 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	7.4	7.3 7.3 15.6	1. 6	827 52 4 2 2 2 2 4 2 2 2 4	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	MARER	22448			-	4 4 7 7 1		The second secon	7 2 -3	44448			114
	4-10-1-		24444 08442	44846	20.810.4 -0.80.4 -0.80.7	2883 2000	64048	8183L	-4000	8-8	: : : :	mm -	7000	MALI	044		****		1117	-83
22		47. 1.4 8.6 8.6	80-144 60-044	以 以 以 以 以 よ よ よ よ よ よ よ よ よ よ よ よ よ よ よ	24-44 00000	44 20 00	- d- d4	200000	28:3F	1	•9	en 04	7 7	F = 800	<b>da</b> 60	* ***	20 40	2044 F		- m- a
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Percentage with degrees.—From a brief inspection of table 13 it is evident that: (a) The usual variation among States existed; (b) the percentage of teachers with degrees increased with the size of the community; (c) the percentage of teachers with degrees increased from the elementary to the junior high school and from the junior high school to the senior high school; (d) there were relatively few elementary teachers with master's degrees and almost no teachers with doctor's degrees except in the senior high schools; and (e) there is remained a large amount of upgrading to do before teaching could be compared with other professions in the preparation of its members.

Hundreds of statements corroborative of these generalizations can

easily be obtained from the data in table 13.

The variation among States can be shown by comparing the number of rural teachers with a bachelor's degree in the different States. In 1930-31 more than a fourth of the rural teachers of Arizona and South Carolina had degrees while less than 1 percent of the rural teachers of Maine, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Wisconsin reported the possession of a bachelor's degree. Among junior high school teachers, California reported 77.7 percent and South Carolina 87.8 percent with a bachelor's degree, while New Hampshire and Maine reported 26.2 percent and 20.1 percent, respectively.

The totals for each size of community show very distinctly the selective effect of city size. The percent of elementary teachers with degrees increased from 2.6 percent in the rural schools to 18.2 percent in cities of more than 100,000 population. A few States showed irregularities in this matter but these were due to different numbers of cities of various sizes in those States.

The distinction between elementary and secondary teachers is evident in the percent of elementary teachers with a bachelor's degree and also the percent with the master's degree. Even though the percent of elementary teachers with a bachelor's degree varies, from South Carolina with 53.5 percent to 6 States with less than 3 percent, the figure for the country as a whole is only 10 percent, and 0.6 percent of the elementary teachers have the master's degree.

If not too discouraging, the very small percentages of senior high school teachers in the United States with the doctor's degree as given for 1930-31, in columns 19 and 20 of table 13, furnish very interesting and challenging comparisons with the preparation of teachers in the secondary schools of European countries as presented in volume V, part VIII. Especially in France, Germany, and Sweden the teachers in the secondary schools have professional preparation equivalent in most respects to the doctor's degree in this country.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Alexander, Thomas, and others. Comparative Practices in the Education of Teachers in European Countries. Office of Education, Bulletin 1933, no. 10, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, vol. V, pt. VIII.

Sources of degrees held.—In reporting the degree or degrees held, each teacher was requested to indicate the type of institution from which the degree was obtained. It was thought that the type of institution in which a teacher obtained his preparation for teaching would, to some extent, indicate the nature of his preparation and the extent to which the professional phases of the work were emphasized. Later studies of the curricula of different types of institutions revealed the fact that there was greater variation in the programs for educating teachers among the institutions of any one type than there was among the types. Even though this was true there are certain curriculum patterns and practices which are more frequently found in one type of institution than in others, and for this reason the sources of the earned degrees of public-school teachers is significant in the development of any State program for the education of teachers.

Table 14.—Sources of earned degrees of leachers in American public schools, 1930-31

	15wer-	with	Agropa			Source	of ear			
Types of degrees and teachers	Total number answer	Total number	Percent with degrees	State or city teachers col-	Private teachers	State college for	City college or	State university or land-grant	Other State-sup-	Private college or university
1		3				7	8.		10	11
BACHELOR'S DEGREE  Flementary teachers in: 1- and 2-teacher schools in open					)		ų.			
3 or more teacher schools in open		1, 593	2.6	28.6	1.3	3. 1	5, 2	19. 6	2.8	39. 4
Villages of less than 2,500 popula-	19 017	1, 277	9.4	21.6	. 1.8	10. 2	5.3	14.3	3.8	43.0
Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population. Cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population. Cities of 100,000 population or more.	51, 315 27, 034	3, 187 5, 655	7. 8 11. 8 12. 5 18. 2	24. 4 26. 3	1.5 1.7 1.4 1.5	9.9	5.5 7.5 7.2 27.9	17.0 17.8 20.7 14.8		37. 0 36. 6 35. 2 33. 4
Total elementary-school teachers	249, 399	24, 950	10. 0	23. 4	1.5	5.8	14.4	17.1	2.0	35. 8
Junior high school teachers	36, 251 84, 882	20, 552 72, 136	56. 7 85. 0	18. 5 12. 3	*1.0	2.4	7.9	25. 6 28. 6	2.4	42, 2 48, 1
MASTER'S DEGREE	8					-		-0.0	-	20. 1
Elementary teachers in:  1- and 2-teacher schools in open country 3 or more teacher schools in open country Villages of less than 2,500 popula-	61, 571 13, 617	74	.1	29.8	2.6 2.6	1, 3	7. 8 5. 1	19. 5 41. 0	3.9	35. 1 43. 6
Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population Cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population. Cities of 100,000 population or more.	51, 315 27, 034 45, 364 50, 498	129 115 261 824	.3 .4 .6 1,6	19.9 13.9 10.7 4.6	4.3 7.0 6.5 4.7	2.8 .4 .5	2.1 7.8 7.7 14.8	29. 1 19. 1 26. 4 13. 0	2.8 2.7 .6	39. 0 52. 2 45. 6 61. 8
Total elementary-school teach-	249, 399	1,442	.6	8.9	5. 1	.7	11. 2	18.4	1.3	_
Junior high school teachers. Senior high school teachers. Doctor's Degree	36, 251 84, 882	2, 487 13, 144	6. 9 15. 5	5.2	3. 9 3. 1	:2	8. 1 5. 9	29. 7 32. 6	1,3	54. 4 51. 6 54. 1
Junior high school teachers	36, 251 84, 882	36 359	:1		2.8		8.3	22.2 11.7		66. 7 80. 8



Table 14 gives a summary of some of the data in table 13 and also summarizes for communities of different sizes the types of institutions from which teachers (elementary, junior high school, and senior high school) earned their bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees. Table 14 shows the national situation more clearly than was possible in table 13. It indicates especially well the importance of the problem of preparing teachers for the rural and village schools because more than half of the teachers are in those schools and standards are so much lower.

"The composite picture of sources of degrees of elementary and secondary teachers presented in table 14 reveals that teacher education, while ordinarily characterized as a public function, operated as a joint enterprise of public and private institutions. The more detailed tables which constitute the bases for table 14 are to be found in tables IX, X, and XI of the appendix. Of 24,950 baccalaureate degrees held by elementary-school teachers, 37.3 percent were earned in private institutions. Of 20,552 baccalaureate degrees earned by junior high school teachers, 43.2 percent were earned in private institutions, and of 72,136 baccalaureate degrees earned by senior high school teachers, 49 percent were earned in private institutions. The master's degree appears to be more specifically a product of private colleges and universities, 59.5 percent of the elementary teachers' master's degrees, 55.5 percent of the junior high school teachers' master's degrees, and 57.2 percent of the senior high school teachers' master's degrees were earned at such institutions. Approximately 7 of every 10 doctorates of junior high school teachers and more than 8 of every 10 doctorates possessed by senior high school teachers were conferred by private institutions."

With the exception of the city colleges and universities in the larger cities the three dominant groups of institutions in the preparation of teachers were the State teachers colleges, the State universities and land-grant colleges, and the private colleges and universities. Nearly half of all public-school teachers with degrees have been prepared in private colleges and universities—decidedly more for each group of teachers than were prepared in any other type of institution.

The data presented by States on the sources of earned degrees in 'tables IX, X, and XI, appendix, supply many interesting comparisons and indicate more clearly than in other tables the extent to which States vary in their teacher-preparation programs. Table IX, appendix, reveals the result of the development of degree-granting teachers colleges in several of the Central States. More than 40 percent of the elementary teachers in Colorado, Kansas, Michigan, and Missouri received their degrees in State or city teachers colleges. In Rhode Island, 62.3 percent of the elementary teachers received their bachelor's degree from this source. Eighteen States had 40

51

percent or more of their elementary teachers holding bachelor's degrees from private colleges and universities. In 7 of these the number exceeded 50 percent.

Need for State programs of teacher education.—Tables IX, X, and XI, appendix, disclose the effect of existing institutions upon the supply of teachers with degrees. Some States do not have any separately organized State-supported teachers colleges; others have large numbers of private colleges and universities; New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania each have several city-supported institutions; others have well-organized systems of junior colleges and most of the States have three or more normal schools or teachers colleges. The supply of teachers is affected in each State by the size, age, location, support, and curricula of the existing institutions.

Ample evidence is presented in tables IX, X, and XI, appendix, to convince those responsible for the education of teachers in the different States that each State presents a distinctly different problem and, furthermore, that as programs of teacher education are developed for any State it will be necessary to consider the present and potential teacher-training work of each existing institution of higher education in that State. The education of teachers in this country is now a matter of vital concern to a majority of the colleges and universities and future programs for improving the professional preparation of teachers will have to be effected through cooperative coordination and regulation.

## NATURE OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Fields of special preparation.—As indicated earlier, the type of institution from which a teacher obtains his degree gives an indication of the nature of his preparation. In order to obtain a more accurate index concerning the professional nature of the work taken each teacher was requested to indicate the number of semester-hours of undergraduate and graduate credit in "education" (defined as educational psychology, methods, practice teaching, etc.) and also the number of semester-hours of undergraduate and graduate credit in practice teaching. They were also asked whether the answer was made from an exact record. (See items 35 and 36, fig. 2.) As explained in chapter I, these questions were among those for which the answers were least satisfactory. However, by checking the answers for those which were reported from "exact records" it was possible to discard some of the most irregular and thus increase the accuracy of the answers used even though it left few cases for some of the distributions.

"Each elementary teacher was also expected to check on the inquiry form the specific level within the elementary-school system in which he did his teaching (item 21, fig. 1). These levels were indicated as the



1- and 2-teacher rural school, kindergarten or kindergarten-primary, intermediate, and upper elementary. Another question asked for information as to the field for which the teacher had taken most training; these fields were designated as rural school, kindergarten-primary, intermediate, upper elementary, junior high, senior high, junior college, and other (item 22, fig. 2). The data from item 22, presented in summarized form in table 15 were secured for elementary teachers on the levels mentioned, in the various population areas.

"Of 61,407 teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools in the open country in 1930-31 only 63 out of each 100 teachers received most of their training in the field of the rural school. In every case regardless of whether the field was kindergarten-primary, intermediate, or upper elementary grades, there was a smaller proportion of teachers in the open country specifically prepared for his particular level than in any other population area."

Table 15.—Fields for which rural, kindergarten-primary, intermediate, and upper elementary teachers received most training, school year 1930-31

	Field of training												
Type of teacher and location	Total num- ber in- volved	Rural	Kin- der- garten- pri- mary	Inter- medi- ate	Upper ele- men- tary	Junior high	Senior high	Junior college  10  0.1  .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1 .1	Other				
1 1	1	3			6	7	8	10	11				
Rural teachers	61, 407	63. 3	9.0	14.7	6.7	3.3	2.6	0, 1	0.				
Kindergarten-primary:			-		_			_					
Open country  Villages of less than 2,500 popula-	4, 014	5.9	77.6	11.8	1.6	1.0	1. 5	1					
tion	16,005	24	83. 2	10.1	1.5	.9	1.5	.1					
Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population	10, 456	.6	83. 9	10.5	1.9	1.0	1.7	.1.					
Cities of 10.000 to 99,999 population.	17, 549	. 1	84.8	10.4	1.8	. 9	1.6	1.					
Cities of 100,000 population or more.	18, 450	.1	80.1	13. 0	3. 1	1.9	1 2.2	.1					
Total kindergarten-primary teachers	66, 474	1. 2	82. 5	11.1	2.1	1.0	1, 7	.1					
ntermediate:									===				
Open country. Villages of less than 2,500 popula-	4, 933	7. 7	7. 5	70. 2	6.0	3.7	4.2	. 2					
tion.	18, 831	3.3	7.8	74.6	6.4	3.8	3.6	. 2					
Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population	11,044	1.0	7.6	75. 6	6.6	4.8	4.0	.1					
Cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population.	18, 487	.4	8.1	75.8	6.6	4.4	4.2	.1					
Cities of 100,000 population or more.	20, 392	.1	6.0	78. 6	7.6	2.9	4.3	.1					
Total intermediate teachers	73, 687	1.6	7.3	75.9	6.8	3. 8	4.1	.1					
pper elementary:	II. II. II					75			7.7				
Open country. Villages of less than 2,500 popula-	3, 236	8.8	24	7.3	57.8	13. 1	9. 7	.4					
tion.	11,670	3.3	2.0	8.9	61.7	14.8	8.5	.3					
Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population	5, 113	.4	2.5	9.0	62.2	14.6	10.8						
Cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population.	8, 775	. 8	2.7	10.0	64. 5	12.9	8.7		- 2				
Cities of 100,000 population or more. Total upper elementary teach-	11, 394	.1	2.2	11.1	69. 9	9, 3	6.7						
ers	40, 188	1.8	. 2.3	9.6	64. 4	12.6	8.4	.3					
Grand total	241, 756	17. 2	27.6	31. 5	15.0	4.4	3.8	.1					

The data indicated that, as the population increased, the elementary teachers employed appeared to be more specifically prepared for their particular positions. In considering the fields of training of the teacher in upper elementary grades (table 15) columns 6 and 7 should be added together because of the overlapping of the content of the curricula for "upper elementary teachers" and "junior high school teachers."

"At present in almost every State and due to the oversupply of teachers, it is practicable for administrators to select for a given position a person with the necessary preparation for that specific position. Adopting a page from scientific management of personnel, standard specifications can well be drawn up for every type of work in a school system. Minimum and desirable standards of specific preparation should be indicated. In filling a vacancy the employer should select the candidate who has at least the minimum specific preparation for the position. Sound administration advocates special certificates for special activities or functions. Analyses of teacher-education curricula indicate that in the field of the elementary grades, three different levels of certification might well be recognized: First, kindergarten or kindergarten-primary; second intermediate grades; and, third, upper elementary grades (in regions where the 8-4 or similar plans obtain). Wise administration aims at securing a properly qualified individual for a given elementary level teaching position and protecting this position by the requirement of a specific certificate for the particular function or level of teaching.

"In the appendix, tables XII, XIII, and XIV appear as a part of the presentation of the basic data which compose table 15. In column 3 of table XII, appendix, the percents by States of rural teachers who received most of their training for the rural schools varies from 13 to 82.2 with a proportion of 63.3 for the country as a whole. In comparison, column 5 of table XIII, appendix, exhibits the fact that the percentages by States of intermediate grade teachers in cities of 10,000 to 99,999 who have secured most of their training in the field of intermediate grades range from 60.2 to 88.5, with 75.8 as a grand total proportion. Not only is the range more restricted but the grand total percentages reflect poor practice in the selection of personnel for the rural schools. In considering table XIV, appendix, as in table 15, columns 6 and 7 should be considered together because of overlapping

of elementary grades and the junior high school."

Table 17 offers a severe indictment of the certification laws in the States which permit the employment of teachers in the rural schools who have prepared specifically for work in other school divisions. Tables XII, XIII, and XIV, appendix, show that every State in 1930—31 was offending to some degree in this matter. Several States since

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1930-31 have revised their certification laws or regulations and the revisions are in the direction of greater restriction of certificates to specific fields.

Special preparation for secondary teaching.—"A study of the special preparation of secondary teachers was made by obtaining data on the amount of college credit secondary teachers earned in their 'principal' and 'next main' fields of teaching. (See items 39-37, inclusive, fig. 2.) Because of the influence of departmentalization and the prevalence of small high schools, data concerning the number of fields in which instruction was given was obtained for both junior high school and senior high school teachers. This study is presented in a later discussion. The generalization may be made that approximately 35 percent of the secondary school staff for the country as a whole teach only 1 field, 52 percent teach in 2 fields, and the remaining 13 percent in 3 or more fields. The median number of semester-hours of credit (of State medians) and the range of credit in each field of instruction of junior and senior high school teachers instructing in but one field, in the 'principal' field, and the 'next main' field of two or more fields of instruction is presented in table 16. Three of the six foundation tables upon which this composite is based are found in the appendix as tables XV, XVI, and XVII. The data in table 16 and in the appendix indicate a strong tendency for the instructor teaching in only one field to have more credit in that field than the teachers teaching that subject as the principal subject of instruction of two or more fields. Similarly the credit in the principal field, where instruction is given in two or more fields, is higher as a rule than for the next main field. To illustrate: In column 8 of table 16, the median (of State medians) number of semester-hours of credit in English held by senior high school teachers giving instruction only in English was 38, while the senior high school instructor teaching two or more fields had a median of 33 semester-hours of credit where English was the principal field and 24 where English was the next main field of teaching. It is to be noted also in the senior high school field that there was wide variation in the median amounts of credit possessed by teachers in the different fields (column 8 of table 16), ranging from the median of 27 semester-hours of credit in mathematics of the instructor teaching only mathematics to the 83 semester-hours' credit in agriculture of the instructor teaching only in that field. It will be noted also that art and drawing, home economics, music, health and physical education, and modern languages ranked high in the amount of work taken."

TABLE 16.—Credit earned by secondary teachers in sole field, principal, and next main fields of teaching, 1930-31

•		Junior high school Senior high sc									
Fields of teaching	Nun ber of	3- 1	e media r-bours	credit)	08- 1	lum- ber	State	medians	(semes-		
	Chaes	Low	Med	ian Hi	gh a	of Mess I	Low	medians (hours' cre hours' cre hours' cre  8 83 61 28 60 43 83 21 88 34 20 83 30 85 37 30 28 46 37 26 47 34 16 49 44 24 41 36 23 27 25 18 61 60 23 40 34 24 41	High		
1	,		~			6	7	8	•		
Agriculture and forestry:	1		_	1		-	-	-	-		
Bole field.	2.0				111	279	61	00			
Next main held	11					944	37		97		
Art and drawing: Sole field						388	16	28	- 40		
Principal field	200				81	415	40	60	82		
Next main field Biological sciences:	878				82	462	30	43	53		
Sole field	81				-		14	18	28		
PTIDOIDAL Reld			3			493	28		51		
Next main field. Business and commerce:						607 470	21 17		40		
cole neld	264	31	1/3					41	20		
Principal field		23				117	15 21		61		
Next main field Education and teacher training:		11			4	698	11		32		
Bold Beld	. 6					-		-	32		
Principal field	- 33					28	30				
English:	77.0	23	30		9 1,	122	25		41		
Sole field	1,784	21	30		4   3	875	-1				
Principal field		11	27			(32	30		51		
CHESTIC ISTOPHISMOS		16	21	3	1 7,	219	18		30		
Sole field.	. 95	28	29	2		531	26				
Principal field	- 470	20	27	3			20		50		
INTO COLUMN TATAL LA		18	24	2	3,0	194	15		41 34		
Sole field. Principal field.	120	36	49	6	1,0	05	24				
Nett main field	930	28	38	45	2,7	00	25		68 54		
DOMEST BOOK DO VISCAL Admostica.		-41	25	32	3,7	38	18		36		
Sole field Principal field	4	25	1 49	99	7	98	29	47			
Next main hald	886 627	10 10	29 14	55			11		75 61		
HOUSE OCCURRENCE OF BORRESSOLD AND			1.0	26	1,4	38	8	16	23		
Sole field Principal field		27	45	76		50	30	40	73		
	132	26	41 23	67 37	1		14	44	53		
Physical sciences: Sole field			-	- 04		30	17	24	47		
Frincipal neld	000	13	22	30		54	32	41	51		
Next main field	1, 106	ii	21	37 25	3, 18		25 19		52		
	1 000					"	10	23	30		
Principal field	2,743	10	17 18	25 37	1, 90		17		37		
Next main field	1, 438	10	15	21	5, 83		17		31		
Sole field	363	17	-					10	25		
Principal field	421	17	52 46	68 88	38 59		47		83		
Next main field History, sociology, and economics:	201	9	19	34	88		21		68		
DOIS DOIG	1, 140	10	-		7.0			-	. 43		
	2, 653	15	27	40 39	2, 09 5, 62		25		52 .		
Next main field.  Trades and Industries and industrial	3, 101	15	21	31	7, 88		25		48		
man.			1		9,20	1			31		
Sole field	749	14	38	62	1 110		00	- 12			
Principal field	745	28	36	. 57	1, 112		26 23	41	55		
THE REAL PROPERTY.	197	9	18	. 32	498		13	33 21	50 30		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the original tables, State medians were not computed for less than 10 cases. The totals given in this table however include the total number of responses from all States.



Data presented in table 16 and tables XV, XVI, and XVII. appendix, will be very useful to those especially interested in curricula for the education of teachers. These data supplement two other studies of curricula for teachers made in connection with the work of this Survey. 7 Dr. Rugg studied the curricula for the education of teachers in normal schools and teachers colleges and Dr. Peik made a similar study for colleges and universities. Curricula for the education of teachers were studied from a number of angles but two studies are more closely related to the data in this chapter than the others. The first obtained from an analysis of the catalogs of about 60 institutions, selected as representative of better practices in the education of teachers, the curriculum patterns in those institutions as prescribed for teachers preparing for different types of positions. The second study analyzed the courses actually taken by nearly 4,000 prospective teachers graduating from selected institutions and presented the picture of the work taken in high school and in college. The data for this analysis were obtained from the transcripts of students' permanent record cards. The pictures presented in volume III represent conditions which are better than the average for the country as a whole, but even with the slight differences due to selection the data summarized in table 16 support the conclusions from the other studies. English, history, mathematics, science, and languages represent the 5 fields in which most of the teachers are teaching, just as they represent the 5 fields in which most of the work is taken in high schools. The special fields are not adequately represented so far as numbers of teachers are concerned but the preparation of the teachers of those fields indicates the same extreme amounts of concentration which were observed by both Dr. Rugg and Dr. Peik. Comparisons of the median amounts of preparation of teachers of agriculture, art, and music as given in table 16 with the medians in English, languages, and mathematics showed the same relative emphases which were being given in the institutions selected for special study as representative of better practices in the education of teachers.

Credits in education and practice teaching.—"In an institution preparing prospective teachers, not only is the student expected to gain knowledge but also to learn how to impart that knowledge to others. To attain the latter aim, institutions for the education of teachers present courses such as educational psychology, methods, observation, practice teaching, and similar offerings. In most cases, these are specific offerings but in some situations the subject matter and methodology may be integrated, as professionalized subject matter. Education for a vocation or profession involves not only the acquiring of attitudes and certain ranges of knowledge but also of skills in the application of



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Rugg, Earle U. and Peik, W. E. Teacher-Education Curricula. Office of Education, Bulletin 1982, no. 10, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, vol. III, pts. I, II, and III.

this information to specific situations. Modern medicine and surgery demand initial clinical experience; the shop and testing laboratory add practical training to the scientific knowledge of the engineer. Preservice education of teachers calls for development of techniques, best acquired under actual conditions and the young novice in teaching requires observation and practice teaching under skilled supervision.

"The Survey presents in tables 17 to 19, inclusive, data pertaining to the credit secured by elementary and secondary teachers in 'education' and 'practice teaching.' In the first table of this group it will be noted that of 75,347 senior high school teachers responding to the question concerning the amount of credit in 'education', less than 1 percent gave the answer 'no credit.' The middle 50 percent of the group with credit in education ranged between 22 and 26 semesterhours, the median (of medians) being 24. Although there was a range of 17 to 30 semester-hours, the limited spread of the middle 50 percent and the medians indicate a tendency to take about one-fifth of the college work for teacher preparation in the field of education. A study of certification requirements for secondary teachers revealed that 26 States required 18 to 24 semester-hours of work in 'education'-which fact is of assistance in explaining the amount taken by teachers responding to the inquiry. The standards of the various accrediting associations (e.g., the North Central Association requires that all new teachers of academic subjects shall have 15 semesterhours in education—1930-31) similarly emphasize the need for professional training. In the same table (17) it is to be noted that only 61,563 senior high school teachers responded to the inquiry on credit in 'practice teaching.' Of this number, approximately, 1 in every 4 had no such credit. Only 2 States had medians less than 5 semesterhours and only 3 more than 6 semester-hours, showing the concentration around 5 to 6 hours of credit in practice teaching as a standard for secondary teachers.

"In a comparison of the amount of credit in education possessed by elementary teachers having 4 years of college work (table 18, column 4) with that possessed by senior high school teachers (table 17, column 7), in all cases the State medians of the former exceeded those of the latter. This is chiefly due to the fact that the majority of elementaryschool teachers are products of teachers colleges and normal schools where such courses are emphasized. The secondary teacher on the other hand is a product of other types of colleges, both public and private, and the professional requirements are not as strongly emphasized. In many cases the median amounts of credit in practice teaching were also higher."



Table 17.—Semester-hours credit in education and practice teaching of senior high school teachers, 1930-31

*			E	fuestion	1				Practice teaching							
State Total num-	Total num-	No	redit	num-		Me		Total	Noc	redit	Total num-		Me-			
	ber of cases	Num ber	Percent		Qı	dian	Qı	ber of	Num- ber	Percent	with credit	Qı	dian	Qı		
1	1	1	4			7	8		10	ņ	13 ,	13	14	L		
Alabama Arisona Arkansas California Colorado	298 466 4.200	3 3 43 3	1	895 996 466 4, 157 735	19 23 18 20 23	25 28 24 27 30	33 37 31 37 39	764 256 367 3, 690 663	107 46 57 727 85	14 18 16 30 13	657 210 310 2, 963 578		6 6			
Connecticut Delaware Dist. of Columbia Florida Georgia	161 211 597	27 1 6 4 7	3, 1 3 1	1, 018* 180 205 593 499	10 17 13 17 16	18 23 24 23 23 22	33 30 37 30 20	714 183 170 439 298	322 31 67 141 88	45 25 30 32 32	392 102 103 299 205	34433	6 5 7 8 8	1		
Idaho Illinois Indiana Iowa Kansas	3,840	1 18 3 3 1		412 4, 873 3, 837 2, 508 1, 704	18 17 20 19	25	30 30 34 39 29	341 8, 440 3, 266 1, 929 1, 871	101 1,001 763 582 423	30 29 23 30 31	340 2, 439 2, 503 1, 347 949	*****	6 6 4 5 8	10		
Kentucky Louisiana. Maine Maryland Massachusetts	910 1,088 644 694 2,838	. 9 28 11 137	1 4 2 5	905 1, 079 616 683 2, 701	19 14 9 18 9	25 21 14 24 16	32 31 32 36 30	685 846 396 548 2,012	164 175 282 113 965	24 21 59 21 48	521 671 164 635 1, 044	44333	5 6 5	10 11 9		
Michigan Minnesota Mississippi Missouri Montana	3, 730 2, 246 450 1, 867 601	11 2 12 1	i Vi	3, 721 2, 235 448 1, 855 500	17 17 18 23 18	nnnnn	28 29 29 35 31	3, 372 2, 085 263 1, 506 481	839 271 87 280 63	16 13 23 14 15	2, 843 1, 764 176 1, 368	3 3 4 3	6 5 6 5	8 8 7 7		
Vebraska Nevada New Hampshire New Jersey New Mexico	1, 182 96 373 2, 886 241	14 40 1	1	1, 180 95 359 2, 846 240	20 19 13 18 20	25 24 20 27 26	31 31 35 44 34	1, 016 90 270 2, 274 204	178 12 100 663 43	18 13 37 29 21	838 78 170 1,611 161	34444	8 6 12 6	7 7 19 15 8		
Vew York North Carolina North Dakota Dhio Oklahotna	7, 298 1, 558 557 5, 217 1, 040	118 2 2 2 16 1	2	7, 180 1, 556 555 5, 201 1, 039	16 19 30 34 20	24 24 24 29 26	43 30 31 38 31	5, 794 1, 019 517 4, 575 966	2,032 333 51 796 92	35 33 10 17 10	2, 762 696 466 2, 779 874	4 3 3 4 5	6 5 5 6	13 7 8 8 9		
Pregon. Pennsylvania thode Island outh Carolina outh Dakota	1, 145 5, 885 229 450 401	5 77 5 2	1 2	1, 140 5, 808 224 448 401	17 19 11 14 17	28 26 20 20 20 22	29 37 33 21 21	5, 122 154 298 354	223 887 66 127 72	25 17 43 43 20	678 4, 285 88 171 282	4 3 3	5 6 5 5	7 11 16 7 8		
ennessee eras tah ermont irginia	798 3, 014 371 252 1, 139	2 12 5 13		796 3, 002 371 247 1, 126	20 18 24 13 13	26 25 30 17 21	34 33 40 24 29	530 2, 442 335 184 789	144 515 36 61 257	27 21 11 33 33	386 1, 927 299 123 532	3 6 2 4	5 5 9 3 6	7 6 12 6 10		
Vashington Vest Virginia Visconsin Vyoming	1, 693 156 2, 090 338	10	1	1, 683 , 156 2, 071 338	18 22 17 21	24 27 23 27	32 35 30 34	1, 387 132 1, 876 312	342 18 281 47	25 15 15 15 15	1, 045 119 1, 595 265	3 4 4	5 6 6	7 7 10 10		
Total	75, 347	084	1	74, 663			6	1, 563	4,743	24	16, 820 .					

# TEACHER PERSONNEL

Table 18.—Semester-hours credit in education and practice teaching of elementary-school teachers having 4 years of college work, 1930-31

			Educa	tion					P	ractice	teac	hing	111 6 7 7 6 6 6	
, State	Tot	ber	Qı	Me			otal nber	No	cred	T	otal			T
	cred			dian	Q,	1	of Sees	Nun			mber rith edit	Qı		
1	1	1	1				•	1			•	10	11	13
Alabama Arisona Arkansaa California Colorado	1, 92 30	4 0 2	20 22 18 25 20	27 29 25 23 40	38 40 37 47 54	1,	360 173 100 781	40 17 30 110 18	1	11 10 10 6 7	320 156 80 671 259	6 6 6 8	6	
Connecticut  Dalawara  District of Columbia  Florida  Georgia  Idaho	7 2 7 24 28:	8 .	18 22 19 17 18	51 28 28 24 25	61 67 55 34 39	1	50 26 57 87 81	11 3 3 51 38	1		48 23 54 36	7 5 6 4	13 6 11 5	
Indiana Indiana Iowa Kansas	374 839 317 376		18 18 25 21 22	33 34 35 38	30 33 47 30 37	31		63 122 52 58	36 21 18 20	1	16 130 71 00	4 4 5 4	6 7 7	1 1
Kentucky Louisiana Maine Maryland Massachusetta	365 379 20 98 254	1	22 15 13 23 17	20 22 25 42 20	38 34 61 61	20 20 1 6	2 6	45 8 5	15 15 67 8	2	68 51 4	•	6.	10
Michigan Minnesota Mississippi Missouri Montana	564 170 240 713 55		26	27 25 27 22 29	39 58 28 40 40	\$11 186 166 631		19 13 42 51	11 4 9 25 8	56 13 13 58	7 6 2	7 5 6 4 5	7 10 7	10
Nevada New Hampshire New Jersey New Mexico	178 39 15 573 92			17	43 36 49 61 38	163 36 11 462 72		18 18 18 18	11 3 27 10 25	137		4 5	6 7	10
Ohio. Oklahoma.	2, 370 1, 478 53 1, 284 568	21 21 21 21	1 2	7	81 87 89 87 88	1, 834 993 50 1, 181 529	26 22	5 0	15 22 10 6 6	1, 568 773 45 1, 111 498		5 3 8 5 5	19 8 7 8	19 8 12 12,
	153 1, 188 45 45	28 23 24 17 21	86	0 6	0	184 997 37 828 42	81		2 4 11 25 12	132 956 33 262 37			10	.13 19 19 6
Vashineton	404 649 75 16 322	19 21 27 19 17	27 28 37 27 25	36 36 38 38	1	277 382 69 13 275	92 139 3 3 50		33 10 4 23	185 1, 243 65 10 216	3 7 8 8		5 5 0 7	7 7 12 16 11
Visconsin Vyoming	245 45 249 56	21 21 23 25	31 27 31 32	. 34 43 42		202 42 228 52	16 4 6	1	8 0 3 2	186 38 222 46	5 4 5 5			12 8 13



TABLE 19.—Semester-hours credit in practice teaching of senior high school teachers having 4 years of college work in teachers colleges and other colleges or universities, 1930-31

	1	/escbe	are coll	of ca				Other	ther colleges or universities							
Total	Noo	redit		With	credit		Total	No credit		With credit						
ber of	Num- ber	Per-	Num- ber	Qi	Median	Q.	ber of	Num- ber	Percent	Num- ber	Qi	Median	Q			
1		•			7	8	•	10	11	12	13	16	1			
29 30 59 112 114	7	6	27 30 89 108 113	8 6 6 5	7 7 9 9 8	10 11 12 13 11	412 108 142 443 255	57 36 30 114 27	14 24 21 26 11	355 82 112 329 228	3 4 4 8	8 6 6				
37 2 6 64 26	8	22	20 6 38 38		5 6	6 12	343 74 24 212 98	198 14 9 81	57 19 38 38 41	148 - 60 15 131 58	3 3 3 3	8 8 4 5				
30 353 008 2e6 236	17 100 10 20	30 5 15 4 6	21 336 568 236 308	5 6 6 5	7 9 5 6	10 11 7 11 7	196 1,8776 1, 840 954 830	68 537 948 372 253	34 38 30 40 49	130 849 994 - 562 267	3 2 2 2 2 2	5 3				
120 232 25 34 144	5 10 13 4 29	6 50 12 20	115 222 18 80 115	5 4 2 4 4	6 6 7	7 10 7 10 13	231 319 212 272 786	73 90 168 40 533	32 31 79 15 67	158 220 44 232 263	3 2 3 .3	5 4 5				
81 85 473 20	8 2 6	2 6 6 1	887 76 83 687 20	5 5 6	6 6 6 6	10 11 7 7 12	1, 073 1, 238 147 225 263	270 156 62 90 82	25 18 62 28 12	808 1, 082 85 236 231	3 3 3 3	8 8 8 8				
188 138 37	2 11	1 8 3	153. 5 43 127 36	4 .8 .5	6 16 7 7	9 19 16 10	432 46 140 818 71	92 5 71 256 24	21 11 51 31 34	* 840 41 69 562 47	2 5 3 3 3	8 6 8 5				
653 198 55 429 193	22 23 3	8 11 5 2	601 176 55 605 190	4 7 5 6	6 10 6 7	7 10 13 9 10	2,090 543 275 2,163 273	962 213 28 348 40	69 39 10 16 15	1, 038 839 247 1, 815 233	3 4 4	4 4 5 5 5				
12 877 2 71 39	2 7 10	17 2 14	10 370 2 61 39	5 6	6 10 5 9	10 15 6 12	583 2, 195 53 142 210	143 291 32 71 55	25 13 60 50 26	440 1, 904 21 71 155	44833	8 5 5				
90 412 25 9 175	10 6 2 2 2 10	11 2 8 22 6	80 406 23 7 165	5	5 5 8	7 7 11	201 856 150 135 298	63 185 17 50 156	31 22 11 37 52	138 670 133 85 142	3 6 2 4	. 9 . 3 . 5	,			
41 242 40	7	17	34 238 40	7 6	5 10 8	6 12 11	685 58 647 154	191 5 150 25	26 9 23 16	. 494 53 497 129	3 2 4	4 5 4 6				
The same of the sa	120 Sept 114 Sept 125 Sept 120	Total number of cases of the ca	Total number of cases of the ca	Total number of cases   No credit   Number of cases   Number oent   Number oent   Number   Nu	Total number of cases   Number of cases   Number of cases   Number oent   Number   Q1    2	Total number of cases   Number of cases   Number oeant   Number oe	Total number of Number oent ber oent oent oent oent oent oent oent oent	Total number of cases   Num   Per cent   ber   Q1   Me   Q2   cases	Total   No credit   With credit   Total   No creames   Num   Per   Num   Q1   Me   dian   Q2   cases   Num   ber of cases   Num   ber	Total   No credit   With credit   Total   No credit   number of cases   Num   Per   Num   Q <sub>1</sub>   Me   Q <sub>2</sub>   cases   Num   Per   ber   cent	Total   No credit   With credit   Total   No credit   With credit   Num   Per   Num   Q   Me   Q   Me   Der of Cases   Num   Per   Num   Der of Cases   Num   Der of Cases   Num   Per   Num   Der of Cases   Num   Der of Case	Total   No credit   With credit   Total   number of cases   Num   Per   Num   Qi   Me   Qa   Qa   Qa   Qa   Qa   Qa   Qa   Q	Total   No credit   With credit   Total   No credit   With credit   Num   Per   Num   Q1   Ma   D2   Cases   Num   Per   Num   Q2   Ma   D3   Cases   Num   Per   Num   Q2   Ma   Ma   Ma   Ma   Ma   Ma   Ma   M			

Comparison between teachers colleges and other colleges and universities.—"Table 19 presents a comparison of State ranges of credit in practice teaching of senior high school teachers divided into two groups; the first group had 4 years in teachers colleges and the second

group, 4 years in other types of colleges or universities. It will be noted that the credit for practice teaching in the teachers-college group was uniformly higher than for the other institutions. A similar study comparing the credit in education of these same two groups indicated that the median amount of credit in education obtained by 7,825 senior high school teachers with 4 years of work in teachers colleges was 27 semester-hours and of 30,291 senior high school teachers with 4 years of preparation in other types of colleges and universities, 22 semester-hours. Similar data for junior high school teachers were fairly comparable to those for senior high school teachers."

State differences in amount of education and practice teaching.—There is an interesting and unusual degree of agreement among the States in the amount of work taken by teachers in education and practice teaching. Table 17 shows that high-school teachers in 37 of the States had median amounts of credit in education of between 22 and 28 semester-hours, and that in 44 of the States their median amounts of credit in practice teaching were either 5 or 6 semester-hours. In spite of this uniformity there were 2 States with medians of as little as 14 and 16 semester-hours in education and 2 with medians of as much as 30 semester-hours. These medians were larger than the third quartiles for several of the States.

The situation was much more variable among the States for elementary teachers having 4 years of college work. The median amount of credit in education varied from 57, 61, and 59 semester-hours in New Jersey, New York, and Rhode Island, respectively, to 4 States with medians of 24 semester-hours or less. The variability was even more noticeable in the matter of practice teaching—the range of median semester-hours being from 19 to 5.

Table 19 shows, as was previously mentioned, that senior high school teachers who graduated from teachers colleges took more work in practice teaching than those who graduated from other colleges and universities. It also shows that there was much greater variation in the amount of practice teaching obtained in the teachers colleges than among the other colleges. The data in this table would indicate that the presence of a number of well-established teachers colleges in a State would tend to increase slightly the median number of semester-hours in education and practice teaching of the teachers in that State, and that the absence of such teachers colleges or the predominance of liberal arts colleges in the training of teachers would have the opposite effect.



## 62 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

#### SUMMARY

- 1. Even though remarkable progress was made following the World War in increasing the amount of education of teachers, two-thirds of the public-school teachers of the United States did not have 4 years of college education when the Survey data were collected in 1930-31.
- 2. A distinctly lower standard for elementary teachers was very generally accepted. The difference amounted to approximately 2 years—the difference between completion of junior college and senior college. Some States still issue certificates valid in rural and elementary schools to students who have just completed high-school courses.

3. Individual States exhibited wide variations in all of the elements of teacher education presented in this chapter, viz, amount of education, degrees held, sources of degrees, amount of work in education and practice teaching. Obviously improvements in standards will have to be made by individual States.

4. The larger communities obtained the teachers with the highest level of preparation, the largest proportion of teachers with bachelor's degrees and also the largest proportion of those with advanced or graduate degrees.

5. Only a relatively small number of teachers in secondary schools had master's degrees (about 7 percent in the junior high school and 15.4 percent in the senior high school). Less than half of 1 percent of the senior high school teachers had doctor's degrees. Preparation comparable to that for the doctor's degree is the typical preparation for secondary teachers in some of the European countries.

6. Privately controlled and supported colleges and universities have granted more degrees to teachers than any other group of institutions. This was particularly true for the master's degrees and doctor's degrees. State and municipally supported teachers colleges have so recently entered the degree-granting field that the number of teachers with degrees from such institutions is still small. Twenty-three and a half percent of the elementary, 18.5 percent of the junior high school and

12.3 percent of the senior high school feachers reporting bachelor's degrees in 1930-31 had obtained them from State or city teachers colleges.

7. State certification laws and regulations in nearly all of the States made it possible in 1930-31 for a teacher to prepare for teaching in one school division and then accept a position to teach in a different division. This practice encourages a general education for teachers with a minimum of preservice professional preparation—the remainder left to be obtained largely at the



expense of the children during the teacher's first years of teaching. Data from the Survey indicate all too clearly that the rural schools and the children in the rural schools are the ones that suffer most from these practices.

8. American teachers spent from one-fifth to one-fourth of their college period in courses in the fields of education, psychology, methods, and practice teaching. Even though this item was more uniform among the States than many other items there were still State variations from 60 semester-hours (one-half of the college period) to 15 semester-hours (one-eighth of the college period)—a variation of 4 to 1.

9. Elementary teachers took much more work in education and practice teaching than did secondary teachers and there were

also greater variations in practice.

10. Graduates of teachers colleges have had more work in education and especially in practice teaching than have the graduates of

other types of institutions.

11. The status of American public-school teachers in 1930-31 with regard to the extent of their educational preparation and the professional nature of the preparation indicate that there remains a large problem of preservice and inservice upgrading before teaching can be thought of as having attained the status of a profession.



#### CHAPTER IV

### SUBJECTS TAUGHT BY HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Curriculum patterns for high-school teachers.—How many different subjects should a high-school teacher be prepared to teach? Should the subjects be closely related? What is the minimum amount of college work which may be accepted as satisfactory preparation in various subjects? Should prospective high-school teachers have a major and 1 minor, a major and 2 minors, 2 majors, or 3 minors? Such questions as these have for many years confronted those constructing curricula for teachers, especially high-school teachers. Solutions have been proposed, studies of the work of teachers in the field have been made, and a few curricula have been modified, but practice remains relatively unchanged. The traditional plan of having each college student select a field of major emphasis with a "first minor" and in a small proportion of cases a "second minor" remains the predominant pattern for curriculum organization for the colleges and universities and has been wholeheartedly accepted by the teachers colleges as they became degree-granting institutions and began to place more emphasis upon the education of high-school teachers.

Several reasons can be advanced to explain why this important curriculum problem has not been solved. In the first place, a majority of high-school teachers begin their high-school teaching in small high schools and because of that fact are much more likely to be asked to teach in two or more fields. In the second place, even small high schools offer several curricula with elective privileges for the students. This results in small classes and a great range of courses to be taught. In the third place, as high-school teachers move from one position to another it is improbable that they will find exactly the same combination of subjects to teach. As a result they frequently find themselves with an additional subject for which their predecessor was adequately prepared but in which they have had little or no work either in high school or college.

The two most persistent problems in connection with the curricula for secondary teachers are: How many subjects should a high-school teacher be prepared to teach, and what combinations of subjects are most desirable? The National Survey of the Education of Teachers in its inquiry sent to all teachers attempted to obtain some data on both of these questions (items 39 to 47, fig. 2).



Number of subjects taught. - Each teacher in junior and senior high school was asked to indicate the number of different fields in a list of 15 major fields of secondary-school instruction in which he gave instruction during the year for which data were gathered, 1930-31. The 15 fields were: Agriculture and forestry; art and drawing; biological science; business and commerce; education and teacher training; English; classic languages; modern languages; health and physical education; home economics or household arts; physical science; mathematics; music; history, sociology, economics; trades and industries and industrial arts; and "subjects not listed." The answers to that question in terms of the fields just listed are tabulated by States for junior high school and senior high school teachers in table 20. Answers were received from 34,257 junior high school teachers, 37 percent of whom were teaching in 1 field, 51 percent in 2 fields, 8.1 percent in 3 fields, 2.8 percent in 4 fields, and 1.1 percent in 5 or more fields. Similarly for 82,627 senior high school teachers 34.3 percent were teaching in 1 field, 52.6 percent in 2, 9.4 percent in 3, 2.8 percent in 4, and 0.9 percent in 5 or more. Taken together it may be said that for secondary teachers in the United States in 1930-31, one-third were teaching in only 1 field, slightly more than half in 2 fields, and oneeighth in 3 or more fields.

These data and similar results from State studies of this problem have been interpreted to mean that relatively few secondary teachers are required to teach in more than two fields. This interpretation has been used to justify a curriculum pattern with a major and a minor required of each prospective high-school teacher. This interpretation neglects to take into account two other important items-namely, that a large majority of the teachers teaching in 3 or more fields are the young and inexperienced teachers and that many of the teachers who are now teaching in only 1 or 2 fields were required to teach 3 or more fields when they began teaching. In moving from smaller to larger schools it was possible in many instances to concentrate on 1 or 2 teaching fields. The data from this study were not tabulated to show what proportion of high-school teachers taught in only one field during their first year's experience. The data were tabulated, however, to show the distribution of the number of subjects taught by junior and senior high school teachers in relation to the size of the schools as shown by the number of teachers in the building. These relationships are shown in table 21. Some generalizations were evident from the data in this table. Junior high school teachers were required to teach more subjects than senior high school teachers, almost half of them teaching four or more subjects. Seven-eighths of the senior high school teachers taught only 1 or 2 subjects. The percentage of the teachers, both in junior and senior high schools, who taught in only one field increases steadily with the size of the school.



TABLE 20.—Number of different fields in which junior and senior high school teachers give instruction, 1950-51

	4		Junio	high			Senior high						
State	Total num- ber of cases	neld	2 fields	3 fields	fields	fields or more	Total num- ber of cases	1 field	2 fields	g fields	fields	fields or more	
1	2	3	i	1	6	,	8		10	11	13	13	
Alabama Arisona Arkansas Dalifornia Dolorado	526 132 295 2,471 412	14. 1 29. 5 22. 8 36. 7 33. 3	46. 4 58. 3 56. 9 54. 6 61. 4	17. 5 7. 6 11. 5 7. 1 9. 5	11.4 2.3 7.1 1.4 2.2	10.6 2.3 1.7 .2 3.6	950 313 491 4.828 774	30.9 31.6 25.3 41.2 28.0	49. 9 57. 6 59. 0 49. 6 49. 6	11.3 8.0 10.8 6.8 14.7	6.0 2.2 4.1 1.8 5.8	1.	
Connecticut	474 75 148 506 256	52.7 42.7 33.8 28.3 33.6	39. 5 46. 7 58. 7 52. 4 46. 9	4.9 9.3 5.4 12.8 10.2	2.5 1.8 1.4 4.7 7.0	.4 1.8 2.8	1. 192 173 248 628 628	50.0 31.2 49.7 22.3 31.4	43.4 54.9 42.7 59.6 52.7	5.0 11.0 4.8 11.3 18.2	1.5 23 28 41 1.8	2	
daho	1.055	22.0 40.9 23.4 33.7 33.1	60. 0 51. 3 61. 1 53. 4 56. 0	10.0 5.2 11.5 9.9 9.0	8.0 1.9 3.1 2.4 1.4	20 .7 .9 .6	425 4.631 4.044 2.622 1.768	22.8 30.4 26.4 24.6 26.6	51. 8 58. 2 57. 8 55. 3 56. 9	17.6 8.8 12.1 12.5 11.9	5.6 2.1 3.2 5.8 3.5	2 1. 1.	
Kentucky	97	40. 2 36. 1 39. 8 41. 6 37. 6	47. 5 43. 2 45. 1 53. 1 48. 1	7.7 15.5 9.2 3.7 10.3	23 21 33 13 82	23 3.1 2.6 .3 .8	977 1, 206 785 773 3, 564	27.0 22.5 36.5 34.7 51.2	59. 0 61. 2 46. 5 54. 4 41. 4	10.8 12.2 12.4 8.4 5.7	29 3.0 3.8 21 1.3	i	
Michigan Minnesota Missistippi Missouri Montana	148 635	33.8 41.8 23.0 22.7 36.9	55.7 49.3 55.4 64.2 41.8	7.6 5.7 15.5 6.8 12.3	24 22 3.4 4.6 7.4	.5 1.0 2.7 1.7 1.6	3, 975 2, 422 481 1, 972 522	32.5 28.7 29.7 22.6 28.4	56.3 54.8 55.6 59.3 52.9	8.9 11.3 10.4 12.5 13.0	1.8 4.0 8.3 4.7 8.4	1 1 2	
Nebraska Nevada New Hampshire New Jersey New Mexico	325 36 138 1,645	19.7 22.2 26.1 45.2 16.5	52. 2 47. 7	5. 2	7.1 11.1 8.7 1.2 4.4	5.8 20 .7 4.4	1, 248 100 414 3, 284 248	21.7 11.0 28.0 47.9. 16.9	54. 7 67. 0 52. 9 45. 9 67. 4	15.3 10.0 14.5 4.8 10.5	6.1 7.0 8.4 1.2 8.2	2 5 1	
New York North Carolina North Dakota Ohlo Oklahoma	3, 551 332 113 2, 646	49. 1 29. 8 28. 3 38. 5 28. 8	44. 3 51. 4	8.8	1.8 3.6 11.5 1.7 4.0	7.1 .4 1.3	8, 522 1, 661 583 5, 481 1, 110	53. 6 19. 7 12. 4 31. 1 20. 5	41.3 66.2 47.3 52.5 62.8	4.2 11.5 18.4 11.0 13.1	.8 23 13.2 4.1 3.0	8 1	
Oregon	3, 966	85. 4 43. 6 53. 1 85. 1 22. 3	47. 5 35. 0 50. 6	6.8 11.7	28	2.8	270 497	30. 5 35. 9 46. 2 30. 6 21. 7	58. 0 52. 1 45. 2 51. 9 50. 9	8.8 5.6 14.1		1	
Pånnesses	1, 204 365 47	25. 5 36. 5 20. 0 27. 7 35. 2	54. 8 58. 2 40. 4	7. 1 14. 2 21. 3	6.0 8.5	· 1.6	3, 263 412 282	25. 9 31. 2 31. 8 26. 6 21. 7	57. 5 52. 6 48. 2	8.3 11.2 15.2	3.2 5.0	1 1 6 1	
Washington West Virginia Wisconsin Wyoming	515 112 865	37.9	65. 1 52. 3	6.0	1.8	1.8	159 2, 192	27. 9 28. 9 37. 5 28. 4	63. 6 54. 8	6.8	1.2		
Total	34, 257	37.0	51.0	8.1	2.8	1.1	82, 627	34. 3	6x 6	9.4	2.8		

Other studies and general observation of those placing secondary teachers would indicate that the majority of beginning high-school teachers have to give instruction in three or more subjects. This condition would justify the prospective high-school teacher in securing at least a minimum preparation in three teaching fields.



TABLE 21.—Relation of size of secondary staff to the number of fields in which faculty members give instruction

Number of fields in which	Number	of teache	rs of same	type in the	building	Total		
instructors,teach	3 or 4	5 to 9	10 to 24	25 to 99	100 or more	Percent	Number	
1	1	3	4	5		7	8	
Junior high school:  1 subjects 2 subjects 3 subjects 4 subjects 6 or-more subjects Number involved Percent of total Senior high school: 1 subjects 2 subjects 3 subjects 4 subjects 5 subjects 6 or more subjects Number involved Percent of total	33. 9 46. 8 10. 4 6. 0 1. 8 1. 1 3,088 9. 9 19. 0 54. 1 17. 2 7. 2 1. 8 7,7444 9. 9	29. 6 53. 0 12. 0 4. 1 9. 4 4. 411 14. 5 20. 3 57. 9 1. 1 . 3 15, 348 20. 5	8, 130 26, 8 29, 4 58, 7 9, 3 2, 1 118, 273 24, 4	42. 5 50. 2 5. 9 1. 4 14, 330 47. 1 42. 4 52. 2 4. 4 . 8 . 1 . 1 28, 199 35. 0	48. 1 45. 2 5. 9 . 4 . 4 . 509 1. 7 51. 7 43. 8 8. 6 . 2 . 1 7, 632 10. 2	37. 8. 51. 0 7. 9 2. 4 .6 .3 33. 3 54. 3 9. 0 2. 6 .6 .7	11, 500 15, 503 2, 388 748 163 1001 30, 406 40, 406 4, 947 40, 669 6, 767 1, 952 416 145 74, 896	

Variation among States.-Inspection of any column in table 20 reveals the same divergence in State practice as has been shown in previous tables in this part of the Survey. Among the junior high school teachers teaching in only one field the percentage varied from 14.1 percent in Alabama to 53.1 percent in Rhode Island. At the other extreme the number of junior high school teachers teaching in three or more different fields varied from 39.5 percent in Alabama to 5.3 in Maryland. Since most of the difficulties connected with this problem are caused by the number of teachers who teach 3, 4, and 5 or more different subjects it is helpful to know that in 1930-31, Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming all had 20 percent or more of their junior high school teachers teaching three or more subjects. California, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Illinois, Maryland, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Wisconsin all had less than 10 percent of their junior high school teachers teaching in three or more different fields.

The variations were fully as great for the senior, high school teachers. The ranges were in fact quite similar as were the conditions regarding the percentages of senior high school teachers teaching in three or more fields. Colorado, Idaho, Nebraska, Nevada, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming in 1930–31 had more than 20 percent of their senior high school teachers teaching three or more subjects, while California, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, West Virginia, and Wisconsin had less than 10 percent.

These comparisons for both junior and senior high schools show distinctly that the problem of the number of different subjects taught

is very directly affected by the density of population of a State—the extent of its urbanization with the larger high schools in the cities and the opportunities for concentration of teaching fields. The problem is also affected by the extent to which a State has developed its high-school program (the percent of boys and girls of high-school age who go to high school) and also by the extent to which a program of consolidation of the smallen high schools has been put into effect. In some instances the number of small high schools is a result of State limitation in ability to support extensive programs of secondary education.

Subject combinations taught by high-school teachers.—The second most pressing problem in the preparation of high-school teachers is the selection of the most desirable combinations of subjects for which to prepare teachers. Should the choice be in terms of the relationship between the fields, e.g., should prospective teachers of English select an ancient or a modern language for a second subject? Should the choice of a second field be made in order to open to the teacher a new and unrelated field in which, however he has a personal interest. e.g., a mathematics major who desires to ruinor in fine arts? Should the choice of teaching combinations of subjects be made in terms of the demands of the field as indicated by the number of students registered for different courses in the types of schools to which the prospective teachers will go for their initial teaching experience? Other bases of selection could be listed, each reflecting to some degree different theories for the education of secondary teachers or different attitudes toward the curricula of secondary schools.

It was impossible for the Survey to evaluate these different practices and theories. It was possible, however, to assemble data which would present actual conditions with respect to teaching combinations in the high schools. Table 20 showed that 37 percent of the junior high school teachers and 34.3 percent of the senior high school teachers in 1930-31 were teaching in only one field. Table XV, appendix, listed for each subject-matter field the number of senior high school teachers teaching that field only and the number of semester-hours of college credit earned in each field. From the data in table XV, appendix, the percentage of all senior high school teachers teaching in only one field who were teaching in each of the teaching fields were computed. These percentages were: Agriculture and forestry, 1.6; art and drawing, 2.4; biological science, 2.8; business and commerce, 15.4/ education and teacher training, 0.02; English, 21; classic languages/3.6; modern language, 5.7; health and physical education, 4.6; home economics or household arts, 6.6; physical science, 4.3; mathematics, 11.4; music, 2.2; history, sociology, and economics, 11.9; and trades and industries and industrial arts, 6.4. These percentages or similar percentages computed from table XV, appendix, for individual States should be considered in the development of any State program for determining



the number of high-school teachers needed in any field for that State. The numbers teaching in only one field, however, represent merely a part of the picture. There remain the numbers teaching in each field as 1 of 2 or more teaching fields. These groups, including as they do nearly two-thirds of the secondary teachers, include individuals teaching almost every conceivable combination of the subjects taught in high schools: Some combinations are more logical and occur more frequently than others. The knowledge of what such combinations are should be of service to all persons responsible for guiding prospective teachers in their choice of fields of specialization. The combinations of the main teaching field and of the second, or "next main"-teaching field for teachers teaching in two or more fields in 1930-31 are presented for junior high school teachers in table 22 and for senior high school teachers in table 23. Both of these tables will repay careful study by anyone interested in this problem. Each table contains material for the general student advisor, which will assist in providing the necessary overview of the whole problem, and each table contains data of desided significance to the teachers and advisors in each of the teaching fields. It is not necessary or desirable to make a detailed analysis of these two tables. A few of the more important and interesting relationships will be indicated merely as suggestions of the kind of information available in them.

TABLE 22.—Major and minor teaching combinations of junior high school teachers instructing in 2 or more fields, school year 1930-31

4	PoA						h	Cinor	ten	ching	Balc	1				-
Major teaching field	Total number involved	Agriculture and	Art and drawing	Biological actences	Business and com-	Education and teacher training	English	Classic languages	Modern languages	Health and physical scale education	Home economics or household arts	Physical sciences	Mathematics	Music	History, sociology, economics	Trades and indus- tries and indus- trial arts
1.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		10	11	13	-13	14	15	16	17
Agriculture and forestry Art and drawing. Biological sciences. Business and commerce Education and teacher	198 793 912 688	0.8	2.2	1.2	1.0 1.0	3.8	17. 7 31. 5 16. 3 23. 0	1.0	24	9.8 6.0 7.2 3.8	2.0 8.1 1.6 1.3	81. S	11. 4 8. 6 15. 9 30. 3	1. 2	12.4	5.2 18.4 .8
training nglish lassic languages fodern languages salth and physical edu-	5, 174 614 527	.4	5.5 2.7 .2 1.7	7.8 3.2 2.0 1.9	1.5	3.8	20.0 42.2 42.8	8.5	3.6 11.5 21.3	11.0 6.2 .6 1.6	1.4	3.0	12.7 13.8 13.3 9.8	3.7	25. 4 40. 6 16. 1 19. 5	7. 8
OUDS comomics	1, 200	1,8	21	12.0	2.5	40	17.6	.7	2.1		21	11. 2	11,5	2.0	25, 3	5.2
househeld arts	1, 989 1, 087 8, 644 890	1.7		17. 1 18. 8 5. 2 1. 4		5.2 1.7 2.6 5.1	22.9 13.2 34.5 39.3	1.0 3.8 1.7	1.0 1.7 4.0 5.9	9.5 6.8 5.2 4.9	.7		11 2 3		9.8 21.0 27.3 16.1	41.8 1.1 1.6 1.7
economies. rades and industries and industrial arts.	1, 600	.4	23	3.2	21	8.8	80.4	2.2	5.5	4.0	- 1	7. 1	13. 3	22		1.4
Total	936 19, 111	8.	19.9	4.8	2.3	22	19. 8	4.0	6.0		-	-	22.0	-	18.9	1.8



TABLE 23.—Major and minor teaching combinations of senior high school teachers instructing in 2 or more fields, school year 1930-31

	8	Minor teaching field														
Major teaching field	Total number involved	Agriculture and forestry	Art and drawing	Biological sciences	Business and com- merce	Education and teacher training	Rugilsh	Classic languages	Modern languages	Health and physical education	Home economics or household arts	Physical sciences	Mathematics	Music	History, sociology, economics	Trades and indus- tries and indus- trial arts
1	1	8	4			7	8		10	11	13	13	14	1.5	16	17
Agriculture and forestry Art and drawing Biological sciences. Business and commerce Education and teacher	1, 299 754 3, 443 4, 159	1.8	0.9		2.5 1.2 1.5	4.5 6.0 2.1 2.9	3.3 14.6 11.2 24.0	0.4	3.1 3.2 5.8	6.9 3.8 7.1 4.5	0.2	17. 6 3.3 36. 1 2.9	7. 2 10. 7 14. 8	0.6		Li
training. English. Classic languages. Modern languages Health and physical	251 11, 199 8, 470 8, 419	. 2	.1	2.8 2.8 1.9 1.9	1.9	3.3 .7 1.8	27. 6 34. 4 38. 9	7. 7 17. 7	19. 6 28. 8		3.4 2.1 .8	2.0	11.3	29	36. 5	
education	2, 012	2.5	.9	16. 4	2.4	44	12.4	.8	26		1.6	10.0	12.0	1.0	38.7	6.8
household arts Physical sciences Mathematics Music Elistory, sociology, eco-	8, 117 2, 853 6, 841 - 749	20		8.2	1.6 1.3 3.8 2.5	1.6	19.7 3.7 13.9 32.7	1.0	2.4 1.6 6.7 6.8	7.9	.0	17. 4 28. 2 4. 1	41.1	1.2 1.0 1.1		
nomics.  Trades and industries and industrial arts	6, 434	.5	. 8 17. 7	150		4.0	45.0	8.4	8.9	11.6	.7	100	10.8	1.2		ુ∶.7
Total	82, 768	1.0			22	20	17.6	-	9. 2	-	1.4	100	11.0	-	19.6	1.7

Teaching combinations of subjects in junior high school.—Table 22 indicates that of the junior high school teachers who taught agriculture and forestry as their main field, 18.2 percent taught biological sciences, 17.7 percent English, 9.3 percent health and physical education, 7.3 percent physical sciences, and 16.1 percent history, sociology. and economics as their second or "next main" teaching fields. biological sciences are the most closely related to agriculture and forestry and yet almost as many of these teachers had English or history as a second subject as had biology. The distribution of second subjects for teachers of agriculture was more scattered than for teachers of some of the other subjects. This was due in part to the fact that in many high schools there was not enough work offered in agriculture to occupy the entire teaching time of a teacher and he was therefore used to "fill in" wherever there was an extra class to be taught. In the case of the teachers of fine arts the combinations were more clearly marked. More than half of the junior high school teachers of fine arts had as their second teaching subject English or mathematics or history. Not only are these three fields ones in which a large majority of junior high school students take work, but they are subjects whose content is related in many ways to the field of fine arts. Nearly a third of the teachers whose main teaching field was biology taught the physical sciences as a second field.

More than half of the junior high school teachers whose main teaching field was business and commerce most frequently taught either English or mathematics as their second subject. Similar specific

relationships can be noted for the other subjects.

Two or three general observations can also be drawn from table 22. In 1930-31 in the junior high school, history and English were outstandingly the most frequently taught second subjects, due without doubt to the fact that so many teachers had been required to take English and history both in high school and college that they were considered capable of teaching one or more classes in those subjects when needed. On the other hand, the fields requiring extensive special instruction, such as agriculture, the languages (classic and modern), health and physical education, home economics, and industrial arts were found as second teaching subjects in relatively few cases. The same was true of subjects like art and music in which a special ability or degree of skill is required of the teachers.

From table 22 can also be drawn the subject combinations which occur in two-fifths or more of the cases. Such combinations were: English and history, classic language and English, modern language

and English, music and English, and history and English.

Teaching combinations in the senior high school.—Inspection of the data in table 23 reveals that the relationships in subject matter play a much more important role in determining teaching combinations in the senior high schools than was true of the junior high schools. Senior high school teachers of agriculture and forestry in two-fifths of the cases taught biological science as their second teaching field with the physical sciences ranking next as a second subject. is in sharp contrast to the situation found for the junior high school teachers, for whom English and history were each almost as frequently taught as second subjects as was biology. Table 23 also shows that fine arts and industrial arts were taught by the same teachers in 31.3 percent of the cases and that a similar relationship (36.2 percent) existed for the biological sciences and the physical sciences. relationship was marked among the four subjects of English, history, classic language, and modern language.

The same conditions about which general observations were made for the junior high school appear to have existed in the senior high school teaching combinations except that they were somewhat less marked. History, English, and mathematics were clearly the three fields most frequently combined with each other and with other subjects as second teaching subjects and the so-called "special subjects" and the fine arts and music were infrequently used as second teaching fields.

Number of teachers in each field.—The percentages given in tables 22 and 23 may be misleading unless those who use them remember



that the number of teachers in each group varies—that the percentages are not comparable so far as total number of teachers is concerned. For example, the percent of senior high school teachers of agriculture who also taught history was the same as the percent of history teachers who taught classical languages, and yet the actual number of teachers in the history-classical language combination is approximately five times the number in the agriculture-history combination. A further check on this element of table 23 may be made from the totals in tables XVI and XVII, appendix.

\*Teaching load in clock-hours per week .- One other element which enters into this picture is the teaching load in terms of the number of clock-hours of teaching per week. The data on this question from the National Survey of the Education of Teachers are presented in Some interesting conclusions may be drawn from the comparisons between the teaching load of junior and senior high school Junior high school teachers taught more clock-hours per week than did senior high school teachers. There was relatively little relationship between size of community and the teaching load of secondary teachers. While the median load for both junior high school and senior high school teachers fell in the step 25-29 clockhours, there were more teachers in both groups teaching more than 30 clock-hours per week than there were teaching fewer than 25 clockhours. The secondary teachers teaching fewer than 15 clock-hours per week were obviously part-time teachers, teaching principals, or teachers with some work in the elementary schools. With approximately one-third of the secondary teachers teaching 30 or more clockhours per week, it is clear that many of these teachers were carrying a teaching load too heavy to permit efficient work.

TABLE 24.—Teaching load of junior and senior high school teachers distributed by varying population areas

	Teaching load, clock-hours per week									
School located in	1-0	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	More than 85			
s 1		3	4		6	7	. 6			
Junior high school:  Open country  Villages of less than 2,500 population  Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population  Cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population  Cities of 100,000 population or more	2048	0.3 1.0 1.0 .7	4.9 7.2 5.8 4.8 4.7	17. 7 17. 9 18. 5 19. 8 20. 2	33. 1 27. 6 34. 0 36. 0 32. 7	33.3 31.8 28.5 28.6 31.1	6.8 . 8.1 6.4 5.8 7.8			
Total	452	1.7	8.1	19.6	33.7	29. 9	6.8			
Senior high school: Open country Villages of less than 2,500 population Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 population Cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population Cities of 100,000 population or more.  Total	8.9 8.1 8.2 4.2 4.0	1.6 1.4 1.5 1.8 2.8	10.3 11.5 9.6 11.3 18.9	24. 4 25. 9 21. 7 22. 7 17. 7	31.0 26.3 32.6 33.0 22.9	24.8 23.7 22.4 21.5 27.8	4.5 6.1 7.0 5.5 6.4			



#### SUMMARY

 So many secondary teachers are required to teach 2 or more subjects, especially when they begin teaching, that they should prepare to teach in 2 or 3 teaching fields.

2. The probability that a secondary teacher will teach in only one field increases with the size of the school and the size of the community

in which he works:

3. Prospective teachers in secondary schools should select the combinations of subjects which they expect to teach in the light of the teaching combinations which exist in the areas in which they are expecting to work, and also in terms of the probable number of teachers who will be needed in each field.

4. Junior high school teachers taught more subjects than senior high school teachers and there was less relationship among the subjects taught by junior high school teachers than among those taught

by senior high school teachers.

5. While the median teaching load for secondary teachers was between 25 and 29 clock-hours per week, the fact that one-third of all secondary teachers were teaching more than 30 clock-hours per week, indicated the strong probability that many of these teachers were carrying teaching loads inconsistent with effective instruction.



#### CHAPTER V

## SUPPLY AND DEMAND STUDIES

GENERAL SITUATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Changing status of supply and demand.—It is easy to discover in studying the history of education in the United States that there have . been recurring periods of "shortage" and of "surplus" in the supply of teachers available for work in the American public schools. These periods bear a rough reciprocal relationship to the past sequences of periods of "prosperity" and of "depression"—when times were good there were not enough teachers and when times were bad there were too many teachers. Instead of being a mere coincidence this relationship presents one of the fundamental difficulties in making teaching a profession and in successfully controlling the supply and demand of teachers. It shows that teaching has been held in such low public. esteem and has been rewarded on such a meager basis that many teachers desert the work whenever they can earn more money in some other line of work and that they, as well as others, turn to teaching when other work is either not available or is less remunerative. Teaching in this way has been subjected to a series of personnel disturbances periods of excessive turnover-in which it was forced to adjust to the loss of many of its best teachers or else to adjust to the destructive competition of large numbers of teachers without positions.

The last two of these upsets are quite fresh in the minds of most teachers. During and immediately following the World War there was a serious shortage of teachers. So serious was the shortage then that teachers were frequently recruited from among boys and girls part way through their high-school courses. Temporary certificates were issued freely and little attempt was made in many places to maintain standards. As one county superintendent said in talking about his methods of issuing temporary certificates to teachers, "Of course, I cannot maintain standards. It's all I can do to maintain

schools."

In less than 10 years the situation was completely reversed. The oversupply of teachers with certificates permitting them to teach was troubling the school authorities of nearly every State. To be sure, some of the oversupply was caused by teachers with less than the desired amount of training who had, in many instances, been urged to enter teaching but a few years before in order to "save the schools" and who were loathe, now that the schools were saved, to relinquish



their positions to others even though the others were better prepared for the work. Toward the close of the last decade there were many communities in which numerous classrooms were "presided over" by inadequately prepared teachers while adequately prepared teachers were unemployed in the same communities and either working at some occupation other than teaching or living at home or with relatives and exhausting any available savings. Not only did this anomalous situation exist but the presence of the large numbers of unemployed teachers did much to destroy the professional morale of those who were employed.

Oversupply of teachers in 1929.—This was the situation frequently reported, especially from the larger cities during the school year 1928-29 and very generally reported in 1929-30. Stories were current that some of the larger cities had enough unemployed teachers available to supply all needs for new teachers for the next 10 years without any new teachers being prepared. Some States reported unemployed teachers in numbers equal to a third of the total teaching force in the State. Whenever it was possible to secure reliable data upon those estimates of the number of unemployed teachers they were found to be exaggerations—overstatements caused by failure to give proper consideration to a number of factors. Some of these factors should be listed in order that any future computations may make proper allowance for them.

(a) Many of the unemployed teachers were inadequately prepared and should never have received teachers' certificates. It is unwise to include such teachers, either employed or unemployed, in computation of unemployment unless an allowance is made for that proportion of them who will bring their preparation up to the approved minimum within a reasonable period of time.

(b) It is inaccurate to assume, if the number of unemployed teachers is, for example, 10 times the number of new teachers needed last year, that the surplus constitutes a supply for the next 10 years. There is no assurance that the number of new teachers needed will remain constant, over a 10-year period, nor that all the teachers who were unemployed will remain available until they are needed during the 10-year period. Some may die, others get married, still others find satisfactory employment in other lines of work and those who are available after an 8- or 9-year wait will be out-of-date and out-of-practice so far as their teaching ability is concerned.

(c) Many of the so-called "unemployed" teachers who are listed in the totals available are teachers who at the time are teaching some place but who are frequent applicants for more desirable positions. These applications or the keeping of the names of these teachers upon "waiting lists" gives a false impression of



the number of teachers available. It is possible for an employed teacher to be included in the "available lists" of several school systems and yet he could not be employed in any of them without leaving a vacancy in the school where he is teaching.

(d) Conditions are not comparable between the larger cities and the rural and village situations. Many teachers are unwilling to accept positions in smaller places preferring to remain unemployed or employed at some temporary work while they wait their turn for employment in the larger city—usually their home city.

(e) Many of the teachers included in the estimated numbers of unemployed are specialists or are prepared to teach certain grades or certain subjects and not prepared to accept other positions. It is obviously inaccurate to include such persons in a single total. An extreme case will illustrate this. There may be 500 unemployed teachers in a city and none of them qualified to teach in a nursery school or French in a high school.

If allowance could have been made for some or all of the foregoing factors in the estimates of the oversupplies of teachers which have been made since 1929-30 the numbers would have been greatly reduced. The principal reason why these allowances were not made is because it was and still is almost impossible to secure accurate data upon any of the elements mentioned. Registrations with employment agencies or city waiting lists even if available would have to be checked name by name in order to eliminate duplicates. Lists of certificates issued are equally unsatisfactory because of the practice of having certificates approved and registered in several States in which a teacher hopes to secure employment. The number of applicants for any educational vacancy for reasons already given is also a much "padded" list.

The foregoing explanations should not be interpreted as an attempt to prove that there has been no oversupply of teachers since 1929. They are intended to indicate only that the condition was often exaggerated, not intentionally but because essential data were not available. There was most assuredly an oversupply of teachers holding valid certificates for teaching and in most cities and some States there was also an oversupply of teachers who had the approved minimum of professional preparation. In organizing the work of the Survey such an oversupply was assumed and it was decided that no special studies would be undertaken to discover the exact nature and extent of the oversupply. This decision was reached because of the very costly and time-consuming work required to locate the unemployed teachers and also because it would be of little value to those responsible for the education of teachers to know merely the number of unem-

ployed teachers. A few thousand more or less would make no difference in determining what measures are needed to correct the situation unless it was possible to know the preparation of the unemployed teachers, when the preparation was obtained, its extent, nature and field of specialization, the teacher's experience, his success record, his present attitude toward teaching and the present condition of his health. The time and resources at the disposal of the Survey would not have been adequate for this task. It was therefore assumed that there was a serious teacher surplus and that something should be done to reduce it, to prevent it from increasing, and, if possible, to prevent future recurrences of it.

Supply and demand studies of individual States.—Attempts to study the supply of and the demand for teachers have been made at irregular intervals by cities, States, and educational organizations. Since the present surplus began to be noticeable and disturbing several States have sponsored one or more studies of their teaching personnel with the hope that a better adjustment between supply and demand could be effected. These studies have in each case thrown considerable light upon the conditions in the State studied and have also furnished suggestions for other similar studies, but the data presented and the recommendations have been confined entirely to the situation in the States studied.

Many of these State studies made important contributions to the methods of studying the problems of supply and demand for teachers and should be consulted by those responsible for the development of programs for the education of teachers in any State. An annotated list of many of these State studies is given in volume I.¹ Those listed below ² are selected because they represent distinctly different types of approach to the problem or because they present useful summaries or bibliographies. These and other studies have been consulted by the Survey staff in order to discover the extent to which the returns of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers are representative samples of those States in which the State studies had obtained larger percentages of returns. When a State study is available it should be used in connection with the returns from the National Survey in



l Betts, Gilbert L., Frazier, Benjamin W., and Gamble, Guy C. Selected Bibliography on the Education of Teachers. Office of Education, Bulletin 1938, no. 10, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, vol. 1.

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Eliassen, R. H., and Anderson, Earl W. The Supply of Teachers and the Demand. Educational Research Bulletin, vol. IX, no. 16. Columbus, Ohio. Ohio State University, Nov. 5, 1980. (Summary and bibliography.)

Hubbard, Frank. Teacher Demand and Supply. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, vol. IX, no. 5, November 1931. Extensive bibliography.

Overn, A. V. Indices of Supply and Demand of Teachers in Minnesota. Minnesota, Minnesota, Minnesota, 1932.

Paterson, E. T., Linguest, E. F., Jeep, H. A., and Price, M. P. Teacher Supply and Demand in Iowa. Iowa City, University or Iowa Studies in Education, vol. VII, no. 2, June 15, 1982.

making proposals for teacher education programs in that State. If the State studies were made for the same year as the National Survey they should be used to check the data presented in this report. If the data for the State studies were obtained either before or after 1930-31 (the date when the National Survey data were obtained) the data from the two studies should be used to establish trends within that State.

Supply and demand data obtained by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers.—In the data blank sent by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers to all teachers and professional workers in the public-school systems two sets of questions were inserted in order to procure data upon the principal reasons for the demand for new teachers and upon the principal sources of the supply of new teachers. Every teacher who was new to his position in 1930–31 was asked to supply the information requested in the two following questionnaire items:

37

Answer This if You Were Not Employed in the Present School System Last Year (1929-30)

The one reason that explained the demand for your services this school year 1930-31

- O Predecessor died.
- 1 Predecessor retired.
- 2 Predecessor entered college.
- 3 Predecessor married.
- 4 Predecessor left to teach somewhere else in the State.
- 5 Predecessor left to teach in another State.
- 6 Predecessor entered another profession or occupation.
- 7 Predecessor left on leave of absence, illness, etc.
- 8 Hold newly created position.
- 9 Other

38

Answer This IF, You Were Not Employed in Present School System Last Year (1929-30)

Where were you last year?

- College or university in same State.
- 1 Teacher-training class, normal school or teachers college in same State.
- 2 Another school system in same State.
- 3 College or university in another State.
- 4 Teacher-training class, normal school, or teachers college in another State.
- 5 Another school system in another State.
- 6 A position other than in educational work.
- 7 Leave of absence.
- 8 Return to teaching, having some occupation other than education the past year.
- 9 Other



Following the policy of making significant data from the Survey available as soon as possible the three tables which summarized the data from this study by States and for elementary teachers, junior high school teachers, and senior high school teachers were published in the January, February, and March issues of School Life for 1932. The tables and some of the interpretative material are included in this chapter because it belongs here as a matter of record and also because it represents one of the most important contributions to this section of the Survey and to the study of the difficult and pressing problem of adjusting the supply of teachers to the demands for new teachers. Table 25 gives the data by States on the supply of and demand for elementary teachers in the United States, 1930-31. In order to use correctly this table and the other tables dealing with this topic two terms should be defined and two cautions expressed. The two terms are "new teacher" and "mobility ratio." A "new teacher" as used in this study is defined by items 37 and 38 of the Inquiry No. 1 as "a teacher who was not employed in the present school system" last year (1929-30)." The data were gathered in 1930-31. The "mobility ratio" is the ratio of the number of "new teachers" in a State to the total number of teachers in that State. If a State had 10,000 elementary teachers and 2,000 of them were "new teachers" the mobility ratio would be 2,000:10,000 or 1:5 which can be read as "1 of every 5 elementary teachers was new."

The first caution which should be expressed is that the percentages given in the body of these tables are percentages of the "new teachers" and not percentages of the total group of teachers in the State. presents no difficulty when the situation for only one State is under consideration. It may be confusing when comparisons between two States are attempted. In illustration will indicate the difficulty. State "A" has a mobility ratio of 1-2 and shows that 10 percent of the predecessors left to enter college. Another State "B" also shows 10 percent of the predecessors left to enter college but its mobility ratio is 1-4. Instead of having the same proportion of their teachers entering college as might be suggested by each State having 10 percent listed in the table, State "A" has twice as large a percentage entering college as does State "B." State "A" according to its "mobility ratio" has 50 percent of its teachers "new" and 10 percent of those, or 5 percent of the total group, entered college. State "B", on the other hand, had 25 percent of its teachers "new" and 10 percent of those, or 2.5 percent of the total group, entered college. An actual case from table 25 will serve as an additional illustration. Column 7 shows that approximately 6.5 percent of the new teachers in both Tennessee and South Dakota replaced teachers who resumed college work. In Tennessee, the ratio between "new" teachers and the total number of elementary teachers was 1; 6.12, the corresponding



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## EXPLANATION

This table should be read as follows: There were 4,163 elementary teachers in Alabama who answered Inquiry No. 1; there were 780 of these who had not taught in their present positions during last year (1929-30); there was 1 "new" elementary teacher in every 5.34 elementary teachers; Me of 1 percent of the "new" elementary teachers were cocupying \*A "new" beacher is, for the purposes of this study, defined as one "who was not employed in present school system last year (1920-30)." positions in which the predecessor dies; 8.1 percent had positions from which the predecessors retired, and so on for the other percents. figure for South Dakota being 1: 2.21. In South Dakota 2.94 percent of the total number of teachers represented replacement of elementary teachers who resumed their college work (6.5 percent x 1/2.21). In Tennessee the equivalent figure was 1.06 percent (6.5 x 1/6.12). Whenever interstate comparisons are made from these tables the percentages should be multiplied by their State "mobility ratios" in order to make them comparable. The second caution is that for a few States from which the returns were relatively low the number of "new" teachers in some of the classifications was too small to produce percentages which were reliable. In some instances the groups were so small that percentages were not computed. Since the number of returns is given in each table it is possible to check this item which is more troublesome for the junior high school group (because of the smaller numbers involved) than for the others.

Demand for and supply of elementary teachers in the United States. 1930-31.—Table 25 shows that of the 249,462 elementary teachers who returned answers to the questions, 51,131 were "new" to their positions, i.e., teaching for the first time in the particular positions held during 1930-31. This gives a "mobility ratio" of 1 to 4.87 for the country as a whole, which means that approximately 1 in every 5 elementary teachers in the United States was "new" to his position in 1930-31. There was, however, a wide range in this matter among the States, varying from 1 "new" teacher in every 16 in the District of Columbia and Rhode Island to 1 in every 2 in the Dakotas. This is obviously a contrast between urban and rural conditions and will be found to exist in each State. The data contained in table 25 as well as those contained in the tables for junior and senior high school teachers will be very serviceable in State studies since they give conditions within each State and also give the basis for comparisons with neighbor States, with States in the same area, with States of the same industrial development, with States of the same size or the same pop-·ulation and with States of the same relative wealth. A few samples of the kinds of facts which may be extracted from these tables will be given and then some general conclusions which are involved in the final recommendations of the Survey will be listed.

Table 25 shows that in some States the percentage of elementary teachers retiring was more than four times as large as in others. Of what significance would this be to prospective teachers?

Column 8, giving the number of "predecessors" who married, shows that in 11 States a fifth or more of the places vacated by elementary teachers the previous year had been held by teachers who married and left teaching. There seems to have been no consistent relationship between such factors as location, wealth, or urbanization of States and the percentage of "predecessors" who married and left teaching. For example, Alabama, California, Connecticut, District"



of Columbia, Florida, Maine, Mississippi, Montana, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, and Vermont all had about the same percentage of vacancies due to teachers marrying and leaving the schools. There is, however, the factor to be considered that in many instances teachers marry and do not leave teaching. The percentages in the table do not measure the number of teachers who married—merely the percentage of vacancies caused by teachers who married and left teaching.

There is also the factor of variation in the percentages of teachers who have new as indicated by the "mobility ratio." The manner in which the "mobility ratios" affected these percentages can be seen by comparing Iowa and Pennsylvania. Iowa returns showed about the same percentage of elementary teachers marrying as did those from Pennsylvania, but Iowa also had more than twice as many vacancies per given number of teachers as Pennsylvania. In other words, the vacancies filled in 1930-31 due to marriage of Iowa elementary teachers who left teaching were approximately 7 percent (21.1 percent x 1/3.04) of the total elementary group; in Pennsylvania it was but 3 percent (21.9 percent x 1/7.31).

The two columns showing the number of predecessors who left to teach elsewhere in the same State and in other States suggest many problems. Forty-two and two-tenths percent of the vacancies among elementary teachers occurred because teachers took other positions in the same States. It is quite evident from an inspection of these figures that one cause for a high rate of "mobility" was the number of elementary teachers who moved within the State. These were often moves from rural schools to villages and from villages to larger cities and are more noticeable in States having larger percentages of teachers in the open country. A relatively small percentage of elementary teachers left one State to teach in another. Delaware, Idaho, Nevada, and New Hampshire were the only States in which as many as 10 percent of the elementary teachers who left their positions at the end of the school year, 1929–30, did so to accept positions in other States.

Small percentages of elementary teachers left teaching for other occupations in most of the States. The transfer to other professions and occupations for the country as a whole was only 6.5 percent. Even smaller percentages left on leaves of absence or because of illness—the percentage for the entire country was only 8.6. It is significant that there was a slightly larger percentage of vacancies caused by leaves of absence among elementary teachers than among high-school teachers. The high-school percentage for this item was 3.5.

The differences among States in the matter of the number of "newly created positions" are also of interest to prospective teachers. Eleven States had 5 percent or less of their "new" teachers holding



newly created positions, while 10 States had from 3 to 4 times that percentage. When these figures are checked against the "mobility ratios", the percentages of newly created positions for Texas and New Jersey were about the same and yet the percentage of "new" teachers was 25 for Texas and 10 for New Jersey. On the basis of these returns 1 in 20 of the elementary positions in texas was newly created and 1 in 50 in New Jersey.

The second part of table 25 deals with what the "new" elementary teachers were doing in 1929-30. This gives an idea of the sources from which these teachers came. Columns 15, 18, and 19 show the percentages of "new" elementary teachers who were in higher educational institutions the previous year. The percentage of "new" elementary teachers in colleges and universities during the preceding year varied from 37 percent in Utah to one-half of 1 percent in Connecticut. The percentages of elementary teachers coming from normal schools or teachers colleges within the individual State varied from more than 50 percent in the District of Columbia and Maryland to less than 10 percent in 9 States. Only 1.7 percent of the "new" elementary teachers attended colleges or universities in other States and even fewer (1.4 percent) attended normal schools or teachers colleges in other States.

The most important source of supply for new teachers was from other school systems within the same State. This about balanced the loss of those who left to teach elsewhere in the same State and was undoubtedly the result of differences in salary schedules and in the desirability of different teaching positions. Not many new elementary teachers came from other States although in 10 States 1 or more out of every 10 were teaching the previous year in another State.

The number of new elementary teachers who came from positions outside school work were in a majority of the States fewer than the number who left teaching to enter another occupation or profession. There was, however, a distinct influx of teachers who returned to teaching after having been for a time in some other occupation. When these returning teachers (5.1 percent) are added to the number who entered from other occupations (5 percent) the total exceeds those who left teaching for other occupations or professions (6.5 percent).

These statements are but suggestions of those which will appear to any individual who studies the data in terms of a real interest in a particular State.

The demand for and supply of junior high school teachers.—Table 26 presents the supply and demand situation for junior high school teachers in 1930-31 as revealed by the answers from 36,251 teachers in junior high schools. The data are presented by States. Since 5,381 of these teachers were "new" teachers this total group had a



"mobility ratio" of 1:6,73. There was less shifting of positions among junior high school teachers than was found among elementary teachers and also less than among high-school teachers. Expressed in percentages the returns indicate that in 1930-31, 20 percent of the elementary teachers, 15 percent of the junior high school teachers, and 20 percent of the senior high school teachers were "new." As was explained in connection with the table for elementary teachers, the differences in the proportion of teachers who were "new" in the several States make very significant differences in the interpretation of this table. For example, 30 out of 100 of the junior high school teachers reporting from Alabama were "new", whereas only 9 out of every 100 were "new" in New York. The percentages given in this table for these two States are based, therefore, upon 30 percent of Alabama's junior high school teachers and upon only 9 percent of the total junior high school group for New York.

On the basis of the answers returned, New York had the fewest "new" junior high school teachers per 100 and North Dakota with 35 in each 100 had the most. When an analysis is made of why the "predecessors" of these "new" teachers left, it gives a picture of the causes of the vacancies which "demanded" new teachers.

Only 3.6 percent of the "predecessors" of these "new" junior high school teachers retired or left because of illness. This is the same percentage that was found for the high-school teachers and three-fifths of that found for the elementary group.

Six and one-tenth percent of the "predecessors" of these teachers entered college. To the extent that the teachers who answered were typical this would mean that 6.1 percent of 1-6.73 (mobility ratio), or 0.9 of 1 percent, of the junior high school teachers left to enter colleges of various kinds at the close of 1929-30. In this connection it is interesting that in practically all the States which had the largest percentages of junior high school teachers going to college there were also high "mobility ratios."

The percentage of "predecessors" who left to teach another school in the same State was only 28 for the junior high school teachers of the entire country. Corresponding percentages were 42.2 for the elementary teachers and 33.3 for the high-school teachers. Even though a smaller percentage of junior high school teachers as a total group moved to other schools within the same States, individual States varied in this respect, from Alabama with 48.8 percent to Connecticut with 8.4 percent. When these are expressed in terms of the total State groups of junior high school teachers, it means that about 15 in every 100 moved to other positions within Alabama and only 1 in 100 in Connecticut.

TABLE 28.—A picture of demand for and supply of junior high school teachers in the United States, 1930-51

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# EXPLANATION

Column 10 shows that a larger percentage of junior high school teachers accepted positions in other States than did elementary teachers. The percentages on this were 7.6 for all junior high school teachers and 3.2 for elementary teachers.

Evidence that junior high schools were increasing in size and number in 1930-31 is given in column 13, showing the percentages of "new" junior high school teachers holding newly created positions. This was 20.8 percent of all "new" teachers and is comparable to 8.8 percent for elementary teachers and 16.2 percent for high-school teachers. In other words, approximately 20 percent of all "new" junior high school teachers and 3 percent of all junior high school teachers in 1930-31 held newly created positions. There was in this factor, as in all others, wide variation among States, which when compared with "mobility ratios" gave some interesting contrasts. Most of the States with high percentages of "new" junior high school teachers who held newly created positions also had low mobility ... ratios and are populous States with large cities. On the other hand, many of the States which had small percentages of newly created positions for junior high school teachers are more sparsely populated with fewer large cities.

As was also true for both elementary and high-school teachers, about one-third of the "new" junior high school teachers in 1930-31 came from higher educational institutions within the several States. An interesting reversal occurred, however, between the percentages from colleges and universities and from normal schools and teachers colleges when elementary and junior high school teachers were compared. Twice as many of the "new" junior high school teachers were recruited from the colleges and universities within the States as from the normal schools and teachers colleges within the States. The situation was reversed for elementary teachers.

About 1 of every 3 "new" junior high school teachers was drawn from other school systems within the same States and 1 in 10 from school systems in other States. Two-fifths of the "new" teachers in this field were therefore transfers from other teaching positions.

The percentages of "new" junior high school teachers who were on leave of absence the previous year; who returned to teaching, having been in some other work; and who came from other sources were all significant because of their smallness.

Interesting as the percentages in this table may have proved to be, the reader is cautioned against staching too much significance to any single percentage for a State. The purpose was to show the total picture of demand for and supply of junior high school teachers as well as could be done by this analysis.

The demand for and supply of senior high school teachers.—The elements causing demand for senior high school teachers in the United



States in 1930-31 and the principal sources of supply for such teachers as revealed by the answers from 84,882 teachers are presented in table 27. Seventeen thousand three hundred and sixty-seven of these were "new" teachers which made a "mobility ratio" of 1-4.88. This is approximately the same as was found for the elementary teachers and more than for the junior high school teachers. The mobility ratios for high-school teachers spread over much the same range as did those for elementary teachers. The District of Columbia had only 1 "new" high-school teacher in each 16 teachers while Idaho, Mississippi, Nevada, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wyoming all had mobility ratios of more than 1-3, indicating that in those States more than a third of the high-school teachers were "new" in 1930-31. These ratios are affected by density of population, extent of urbanization, and elements which made one State a more desirable place in which to teach than other States.

The comments which can be made about the data in table 27 are similar to those given for junior high school teachers. The actual figures, of course, differ in each case but the same type of information and the same type of comparisons may be made. A few facts from the table will be mentioned because they are somewhat at variance with the conditions shown for the other two groups of teachers. There was more moving of senior high school teachers to other States than was true for either elementary or junior high school teachers. There were eight States in which larger percentages of "predecessors" left "to teach in another State" than "to teach in the same State" and several others in which the percentages were nearly equal. Four of the eight States were in New England. The percentage of senior high school "predecessors" who left to teach elsewhere in the same State was 33.3 for the entire country but varied widely among States ranging from 48.6 percent of the "new" teachers in Mississippi to 6.2 percent in the District of Columbia and 10.7 percent in Delaware. Column 13, table 27, supplies some interesting comparisons on the percentage of "new" teachers who were holding newly created positions-positions which represented educational expansion due to increase in the high-school enrollments, the addition of new services, the decreasing of the size of classes, reorganizations of school systems, or other such causes. New Jersey had 33.8 percent of "its "new" senior high school teachers holding newly created positions in 1930-31. Because the "mobility ratio" for New Jersey is 1-6.67 the 33.8 percent is not as high a percentage of the total senior high school teaching force as is, for example, the 17.5 percent of New Mexico—the next State in the list—with a mobility ratio of 1-3.19. Even with full allowance for the differences in the mobility ratios there is evidence in table 27 to indicate that in 1930-61 the high schools of several of the States were expanding very slightly in teaching personnel.



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## EXPLANATION

A "new" teacher is, for the purposes of this study, defined as "one who was not employed in present school system last year (1929-30)."

This table should be read as follows: There were 972 senior high school teachers who answered Inquiry No. 1; there were 229 senior high school teachers in Alabama who had not taught in their present positions during last year (1929-30); there was one "new" teacher for every 4.07 senior high school teachers; 0.4 percent of the "new" teachers were occupying positions in which the predecessors died; 2.5 percent had positions from which predecessors retired; and so on for the other percentages.



Table 28.—Demand for and supply of teachers in the American public schools. 1930-31

				Eleme	entary to	eachers				
	Demand for and supply of new teachers	Open- country 1- and 2- teacher schools	Open- country 3- or more- teacher schools	Villages of less than 2,500 popu- lation	Cities of 2,500 to 9,999 popu- iation	Cities of 10,000 to 99,999 popu- lation	Cities of 100,000 and more popu- lation	Total elemen- tary teachers	Junior high school teachers	Senion high school teach- ers
	1	2	3	4		•	1	8		10
1.	Total number responding									
,	to question Total number new teach-	59, 454	13, 237	50, 281	26, 703	44, 900	50, 043	244, 618	36, 251	84, 88
	ers	23, 652	3, 418	12,886	4, 187	4, 503	2,485	51, 131	5, 381	17 26
3.	Ratio of new teachers to total	1-2.5	1-3.9	1-8.9	1-6.4	1-10.0	1-20. 2	1-4.8	1-6.7	17, 36
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	REASONS	CREA	TING 1	DEMAN	ID, BY	PERCI	ENTAG	ES :		
4.	Predecessor died	0.5	1.0	0.6	1.0	1.4	2.0	0.7	1.0	0. 8
5.	Predecessor retired	6.4	7. 2	6.0	5, 5	4.5	3. 7	6.0	3.6	3.
	lege	8.0	5.9	6.2	4.3	3.4	1. 2	6.4	6.1	5.
7. 8.	Predecessor married  Predecessor left to teach somewhere else in the	13. 7	14. 3	17. 4	22. 3	25. 3	12.9	16.4	13. 6	12.
	State	51. 1	42.8	41.3	29.4	21. 6	20. 3	42.2	28.0	33.
	in another State	2.1	2.1	4.5	5. 2	4.6	1. 7	3. 2	7.6	9. 8
10.	Predecessor entered another profession or occupation.	7.9	5. 9	6.5	5.4	3.3				
11.	Predecessor left on leave	1411		5.0	3. 1	3. 3	1.6	6. 5	7. 2	9. 1
12.	of absence, illness, etc Hold newly created posi-	2.3	2.6	2.9	4.6	5. 9	15. 8	3. 6	4.6	3. (
	other reasons creating	3.3	12. 5	9, 3	15. 5	19. 5	23. 9	8.8	20.8	16. 2
١٥.	demand	4.7	5.7	5. 3	6.8	10. 5	16.9	6. 2	7. 5	5. 8
	sou	RCES (	F SUP	PLY, B	Y PER	CENTA	GES 1	1	!	
4.	College or university in									
	same State	8.8	15, 1	12. 5	12. 4	12.3	13. 7	11.0	23.0	29. 1
6.	ers college in same State. Another school system in	27. 5	22. 1	23. 2	22. 2	23. 3	23. 0	25. 0	11.1	7, 2
	same State	42. 2	40. 5	43.0	40. 9	35. 6	20. 4	40. 5	31.8	31. 4
	another State	1, 2	1. 4	1.7	3. 0	3. 4	2.6	1. 7	7. 5	7. 6
0	State	1, 2	1.3	1. 5	1.8	2.0	1. 5	1.4	1.8	- 1.2
	another State	2.1	3, 2	5. 2	7. 9	10.8	6.0	4.4	10. 4	10.7
	A position other than in educational work	5.7	5.7	4.1	2.7	2.6	10. 2	5.0	5.5	5.2
21.	Return to teaching, hav- ing some occupation	.7	. 7	7.7	ĩ. i	1, 6	6. 2	1.1	1.2	
	other than education the past year	5.7 4.9	5. 4 4. 6	4. 9 3. 2	3. 8 4. 2	3. 3 5. 1	4. 2 12. 2	5. 1 4. 8	3.6 4.1	3.5

Percentage of new teachers.

The data in table 27 concerned with the sources of supply—the record of where the "new" teachers were the preceding year—

revealed that 45.1 percent were in higher educational institutions. Four-fifths of those were attending colleges, universities or teachers colleges within the same States. Even though this would indicate that most of the States were very self-sufficient so far as educating their own senior high school teachers was concerned, there were 10 States in which more than 20 percent of their new senior high school teachers attended colleges, universities, or teachers colleges in other States during the preceding year. There were 4 States in which that percentage was less than 5.

Next in importance to colleges, universities, and teachers colleges as sources of supply for "new" senior high school teachers was "other school systems" which supplied 42 percent of the "new" teachers in 1930-31-three-fourths of them coming from other school systems in the same State. One other comment on the data in this table should be made. In 1930-31 the senor high school teaching group lost 9.1 percent of its membership to other professions or other occupations which was slightly more than it gained from the two sources-"A position other than education" and "Return to teaching having other work the preceding year."

Table 28 presents the summary percentages for the United States as a whole on the reasons for the demand and the sources of supply for "new" public-school teachers in 1930-31 as given by States in tables 25, 26, and 27. This summary is included for the convenience of those who desire to make computations on a national basis.

Columns 8, 9, and 10 are especially useful for such purposes. Effect of size of community upon supply and demand.—Some of the elements affecting both supply and demand for new teachers are strongly influenced by the size of the community in which the schools are located. This fact is very convincingly shown in table 28. Because of the larger numbers of elementary teachers available that group was distributed according to community size. In the first place the "mobility ratio" decreased from 1-2.5 in rural schools to 1-20.2 in cities of more than 100,000 population. In other words, 2 out of every 5 rural teachers in 1930-31 were "new" to the position compared to only 1 in every 20 in the larger cities.

Detailed data by States for rural schools and for cities from 10,000 to 99,999 were included as tables XVIII and XIX in the appendix. These will serve to show the wide variation among States which table 28 does not show. For example, even though the mobility for rural teachers for the entire country is 1-2.5, table XVIII, appendix, shows that there were 9 States in which the ratio was more than 1-2, 9 States in which more than half of the rural teachers in 1930-31 were "new." This transiency is one of the most troublesome problems in connection

with rural school education.



This appears again in the percentages of "predecessors" who left to teach elsewhere. The percentages diminish regularly as the communities grow larger and the diminution is even greater when these percents are multiplied by the mobility ratios. It is also indicated in table 28 that the rural schools took many more of their new teachers from normal schools, teachers colleges, colleges, and universities than did the larger communities. For example, the rural schools in 1930-31, obtained 27.5 percent of their "new" teachers from teacher-training classes, normal schools, or teachers colleges in the same States. This was 11 percent of the total rural school group (27.5 percent × 1/2.5). At the same time cities of from 10,000 to 99,999 inhabitants took only 2.3 percent (23.3 percent × 1/10) of their teachers from that source.

Other indications of demand.—For the individual interested in estimating the present demand for new teachers in any State the data presented in this chapter will supply numerous suggestions and for several of the factors will supply percentages which probably have changed little since 1930-31. Many of the tables used in this part give the number of cases, though the table is one of percentages, and so give the relative number of teachers in different classifications. For example, table 2 gives not only the relative number of teachers and other professional workers (53 classifications) employed in the United States in 1930-31 but also distributes these by the school divisions (nursery school, kindergarten, elementary, junior high school, senior high school, junior college, evening school, city, county, State). The numbers in the body of this table combined with the two sets of totals make possible many estimates concerning the probable needs in specific fields of educational work. While some of the fields in which there were but few cases could not be used for predictive purposes for a single State most of the larger groups would represent conditions for individual States more accurately than the estimates which are usually made the basis for predictions of needs. Table 3 furnishes another example of the aforementioned point. Even though table 3 deals with the ages of teachers it also gives, by States, the number of teachers in the rural schools and for elementary teachers the number in communities of different sizes. In this way it is possible to secure distributions of teachers upon most of the items included in Inquiry 1 (fig. 1 and 2). It was not possible in this report to give distributions of all the items by States. The number of such tables needed would have been prohibitively expensive.

Teachers' salaries and supply and demand.—There is little question that the salaries paid teachers exert a powerful influence upon both the demand for new teachers and the supply of new teachers. As teachers' salaries are raised (either actually or relatively in comparison with other occupations open to teachers and prospective teachers) the demand is decreased (employed teachers stay longer) and the

supply is increased (more recruits decide to be teachers). By decreasing the demand and at the same time increasing the supply the maladjustment is accelerated and the inevitable surplus mounts from two causes instead of one. The period following the World ·War was one of steadily increasing salaries for teachers-more so perhaps for teachers than for other groups of workers, who had already secured substantial salary advancements during the war. The delayed increases brought teachers' salaries in 1928-29 and 1929-30 to a point where teachers were generally being paid more than they had ever been paid before—actually as well as in purchasing power. To be sure, the same statement could also be made for many other groups at that period and it must be remembered that previous to the World War teachers had been very poorly paid so that this statement should not be interpreted as implying that teachers were overpaid or even that they were paid enough. It is evident, however, that the effect of a 10-year period of increasing salaries for teachers with its double-action effect on oversupply would be the accumulation of a tremendous surplus of teachers. The astonishing thing is that this surplus was not discovered before it was by more people. The two reasons it was not were that there was a shortage of teachers immediately following the World War which took some time to overcome and that the widespread expansion in educational services absorbed the overproduction for several years. Had this situation been realized sooner than it was and been given Nation-wide publicity the surplus might have been held back to some extent at least. Explanations and retrospective wishes do not alter the fact that there is the surplus of teachers today and that some public officials are attempting to correct the situation by drastically lowering salaries, expecting that the demand will thereby be increased (by the good teachers forced into other work) and the supply decreased (by making teaching less attractive, unfortunately to the more capable prospective recruits). This is not a satisfactory solution to the problem because it works in every way to decrease the efficiency of the school system as well as to decrease the surplus. The wiser plan would have been to hold teachers' salaries where they were, realizing that they were not high compared with other professions, select the best of the present oversupply and limit the number, and select the quality of the new recruits to be prepared for teaching.

Since 1918-19 the research division of the National Education Association has rendered an excellent service to American teachers by making salary data available every 2 years. For that reason it was decided not to study salaries of teachers in connection with the National Survey. Only two questions were included in the inquiry sent to teachers (items 23-25, figure 1). The salaries reported were tabulated by States, for men and women, and for the elementary



teachers according to the size of the community. The tabulations are on file in the United States Office of Education in Washington. Four of the salary tables are included as tables XX, XXI, XXII, and XXIII in the appendix. The salary data for rural teachers; elementary teachers in cities of 10,000 to 99,999 population, junior high school teachers and senior high school teachers were selected because the groups were large and represent the rural and urban differences as well as the difference between elementary and secondary teachers.

Some of the generalizations previously shown in salary studies and supported by the Survey data are:

- (a) That salaries increased as the size of the community increased.
- (b) That teachers in 1- and 2-teacher rural schools received less than teachers in consolidated schools.
- (c) That men teachers received on the average \$100 to \$200 more than women teachers in the elementary school and from \$200 to \$300 more in secondary schools.
- (d) That senior high school teachers received higher salaries than junior high school teachers and that junior high school teachers received higher salaries than elementary teachers.
- (e) About half of the schools were operated for 9 months and the remainder for 10 months. A few rural schools were open only 7 months and a negligible number for only 6. Eight months was the typical term for rural schools.
  - (f) There was extreme variability among the States in the median salaries paid teachers.

Tables XX to XXIII, inclusive, appendix are included in the final report more as a matter of record of the salaries paid in 1930-31 than because of the contribution they make to the solution of supply and demand problems. As has been suggested and as will be explained at a later point in the report the proper handling of teachers' salaries in the future will have much to do with the control of any State program for teacher education.

Estimates of supply and demand.—Because of the difficulties previously mentioned no attempt was made in connection with the National Survey of the Education of Teachers to obtain an accurate count of the number of teachers unemployed in 1930-31, the year for which data were gathered on the teaching personnel. Any State or city desiring such a count can obtain it but only at considerable expense of time and effort. A knowledge of the total number of unemployed teachers in any school unit will be of small value unless the school system is obligated to place all of them as openings occur. Most American school systems have satisfactory records of available teachers even though the lists contain duplicates as was pointed out in the earlier discussion of this topic. It has therefore been assumed that school executives have frequently been made aware of the oversupply of teachers and that they have on their lists of applicants teachers whom they will want to employ whenever appropriate positions are open. It is also assumed that as soon as conditions

warrant it, State, city, and county superintendents of schools will reduce the size of classes, add new services, restore suspended services and in other ways increase the general efficiency of the schools. All of these changes and restorations will call for more teachers and will help to reduce the number of adequately prepared unemployed teachers. It must also be assumed that institutions which prepare teachers will, however, not continue to do so at the same rate or the advantage gained by reducing the unemployment of teachers will be but temporary and school superintendents will be in the awkward position of having to select recently prepared teachers and ignore unemployed teachers with equal but not so recent training or else employ teachers who obtained their preparation several years before and who have spent the intervening years waiting for a position. Either solution works an injustice upon some individuals and the second would also be unfortunate for the schools—forced as they would be to select teachers whose preparation is somewhat out-moded at the time they begin to teach.

State offices of education and all agencies in a State which are responsible for the preparation of teachers will be compelled to estimate in the most accurate manner possible the rate at which qualified unemployed teachers may be absorbed into the schools and what is even more important, the number of teachers for each school division and for each subject or type of work, who will be needed over a period extending at least 10 years into the future. Such predictions of future needs cannot be made except on the basis of statistics covering recent years which may be used to indicate the direction and rate of increase or decrease. The data for the States as presented in the survey will assist in establishing points for the year 1930-31 or will serve as a check on the accuracy of the points established by State statistics for that year. Survey data should be useful in this way for such items as: The number of publicschool workers other than teachers, the size of schools, age of teachers, median years of teaching experience, highest level of education, work in education and practice teaching, subjects taught by highschool teachers, and teaching load.

Another use of these data in the formulation of predictions can be shown by the following calculations for the State of Alabama. The conditions described are of course for the school year 1930-31 and. State educational officials will have to know in what ways conditions have changed and make the necessary allowances. Table 1 shows that Alabama returns were 41.5 percent of the inquiries sent to that State. The figures given in table 25, therefore, represent a satisfactory sample. If the sample is inadequate it is probably more representative of the better teachers in Alabama than of the poorer. In 1930-31 in Alabama 780 of the 4,163 elementary teachers who



answered inquiry 1 were "new" to their positions. This is 18.7 percent of the total elementary teachers' returns. The sum of the percentages for Alabama in columns 15, 16, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23, and 24 is 57.1 percent. This sum may be considered as the maximum percent of additional "new" teachers needed that year by Alabama. but the "new" teachers were only 18.7 percent of the total. Therefore, 57.1 percent of 18.7 percent, or 10.7 percent of the elementary teaching force in Alabama, was the number of "additional new" teachers employed in 1930-31. If conditions had remained approximately constant, Alabama, on the foregoing basis, would have needed for 1931-32 "additional new" elementary teachers in numbers approximately equivalent to 10.7 percent of the total elementary teaching group for that State. This number would not have included teachers employed in other school systems in 1930-31. The 10.7 percent would have been sufficient on the basis of 1930-31 conditions to provide "new" teachers for all the teachers who during 1930-31 died, retired; went to college, married and left teaching, entered another occupation, were absent because of illness or leave of absence. or left teaching for any other reason, and in addition it would have provided teachers for the newly created positions due to growth in school population or the introduction of new forms of educational service.

An interesting thing about this calculation is that it shows the number of "new" teachers needed from the teachers colleges, colleges, and universities to be considerably less than is usually claimed. For example, in Alabama 40.3 percent of the "new" elementary teachers were in higher educational institutions the preceding year. Therefore, only 40.3 percent of the needed "new" elementary teachers (18.7 percent) were obtained in Alabama in 1930-31 from higher educational institutions. For that year 7.5 percent (40.3 percent of 18.7 percent) of the elementary teaching group of the State could have been used as a basis for computing the number of retruits for teaching needed from normal schools, teachers colleges, colleges, and universities.

Overestimates on the number of new teachers needed.—Part of the present surplus of teachers is undoubtedly due to overestimates on the part of those responsible for the preparation of programs for the education of teachers. Statements were made during and immediately following the World War that the average "teaching life" of American teachers was between 4 and 5 years. The statements were probably true at that time and especially so for the rural areas and the smaller cities. The damage was done when the ratios of 1-4 and 1-5 were used to estimate the number of new teachers needed each year in the years following the World War, for example, in 1923, or 1927. Conditions changed so rapidly following 1920 that the ratio of 1-5



for new additional teachers needed has been a constantly increasing exaggeration since that date.

If the "new" teachers who were teaching in other school systems the preceding year are excluded (they represent educational "turn-over" but not a demand for additional teachers) the data presented in table 28 if used for the country as a whole in the same way as for Alabama in the preceding illustration indicate that for the year 1930-31 the "additional new" elementary teachers needed were 11.5 percent of the total group of elementary teachers and that similar percentages for the junior and senior high-school teachers were 8.7 and 11.8 percent. Approximately three-fourths of these "additional new" teachers were in higher educational institutions the preceding year.

If the assumption is made that the returns for the country as a whole were from about half of the teachers the foregoing percentages of the total numbers responding as shown in table 28 would produce the estimates of "additional new" teachers needed for the elementary schools as 56,262, for the junior high schools as 6,286, and for the senior high schools as 20,032. (Example of computation-11.5 percent of 244,618 elementary teachers multiplied by 2 equals 56,262.) In round numbers and allowing for the possibility that the percentages might have been slightly larger had returns been received, from all teachers, the public schools in 1930-31 probably absorbed fewer than 85/000 additional new teachers. Since teachers constitute 91.3 percent of the total group as reported in table 2 it appears that in 1930-31 the need for "additional new" teachers was approximately one-tenth of the total teaching group. The use of this ratio would produce an estimate of only half as many teachers as would be obtained by the one-fifth previously mentioned. Another method of computing the number of "additional new" teachers used in 1930-31 was illustrated by Dr. Peik in volume III, part 1, chapter II, of the Survey report. By the method used and with the additional data from the Office of Education statistics it was estimated on the basis of the conditions in 1930-31 that 78,603 new teachers were needed from the higher educational institutions. This is 9.2 percent of the 854,263 public-school teachers used as a base for his calculations."

On the basis of Dr. Peik's estimate of 78,603 "new" teachers needed from higher educational institutions or on the basis of the 63,750 (three-fourths of the 85,000 additional new teachers who were in higher educational institutions the preceding year) estimated from the data in table 28, it is clear that normal schools, teachers colleges, junior colleges, colleges, and universities are preparing from 60 to 75 percent too many teachers each year. In 1930-31 normal schools and teachers colleges "graduated" from courses entitling the students to some form of teaching certificate about 50,000 students, and colleges and universities, more than 60,000 who expected to teach



(46 percent of the graduates plus those who entered teaching after completing only 1, 2, or 3 years in college). Another 10,000 prospective teachers at least were prepared in city normal schools and teachers colleges, county normal schools, private normal schools and teachers colleges, and high-school teacher-training classes. A total of 120,000 new recruits from higher educational institutions in 1929-30 is probably a conservative estimate and in 1930-31 somewhere between the two estimates given above—perhaps 70,000 of them—were placed leaving 50,000 to be added to the surplus of teachers. Again the reader must be reminded that not all of the 120,000 were satisfactorily prepared, but they were equipped to obtain teaching positions and, unfortunately for American schools, many of the teachers with the least preparation were the ones selected for positions.

Other checks, such as the median of State medians on total years of experience for all groups of teachers when weighted for the number of teachers in each group give, a result of nearly 9 years of teaching experience. This is a very rough measure of one-ninth of the total teaching group for the new teachers needed for replacement. This fraction is made larger than it is in reality because the populous urban States have higher median years of experience than more rural State with small populations, and yet the larger numbers of teachers involved are not proportionately weighted in using the medians.

As has already been stated, the data for 1930-31 cannot be used as the basis for predictions in 1934-35. They can be used as one point for establishing trends but the calculations given have been included primarily to show that most of the recent estimates of the number of teachers needed have been decidedly overestimates and to remind those responsible for making such estimates that even those for 1930-31 are in all probability now too high if for no other reasons than that the surplus has accumulated since then and can supply much of the need for several years and also the length of teacher tenure has increased since that date.

#### SUMMARY OF SUPPLY AND DEMAND STUDIES

- Maladjustments in the supply and demand of teachers have occurred at irregular intervals—usually in relation to periods of economic maladjustment.
- A serious teacher shortage during and immediately following the World War was changed to an equally serious surplus within a decade.
- 3. Many of the unemployed teachers in 1929-30 were inadequately prepared but held valid certificates to teach. Even if such teachers were not included, most States had an oversupply of teachers in 1930-31 for the schools as then organized.



- 4. Because of the difficulties of securing accurate and complete data on the unemployed teachers, no attempt to do so on a national basis was made by the Survey. The difficulties listed in connection with obtaining a usable list of unemployed teachers will assist any persons responsible for the development of such a list for a city or State.
- Several valuable supply and demand studies have been made by individual States and the results used in the preparation of programs for the education of teachers in those States.
- 6. From the analysis of the supply of and demand for teachers in the United States in 1930-31 made from the data supplied in answer to Inquiry 1 the following general statements may be made:
  - (a) Conditions of supply and demand for teachers vary so widely among States that a general statement for the country as a whole is of little value. There were some similarities among rural States or among industrial highly urbanized States and yet even adjacent States differed radically upon some factors in the supply and demand tables.
  - (b) Between two-fifths and one-half of the so-called "turn-over" among teachers was caused by teachers moving from one-position to another. This produces "turn-over" but does not affect either supply or demand.
  - (c) The demand for new teachers is less and the supply very much greater in urban areas than in rural.
  - (d) The types of institutions from which teachers are obtained vary greatly from State to State.
  - (e) The education of teachers in the United States is not confined to any one type of educational institution. In 1930-31 the normal schools and teachers colleges prepared a little more than half of the public-school teachers—the colleges and universities the remainder.
  - (f) Rural schools were compelled to operate with a teaching personnel 40 percent of which was "new" each year.
  - (g) Junior high school teachers were a more experienced and more stable group than either elementary or senior high school teachers.
- 7. Many of the tables included in part I contain distributions of the number of answers received which will enable persons working with this material to obtain number distributions as well as percentage distributions for many of the items included in inquiry 1 (figs. 1 and 2).

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8. The distribution of salaries paid teachers in 1930-31 tended to corroborate the findings of salary studies conducted by the National Education Association, Division of Educational Research.

9. Teachers' salaries were undoubtedly important factors in the present oversupply of certificated teachers. Salary schedules are so intimately connected with the control of the supply of and demand for teachers that schedules of teacher payment must be considered in the development of every State program for the education of teachers.

10. Estimates of the number of "additional new" teachers needed each year have generally been much too high—often 100 percent too high. These overestimates have encouraged States and institutions to prepare many more teachers than could be placed.

11. In 1930-31 about three-fourths of the "additional new" teachers needed were obtained from higher educational institutions.

12. Supply and demand conditions for teachers depend upon and can be materially affected by the standards of school service accepted by any unit responsible for the maintenance of a public-school system. Class size, amount of supervision, special teachers, provision and supervision of extraclass activities, more professional preparation, leaves of absences for teachers, and many other similar factors are involved in estimating the number of teachers needed and the restrictions upon the number to be educated.

#### CHAPTER VI

### RECOMMENDATIONS !

RAISING THE PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF PUBLIC SCHOOL-TEACHERS

The data presented in chapters I, II, and III of this part show conditions with respect to the educational preparation of America's teachers which prevailed in 1930-31. While there is reason to believe that some of these conditions have improved since then, there are others which have become worse. In most respects conditions have not changed enough in the 3 years since the data were collected to invalidate the conclusions or to remove the necessity for taking steps to remedy undesirable conditions found to exist at that time.

Without repeating data previously reported and summarized in the first three chapters, it is clear that the educational level of the preparation of American public-school teachers is much below that of other professions and below that of teachers in other countries. It is also much lower in some States than in others, in the rural areas than in the urban, and in the elementary schools than in the secondary.

Conditions revealed in the Survey suggest the following recommendations for raising of the standards of educational preparation of teachers:

1. The rate at which the level of educational preparation of teachers has been increased since the World War, the increased desirability of teaching as an occupation, and the present oversupply of teachers all combine to make it possible for the States to take immediate steps to raise the level of the educational preparation of their teachers. The large numbers of teachers (two-thirds of the total group) who have less than a college education make such an increase in standards desirable.

(a) All high-school training classes, county normal schools, and 1-year curricula in institutions preparing teachers should be abandoned.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Recommendations made in this and other sections of the Survey report represent the judgment of the Survey staff member responsible for the sections. In many cases the recommendations were discussed at Survey staff meetings and many were also presented and discussed before the board of consultants. The recommendations do not represent official epinious of the United States Office of Education or of the Federal Government.

- (b) Every State which has not already done so should make 2 years above high school its minimum requirement for the preservice preparation of all new elementary teachers and should set the goal of 4 or more years above high school at some date in the near future—to be determined in each State by its general educational and economic conditions and the amount of upgrading needed.
- (c) Teachers in rural schools should be as well prepared (in point of time required for preservice preparation) as teachers in urban schools.
- (d) Teachers in kindergarten and elementary schools should be as well prepared (in point of time required for preservice preparation) as teachers in secondary schools. This recommendation implies that the standards for kindergarten and elementary teachers should be increased and not that secondary standards should be lowered.
- (e) Teachers in secondary schools should be upgraded to a minimum of 1 year of graduate work. This standard has already been generally accepted for the staff members of junior colleges.
- Teachers and other workers in public-school systems should be more
  definitely prepared for specific positions and prevented, by certification and the accrediting of institutions, from accepting any
  position for which they have not had the prescribed special
  preparation.
- More emphasis should be placed upon the acquisition during the pre-service period of preparation of that minimum degree of skill in teaching which is considered essential for a propitious start as a teacher.
- 4. State and National campaigns of education should be conducted to encourage school-board members to select new teachers upon the basis of scholarship, special professional preparation, experience, and merit, rather than upon such bases as local residence, willingness to accept lower salaries, and similar factors.
- 5. States should provide professional incentives for teachers to continue their services in the same school systems.
- 6. School systems should use administrative devices which will make it possible for teachers in service whose education is below the approved standard to upgrade themselves without undue hard-ships—physically, financially, or professionally. Devices which can be used toward this end are: Sabbatical leaves of absence, relief from nonteaching duties while studying, employing relief and substitute teachers who carry part or all of the teacher's

work while he is taking additional school work, use of cadet teachers to provide selected teachers time for study, and salary

increments for additional preparation.

7. State programs for the equalization of educational opportunities and for the more equitable distribution of the support of public education should include the teacher's preparation as one of the elements in the basic formula upon which the program is based. Provision should be made so that the school districts will be encouraged by the State to select teachers with more nearly adequate preparation.

# RECOMMENDATIONS ON TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND

There is at present an oversupply of teachers which is Nation-wide in scope. If all unemployed teachers holding valid certificates and desiring teaching positions are considered, there is a very pronounced oversupply. If only unemployed teachers with at least 2 years of preparation above the completion of high school are considered, there is still an oversupply of such teachers in most of the States, although if the schools were staffed more nearly adequately the oversupply of acceptably prepared teachers could be absorbed in many of the States. Even with conditions as they now are with respect to the oversupply of teachers, the higher educational institutions of the country are adding to the oversupply at the rate of approximately 50,000 teachers a year.

Present conditions of increased loads for the teachers employed and rapidly increasing numbers of unemployed teachers cannot be allowed to continue without the imminent risk of complete professional demoralization of the teaching staffs with resultant deterioration

of the service of the public schools.

Conditions are propitious for the elevation of standards for teachers but changes will have to be made on the basis of the ultimate welfare of the total educational service and not upon the basis of shortsighted sentimental or economic policies.

# REDUCTION OF THE OVERSUPPLY OF TEACHERS

1. State boards of education should pass regulations setting minimum standards for the several school divisions and, if possible, invalidate the certificates of all unemployed teachers whose preparation ess than the prescribed minimum. All employed teachers whose preparation was completed since 1929 and who do not have the minimum amount of preparation should be allowed a period of 3 or 4 years in which to obtain the training necessary to meet the minimum standards.

Temporary but renewable certificates based on less than the minimum amount of preparation should not be renewed until the holder has made up his deficiency in preparation.



- 3. Authorities charged with the responsibility of selecting teachers should be relieved from any obligation to select graduates who completed their work 1 or more years ago and who have not been employed as teachers unless they are the best persons available at the time and for the salary offered. In other words, priority of graduation should be abolished as a sole basis for selecting teachers, especially in areas immediately tributary to specific institutions. This recommendation, if followed, would at once reduce the available supply of teachers and introduce more certainly the element of merit into the operation of the law of supply and demand.
- 4. The present oversupply of adequately prepared teachers should be reduced by gradually but systematically reducing the size of public-school classes and by increasing the number of special services which make for more efficient schools.
- 5. Educational opportunities should be extended to a number of groups not now generally included in the public-school system, such as kindergartens, nursery schools, foreign groups, and adult groups interested in education for vocational advancement, vocational rehabilitation, or for avocational purposes. Such extensions of service would call for many new teachers.
- 6. One essential step which must be taken by all of the States to reduce the oversupply of teachers is to curtail the present "overproduction" of teachers. This can be done by restricting the number of teachers educated and certificated each year to approximately the number needed to provide for the necessary replacements, growth in the school population, and new educational services plus a small surplus for unexpected demands. Some of the ways in which the number of teachers educated each year can be reduced are suggested for the consideration of those responsible in the States for the development and administration of State programs for the education of teachers.
  - (a) Each State should establish its standards for the satisfactory preparation of teachers for the different kinds of positions and in the light of those standards establish, after inspection of the institutions, an accredited list of institutions for the preparations of teachers for each kind of position. The preparation and attitude of the faculty members and available facilities for practice and demonstration work should be determining factors rather than the age, size, wealth, or location of the institution.
  - b) After the State school officials responsible for teacher education have determined the number of new teachers needed they should allocate the maximum number who

will be certificated from each of the approved or accredited institutions and the number who will be certificated from other States. The quotas allocated to individual institutions should be raised or lowered in terms of any changes in the total demand. Whenever it is possible to determine it with reasonable accuracy the quotas should be changed in terms of the relative merit of the graduates of one institution in comparison with those of other institutions. Such a policy would tend to increase at once the standards for admission to courses for teachers and to encourage a much more rigorous selection of capable students during the preservice period of education.

- (c) Prospective teachers who meet accepted standards of preparation in approved institutions should be certificated to teach only in positions for which they were prepared. Unless such restricted certificates are issued there can be no satisfactory control of the supply of new teachers.
- (d) The institutions in a State which have been approved for the education of teachers should cooperate in develop-, ing and enforcing a program of increasingly rigorous selective admission of students to curricula for teachers. Such a program should include the use of as many measures of personality, scholastic aptitude, health, and general ability as possible. Until an easily administered, valid, and reliable predictive test of teaching merit is devised, the use of several measures will provide a better basis for selection than dependence upon highschool grades, position in the graduating class, or similar measures which have been used. The program of selective admission should aim to secure the following results: Diversion from teacher curricula of the less capable applicants; encouragement to enter teaching for some of the more capable students who have hitherto been more inclined toward other professions; attraction to teaching of students from the types of homes which offer more than average cultural opportunities in such matters as books, good music, travel, correct speech, and good manners; and the selection of young men and women who possess the personality traits which are usually found in the leaders of any community.

Adjustment of supply and demand in teaching.—The problem of adjusting the supply of teachers to the demand is more complicated than just reducing the



present oversupply of teachers, which in itself presents enough difficulties. The satisfactory adjustment of the supply to the demand must not only reduce the present unemployment of qualified teachers but it must also create additional demands for teachers and for new forms of educational service. It must make sure that adequately prepared teachers and specialists are available in sufficient numbers and at the appropriate times to meet those demands, and that too many teachers are not prepared for any of the school divisions or teaching subjects. Some recommendations for solving the adjustment of supply and demand in addition to those already presented are included for the consideration of State and institutional officials responsible for bringing about this adjustment.

- 7. State educational authorities in cooperation with the presidents of institutions for the preparation of teachers should be held responsible for developing long-term teacher-education programs extending at all times a minimum of 10 years into the future. Such programs must provide for the control of both the supply and the demand elements—one cannot be controlled without the other. Such long-term plans should be based upon a continuing survey of the teaching personnel and educational services of the State and should reveal significant trends in the attainment of the goals included in the State program. The data from these continuing surveys should be made available as promptly as possible to prospective teachers and to institutions in which they are prepared. If the several States in cooperation with the Office of Education in Washington could agree upon the forms in which these data should be collected and reported it would add greatly to the value of the data and make possible interstate and interarea comparisons which are not usually possible with State educational statistics.
- 8. As the educational systems of the States are at present organized the most effective method for controlling the supply of teachers is by means of certification. State educational officers in conference with and in cooperation with representatives of those who prepare teachers and those who employ and supervise them should set up State programs of teacher certification which would both establish standards and control the supply. Some of the recommendations for State programs of teacher certification which will assist in the accomplishment of both of these ends are presented.
  - (a) Teachers' certificates should be issued only by State authorities and should name specifically the type of teaching position for which the holder has received the approved.

amount and kind of preparation. A teacher's certificate should be revoked if he accepts a position for which he is not certificated and the school district employing the teacher should be penalized in such a way as to deter effectively such a practice. Each certificate should also state the period for which it is valid and the conditions under which it may be renewed. The rural schools of the several States would be immediate beneficiaries of such a policy and it would also make the control of teacher supply much more accurate.

(b) State certificates should be issued for the larger divisions of the schools and for the larger related groups of subjects. For example, certificates should be issued for the following divisions: Rural, kindergarten-primary, elementary, and secondary (junior and senior high schools). Certificates for junior and senior high school teachers should specify the areas or subjects in which the teacher has had the required preparation and for which the certificate is valid. Certificates should be issued for supervisors and administrative officers who have made the special preparation required for such work.

(c) Administrators of high schools should be encouraged and when practical required to arrange teaching programs, especially in the smaller schools, in such a way that certain agreed-upon combinations of subjects may be taught by one teacher. If such combinations, based upon either related subject matter or the number of students taking the subjects, were accepted by the high-school principals of a State it would be possible to prepare a teacher more nearly adequately in 2 or even 3 fields in which he was reasonably certain to teach than under present conditions when he tries to get at least a smattering of training in many fields because he realizes that he may be asked to teach 3 or 4 or even 5 subjects and in almost every conceivable combination.

(d) Life certificates should not be issued and holders of permanent certificates should be expected to give evidence at specified intervals, e.g., 5 years, that they are continuing their professional advancement. This requirement may be satisfied in a great many "agreed-upon ways", such as travel, additional education, work on National, State, or local committees, preparation of syllabi, text material, theses, conducting educational experiments and other services to the school or community.



(e) Certification requirements for teachers in positions of different types and at different school levels should be so stated that teachers will: (1) Have at least a satisfactory minimum of professional preparation for the work to be done, (2) Be unable to secure a certificate except at the completion of a unified curriculum (e.g. at the close of a 2-year curriculum but not when half way through a 4year curriculum); (3) Be required to remain in teaching in order to maintain the validity of certificates; (4), Be able to transfer from one certification group to another by meeting the additional requirements for the new certificate. (The additional requirements should include additional professional preparation or demonstrated evidence of ability to do the new work.)

(f) As previously indicated certificates should be issued only to the extent of allocated quotas in order to adjust the supply to the demand. There should of course be some allowance made for the unexpected in the demands for teachers and for the fact that employing school officers should always have some freedom of choice in selecting teachers who will fit into the position which is vacant. It has been estimated by a number of students of this problem that a surplus of 5 percent or less in any of the fields would provide for such choices and also for a desirable amount of competition for placement which

would keep teachers, professionally alert. . (g) All' first certificates should be for a limited period and renewals should be made only upon evidence of demonstrated ability to do successfully the work for which

each certificate was issued.

(h) A health certificate should be required before any certificate to teach is issued or renewed.

9. Effective adjustment of supply and demand in a State requires the cooperation of the public, private, and endowed institutions as well as all teacher-employing agencies. While the State can exercise control over the supply of teachers by means of State certification, it cannot do so without arousing a great deal of dissatisfaction and opposition unless the program of State control can be promoted with the approval of the majority of the private institutions as well as those which receive public support.

. Such programs of control should be based upon the realization that the welfare of the children of a State is of greater importance than the temporary advancement of individual institutions. They should also be based upon the realization that the restriction upon the number of students admitted to courses for teachers does not mean the restriction of higher educational opportunities for the boys and girls in that area to any greater degree than the restriction of entrance to medical schools has meant the restriction or curtailment of opportunities for a general higher education. In other words these proposals do not necessarily mean the abandonment of institutions but may mean a change in purpose for some of them. There is also little doubt that the present educational programs of higher education in many States could be carried on as successfully and more economically if some of the smaller schools (public and private) were consolidated and some of the poorly located ones moved or abandoned.

One other suggestion in connection with putting any or all of these recommendations into effect is that it should be done gradually and in terms of a long-term plan. Only in this way can serious injustices to individuals and groups of individuals be avoided. Teachers in service should have sufficient time in which to meet new requirements without prohibitive sacrifices. Experienced teachers who entered when standards of preparation were distinctly lower should be given special concessions. Programs for the preparation of teachers should be reduced but by no means stopped entirely. There should be no gap, not even for a year, in which no newly prepared recruits are received into teaching.

These recommendations have been suggested or supported by the study of the teaching personnel in the United States in 1930-31 and by Survey staff discussions. Few States would want to adopt all of them and many States could not adopt some of them without revoking some of their existing laws. Since the Survey showed in so many ways that education in this country is still largely a State responsibility and also that the States differ very widely in their educational programs it is improbable that any program for the control of the supply and demand of teachers would fit equally well the needs of any two States. It is therefore hoped that the proposed recommendations will be used as a check-list of suggestions and that State programs for education will incorporate (with the necessary adaptations) as many of them as possible in what must be a Nation-wide attempt to correct the present maladjustment of supply and demand and to raise the level of the education of American teachers.



# PART II. STUDENT PERSONNEL—PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS 1

The Social, National, and Occupational Backgrounds of Undergraduate Students in Accredited 4-Year State Teachers Colleges and in Accredited 4-Year Private Liberal Arts Colleges

#### CHAPTER I

# INTRODUCTION AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study which is reported here compares undergraduate students in certain accredited 4-year-State teachers colleges with undergraduate students in certain accredited 4-year private liberal arts colleges in regard to selected elements in their social, national, and occupational backgrounds. Certain persistent assumptions seem to prevail in current opinion, even among educators, which presuppose more favorable backgrounds for students in private liberal arts colleges than for students in State teachers colleges. Some of these assumptions are that teachers-college students come generally from the homes of laborers, tradesmen, and small shopkeepers, while liberal arts students come from the homes of business and professional men; that the former constitute in large part a group of first-generation Americans, while the latter represent largely native stock; and that the parents of the former have not had secondary school and college education, while the latter come from families in which such education is traditional. It is into such assumptions as these that this study seeks to inquire.

The area covered by the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges was selected for this study because this accrediting agency has exercised a decidedly constructive influence on both teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges since its organization in 1895, and because its area represents adequate diversity in industrial activities, national types, and social groups. An analysis was made of the accredited 4-year State teachers colleges and the accredited 4-year private liberal arts colleges in this area with respect to the following factors: Dates of organization, enrollments, prevailing



This study was made by Prof. Harold G. Blue, head of the department of sociology, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo.

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Statistics of Universities, Colleges, and Professional Schools. ch. 4, vol. 2. Bienniai Survey of Education, 1929-30. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. 285 p. (Office of Education, Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

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industrial types in immediate surroundings, and significant national groups in the immediate surroundings. In the selection of institutions to participate in this study, an attempt was made to secure essential variation with respect to these factors. On this basis, 9 State teachers colleges and 8 private liberal arts colleges were chosen. Table 1 shows the total undergraduate enrollments in these institutions and the number and percentage of students participating in the study.

TABLE 1 .- Teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges participating in this study

	Under-	Blanks returned			
Location of institutions by States	graduate enrollment	Number	Percent of enrollment		
ı,	2	3	* 1		
Teachers colleges  1. Indiana. 2. Colorado. 3. Iowa. 4. Michigan. 5. Missouri. 6. Wisconsin. 7. Wisconsin. 8. Minnesota. 9. Illinois.  Total.	1, 133 1, 532 1, 515 1, 970 1, 276 1, 419 693 1, 094 859	814 1, 270 1, 392 1, 641 984 308 537 743 763	71. 84 - 82. 90 - 91. 88 - 83. 30 - 77. 12 - 21. 71 - 77. 49 - 67. 92 - 88. 82		
Liberal arts colleges:  1 Michigan 2 Colorado. 3 Indiana 4 Iowa. 5 Wisconsin 6 Ohio. 7 Illinois. 8 Kansas.	607 538 449 609 655 2,080 450 667	525 407 256 538 501 1,419 260 522	86. 49 75. 65 57. 02 80. 42 76. 49 65. 22 57. 78 78. 26		
Total	6, 115	4, 428	72.41		
Grand total	17,606	12,880	73. 16		

A special questionnaire was constructed and copies were forwarded to the institutions during the first week in January 1933; the final returns were received February 27, 1933. The questionnaire consisted of 50 major items calling for data pertaining to age, sex, classification, academic and professional goals, marital status, religious affiliation, family relationships, educational status and backgrounds, birthplace, home location, types of communities, national status and backgrounds, vocational purposes, and occupational backgrounds. Several major items were subdivided to the extent that a total of 176 items constituted the questionnaire. The questionnaires reproduced in figure 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> United States Bureau of the Census. Gainful Workers by Occupation and Industry. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office. Fifteenth Census of the United States, ch. 7, vol. 5, 1930.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Ibid. Color or Race, Nativity, and Parentage. ch. 2, vol. 2, 1930.

(Floure 1.—Student personnel inquiry form.)

[Page 1]

# NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education

## WASHINGTON, D.C.

The study with which this blank deals is a descriptive and comparative investigation of the undergraduate students in standardized and fully accredited 4-year teachers colleges and 4-year liberal arts colleges of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The returns from this inquiry will be treated confidentially and impersonally. In no case will the identification of any student appear in published or unpublished reports.

[Page 2]

# FOLLOW INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY

- 1. Place a check (✓) or supply words or numbers in the proper places. Each will be understood as indicating your reply.
  - 2. Be as accurate as you possibly can.
  - 3. Write or check legibly.

### **QUESTION NAIRE**

Write your name     What college are you now attending     What is your present have	g?	
or village	ss or post-office address?	City or town
State 4. Check what you are: Male 5. Give your age at your nearest birth 6. Check what you are: Freshman Senior Graduate or unclassified 7. Are you now definitely working to you upon your completion of a 4-year obachelor of science, A.B. in education, or No	Foreign country Female  day: years old.  Sophomore  or special  ward a bachelor's degree	Juniorto be granted



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- 8. What field of work, occupation, vocation, or profession are you now definitely preparing yourself for: e.g., social service, banking, law, dentistry, accounting, nursing, medicine, engineering, homemaking, teaching, or any other? Be very specific 9. How old were you in years when you first entered college to begin your college work? \_\_\_\_\_ years old. 10. How many times since you first entered college to take up college work have you actually had to drop your college work and withdraw from college? Check: None ..... Once ..... Twice ..... Three times ..... Four or more times 11. If your college career has been interrupted one or more times, state precisely and specifically: (a) What the causes of the interruptions were (b) What the work activities or kinds of employment were in which you were engaged during your absences from college 12. How many years elapsed between your graduation from high school and your first entrance into college? None ..... 1 year ..... 2 years ...... 3 years ..... 5 years ..... 6 years ..... 7 years .... 8 years ..... 9 or more years ..... 13. If 1 or more years elapsed as indicated in the question just above, state specifically and precisely what you did during the elapsed time: 14. If you have ever taught school, check to show how many years you were 3 years 5 years 6 years 7 years 7 8 years ..... 9 or more years ..... 16. If you are married or have been married, did your marriage take place 18. Of what church (denomination) are you a member? Check none or. enter the name: None ..... Name of denomination ..... 19. Indicate the one chief source of funds to help you meet your college expenses this year-Check: Parents Borrowings Personal savings ..... Relatives not parents ..... Scholarships or fellowships Earnings while attending college 20. How many different colleges (institutions above the high school) have you attended besides the one you are now attending? Check: None 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5 or more ..... |Page 3|
- 21. Beginning with your oldest brother or sister, what numbered child are you, i.e., are you the 1st, 3rd, 5th, 8th, or what child of your parents? I am the child.
- 22. Check two places to indicate the kind of community in which, first, your . present home is and, second; your birthplace was:



,		a			49.
*	a. Farm or ranch			Home	Birthplace
	a. Farm or ranch. b. Village less than 1,000.			().	( )
	e. Town from 1,000 to 2,500			( )	4()
	d. City from 2,500 to 10,000 e. City from 10,000 to 25 de	0		( )	( )
	e. City from 10,000 to 25,00			( )	()
	f. City from 25 000 to 50 00	00		( )	( )
	f. City from 25,000 to 50,00	00		() -	·4(·)
	g. City from 50,000 to 100,0 h. City from 100,000 to 250			( )•	()~
,					( )
•	i. City from 250,000 to 500,	,000		( )	( ).
23.	j. City of more than 500,000	0		( )*	( )
of	Indicate exactly where you w	rere born: In o	or near the	village of	town or city
- not be	orn in the United States, in t	ate of		, 01	if you were
24.	orn in the United States, in the States, in the Indicate how many years	he foreign co	untry of .		, and wear
of con	Indicate how many years you nmunities:	r home has be	en in each	of the fol	lowing types
	a. Farm or ranch. b. Village less than 1 000			,	Years
	b. Village less than 1,000. c. Town from 1,000 to 2,500				
1	c. Town from 1,000 to 2,500 d. City from 2,500 to 10,000	** *******			
•	d. City from 2,500 to 10,000 e. City from 10,000 to 25,000				· j
	e. City from 10,000 to 25,000 f. City from 25,000 to 50,000	)		******	
	f. City from 25,000 to 50,000 g. City from 50,000 to 100 do	)			
	g. City from 50,000 to 100.00	10		******	
	g. City from 50,000 to 100,000 h. City from 100,000 to 250,0 i. City from 250,000 to 500.0	000			** *****
	i. City from 250,000 to 500 0	100	*******		E.dr
4	Give the total numb	er vesm	******		
Note.	The total number of years should equ	ol years.	******		
25. (	Check the following to the	m your age in yes	Mrs.		F
college	Check the following to indicate you are now attending. Ple	ite how far'y	our preser	nt home	is from the
refers t	you are now attending. Ple o the distance you must travel	ease understa	nd that th	e numbe	of miles
	o the distance you must travel a. Less than 5 miles	to go from y	our home t	o college	
1	a. Less than 5 miles.				()
	b. More than 5 miles and less c. More than 15 and less than	than 15			( )
	d. More than 15 and less than i. More than 30 and less than	30			()
	d. More than 30 and less than e. More than 50-and less than	50			( )
	e. More than 50 and less than I. More than 80 and less than	,80			(6)
	More than 80 and less than More than 120 and less than	120			( )
- Ah	More than 120 and less than More than 175 and less than	n 175			( ) ·
i	. More than 175 and less than . More than 250 and less than	n. 250 %			() 6
					)
***	. More than 1,000 miles			(	5 0
					. "

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26. Check the following to indicate the types of communities in which yo attended, first, elementary school, and, second, high school:	u T
Elementary school High school	
Farm or rural community ()	
b. Village less than 1,000()	
c. Town from 1,000 to 2,500()	
d. City from 2,500 to 10,000()	
e. City from 10,000 to 25,000()	
1. City from 25,000 to 50,000	
g. City from 50,000 to 100,000()	
h. City from 100,000 to 250,000	
i. City from 250,000 to 500,000	
j. City more than 500,000()	-
	7
This is about your brothers and sisters.	•
27. How many brothers living? Older than you Younger that	n
you	
28. How many sisters living? Older than you Younger than you	ú
29. How many brothers and sisters are married? Brothers Sister	8
30. How many brothers and sisters are dead? Brothers Sister	3
21 17	
31. How many brothers and sisters attended or are now attending the college	е .
which you are now attending? Brothers Sisters	a
[Page 4]	+
.32. Indicate the number of brothers and sisters who: Brothers Sister	
a. Have graduated from college()	
b. Are now attending college()	(
c. Are adults and have never studied beyond high school(')	,
d. Are now attending high school(')	,
e. Are adults and have never studied beyond the elementary	,
school	
f. Are now attending the elementary school()	?
g. Are too young to go to school	)
8. The too young to go to achoor	)
This is about your own father and his parents	
33. Was your father's father born outside the borders of the United States	,
Check: Yes No.: a. If your answer is "yes", indicate where	
34. Was your father's mother born outside the borders of the United States?	
Check: Yes a. If your answer is "yes", indicate where	
05 7	
35. Is your father living? Check: Yes No	
36. Where was your father born? If in the United States, name the State	
If outside the United States, indicate where or in what	
country	
37. Of what descent is or was your father, i.e., German, Irish, French, Norwegian, or what descent?	
38. What is or was, if he is now retired or deceased, your father's trade or profession or principal occupation, i.e., the particular work by which he was	
known in his community? Be very specific.	
known in his community? Be very specific:	

ERIC

Full Toxt Provided by ERIC

	39. Was your father graduated from high school? Check: Yes No  40. Was your father graduated from college? Check: Yes No
-	a. If your answer is 'yes', give the name and location of the college.
	Name City State or foreign country
	41. Of what church (denomination) is or was, if he is now deceased, your father a member? Check none or enter the name of the denomination: None Name of denomination.
	This is about your own mother and her parents.
	42. Was your mother's father born outside the borders of the United States? Check: Yes No a. If your answer is "yes", indicate where
	43. Was your mother's mother born outside the borders of the United States? Check: Yes No a. If your answer is "yes", indicate where
	44. Is your mother living? Check: YesNo  45. Where was your mother horn? If in the United States, name the State  If outside the United States, indicate where or in
,	46. Of what descent is or was your mother, i.e., German, Irish, French, Norwegian, or what descent?
C	or profession or principal occupation which she follows or followed quite apart from housekeeping or homemaking, state very specifically what it is or was
+ 1	48. Was your mother graduated from high school? Check: Yes No
8	49. Was your mother graduated from college? Check: Yes No  If your answer is "yes", give the name and location of the college:
r	tate or foreign country
n	50. Of what church (denomination) is or was, if she is now deceased, your nother a member? Check none or enter the name of the denomination. None  Name of denomination.



#### CHAPTER II

### PERSONNEL DATA ABOUT THE STUDENT GROUPS

Sex.—Women outnumbered men among the 8,452 students of the teachers colleges participating in the study, the ratio being approximately 3 to 2. Of the 4,428 liberal arts college students, however, 51.06 percent were men and 48.94 percent were women. The traditional teacher-preparation institution in America was one in which women greatly outnumbered men, but in recent years increasing numbers of men have chosen education as the field of their careers.

Age.—The mean age of the teachers-college students was 20.63 years and that of the liberal arts college students, 20.04. This difference is not significant. However, the former showed more variation in age, ranging from 15 to 58 with a standard deviation from the mean of 3.16. The age range of the latter was 16 to 40 with a standard deviation from the mean of 2.06. These data point to greater homogeneity of the liberal arts students in the matter of age, and a significant extension to higher age-levels in the teachers-college group. The median age of the 12,880 students of both groups was 20.42 years and the standard deviation was 2.85.

Classification. In the distribution of students among the 4 undergraduate classes, as shown in table 2, there is no significant disparity between the 2 groups. In the sophomore group the teachers-college students maintain a higher percent, 30.98 percent as against 27.37 percent for the liberal-arts students. The higher proportion of sophomores among teachers-college students may be accounted for by the number of students who left college to teach at the end of their freshman year and later returned to obtain additional training in order to secure a more desirable certificate. It is shown elsewhere in this report that one fifth of the teachers-college students, and only one eleventh of the liberal arts college students had from 1 to 4 interruptions in their college careers; 39.66 percent of the teachers-college students who left college temporarily engaged in teaching.

Academic goal.—There is an appreciable discrepancy between the two groups of students in the matter of seeking the bachelor's degree. Of the teachers-college students, 5,922, or 71.48 percent, reported that they were working toward the degree, as compared with 3,881 liberal arts college students, or 89.55 percent. While this discrepancy is significant, it is undoubtedly influenced by the larger number of students in teachers colleges who expect to take only a 2-year curriculum and teach for a few years in rural or elementary schools

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TABLE 2.—Class membership of 12,880 students in 9 teachers colleges and 8 liberalarts colleges in the North Central Association, January 1933

Class membership	9 teache	rs colleges	8 liberal-	arts colleges	To	iatal
,	Number	Percent 1	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3		* 1		7
Freshmen Sophomores Juniors Seniors No reply	3, 014 2, 618 1, 579 1, 239	35. 67 30. 98 18. 69 14. 66	1, 649 1, 210 832 732 5	37. 28. 27. 37- 18. 81 16. 55	4, 663 3, 828 2, 411 1, 971	36. 22 29. 74 18. 73 15. 31

The base number used in computing percentages was the total less the number not replying.

Marital status:—Students in teachers colleges tended to enter marriage before or during their college period to a greater degree than students in liberal arts colleges. Of the teachers-college students, 4.21 percent were married or had been married, and only 1.45 percent of the liberal arts college students were married or had been married. The wider range in age of teachers-college students may account in part for the difference in marital status. Their ages ranged from 15 to 58 as compared with an age range of 16 to 40 for liberal arts college students. Of the married students, 31 percent of those in the teachers-college group and 34.69 percent of those in the liberal arts group were married before they entered college. There were 138 parents (1.63 percent) among the 8,452 teachers-college students; of the 4,428 liberal arts college students, 15 (0.34 percent) were parents. The mean number of children of parents in the former group was 1.42; of the latter, 1.47.

Religion.—The fathers of the 12,880 students participating in this study showed a greater tendency than the mothers to have no direct religious membership. Of the teachers-college group, 19.41 percent of the fathers and only 6.97 percent of the mothers, and of the liberal arts college group 17.24 percent of the fathers and 6.11 percent of the mothers were reported to have no religious affiliation. One student in 6 of the 12,880 students of both types of institutions professed no church membership—16.53 percent of the teachers-college group and 15.63 percent of the liberal arts college group. No report on this item was made by 162 students.

For the institutions selected the Methodist denomination leads by a considerable margin in the matter of membership of all fathers, mothers, and students, the percentages being 22.39, 25.84, and 25.09. The proportions were practically the same in the two groups, i.e., from one-fifth to one-fourth of the fathers, mothers, and students were members of the Methodist Church. The Presbyterian denomination registered 10.29 percent of the teachers-college students and 17.40 percent of the liberal arts college students. The proportions reported

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for fathers and for mothers were approximately the same in the two groups. The Catholic Church varied most in registrants, with 10.86 percent of teachers-college students and 6 percent of liberal arts college students. Approximately 75 percent of all the fathers, mothers, and students were reported as affiliated with the following denominations: Methodist, Presbyterian, Catholic, Lutheran, Congregational, Baptist, Christian, and Episcopal, in the order named. Students, in the main, followed their parents in the matter of church membership. There was no significant difference between the two types of colleges on this point. The percentages reported are also influenced by the regional distribution of the religious groups.

Broken homes indicated by the death of either parent, appeared in practically the same proportion in the two types of colleges. Of the teachers-college students, 13.28 percent reported that their fathers were dead and 9.64 percent reported that their mothers were dead; of the liberal arts college students, 11.91 percent reported that their fathers were dead and 7.93 percent reported that their mothers were dead.

Family.—Concerning the order of birth, 46.55 percent of the liberal arts college students and 38.36 percent of the teachers-college students were the first-born. It will be remembered that the mean age of the former group was 20.04 years and that of the latter 20.63 years. It may, therefore be assumed that the parents of liberal arts college students were, on the whole, younger than those of teachers-college students. This fact is indicated also by the standard deviation of 2.06 in the distribution of the ages of the liberal arts students as compared with a standard deviation of 3.16 for the teachers-college students. In an order ascending from first-born to last-born, the mean number was 2.08 for liberal arts students and 2.61 for teachers-college students. One and three-fifths percent of the teachers-college students were located in the order from the ninth to the thirteenth child; only 0.48 of 1 per cent of the liberal arts students held this order.

Family size represents a real difference between the two groups of students. Table 3 reveals that the liberal arts students came consistently from smaller families. A higher percentage of the teachers-college students reported brothers and sisters. The differences between the percentages in the two groups of students are significant. It will be recalled that the sexes were almost at parity in the liberal arts colleges, while women outnumbered men at the approximate ratio of 3 to 2 in the teachers colleges. Both groups of students had a slightly larger percentage of brothers than sisters. The percentage of students who had married sisters was higher than the precentage who had married brothers in each group.

A few students in both types of institutions reported from 4 to 8 brothers older, brothers younger, sisters older, and sisters younger.



The percentages for the teachers-college students on these four items, in the order named, were 2.87, 2.16, 3.02, and 1.72; the corresponding percentages for the liberal arts college students were 1.25, 0.78, 1.28, and 0.79.

TABLE 3.—Classification of 12,880 students in 9 liberal arts colleges and 8 teachers colleges in the North Central Association, January 1983; according to family relationships

Classification		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	9 teacher	s colleges	8 liber al arts college		
	8		Number	Percent	Number	Percen	
	1		2	3	4	5	
tudents having litudents having litudents having litudents having litudents having litudents having litumber of students having litudents	athers were dead	r than they	1, 115 810 3, 557 3, 703 3, 490 3, 581 1, 523 1, 276 1, 961 2, 302	12. 28 9. 64 42. 08 43. 81 41. 29 42. 37 18. 02 15. 10 23. 20	523- 347 1,569 1,543 1,471 1,494 571 450 645	11. 91 7. 93 34. 76 34. 85 33. 22 33. 74 12. 90 10. 16 14. 57	



#### CHAPTER III

# COLLEGE CAREER DATA ABOUT STUDENTS AND THEIR FAMILIES

Although the distributions of ages show a wider age-spread and a higher mean for the teachers-collected students, there was little difference

in the mean ages at the time entering college.

Age at college entrance.—The mean age of the teachers-college students at the time of college entrance was 18.27 years and that of the liberal arts students, 17.99 years. The difference of 0.28 years in the mean ages at college entrance increased to a difference of 0.59 years in the actual mean ages of the students supplying these data. This increase in the difference is accounted for, in large part, by the fact that 20.06 percent of the students in teachers colleges had interruptions in their college careers, as compared with 9.19 percent of the students in liberal arts colleges. The college-entrance age of the former students ranged from 14 to 47 with a standard deviation of 1.83 from the mean; that of the liberal arts students, 14 to 40 with a standard deviation of 1.37. In the teachers-college group, 1.34 percent of the students began their college careers after they had reached the age of 24. Only two-fifths of 1 percent of the liberal arts college students entered college after that age.

The data show a general tendency to enter college immediately after graduation from high school. This tendency was slightly greater in the liberal arts group. The percentages were 75.11 (T.C.) and 82.77 (L.A.). The mean number of years elapsing between graduation from high school and entrance in college was 0.52 for the teachers-college students and 0.31 for the liberal arts students. The standard deviations were 1.29 (T.C.) and 0.89 (L.A.). Of the teachers-college students, 330 or 3.9 percent, reported an elapsed number of years ranging from 4 to 9; of the liberal arts students, 67, or 1.5 percent, reported this range. An interim of at least 1 year the ween high-school graduation and college entrance was reported by a smaller proportion of liberal arts students than teachers-college students; the percentages were 24.21 (T.C.) and 17.07 (L.A.).

Other activities.—What were the activities of the 2.22 feachers college students and 756 liberal arts college students whe did not enter college immediately upon being graduated from high school? Teaching in the public schools was reported by 26.48 percent (T.C.) and

<sup>&</sup>quot;T.C." refers to teachers-college students.

<sup>&</sup>quot;L.A." refers to diberal arts college students."

3.04 percent (L.A.); home duties, 10.8 percent (T.C.) and 6.08 percent (L.A.); studying in high school, 7.57 percent (T.C.) and 12.7 percent (L.A.); travel, 1.71 percent (T.C.) and 2.91 percent (L.A.); and all sorts of jobs, with clerking in stores the major employment, 53.44 percent (T.C.) and 75.27 percent (L.A.). The only essential difference between the two groups of students in the matter of these work activities is that more than one-fourth of the teachers-college students taught in the public schools, while only about 3 percent of the liberal arts students engaged in teaching.

Interrupted college attendance. - Financial difficulties, preventing continuance in college accounted for practically one-half of all the interruptions in college careers for both groups as reported by the students. The percentages were 49.82 (T.C.) and 53.38 (L.A.). The desire to launch upon their work as teachers was reported as the reason for one-fifth of the interruptions of the teachers-college students; this cause is negligible in the case of the liberal arts students. Illness caused 14 percent of the interruptions of the former group and 22.31 percent of those of the latter. About one-half of I percent of the temporary withdrawals of both groups of students was due to dissatisfaction with college work. Poor scholarship, 2.21 percent (T C.) and 8.52 percent (L.A.), and marriage, 2.51 percent (T.C.) and 1 percent (L.A.), were offered as reasons for 117 cases of interruption in college work. Two-thirds of all interruptions (both groups) were due to financial troubles and sickness. These data explain six-eighths of the interruptions in the case of liberal arts students and five-eighths of the interruptions in the case of teachers-college students. Aside from the fact that 37.5 percent of the latter and 5.51 percent of the former taught in public schools during the interruptions in their college careers, the remainder, 1,045 students, or 62.5 percent (T.C.) and 389 students, or 94.49 percent (L.A.), worked at various kinds of jobs, with clerking in stores the chief type of employment. Concerning the work activities of the 2,071 students during their nonattendance at college, the only real difference between the two groups was in the matter of the greater tendency of teachers-college students to engage in public-school teaching as compared with liberal arts college stu-This, of course, should be expected. .. dents.

fortunate in the matter of meeting the costs of attending college. The parents of 67.39 percent of them provided sufficient funds, as compared with 56:53 percent of the teachers-college students. The latter group had a greater advantage in the use of personal savings, 13.8 percent indicating such financing as against only 6.48 percent of the liberal arts students. This significant margin with respect to savings is accounted for by the greater percentage of teachers-college students who engaged in teaching before entering college and during the intervals when they withdrew from college. About the same



proportion in the two groups used borrowed money to meet college costs, the percentages being 8.81 (T.C.) and 8.19 (L.A.). Of the teachers-college students, 12.59 percent and of the liberal arts students, 10.26 percent met expenses by earning money while attending college. With respect to scholarships and fellowships as the chief , sources of funds, the teachers-college students did not fare as well as . the other group. Only 1.43 percent of the teachers-college students as compared with 3.04 percent of the liberal arts college students held scholarships or fellowships.

Teaching.-Very few liberal arts students engaged in publicschool teaching before or during their college education. This is in decided contrast with the marked tendency of teachers-college students. Only 1.6 percent of the 4,428 students in liberal arts colleges had taught in public schools and 41.23 percent of these taught for less than 1 year. In the teachers-college group, 964, or 11.4 percent, had taught in public schools, and approximately 36 percent of them

had taught from 4 to 9 years.

Teachers-college students showed a more pronounced tendency than liberal arts college students to attend more than one college. A part of this tendency may have been due to moving up from 2-year normal schools to 4-year teachers colleges or to changing from liberal arts colleges to teachers colleges because of a change in vocational This difference in mobility again points to a greater homogeneity of the student groups in liberal arts colleges: 15.96 percent had attended from 2 to 5 different colleges, as compared with 21.08 percent . of the teachers-college students.

Selection of college.—The data on the various members of the family who had attended the same college as the students participating in this study showed that the two groups were about equal with respect to brothers attending the same college, 10.01 (T.C.) and 11.68 (L.A.); and that the proportion of students whose sisters were attending or had attended the same college was larger in the teachers-college

group-19.73 (T.C.) and 13.35 (L.A.).

Liberal arts students had a slightly greater tendency than the teachers-college students to attend the college from which their fathers were graduated. Of the 1,272 teachers-college students whose fathers were college graduates, 9.3 percent reported-that they were . attending the institutions from which their fathers graduated. Of the 1,144 liberal arts students whose fathers were college graduates, 11.65 percent reported that they were attending the institutions from which their fathers graduated.

The proportion of students who were attending the institutions from which their mothers were graduated was larger in the teacherscollege group than in the liberal arts groups; and in both groups the proportion of students whose mothers were graduates of the institution was larger than the proportion whose fathers were graduates



of the institution the students were attending. The percentages for the mothers were 33.22 (T.C.) and 18.16 (L.A.).

Educational background of families.—An analysis of the educational backgrounds of the 12,880 students shows an unmistakable advantage in favor of the liberal arts group. In general, the liberal arts students came from homes representing a greater extent of secondary school and college education.

In both groups of students the mothers exceeded the fathers in the number with high-school education, while the fathers exceeded the mothers in the number with college education. The fathers of 36.88 percent of the teachers-college students were high-school graduates and the fathers of 15.73 percent were college graduates. The fathers of 56.71 percent of the liberal arts students were high-school graduates and the fathers of 27.04 percent were college graduates. The mothers of 42.27 of the teachers-college students were high-school graduates and the mothers of 11.89 percent were college graduates. The mothers of 62.22 percent of the liberal arts students were high-school graduates and the mothers of 18.41 percent were college graduates. These differences in the education of parents are conclusive in pointing out the background advantage of liberal arts college students.

There are no significant differences between the two groups of students in the data concerning brothers and sisters who had been graduated from college, who were attending college, who were attending high school, who were in the elementary school, and who were too young to go to school. With the exception of brothers and sisters in college, the percentages of the teachers-college group on these items were a trifle larger than those of the liberal arts group; a difference of 0.66 for brothers and 0.78 for sisters.

Significant differences appear in the data on adult brothers and sisters whose education did not extend beyond the high school and adult brothers and sisters whose education did not extend beyond the elementary school. Of the teachers-college students, 20.24 percent had brothers whose education closed with high-school graduation and 15.57 percent had sisters whose education was similarly limited. Of the liberal arts students 11.09 percent had brothers and 10.03 percent had sisters who had not finished high school. Of, the teachers-college students, 5.37 percent had brothers whose education terminated with the completion of the elementary school and 3.51 percent had sisters whose education extended no further. respective percentages for the liberal arts college students were 1.81 and 1.17. As in the case of differences in the post-elementary education of fathers and mothers, these margins in the precollege education of adult brothers and sisters point definitely to the advantage of liberal arts college students in the matter of the educational backgrounds of the family.



#### CHAPTER IV

# RESIDENTIAL AND PRECOLLEGE EDUCATIONAL DATA ABOUT STUDENTS

Migration.—The students participating in this study did not show any pronounced migratory tendencies in selecting a college. In general, they attended colleges in the State in which their homes were located. Teachers-college students revealed the tendency to attend college near home in a degree greater than liberal arts college students. Of the teachers-college group, 96.98 percent of the students attended colleges in their home States; of the liberal arts group 85.92 percent of the students attended colleges in their home States. It is possible that the nonresident tuition fee exacted by most State teachers colleges was a slight deterrent to migrating beyond the borders of the State. Such factors as State tradition and loyalty and the desire to move directly and easily from the teachers college into the publicschool system of the State undoubtedly acted as greater deterrents. The denominational character that was formerly influential in the administrative practices of the private liberal arts colleges was provided by religious organizations which transcended the border lines of States. The attractive power of the liberal arts college was felt beyond the State lines of the State in which it was located. Three out of every 22 of the 4,428 students in the liberal arts colleges came from other States. Only about 1 out of every 30 of the 8,452 students in the teachers colleges came from other States.

Foreign countries were not significantly represented among the students. The liberal arts colleges reported a total of 18 foreign students, or 0.41 percent. Of the total teachers-college group, 6 students, or 0.075 percent, came from foreign countries. Canada, Philippine Islands, Argentina, China, Mexico, Denmark, Hawaii, Iraq,

Japan, Korea, and Siam were represented.

Distance from home.—Teachers-college students, in the main, traveled shorter distances than liberal arts college students to attend college. Eighty percent of the former and 62 percent of the latter lived within 120 miles of the colleges they attended. The homes of 23.5 percent of each group were within 5 miles. The homes of 55 percent of the teachers-college students and 42 percent of the liberal arts students were within 50 miles, and the homes of 17.5 percent of the teachers-college students and 31.7 percent, of the liberal arts students were within 120 to 500 miles. Only 2 percent of the teachers-



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college group lived more than 500 miles from college, and 71.5 percent of these were within 1,000 miles. Of the liberal arts college group, 6.31 percent lived more than 500 miles from college and of these students 61.5 percent lived no farther from college than 1,000 miles. The mean number of miles traveled by the teachers-college students to attend college was 42; that of the liberal arts students, 78.

From the standpoint of whatever similarities a common geography can contribute, the teachers-college students represented a more homogeneous group than the liberal arts college students. Whatever provincial tendency a common geography can impose should affect the teachers-college group to a greater extent than the liberal arts college group. The territory upon which the liberal arts colleges draw for their students, as révealed in this investigation, is measured by much greater distances than is that of the teachers colleges.

Nationality.—The majority of students in both types of institutions were born in the United States. Of the 8,350 teachers-college students (98.8 percent of the entire group) who reported their place of birth, 98.63 percent were born in the United States; of the 4,357 liberal arts college students (98.4 percent of the entire group) who reported, 98.19 percent were born in the United States. Of the teachers-college students 114, or 1.37 percent, were foreign born and 79, or 1.81 percent, of the liberal arts college students were foreign born. Twenty foreign countries were mentioned as the birthplaces of the 114 foreign-born teachers-college students; and 28 as the birthplaces of the 79 foreign-born liberal arts college students. Thirty-five foreign countries were reported for the total group, with Canada, England, Philippine Islands, Russia, Poland, Germany, Scotland, China, and Rumania having the largest frequencies in the order named and contributing 82.9 percent of the foreign-born cases.

Teachers-college students were born in villages with a median population of 935. Liberal arts college students were born in urban communities with a median population of 8,784. A trifle more than one-third of the 8,364 teachers-college students who reported the type of community in which they were born, were born on farms or ranches; only one-seventh of the 4,352 liberal arts college students who reported were born on farms or ranches. Of the teachers-college students, 61.49 percent and of the liberal arts students, 37.4 percent were born in communities having a population no larger than 2,500. Communities of 2,500 to 25,000 were the birthplaces of 16.17 percent of the teachers-college students and 22.47 percent of the liberal arts students. Cities from 25,000 to 100,000 were the birthplaces of 12.3 percent of the teachers college students and 19.83 percent of the liberal arts college students. One-fifth of the liberal arts students were born in cities having a population of more than 100,000; only one-tenth of the teachers-college students were born in cities of that size.



Size of home community. — When it is remembered that 61.49 percent of the teachers-college students were born in communities having a population no larger than 2,500 and that the homes of 55 percent of them were within 50 miles of the colleges they attended, the village and small-town backgrounds which tend to produce a form of provincialism which is more clearly marked in the teachers-college students than in the liberal arts college students. This experience background of prospective teachers assumes different degrees of importance in terms of the type of community in which they teach.

The situation had changed, however, by the time these students reached adulthood. Both groups of students had moved into more populous communities. At the time this inquiry was made the teachers-college students were living in towns with a median population of 2,925 and the liberal arts students were living in cities with a

median population of 18,500.

Despite these changes the farm or ranch remained the home of onefourth of the teachers-college students and a trifle less than onetenth of the liberal arts college students. Of the teachers-college students, 49.23 percent were living in communities no larger than 2,500; 23.42 percent in communities of 2,500 to 25,000; 18.62 percent in cities of 25,000 to 100,000; and 8.73 percent in cities of more than 100,000. The corresponding percentages for the liberal arts students were: 27.29, 26.13, 28.48, and 18.10.

A comparison of these data with the data relative to the birthplaces in communities of various sizes reveals that, in the migrations of students from birthplaces to present homes, the percentages increased in both groups with respect to communities ranging in size from 2,500 to 100,000, and decreased with respect to communities larger than 100,000 and smaller than 2,500. The movement-was from villages and large cities to cities of average size. The teacherscollege students showed a greater tendency than the liberal arts students to move from villages, and the liberal arts students showed

a greater tendency to move from large cities.

Elementary schools attended.—Teachers-college students attended elementary school in small towns with a median population of 1,760; liberal arts college students, in small cities with a median population of 9,479. The data show a tendency on the part of teachers-college students to attend elementary school in communities larger than those in which they were born. This tendency was less marked among the liberal arts college students. The rural schools ranked highest (28.92 percent) as the kind of elementary school attended by teacherscollege students. One-half of the teachers-college students and only one-fourth of the liberal arts students attended elementary school in communities of less than 1,000. Only one-tenth of the teachers-college students attended elementary school in cities of more than 100,000,



while two-tenths of the liberal arts college students attended elementary school in such cities. Communities ranging in population from 2,500 to 10,000 provided the elementary school in which the greatest number of the liberal arts students (1 out of every 5) received their elementary schooling. Both the rural community and the village (less than 1,000) ranked lower than the city of 25,000 to 50,000 population in providing elementary schooling for the latter group.

High schools attended.—Liberal arts college students went to high school in cities with a median population of 20,106; teachers-college students, in small cities with a median population of 4,540. One out of every four teachers-college students went to high school in villages of less than 1,000; only I in 10 liberal arts college students attended such high schools. The village high school ranks highest in attendance by teachers-college students. The percentage of students in each group who attended high school in cities of more than 100,000 was approximately the same as the percentage of students who attended elementary school in such cities. The rural community high school attracted few students in each group, the humber of teachers-college students slightly exceeding the number of liberal arts students.

The precollege educational backgrounds of the teachers-college students were small town, village, and rural; those of the liberal arts students were urban. This educational difference emphasizes the differences between the two groups in birthplaces and present homes.

Summary.—Table 4 summarizes the data of both groups of students with reference to the number of years of residence in various types of containties ranging in size from rural to large urban. Nearly one-half of the teachers-college group and a little more than one-fifth of the liberal arts college reported having lived on farms. About seven-eighths of the former and two-fifths of the latter have lived in communities having a population of less than 1,000. The margins of difference between the groups are not significant with reference to residence in communities ranging in population from 1,000 to 50,000. There are significant differences, however, when residence is related to cities of 50,000 or more. More than half of the liberal arts college students but only one-third of the teachers-college students have lived in such urban centers. One-sixth of the liberal arts college students and one-tenth of the teachers-college students lived at some time in cities of a half million or more.

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Table 4.—Number of years 12,831 students 1 enrolled in 9 liberal arts colleges and 8 teachers colleges in the North Central Association, January 1933, had resided in each of various types of communities

4	9 4	eache	rs colle	ges	8 116	eral s	rts col	leges		To	otal.	
Type of community	Number of students reporting residence	Percent of total group	Mean number of years of residence for those reporting residence	Mean number of years of residence for the total group	Number of students reporting residence	Percent of total group	Mean number of years of residence for those reporting residence	Mean number of years of residence for the total group	Numberg of students reporting residence	Percent of total group	Mean number of years of residence for those reporting residence	Mean number of years of residence for the total group
	2	8	4		•	7	8	9	10	11	.12	13
City of more than 500,000. City, 250,000-500,000. City, 100,000-249,999. City, 50,000-99,999. City, 25,000-49,999. City, 10,000-24,999. City, 2,500-9,999. Town, 1,000-2,499. Village of less than 1000. Farm or ranch.	590 414 939 1, 506 1, 393 2, 085 1, 911 2, 639 8, 997	4. 91 11. 13 17. 16. 50 24. 70 22. 64 31. 27 47. 36	7. 45 9. 07 11. 34 9. 50 9. 66 9. 94 10. 81	. 63 . 37 1. 01 2. 02 1. 57 2. 39 2. 25 3. 38 6. 47	395 417 794 1, 023 691 1, 246 921 816 979	9. 50 18. 08 23. 30 15. 74 28. 38 20. 97 18. 58 22. 30	9. 36 11. 11 11. 42 11. 57 10. 26 11. 77 9. 81	. 84 1.06 2.08 2.70 1.61 3.34 2.06 1.76 2.49	985 831 1, 733 2, 529 2, 084 3, 331 2, 832 3, 455 4, 976	6. 48 13. 51 19. 71 16. 24 25. 96 22. 07 26. 93 38. 78	9. 16 9. 29 10. 14 11. 43 9. 76 10. 45 9. 89 10. 49	. 70 . 60 1. 37 2. 25 1. 58 2. 71 2. 18 2. 83 5. 11
Total	16, 446			21.31	8, 022		++++++	2 19.86	24, 468	*****		20.79
Mean number of types of com- munities reported per per- son		1	. 95			1	. 83		.•	*1	91	

Of the total of 12,880 question blanks filled out, 12 from the teachers colleges and 37 from the liberal arts

colleges contained no usable response to this item.

The discrepancies between these figures and those which show a mean age of 20.63 for the teacherscollege students, 20.04 for the liberal arts college students, and 20.42 for the total group are probably due
in part to inconsistencies in the filling out of the question blanks; in part, to mathematical inaccuracies
introduced by carrying out all computations correct to 2 decimal places only; in part, to the fact that the
numbers of students neglecting to reply to items 5 and 24 were different; and, in part, to errors in tabulating

A study of the mean number of years during which students lived in communities of different sizes reveals differences similar to those noted in the consideration of types of communities in which residence was established at one time or another. Those liberal arts college students who reported having lived on farms and in villages and small towns lived in each community for shorter periods of time as measuredby the mean number of years. It may be said that on the average the liberal arts college student lived in urban communities from one and one-half to three times as long as the teachers-college student, and the teachers-college student lived about twice as long as the liberal arts student in the village and about two and one-half times as long on the farm.

There is an indication of a somewhat greater mobility on the part of teachers-college students when the mean number of types of communities per person is considered. The difference in means is slight, however, and may not be statistically significant.

#### CHAPTER V

# NATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL BACKGROUNDS OF STUDENTS' FAMILIES

Grandparents.—Native stock was predominant in the parental-background of all the students, the proportion being slightly greater in the liberal arts group. From seven-tenths to three-fourths of the four grandparents of the liberal arts students and from five-eights to two-thirds of the grandparents of the teachers-college students were born in the United States. Among the native-born grandparents, the paternal grandmothers comprised the highest percentage in both groups of students and the maternal grandfathers, the lowest.

Germany led by decisive margins in both groups as the birthplace of the one or more foreign-born grandparents, the percentage for teachers-college students ranging from 10 to 12; and for liberal arts college students, from 8 to 9. England, Sweden, Ireland, Canada, Norway, Scotland, and Denmark, ranking in the order named, were the lands of nativity of from 15 to 17 percent of the grandparents of the teachers-college students, and from 11 to 13 percent of those of the liberal arts students. The significance of the United States, Canada, and northwestern European countries as the native lands of the grandparents is revealed and the two groups of students are shown to be similar in the matter of antecedents. Of the remaining foreign countries designated as the birthplaces of grandparents, Russia and Poland led in both groups with percentages ranging from 0.35 to 1.15. These percentages, obviously, would differ slightly in other areas of the country.

Parents.—The United States was the native country of the vast majority of the fathers and mothers of the students of both groups. Among the teachers-college students, 84.36 percent of the fathers and 87.19 percent of the mothers were born in the United States; among the liberal arts college students, 88.86 percent of the fathers and 91.51 percent of the mothers. Germany was reported as the birth-place of 3.43 percent of the fathers and 2.35 percent of the mothers of teachers-college students, and of 2.02 percent of the fathers and 1.21 percent of the mothers of liberal arts college students. Canada, Sweden, and England, ranking in the order named, were the native lands of 4.93 percent of the fathers and 3.9 percent of the mothers of the teachers-college students, and of 4.16 percent of the

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fathers and 2.96 percent of the mothers of the liberal arts college students.

The United States, Germany, Canada, Sweden, and England were the lands of nativity of 93 percent of the parents of the teachers college students, and 95 percent of those of the liberal arts students. Next in rank were Russia and Poland for the teachers-college group, and Russia and Italy for the liberal arts group. The percentage in each case was less than 1.

National descent.—German descent was reported oftenest for fathers of the students in both groups and mothers of the students in the teachers-college group. English descent was reported oftenest for mothers of liberal arts students. German, English, Irish, Scotch, Swedish, Dutch, Norwegian, Welsh, and Danish, represent the descent, in the order given, of the fathers and mothers of 93 percent of the teachers-college students and 95 percent of the liberal arts students. The differences between teachers-college students and liberal arts college students in nativity and descent are too small to be significant.

Occupation of fathers.—The occupations of the parents of prospective teachers are of interest because they indicate certain economic and social background conditions. To discover these, the following question appeared in the questionnaire:

What is or was, if he is now retired or deceased, your father's trade or profession or principal occupation, i.e., the particular work by which he is or was known in his community?

An analysis of the responses to this question resulted in a list of 429 different occupations indicated by the teachers-college students and 257 by the liberal arts college students. In making a workable classification of these occupations, a modification of Counts' classification of parental occupations seemed to be the most effective scheme. The modification was necessary because this study made no inquiry in the matter of ownership of business. Consequently, the seventh group, artisan-proprietors, in Counts' list, was eliminated and such occupations were classified under miscellaneous trades. The following classifications were used:

- 1. Proprietors.—Merchants, dealers, landlords, owners, manufacturers, bankers, brokers, hotel owners, wholesalers, jobbers, lumbermen, undertakers, and others.
- 2. Professional.—Ministers, lawyers, teachers, doctors, authors, actors, musicians, engineers, inventors, nurses, dentists, editors, painters, librarians, social workers, and others.
- 3. Managerial.—Inspectors, foremen, managers, superintendents, public officials, private officials, contractors, corporation agents, commissioners, trustees, and others.
- 4. Commercial.—Buyers, clerks in merchandising houses, salesmen, real estate and insurance agents, commercial travelers, and others.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Counts, George S. The Selective Character of American —condary Education. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago, May 1922. (Supplementary educational monographs, no. 19.)

- 5. Clerical.—Bookkeepers, clerks not in merchandising establishments, auditors, accountants, stenographers, cashiers, canvassers, collectors, and others.
- 6. Agricultural.—Farmers, ranchers, stock and poultry raisers, breeders, gardeners, fruit growers, dairymen, plantation owners and workers, and others.
- 7. Building trades.—Carpenters, painters, plumbers, lathers, electricians, plasterers, roofers, masons, cabinetmakers, paperhangers, and others.
- 8. Machine trades.—Machinists, molders, toolmakers, tinsmiths, pattern-makers, draftsmen, stationary engineers and firemen, drillers, blacksmiths, furnace workers, and others.
- 9. Printing trades.—Linotypers, engravers, lithographers, printers, typesetters, pressmen, bookbinders, and others.
- 10. Miscellaneous trades.—(a) Food: Bakers, butchers, buttermakers, creamery workers, candymakers, cheesemakers, canners. (b) Mechanical: Cobblers, coopers, cutters, bottlers, tilemakers, weavers, watchmakers, papermakers, harnessmakers, furriers, glassmakers. (c) Others: Cigarmakers, leather workers, mattress makers, coppersmiths, and others.
- 11. Transportation and communication.—Engineers, firemen, brakemen, conductors, teamsters, truck drivers, chauffeurs, bus operators, motormen, flagmen, radio men, telephone and telegraph men, mail carriers, taxi drivers, draymen, yardmen, mariners, and others.
- 12. Protective service.—Policemen, firemen, marshals, detectives, watchmen, guards, soldiers, sailors, constables, wardens, and others.
- 13. Personal service.—Custodians, keepers, barbers, cooks, ushers, waiters, launderers, sextons, porters, stewards, janitors, cleaners, waiters, guides, bath operators, beauticians, shoe shiners, and others.
- 14. Extractive (not agricultural).—Miners, fishermen, lumber workers, and others.
- 15. Common labor.—Street and road workers, factory hands, shovelers, diggers, sweepers, and others.

TABLE 5.—Occupations of the fathers of 12,715 students in 9 teachers colleges and 8 liberal arts colleges in the North Central Association 1

Occupation		ber of ations		chers eges		al arts eges	All studen		
	T.C.	L.A.	Num- ber	Per-	Num- ber	Per-	Num- ber	Percent	
1			4		•	7	8	•	
1. Proprietary 2. Professional. 3. Managerial. 4. Commercial. 5. Clerical 6. Agricultural. 7. Building. 8. Machine 9. Printing. 0. Miscellaneous 1. Transportation and communication 2. Protective 3. Personal 4. Extractive 5. Common	41 48 105 17 27 16 20 44 7 32 24 17 19 3	32 37 51 10 17 11 12 23 6 16 15 9 12 1	1143 992 689 652 228 2,633 401 414 44 183 413 91 152 91 217	13. 7 11. 9 8. 2 7. 8 2. 7 31. 6 4. 8 5. 0 . 5 2. 2 5. 0 1. 1 1. 8 1. 1 2. 6	879 967 478 424 210 572 146 200 43 88 173 37 60 16	20.1 22.1 10.9 9.7 4.8 13.1 3.4 4.6 9 2.0 3.9 1.4 1.8	2, 022 1, 959 1, 167 1, 076 438 3, 206 547 614 87 271 566 128 212 107 296	18.1 18.2 8.1 26.2 4.8 4.8 1.7 1.7 2.3	
Total	420	257	8, 343	100	4, 372	100	12, 715	10	

<sup>1 56</sup> liberal arts college students and 109 teachers-college students did not reply. Percentages are based on the total number of students who did reply in each type of college.



Table 5 shows the number and percentage of the occupations of the fathers in each of the 15 classes of occupations, and the number of different occupations reported in each class of occupations. Only 1.28 percent of the 8,452 teachers-college students and 1.26 percent of the 4,428 liberal arts students failed to indicate the occupations of their fathers. It will be noticed that the fathers of a little more than half of the liberal arts students had occupations in the proprietary, professional, and managerial groups, as compared with only a third of the teachers-college students. Nearly one-third of the teacherscollege students had fathers whose occupations were agricultural, as compared with one-eighth of the liberal arts group. In the clerical group of occupations were more fathers of liberal arts students than of teachers-college students. The differences between the two groups of students were very slight with respect to parental occupations listed under machine, printing, miscellaneous, transportation and communication, protective, personal, extractive, and common labor. These eight groups of occupations were represented by approximately one-fifth of the teachers college students and one-sixth of the liberal arts students. The differences are a little larger in the percentages of fathers in the managerial, commercial, clerical, and building-trades groups, with the teachers-college students drawing slightly more from the building trades alone. In every 44 students of the total group, 8 teachers-college students and 11 liberal arts students had fathers in the managerial, commercial, and clerical occupations. The commonlabor group ranked eleventh in the occupations reported by the liberal arts college students, and tenth in those reported by teachers-college The clerical group was almost at parity with the commonlabor group in the teachers-college group.

Agriculture was the single occupational group with the largest representation among the fathers of teachers-college students. The proprietary and the professional groups ranked next in the order given but considerably below the agricultural group. The professional group had the largest representation among the fathers of liberal arts college students with the proprietary group next. The proprietary, professional, managerial, commercial, clerical, and agricultural groups were represented among the fathers of three-fourths of the teachers-college students and four-fifths of the liberal arts students.

The most noticeable differences between the two groups of students in the matter of occupational backgrounds are that the teachers-college students draw much more heavily from the agricultural group and much less heavily from the proprietary and the professional groups. There were no outstanding differences with respect to the remainder of the occupational groups.

Occupation of mothers.—Too frequently inquiries into the occupational backgrounds of college students fail to take into consideration the occupational activities of mothers, who, quite apart from the accepted duties of wives and mothers, carry on a trade or profession or principal occupation. It was felt that this study should make such an inquiry, and to this end the following question appeared in the questionnaire:

If your mother has, or had in case she is now retired or deceased, a trade or profession or principal occupation which she follows or followed quite apart from housekeeping or homemaking, state very specifically what it is or was.

Of the teachers-college students, 1,948, or 23 percent; reported that their mothers were or had been engaged in 108 different occupations apart from the distinctive occupation of homemaking or housekeeping. Of the liberal arts college students, 1,038, or 23.4 percent, reported that their mothers were associated with 87 different occupations. Thus, almost one-fourth of the students in each group came from homes in which the mothers were known in their communities by some occupation outside the home.

These occupations were classified in a manner similar to that in which the occupations of the fathers were classified. Based on the highest total frequency, the rank order, beginning with the highest, of the group of occupations is as follows:

Oc	cupation group:	Teachers college <sup>1</sup> (percent)	Liberal arts i (percent)	Occupation group— Continued.	Teachers college ! (percent)	Liberal arts i (percent)
	Professional		64. 35	Agricultural	7.5	0. 28
	Clerical.		14. 45	Managerial		1. 34
	Miscellaneous			Common labor		. 09
	trades		6. 93	Building trades		. 19
	Commercial		6. 54	Printing trades		
	Proprietary		2.40	Machine trades		
	Personal	5. 44	8. 17			

Out of every 40 of the mothers of the teachers-college students who were employed outside the home, 32 were in occupations classified as proprietary, professional, commercial, and clerical; out of every 40 of the employed mothers of the liberal arts students, 35 were in occupations so classified. The number of mothers employed in the agricultural, miscellaneous trades, personal service, and common labor occupations was greater among the teachers-college students than among the liberal arts college students. The ratio, based upon the percentages, was approximately 5 to 3.

Not many mothers were managers or forewomen, and only a very few held political offices. Teaching and sewing were the fields in which the most mothers of the teachers-college students were employed, with nursing, stenography, and canvassing next in the order named. Teaching and nursing were the occupations of most of the



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The mothers of 1,948 teachers-college students were engaged in the occupations classified.

The mothers of 1,038 liberal-arts students were engaged in the occupations classified.

employed mothers of the liberal arts students, with stenography, sewing, and private secretaryship next in the order named.

If a comparative analysis is made of the data applicable to what Counts terms the nonlabor groups, that is, the proprietary, professional, managerial, and commercial groups, the ratio between the employed mothers of the teachers-college students and those of liberal arts students is approximately 14 to 15. If a similar analysis is made of all other groups, i.e., the labor groups, the ratio between the two groups of mothers is approximately 6 to 5. While these margins are small, they point, nevertheless, to a consistent difference between the two groups of students concerned in this study. That difference indicates a somewhat less favorable background for the teachers-college student. The small margins offer some indication that, on the basis of the kinds of occupations in which employed mothers were engaged, the two groups of students were not highly divergent, and that what was once assumed to be a decisive difference between the two types of institutions is slowly disappearing.

Occupational choices of students.—It would seem to be a valid assumption that students in such technical and specialized institutions as teachers colleges are preparing themselves for teaching in some one of its many aspects. The nature of the institution itself would seem to warrant such an assumption. However, teachers-college students were not found to be entirely homogeneous in the matter of vocational objectives. They mentioned 103 different occupations as their ultimate objectives. Such diversity in occupational ambition is important to those directing the educational programs of these professional schools.

There was more diversity in the occupational choices of liberal arts college students, but not so much as was expected. These students listed 116 different occupations. In the data from the 4,096 liberal arts students who indicated vocational objectives, there was listed a different occupation for about every 35 students. In the data from 8,312 teachers-college students who indicated vocational objectives, there was listed a different occupation for about every 75 students. If consideration is given only to those students in each group who did not plan to enter the profession of teaching, a different vocational choice is found for about every 11 teachers-college students and every 20 liberal arts college students. The choice of teaching as an occupation was prominent in both groups.

It will be noted that larger proportions of teachers-college students were more certain about their occupational objectives than was true for the liberal arts college students. This, of course, should be expected.



<sup>4</sup> See footmote 1, p. 134.

Students in liberal arts colleges are frequently undecided about occupations and often defer their choices until their senior year in college or later.

Approximately 6 of every 7 teachers-college students and 3 of every 7 liberal arts college students planned to enter teaching. These figures are significant because (1) they indicate the presence of many students in the teachers colleges who do not plan to enter the specific vocation for which such institutions are specifically designed to prepare students, and (3) they indicate the presence of a great number of students in the liberal arts colleges who do plan to enter a specific vocation for which many of the institutions do not offer specific preparation. The number of nonprofessional students in teachers colleges demands the consideration of those who feel it is desirable that the technical character and purposes of teachers colleges be preserved.

Prospective teachers in liberal arts colleges.—It is, indeed, significant that almost half of the liberal arts students specified teaching as their occupational objective. There is revealed in this fact an unmistakable drift on the part of these liberal arts institutions towards the technical and specialized task of preparing students for the field of teaching. This is a marked departure from the original organization and purposes of these institutions. If the tendency continues, the time is not far distant when such colleges will need to be looked upon as being essentially institutions for the preparation of teachers.

Law, engineering, medicine, banking, ministry, business and commerce, dentistry, accounting, industrial chemistry, and journalism were the occupational choices of as many as one-tenth of the teachers-college students and only one-third of the liberal arts college students. Here again the data indicate fundamental changes in both types of institutions.



# CHAPTER VI SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### SUMMARY

Data in this study were obtained from 8,452 teachers-college students and 4,428 liberal arts college students enrolled in 9 accredited 4-year State teachers colleges and 8 accredited 4-year private liberal arts colleges of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Of these 12,880 students, 5,692 were men and 7,188 were, women.

The following significant contrasts were revealed in the comparison of students in the teachers colleges and students in the private liberal arts colleges:

 The teachers-college students were approximately 7 months older than the liberal arts college students.

2. They were approximately 3 months older at the time of entering college.

3. They had a wider age-range.

4. Interruptions in their college careers were more numerous.

- They did not show as much unanimity in the matter of seeking, the bachelor's degree.
- 6: More of them had married.
- 7. They had a slightly greater tendency to maintain no specific religious affiliation.
- 8. More of them came from homes broken by the death of a parent.
- 9. Fewer of them were the first-born child.
- 10. They came from larger families.
- 11. More of them had older and younger brothers and sisters.
- 12. They showed less tendency to enter college immediately after graduation from high school.
- 13. They showed a decidedly greater tendency to engage in teaching prior to entering college as well as between entrance and graduation.
- 14. They were more handicapped by the lack of financial aid from parents during their college careers.
- 15. Fewer scholarships and fellowships were available to them.
- 16. They showed a greater tendency to attend more than one institution.
- 17. Family college traditions had greater weight with them in the selection of a college.

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18. More of them came from homes in which the parents had not been graduated from high school and college.

19. More of them came from homes in which brothers and sisters had not gone farther in their education than the elementary school or the high school.

20. They showed a greater tendency to attend college within their home States; and they thus traveled much shorter distances to attend college.

21. More of them were born in rural and village communities.

- 22. They showed a greater migratory tendency from birthplaces to present homes.
- 23. They showed a greater tendency to live on farms and in villages and small towns.
- 24. They attended elementary school and high school in very much smaller communities.
- 25. They evidenced greater mobility in the matter of having lived in communities of various sizes.
- 26. They were only slightly lower in the percentage of native-born grandparents and native-born parents.

27. They decidedly outranked the students of the liberal arts colleges in having fathers whose occupations are agricultural,

28. They were significantly outranked by the students of the liberal. arts colleges in having fewer fathers whose occupations were in the nonlabor groups.

29. They were more certain in their occupational objective.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

The problem which the prospective teacher presents to the college he attends is fundamentally curricular. The student brings it with him when he presents himself for matriculation. The problem has its roots centered deeply in the backgrounds and the personal life of the student. The data with which this study deals reveal unmistakable differences in the educational, social, and economic backgrounds of of prospective teachers. They reveal a marked provincialism in the personal life-experiences of the matriculant.

The task of institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers is manifold. First, the college needs to determine what elements of curriculum content in the form of liberalizing and culturalizing experiences and activities need to be incorporated within an enriched all-college curriculum to meet the problem presented by the student. important aspect of the major problem will need to be predicated upon a clearer definition than is now available as to the cultural, social, and personal equipment of the individual when he is ready to embark upon his career as a teacher.



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Second, the college needs to develop reliable measures and practices with which to explore the backgrounds and the life-experiences of the prospective teacher with the end in view to discover his insufficiencies. This phase of the problem will need to proceed upon a thoroughly refined program of testing and counseling.

Third, the college needs to make available to the student such liberalizing and culturalizing and personalizing experiences and activities in the all-college curriculum as will remedy the insufficiencies discovered in the life of the student. This phase of the problem will need the advantage of flexible administration to the end that the opportunity for self-enrichment through participation may be adequately individualized.

Finally, the college needs to recognize the principles that its obligation to the student is not definable merely in terms of subject-matter and that the curriculum in its real meaning goes beyond the limitations set by traditional subject-matter. Many developmental experiences may be secured by students through college welfare and extracurricular activities, discussed in volume V, part IV. This phase of the problem will need to be based upon a philosophy that recognizes the whole life of the student as the concern of the college to the end that the ultimate teacher may become equipped with such social, cultural, and personal characteristics as the profession of teaching requires.

Another important problem is revealed in the fact that almost half of the students in the liberal arts colleges are looking toward the field of teaching as their occupational objective. Within all constructive thinking and planning for the improvement of teacher education either in State or Nation, the liberal arts college should certainly have a definite place. Its place in a state-wide or nation-wide program of teacher education should not mean the limitation or checking of its possibilities for the education of teachers; rather, it should mean the strengthening and the improvement of its teacher-education program within the larger unified program throughout either State or Nation. It should not be omitted; rather, it should be integrated within the whole task of teacher education.

# PART III. STAFF PERSONNEL IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

## CHAPTER I

# PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Relation of the staff to the product of a professional school.—Although there is almost no satisfactory evidence to show that the education and experience of a college faculty has a direct bearing, upon the quality and effectiveness of the graduates, there are few persons who will question the existence of such a relationship. The relationship seems to be even more obvious for professional schools, graduates of which are expected to possess not only the information required of members of the profession, but also a necessary modicum of professional skills and techniques required in successful professional practice. In such institutions, it has been considered essential to select staff members who had the scholarly command of the teaching fields required of college and university teachers and who had in addition either successful experience in the profession or a sympathetic understanding of the problems which confront members of the profession. The value of pertinent experience or of sympathetic understanding is clearly conceded in the schools which are distinctly professional. The case is not so clear for the general foundational work on the preprofessional level. There the emphasis is more upon breadth of informational contacts and upon mastery of subject-matter fields, rather than upon professional applications of the material being studied. The need for professional preparation and experience on the part of the faculty is quite clear in institutions preparing doctors, ministers, lawyers, engineers, and dentists. The need for such special preparation and experience for the faculties of institutions preparing teachers is neither se obvious nor so generally accepted. This is due to a number of causes some of which should be mentioned at this time since they present some of the reasons for this study of faculty members.

In the first place, teaching has not attained, in the thinking of the average citizen, the status of a profession. As long as it is generally thought that any well-informed person can teach, there is little reason for insisting that faculty members should themselves have taught or have made a special study of teaching. The original assumption implies that there are no special skills or techniques which teachers need.

In the second place, the minimum amount of education considered necessary for teachers has been so low that the period of preparation for teachers has remained until recently on the high-school and junior college level. As a direct result of this, the professional preparation of teachers has had to be given during the same period as their general and foundational education. It was therefore necessary to cut short—very short—the general education of prospective teachers in order to give them their special preparation for teaching or to give them their general education and neglect entirely their special preparation or else attempt to do both at the same time. These three alternatives have each had their conscientious advocates and have been the dividing points for both theories and practices in the education of teachers in the United States.

In the third place, the preparation of teachers has not been taken very seriously by many persons interested in public education because the teaching group, especially in the rural and elementary schools, has been so transient. It seemed unreasonable to spend 4 or more years in the professional preparation of teachers whose average teaching life was no longer than the period of preparation. Improvement in the economic status of teaching and the increased amount of preparation which has resulted since the World War have greatly increased the average length of a teacher's service. While teaching is still handicapped by being considered a short-period occupation, this factor is not as important as it was before 1920.

In the fourth place, the differences in standards of preparation which have been established and maintained between elementary and secondary teachers, between urban and rural teachers, between one area and another, between one State and an adjacent State, and between one school district and an adjacent district, have tended to confirm the impression that there was no minimum or standard amount or kind of preparation for teachers.

Scope of the study of staff members.—In order to have a more accurate picture of the total situation for the education of teachers it was decided to study the faculties of all types of higher educational institutions as well as the curricula for teachers, the practice-school facilities, the summer sessions, the programs for the in-service education of teachers, and the other phases of their preparation which affect the work of teachers.

As was stated at the beginning of this chapter, there is no conclusive evidence that the staff of a college determines the quality of its work. It was believed, however, that along with comparisons on the items just mentioned it was desirable to know how the different types of institutions compared in such matters as the educational preparation of the faculty members, their experience in public-school teaching, their institutional service loads, their educational productivity and

their work and professional recognition on various National, State, and local organizations. These comparisons may not explain different practices as listed in other sections of the Survey but they may throw additional light upon them or help to support a conclusion or explain more fully a difference. In order to make possible these comparisons an inquiry blank was addressed to the faculty members of all cooperating institutions asking for certain data about preparation, teaching load, and other items. This data blank is reproduced as figure 1, pages 145–152. Frequent reference to the figure in connection with the tables presented in this part will make many of the tables self-explanatory and save unnecessary descriptions.

FIGURE 1.—Staff personnel inquiry form.

United States Department of the Interior,
Office of Education,
Washington, November 25, 1931.

To members of college and university staffs.

The status of staffs of colleges and universities is most intimately associated with the preparation of teachers for American schools. Institutions of higher learning, public and private, large and small, denominational and nondenominational, all have a unique contribution to offer in solving the many problems of teacher education.

The president of your institution has consented to cooperate with the National Survey of the Education of Teachers in an inquiry addressed to collegiate staffs, instructional and administrative. The questions are relatively few in number, readily answerable, and have been carefully selected with due regard to their relevancy to the problems being attacked. The identity of neither the individual nor the institution will appear since individual returns are merged in group studies.

Since this inquiry is a phase of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, participation on the part of those members of the instructional staff having classes attended by prospective teachers or teachers in service is especially requested. The increasing attention of the public, the press, and research investigators to issues of contemporary higher education evinces the importance of its problems. Your response to the inquiry will provide additional facts upon which to base solutions.

Cordially yours,

Commissioner of Education.



## THE NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF **TEACHERS**

Directions.—On the following pages two types of questions are found. One type is answered by inserting the information requested in the space provided at the left of the question. The other type is answered by encircling the one code number to the left of the item which best represents your response to the question asked, e.g., in 7-8, Classification of Your Institution: State university or land-grant college.

Use preferably a red or soft pencil. Draw the circle neatly around the one code number representing your response. Please answer every question which pertains to your type of service. On completion, give your inquiry to the designated collector. Your prompt cooperation will be appreciated.

(Your last name)	(Ye	our first name)
22222420 V20 VVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVVV		
(Name of institution)	(Post office address)	(State)

Name may be omitted if considered desirable

#### [Page 2]

#### 7-8

#### CLASSIFICATION OF YOUR INSTITUTION

- State university or land-grant college.
- State woman's college.
- State teachers college or normal school.
- State junior college.
- 04
- Municipal university or college. Municipal teachers college. 05
- 06 Municipal junior college.
- Denominational university or college.
- Private nondenominational university or college.
- Denominational junior college.
- 10 Nondenominational junior college.
- Private teachers college. 11
- Other type of college\_\_\_\_

## RACIAL CLASSIFICATION OF STUDENT

- O Primarily or exclusively white students.
- 1- Primarily or exclusively Negro students.

MAXIMUM LENGTH OF CURRICULA PRE-SENTED WHICH PROSPECTIVE TEACH-DES MAY TAKE

- One year undergraduate.
- Two years undergraduate.

- Three years undergraduate.
- Four years undergraduate.
- One year graduate.
- Two years graduate.
- Three or more years graduate.

#### COLLEGE ENROLLMENT AS AT NOVEM-BER 1, 1981

#### (Exclude extension and correspondent students)

- Less than 250 students.
- 250-499 students. 500-749 students.
- 750-999 students.
- 1,000-1,499 students.
- 1,500-2,499 students.
- 2,500-4,999 students.
- 5,000-9,999 students.
- 10,000 and over.

#### ACADEMIC RANK

- Professor.
- Associate professor.
- Assistant professor.
- Instructor.
- Assistant.
- Lecturer.
- Other (specify)

FOR PART-TIME EMPLOYEE ONLY (If you are employed part time, check percent of full-time salary which you receive)

- Less than 20.
  - 20-25.



- 26-50. 3 51-75. 76-80. 81-100. 14-15 YOUR CHIEF PUNCTION (Mark only one) Business manager. 01 Bursar. Dean of the college. Dean of men. 03 Dean of women. Director of athletics. Director of extension. Director of health service. Director of instruction. 07 Director of placement. Director of research. 09 11 Director of student social affairs. Director of training schools. 13 1 12 Editor of publications. 14 Elementary school principal, practice school. Head of department.
   High school principal, practice school. Librarian. 18 President. Registrar. 19 Superintendent of buildings and grounds. Teaching staff (college or university). 22 Teaching staff of practice-demon-stration school (supervisor, critic, or room teacher). Vice president. Other (specify) 16 YOUR BACE White. Negro. Indian. Other. 17 MARITAL STATUS Single. Married. Divorced. Widow-Widower. 18 TOUR AGE (As at nearest birthday) Less than 20. 20-24. 25 - 29.
- 40-44. 45-49. 50-54. 8 55 64. 64 and over.

#### 19-20

DEPARTMENT IN WHICH INSTRUCTION IS GIVEN

(In case of instruction in two or more departments, indicate the one to which you devote the major part of your time)

00 Agriculture. 01 Art and drawing. 02 Biological sciences. 03 Business and commerce. 04 Chemistry. 05 Economics. Education. 06 07 English. Geography. Health. 08 09 History—civics. Home economics—household arts. 10 11

Industrial arts. 12

13 Languages, classical. Languages, modern. Libery science. Mathematics. 14 15 16

17 Music. 18 Philosophy—ethics. Physical education. 19 20 Physics, 21

Psychology. 22 . Sociology.

Trades—industries. 23 Other (specify)

In how many of the above departments do you offer instruction this term or semester?

----- If you give instruction in two or more of above departments, insert percent of instructional time devoted to the department which you checked in 19-20.

23

SET

Man. 1 Woman.

24

PROVISIONS FOR OLD AGE

(Encircle more than one number if necessary)

No systematic provision for old

Contribute to pension or retirement fund.

Carry old-age insurance, etc. Personal savings and investments.

Ell British to be sell with the the state of the second of the second

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#### 25

#### HIGHEST LEVEL OF YOUR TRAINING

- 0 Less than high-school graduate.
- 1 High-school graduate.
- 2 Less than one year of college work.
- 3 One year of college or normal school.
- 4 Two years of college or normal school.
- 5 Three years of college or normal school.
- 6 Four years of college or normal school.
- 7 One year of graduate work.
- 8 Two years of graduate work.
- Three or more years of graduate work.

#### [Page 3]

#### 26

#### SOURCE OF EARNED BACHELOR'S DEGREE

(In case of two similar degrees, select the source where you had the most residential work)

- State university or land-grant college.
- State womans college.
- 2 State teachers college.
- 3 Municipal college or university.
- 4 Municipal teachers college.
- Denominational college or university.
- Private nondenominational college or university.
- 7 Private teachers college.
- 8 Foreign college or university.
- 9 Other type....

## 27

#### SOURCE OF EARNED MASTER'S DEGREE

- O State university or land-grant college.
- 1 State womans college.
- 2 State teachers college.
- 3 Municipal college or university.
- 4 Municipal teachers college
- 5 Denominational college or university.
- 6 Private nondenominational college or university.
- 7 Private teachers college.
- 8 Foreign college or university.
- 9 Other type

#### 28

#### SOURCE OF EARNED DOCTOR'S DEGREE

- O State university or land-grant college.
- Municipal college or university.
   Denominational college or univer-
- sity.
  3 Private nondenominational college
- 3 Private nondenominational college or university.
- 4 Private teachers college.
- 5 Foreign college or university.
- 6 Other type.....

#### 29 .

#### HIGHEST HONORARY DEGREE

- 0 No honorary degree.
- 1 Baccalaureate, honorary.
- 2 Master's degree, honorary.
- 3 Doctorate, honorary.

#### 30

#### CHECK DEGREE OR DEGREES EARNED IN INSTITUTION IN WHICH YOU ARE NOW EMPLOYED

- 0. No degree from this institution.
- Bachelor's degree.
- 2 Master's degree.
- 3 Doctorate degree.
- 4 Bachelor and master's.
  5 Bachelor and doctorate.
- o bachelor and doctorate
- 6 Master's and doctorate.
- 7 Bachelor, master's and doctorate.

#### 31

## TOTAL YEARS EMPLOYED BY THIS INSTITUTION

### (Count present year 1931-32 as one)

- One.
- 1 Two.
- 2 Three to five.
- 3 Six to ten.
- 4 Eleven to fifteen.
- 5 Sixteen to thirty.
- 6 Thirty-one or over.

#### 32

# TOTAL YEARS EXPERIENCE ON OTHER COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY STAFFS

- No college experience elsewhere.
- 1 One.
- 2 Two.
- 3 Three to five.
- 4 Six to ten.
- 5 Eleven to fifteen.
- 6 Sixteen to thirty.
- 7 Thirty-one or over.

TOTAL YEARS EXPERIENCE IN BLEMEN-TARY SCHOOL AS TEACHER, PRINCIPAL, OR SUPERVISOR

- None.
- One to three.
- Four to five.
- Six to ten.
- Eleven to twenty.
- 5 Over twenty.

34

TOTAL YEARS EXPERIENCE IN SECOND-ARY SCHOOL AS TEACHER, PRINCIPAL, OR SUPERVISOR

- None.
- One to three.
- Four to five.
- Six to ten.
- Eleven to twenty.
- 5 Over twenty.

35

TOTAL YEARS EXPERIENCE 'AS SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT OR ASSISTANT SU-PERINTENDENT

- None.
- One to three.
- Four to five.
- 3 Six to ten.
- 4 Eleven to twenty.
- 5 Over twenty.

GRAND TOTAL YEARS EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

(Sum of items 31 to 35, inclusive)

- One.
- Two.
- Three to five.
- Six to ten.
- Eleven to fifteen.
- Sixteen to thirty. Thirty-one to forty.
- Forty-one or over.

37

TOTAL YEARS EXPERIENCE IN ANY OCCUPATION OR PROFESSION, IN BUSI-NESS, COMMERCE, ETC., DIRECTLY OR INDIRECTLY RELATED TO YOUR PRESENT FIELD OF ENDEAVOR

- None.
- One to three.
- Four to five.
- Six to ten Eleven to wenty.
- Over twenty. Give name of such activity.

38

#### BATE OF PROMOTION

- Entered this institution with present academic rank.
- Required one year for change from previous status to present rank.
- Required two years for change.
- Required three years for change. Required four to five years for
- change. Required six to ten years for change.
- Required eleven to fifteen years for change.
- Required more than fifteen years.

### 39-40

salary for year 1930-31, excluding amount derived from extension teaching unless a part of your contractual salary. Include the estimated value of any perquisites to salary such as house, living expenses, etc.

NUMBER OF MONTHS EMPLOYMENT BY INSTITUTION FOR WHICH ABOVE 1990-81 BALARY WAS PAID

- Not employed in present institu-
- One to six months, inclusive.
- Seven months.
- 3 Eight months.
- Nine months.
- Ten months.
- Eleven months.
- Twelve months.

#### 42 - 43

---- Give your institutional salary for year 1931-32, excluding amount derived from extension teaching, unless a part of your contractual salary. Include the estimated value of any perquisites to salary such as house, living expenses, etc.

NUMBER OF MONTHS EMPLOYMENT BY INSTITUTION FOR WHICH ABOVE 1981-82 BALARY IS PAID

- One to six months, inclusive.
- Seven months.
- Eight months.
- 3 Nine months.
- Ten months.
- Eleven months.
- Twelve months.

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45

TEACHING LOAD—CLOCK HOURS PER WEEK DURING PRESENT SCHOOL YEAR

(Consider period 80 to 80 minutes as one clock hour)

- 0 I do not teach.
- 1 1-9 clock hours.

- 2 10-14 clock hours.
- 15 clock hours.
- 4 16 clock hours.
- 5 17-19 clock hours.
- 6 20-24 clock hours.
- 7 25-29 clock hours. 3 30-34 clock hours.
- 9 35 clock hours and over.

[Page 4]

#### 46-47

#### TEACHING LOAD

(Multiply number of students in each section you now teach by number of credits each section carries. Add these products.)

Unit of college credit at this institution is called

This equals \_\_\_\_ hours per wk. for \_\_\_\_ wks.

For college year 1931-32, estimate the average hours of time per week which you devote as a full time employee to the following institutional responsibilities.

48

RESIDENTIAL COLLEGE INSTRUCTION, NONLABORATORY, ETC.

- O I do not give nonlaboratory instruction.
- 1-4.
- 2 5-9.
- 3 10-14.
- 4 15-19.
- 5 20-24.
- 6 25 and over.

49

RESIDENTIAL COLLEGE INSTRUCTION— LABORATORY, STUDIO, GYM, SHOP, ETC.

- 0 I do not give laboratory instruction.
- 1 1-4.
- 2 5-9.
- 3 10-14.
- 4 15-19.
- 5 20-24.
- 6 25 and over.

50

RESIDENTIAL INSTRUCTION, PRACTICE SCHOOL PUPILS

- O I do not teach practice school pupils.
- 1 1-4
- 5-0
- 8 10-14
- 4 15-19
- 5 20-24.
- 6 25 and over.

#### 51

#### EXTENSION TEACHING

- 0 I do no extension teaching.
- 1 1-4.
- 2 5-9.
- 3 10-14.
- 4 15-19.
- 5 20-24.
- 6 25 and over.

52

PREPARATION FOR INSTRUCTION, PAPER WORE, ETC.

- 0 I make no preparation for instruction.
- 1 1-4.
- 2 5-9.
- 3 10-14.
- 4 15-19.
- 5 20-24. 6 25 and over.

53

SERVE AS COLLEGE REPRESENTATIVE

TO PUBLIC

- No public contacts as representative.
- 1 1-4.
- 2 5-9.
- 3 10-14.
- 4 15 and over.

54

REGULARLY DELEGATED ADMINISTRA-TIVE RESPONSIBILITIES

- I have no administrative responsibilities.
- 1 1-4.
- 2 5-9.
- 3 10-14.
- 4 15-19.
- 5 20-24.
- 6 25-29.
- 7 30-34.
- 8 35-40.
- 9 Over 40.

55

RESEARCH

- 0 I do no research.
- 1 1.4

- 10-14.
- 4 15-19.
- 5 20-24.
- 6 25 and over.

56

OTHER INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES (CONFERENCES, COMMITTEE WORK, TRAVEL, ETC.)

- I do not have such responsibilities.
- 1 1-4
- 2 5-9.
- 3 10-14.
- 4 15-19.
- 5 20-24.
- 6 25 and over.

### 57-58

—Sum of above hours devoted to institutional responsibilities (48-56, inc.)

56

## SABBATICAL LEAVE OF ABSENCE

- Institution does not grant sabbatical leave.
- 1 Did not take last sabbatical leave.
- 2 Took last sabbatical leave and traveled abroad.
- 3 Traveled in United States.
- 4 Studied for advanced degree abroad.
- 5 Studied for advanced degree in United States.
- 6 Taught at another institution.
- 7 Wrote a book.
- 8 Other (specify)

#### 60-61

Average size of classes at junior college level (courses designed for first two years of undergraduate work) which you teach this term. Average is found as follows: Add number of students in all the sections of the given type and divide by the number of sections of that type.

#### 62-63

Average size of classes at senior college level (courses designed for last two years of undergraduate work) which you teach this term.

#### 64 - 65

Average size of classes at graduate level (courses designed for students who have completed undergraduate work) which you teach this term.

88

BOOKS PUBLISHED SINCE JULY 1926 (Include only books, bulletins, monographs, etc.)

- 0 None.
- 1 One.
- 2 Two or three.
- 3 Four or five.
- 4 More than five.

67

ARTICLES PUBLISHED IN MAGAZINES OF NATIONAL SCOPE SINCE JULY 1926

- 0 None.
- One to three.
- Four to nine.
- 3 Ten to nineteen.
- 4 Twenty or more.

68-69

EXTRA COLLEGE ACTIVITIES SINCE JULY

(Encircle more than one number if necessary)

- 00 Elected member of national honorary professional association of your particular field.
- 01 Participated in State or city survey. 02 Member of national or State
- committee (professional).

  Member of national or State committee (civic fraternal as della
- mittee (civic, fraternal, social).

  Office in State civic, etc., organisa-
- 05 Office in State professional organi-
- sation.

  Of Office in national civic, etc.,
- organization.

  Office in national professional organization.
- 08 Consultant for city system or institution.
- 09 Won honorary citation or recognition for scholarly, artistic, or other accomplishment from a government or from a professional or civic organisation.
- 10 Editor of magazine or journal. 11 Other (specify)
- 12 Did not participate in above activities.

FOR DEPARTMENTAL HEADS ONLY

(70 to 78 inclusive)

70-71

courses given by your department for college year ending June 1931.

(Exclusive of summer session)

72-73-74

Mumber of college seniors majoring in your department during college year 1930-31.

75-76-77

Mumber of college seniors minoring in your department during college year 1930-31.

78

...... Number of staff members in your department.

(Count yourself as one.) Include all part-time

As is, obvious from the form of the data blank as shown in figure 1 the questions were pre-coded to facilitate transferring the answers to Hollerith cards as was done in inquiry 1 (figs. 1 and 2, pt. I). This saves much time in tabulating large numbers of replicand it also makes the replies much more comparable among types of institutions than would be true if individuals were privileged to supply their own answers. On the other hand, tabulations are restricted by the form in which the data were secured. For example, once the data were transferred to Hollerith cards it was not possible to make any other groupings of institutions than those provided for in items 7-8 without going back to the blanks which gave the name and location of the institution. This would have required tabulating from the original blanks which was much alower and more costly than by the tabulating machines. An illustration of this limitation was the inability in some of the tables to separate the universities from the land-grant colleges or the normal schools from the teachers colleges.

Number of replies received .- Six hundred and thirty-seven institutions returned staff inquiry blanks, 604 in time to be used in the first tabulations. The number of institutions of each classification and the maximum length of curriculum prospective teachers may take are presented in table 1. Comparisons of the totals in this table with those given for the United States in table 1, part III, volume V of the survey report show that the normal schools and teachers colleges are more fully represented in the returns than some of the other groups and that the junior colleges are probably least well represented. larger groups are represented by enough institutions to present a reliable picture of the conditions studied. Since one of the principal reasons for making this study of college faculties was to make comparisons among groups of institutions most of the tabulations will keep the groups separated. In this way the fact that one group is more fully represented than other groups will not exert any undue . influence upon the interpretations of the tables. The unequal representation of the groups is the reason why central tendency measures for the total of all groups were often not computed.

TABLE 1.—Classification of institutions participating in personnel study by type and maximum length of curricula presented, 1931-32

					Clas	nifice	tion	of ins	itutios					
Maximum length of curricula presented	State university or land-grant college	State women's college	State teachers college or normal school	State junior college	Municipal university or college	Municipal teachers	Municipal Junior col-	Denominational uni-	Private nondenomi- national university or college	Denominational jun-	Nondenominational	Private tenohers col-	Other type of college	Total
	1		4		•	,			10	11	13	13	14	16
year, undergraduate years, undergraduate years, undergraduate years, undergraduate years, graduate years, graduate years, graduate	6 21 8		10 18 105 10	12	3 1	8 6 3	67	1 2 163 18 4 1	1 40 14	81 2	6	1779		10 3 23 7
Total	88	8	144	15	8	15	48	194	67	33	6	11		60

Size of institutions responding.—The distributions of institutions included in this study according to type and college enrollment are given in table 2. To the extent that the institutions included represent an adequate sample for the country it is clear that the majority of higher educational institutions (55 percent) had in 1931 fewer than 500 college students. One-fourth of the institutions had fewer than 250 college students. The distributions in this table are significant because it is obvious that the smaller institutions are limited in the range of curricula for teachers which can be offered without greatly increased costs or inferior quality of work.

TABLE 2.—Classification of institutions participating in personnel study by type and college enrollment, 1931-32

	Classification of institution													
College enrollment	State university or land-grant college	State woman's college	State teachers college or normal school	State Junior college	Municipal university or college	Municipal teachers col-	Municipal junior col-	Denominational uni-	Private nondenomina- tional university or college	Denominational Jun-	10 8	9 8	Other type of college	Total
1	2		4	8		,	8		10	11	12	13	14	15
Fewer than 250 100-499 100-749 100-900 100-1,469 100-4,499 100-4,099 100-0,990 100-0,000 and more	1 2 2 4 10 14 14 17 1	3 2 8	14 87 47 28 12 10 1	8 1	1	4 4 8 1 2 1	21 17 6 1 2	61 84 29 6 6 8 4	5 22 16 5 5 4 4 4	23 10	5 1	11	1	156 186 107 44 46 31 22
Total	85	8	144	15		15	48	294	67	33	6	11	3	60



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Chief function of the staff members.—A third measure of the representativeness of the replies used in the staff study is given in table 3. The 21,742 replies are distributed according to the type of institution and the chief function of those who replied. The replies were least representative for some of the administrative officers, many of whom did not consider themselves as directly concerned with the education of teachers. In most respects the distributions in table 3 are quite satisfactory and the number of cases sufficient to represent adequately the instructional and supervisory groups.

TABLE 3.—Summarisation of responses to college and university personnel inquiry, 1931-32

	8				Charl	Bosti	ion a	instit	ation				
Chief function	State university or leadings	State woman's college	State teachers college or normal school	State junior college	Municipal university or college	Municipal teachers col-	Municipal junios col-	Denominational uni-	Private nondenomina- tional university or college	Denominational Jun-	Nondenominational junior college	Private tenebers col-	Total
1						,			10	11	to.	13	14
Business manager Bursar Dean of the college Dean of men Dean of women Director of athlettics Director of extension Director of instruction Director of placement Director of placement Director of student social affairs Director of training schools Editor of publications Elementary school principal, practice school Head of department	7 4 110 150 264 20 21 15 18 6 65 16 4 2 786	3 1 6 3 4 1 2 3 2 1 1 6	20 9 61 36 104 114 30 53 27 18 11 6 114 12 50 922	2 2 10 3 4 11		8 1 4 8 3 3 1 1 5 64	1	26 15 104 26 68 90 4 12 7 6 1 3 17 3	7 8 61 9 21 28 8 11 8 122 30 2 7 8 428	2 4 17 4 6 8	18	3 3 3	95 40 410 945 308 59 100 65 43 177 28
High-echool principal, practice achool.  Librarian.  President.  Registrer  Superintendent of buildings and	12 25 9 11	17 8 6	214 72 64	8 8	1 2	8 9 3	12 6 7	7 73 70 58	4 29 13 19	8 14 4	1	1 5 2	63 369 206 180
grounds Teaching staff (college or university) Teaching staff of practice-demon-	3 2, 674	470	3, 084	189	106	338	685	2, 400	1, 801	158	47	81	18
stration school (supervisor, critic, or room teacher)	211 2 92	2 4	1, 596 8 78	9	8 1	90 7 13	10	75 10 41	124 2 44	7 1	'8	30 1 4	2, 248 33 288
Total	5, 007	745	6,748	294	219	545	799	4, 181	2, 676	310	76	142	21, 742

This table supplies a wealth of factual material about the different groups of institutions. For example, nearly three-fourths of the practice and demonstration teachers—supervisors, critics, and room teachers—were in the normal schools and teachers colleges—a group with less than a third of the total teaching group. The different groups showed distinct differences in the relatively large number of

deans of the college and the relatively small number of deans of men, directors of instruction, and directors of placement. Two-thirds of the directors of training schools were in the normal schools and teachers colleges. The ratio of heads of departments to teaching members also varied with the types of institution. In the smaller colleges and junior colleges many of the smaller departments had only one instructor who was also designated head of the department and therefore included in that classification. It is also of interest to note that there were returns from 100 directors of health service and from 89 directors of research—2 fields which have received only recent recognition as fields for special emphasis and which could therefore only recently be listed as "chief functions" for staff members.

Subjects taught by instructional staff members. - A fourth measure of the personnel in the staff study is found in the distributions of instructional staffs by type of institution and by instructional departments given in table 4. The data in this table give numerous rough estimates of the relative emphasis green to different fields of instruction by the institutions of each type and by the total group. English was clearly the field of greatest emphasis for the total group, followed in order by the social studies (history, economics, and sociology) education, physical sciences (chemistry and physics), modern language, biological sciences, and mathematics. These seven fields stayed at the top of most of the distributions but the order was changed in several groups. Education ranked next to English in the normal schools and teachers colleges but was fourth in the universities and land-grant colleges, eighth in the State colleges for women, and fifth in the denominational colleges and universities. also shows the greater emphasis placed upon some of the special fields in different groups of institutions. Agriculture was, as would be expected, given most emphasis in the university and land-grant college group. Art and drawing, on the other hand, received relatively more emphasis in the normal schools and teachers colleges than in any of the other groups. The denominational colleges and universities gave more attention to classical language than did the other groups. Comparisons similar to the above can very easily be obtained from table 4 by anyone interested in a group of institutions or in a field of instruction.

A separate distribution of heads of departments for the instructional fields by types of institution gave little information beyond that given in table 4 and was not included in the final report.



TABLE 4.—Distribution by departments of members of instructional staff in various types of colleges and universities, 1931-32

				(	Classifi	icatio	on of	institu	ition				
Department	State university or land-grant college	State woman's college-	State teachers college or normal school	State junior college	Municipal university or college	Municipal teachers college	Municipal junior col- lege	Denominational university or college	Private nondenomi- national university or college	Denominational jun- for college	Nondenominational	Private teachers col- lege	Total
1	3	2	4		6	7	8	9	10	11	13	13	14
Agriculture Art and drawing Biological sciences Business and commerce Chemistry Economics Education English Geography Health History-civics Home economics-household arts Industrial arts	261 63 250 135 222 166 252 433 61 8 168 135 24	2 19 28 11 21 6 23 78 5 6 31 54 3	27 141 177 107 105 38 340 506 112 32, 246 134 97	10 2 13 5 8 3 6 24 1 1 9 11 2	3 9 3 17 5 23 20	17 23 1 4 1 63 61 19 19 20 3 10	11 36 34 45 16 10 84 6 3 50 8	2 21 133 63 145 75 174 837 16 3 143 60 2	2 39 122 52 92 71 169 227 17 7 115 60 8	1 9 5 10 2 10 22 2 14 5	2 3 2 3 1 9	7 8 1 1	305 319 805 418 672 384 1, 077 1, 806 239 81 812 474 150
Languages: Classical. Modern Library science !  Mathematics Music. Philosophy-ethics. Physical education. Physics Psychology Bodiology Trades and industries. Other-Bible.	77	4 47 4 10 49 2 30 5 15 10	36 111 8 148 208 3 209 50 77 40 2	10 8 1 4 3 2 2 3	15 2 3 4 4 3 4	6 1 15 11 17 2 23 8	5 63 48 17 3 17 22 11 5	112- 268 1 125 146 135 59 75 45 47 1	. 50 171 8 71 65 48 80 57 49 45 2	10 17 3 2 2 2 2	2 5 2 5 1 3	8	265 955 20 666 309 222 544 33 300 211 2

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Difference between totals and those in table 3 due to elimination of part-time instructors and teachers in some fields clearly not connected with teacher education such as law, engineering, pharmacy, and architecture.

Conclusion on scope and representativeness.—The data presented in tables 1 to 4 warrant the statement that the returns from the staff inquiry were adequate both in the number of institutions and the number of staff members to give a satisfactory and representative picture of faculty personnel in the higher educational institutions in the United States in 1931-32. Unless otherwise specified, the data in chapters I to VI, inclusive, do not include the faculties of the practice schools. These are discussed in chapter VII.

Policy of presentation of staff personnel data.—As previously stated, the principal purpose in making this study of the faculties of institutions in which teachers are prepared was to supply additional comparative data about the different groups of institutions with the expectation that the data obtained would clarify, substantiate, or modify conclusions and recommendations from other Survey studies concerning the place of these institutions in the education of teachers. Because the data requested were necessarily quantitative rather than

qualitative, care will be taken not to attach too much weight to any differences which appear. The material in this part of the Survey should be thought of as largely supplementary in nature. It may suggest many questions and problems concerning the education of teachers but it will provide answers to almost none of them. Because of these limitations, the data will be presented in the following chapters with a minimum of interpretative comment. Some tables, the meaning and significance of which are obvious will be included without any comment. In a few cases the attention of the reader will be called to certain facts in the tables to which later reference will be made which have a bearing upon recommendations made in other sections of the Survey report. The danger of giving undue emphasis to conditions which are thus singled out for special comment is fully realized and will as far as possible be avoided. On the other hand, an extended and detailed discussion of each table is also subject to the danger of biased treatment and overemphasis. Such extended treatments are also tedious reading for those familiar with the field of higher education who can and will go directly to the tables for their data and their interpretations. Those unfamiliar with the field of higher education would obtain neither familiarity with nor interest in the problems of staff personnel from extended discussions of the tables. A final reason for the omission of unnecessary discussion is the saving in printing costs which will allow a wider distribution of the report.



## CHAPTER II

# ACADEMIC RANK, AGE, SEX, MARITAL STATUS, AND PROVISION FOR OLD AGE

Academic rank of staff members .- The distribution of the teaching staffs of 8 types of institutions according to the number and percent of the faculty holding each academic rank for the academic year 1931-32 is given in table 5. Intergroup comparisons should make allowance for the fact that many of the junior colleges do not use the full range of academic ranks nor do most of the normal schools and some of the teachers colleges. In some of the institutions in these groups all of the teachers are called instructors. This accounts for some at least of the larger percentage of instructors in those two groups. The heavy percentage of full professors in the denominational universities and colleges was probably caused by the number of smaller institutions in that group. In these smaller colleges a number of the departments have only one teacher who is usually a full professor and head of the department. This table provides evidence to refute the statements sometimes made that the major part of the instruction in colleges is given by instructors and assistants.

Table 5.—Academic rank of staff members in various types of colleges in 1931-32

Academie rank	uni sity lar gre	ver-	WOL	tate nan's lege	Str tea en coll	ch-	ui sit	nio- pal niv- y or lege	tes	inic- oal ich- rs lege	ju	inio- al nior lege	Den inati un sity coll	onal iv-	non tion univ	vate ide- nina- nal ver- ver- ege
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
4	2	8	4		6	,7	8	9	10	11	13	13	14	15	16	17
Professor Associate professor Assistant professor Instructor Assistant Lecturer Other	713 879	37. 3 18. 7 23. 1 20. 0	95 173 140	16. 6 30. 1	404	31. 5 14. 8 15. 3 37. 5 .7	48 49	29. 1 27. 4 28. 0 14. 3	28 91	38. 9 6. 6 12. 2 89. 7 2. 2		11. 4 1. 4 .2 86. 6	283 462	56. 7 9. 3 15. 2 18. 2 . 5	284 478 410	
Total cases	3, 806		574		3, 065		175		229		555		3, 047		2, 009	

Age of faculty members of institutions of higher education.—The median age and the first and third quartiles of the age distributions for the faculty members of the different types of institutions are given in table 6. The noticeable things in this table are the similarities not alone for the medians but for the ranges of the middle 50 percent. The junior college instructors were somewhat younger than the other groups and instructors in municipal institutions—universities, colleges, and teachers colleges were the oldest groups.

Table 6.—Ages of members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-38

There are the sales at	Total number	Age					
Type of institution	of cases involved	Qı	Median	Qı			
ı	2		4				
State university or land-grant college. State woman's college. State teachers college or normal school. State junior college. Municipal university or college. Municipal teachers college. Municipal junior college. Denominational university or college. Private nondenominational university or college. Denominational junior college. Nondenominational junior college.	208 179 308 508	32.8 31.1 33.4 31.1 34.9 39.9 31.8 32.0 33.3 29.7 28.5	39. 7 87. 5 40. 6 87. 0 44. 2 46. 2 87. 7 39. 1 40. 7 36. 1 35. 7	48. 5 44. 8 48. 8 43. 6 54. 6 53. 8 43. 9 48. 3 50. 4 40. 2			

An analysis of the more detailed tables from which the data for this table were obtained showed very extreme ranges in age of college teachers, some below 20 and many "64 and over." The variations in the matter of the age of the faculty members was very much greater among institutions in each of the groups than it was among the groups. In each group institutions were found with poor age distributions—nearly all of the faculty very young in some cases and the majority nearing the retiring age in others. A somewhat uniform distribution of faculty age over the range from 25 to 65 can be considered indicative of the existence of a program for faculty replacement.

Sex and marital status of the faculties of institutions of higher education.—The marital status of faculty members of higher educational institutions of different types is presented for women in table 7 and for men in table 8. These tables indicate that the percentages of men and women who were single and married were about reversed. Approximately 90 percent of the women staff members were single and approximately 85 percent of the men were married. These two tables also indicate that with the exception of the State woman's colleges and the municipal teachers colleges the men outnumbered the women on the faculties. The numbers were nearly equal in the State normal schools and teachers colleges and in the municipal

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junior colleges. The groups of institutions including universities as well as colleges were staffed more largely by men—a ratio of nearly 3 to 1.

TABLE 7.—Marital status of members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-32

		4	Women		
Type of institution	Total number involved	Single	Married	Divorced	Widow
1	3				
State university or land-grant college. State woman's college. State teachers college or normal school. Municipal university or college. Municipal teachers college. Municipal junior college. Denominational university or college. Private nondenominational university or college.	684 438 £ 885 27 273 293 1,073 772	83. 2 92. 0 88. 1 81. 5 86. 8 84. 7 87. 1 86. 7	10.1 4.8 7.5 11.1 10.6 9.9 8.7 9.8	1.6** .7 1.1 .7 20, .5 .8	5. 2. 3. 7. 1. 1. 2.

TABLE 8.—Marital status of members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-32

			Mon		
Type of institution	Total number involved	Single	Married	Divorced	Widower
1	,	1	4	5	•
State university or land-grant college. State woman's college. State teachers college or normal school. Municipal university or college. Municipal teachers college. Municipal junior college. Denominational university or college. Private nondenominational university or college.	3, 155 141 1, 963 151 101 308 - 2, 168 1, 280	14. 2 14. 2 11. 7 11. 3 10. 9 18. 5 23. 3 14. 7	84. 1 88. 7 86. 3 86. 1 88. 1 80. 5 75. 0 82. 7	0.5 .7 .4 .7 .2 .8	1. 2 1. 4 1. 6 2. 6 1. 0 . 3 1. 5

Provision for old age.—As a check upon the adequacy of salaries for college staffs and as an index of the economic conditions under which the faculty members of these institutions worked the four questions of item 24 (figure 1) were asked. The answers to these questions from each type of institution are shown in table 9. The percentages in this table indicate very clearly that there was much less systematic provision for retirement and for the care of old age among college teachers than is ordinarily supposed. From the percentages in column 4, the proportions of faculty members contributing to some pension or retirement fund, it appears that nearly 4 staff members out of 5 were either making no provision for their old age or were doing it as individuals through contributions to group insurance or through personal savings. This condition is without doubt one of the principal reasons,

aided and abetted by the recent economic upset, why so many college teachers were teaching after they reached the age of 65—the usual age set for retirement.

TABLE 9.—Provisions for old age by members of teaching staffs of colleges, and universities

			Percei	tages	
Type of institution	Total number involved	No systematic provision for old age	Contrib- ute to pension or retire- ment fund	Carry old-age insurance, etc.	Personal savings and in- vest- ments
1	•		4		
State university or land-grant college. State woman's college or normal school. State teachers college or normal school. Municipal university or college. Municipal junior college. Denominational university or college. Private nondenominational university or college.	5, 056 738 7, 057 257 584 915 2, 845 2, 798	11. 7 9. 3 3. 9 2. 3 5 5 5 6. 3 19. 3 9. 4	15. 3 8. 3 94. 2 86. 6 57. 9 86. 8 13. 2 27. 6	25. 9 29. 4 25. 2 / 19. 1 12. 1 22. 7 22. 4 21. 1	47. 1 58. 0 46. 7 42. 0 29. 5 38. 2 45. 1 41. 9

## SUMMARY

- Some of the variations in the percentage of faculty members holding different academic rank are due to the fact that some institutions do not use all academic ranks.
- 2. More than half of the total group of staff members held the rank of professor or associate professor. Slightly more than a fourth (27 percent) of the faculty members were instructors. This percentage would have been lower if the institutions in which all of the faculty are called instructors had been omitted.

3. There seems little justification for the impression that a disproportionate amount of college instruction is done by instructors and assistants.

- 4. The faculties of higher educational institutions were composed of mature persons, in most cases well distributed over the age range from 25 to 65.
- 5. About three-eighths of the faculty members of higher educational institutions were women and less than 10 percent of these were married.
- 6. About 85 percent of the men on the faculties of higher educational institutions were married.
- 7. Provision for retirement and for the old-age period of faculty members of higher educational institutions in the United States was less than is commonly thought. Nearly four-fifths of the faculty members in 1931–32 were teaching in situations in which they were individually responsible for any provision which was made for their period of retirement.



## CHAPTER III

# EDUCATION AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF

Highest level of education.—In item 25 of the Inquiry Blank (figure 1, page 148) staff members were asked to indicate the highest level of their training. The distributions of their answers are given in table 10 according to the type of institution in which they taught and in table 11 according to the size of the institution in which they taught. Two cautions should be given for interpreting the data in tables 10 and 11. The first is that the years of education do not necessarily mean the possession of the degrees which usually accompany the completion of certain periods of education. In other words, not all of those who reported "4 years of college or normal school" will have bachelor's degrees nor will all those who reported having "3 or more years of graduate work" have earned doctor's degrees. Comparisons of the percentages in these tables with those of tables 12, 13, and 14 will show this difference.

TABLE 10.—Highest level of training of members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-38

	Type of institution		Total number in-	Less than high- school graduate	High-school grad- uate	Less than 1 year of college work	1 year of college or normal school	2 years of college or normal school	3 years of college or normal school	4 years of college or normal school	1 year of graduate.	2 years of graduate work	3 or more years of graduate work
	1	.,-		. 8	4	8		7	8	9	10.	11	13
	university or land-	grant	3, 897	0.1	0.8		0.1	0.2	0.2	5.8	18.6	18.7	
State State State State Mun Mun Mun	lege	llege	579 3, 866 208 179 373 599	.1	.1	0.1 .6 .8	.5	11 19 11 16 .2	1.6 1.0 4.6 1.2	10.6 12.1 11.5 5.0 11.8 7.1	28. 5 38. 3 38. 9 8. 9 23. 1 40. 0	24. 9 21. 3 26. 0 15. 1 17. 2 34. 6	25. 2 21. 1 69. 3 39. 4

TABLE 11.—Highest level of education by percentages of members of instructional staffs in colleges, and universities of various sizes, 1931-32

				H	ighest	lovel o	of educ	ation			
College enrollment	Total responses	Less than high- school graduate	High-school	Less than 1 year of Charles	1 year of college	2 years of college	8 years of college	4 years of collage	1 year of gradu-	2 years of gradu-	or more years
1			4			1	8	•	10	ш	£1
Fewer than 280 250 to 499 500 to 749 750 to 999 ,,500 to 2,499 ,500 to 4,999 ,000 to 9,999 0,000 and more. Total responses: Number	1, 196 2, 708 2, 685 1, 532 1, 716 2, 097 1, 768 955 563	.1	0.20	,.1	0.3 .2 .1 .2 .2 .2	0.7 .9 .8 .6 .9 .4 .2 .3	1.9 1.2 1.2 .8 1.2 .5 .4	11.2 9.8 9.8 9.9 9.7 7.4 5.8 4.9	34. 1 27. 0 27. 9 81. 9 27. 2 24. 1 18. 4 12. 1 11. 7	22.3 22.4 20.8 19.9 21.0 20.6 20.8 11.1 13.0	29. 38. 38. 36. 30. 46. 70.
Percent	18, 219	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	98	144	1, 296 8. 5	3, 852	3, 075	6, 661

The second caution concerns a limitation referred to in chapter I, namely, that some of the groups would have shown the present situation somewhat more clearly had more classifications been made and had the State universities and land-grant colleges been listed separately as well as the normal schools and the teachers colleges. This was, however, not done so that due allowance will have to be made in the interpretations. By adding columns 11 and 12 in table 10 the percentages of the instructional staffs with 2 or more years of graduate work is obtained. These ranged from 42 percent to 84 percent. In table 11 in which the highest level of education of the instructional staffs are distributed by the size of the institutions, a very noticeable relationship seems to have existed. Referring again to the percentages of faculty members with 2 or more years of graduate work, the very small institutions showed fewer faculty members with that much education. There was relatively little difference among the size groups of institutions having from 500 to 1,500 students and no increase in percentage after the enrollment reached 10,000 students.

A distribution of the highest level of education of the instructional staff members by geographical areas showed no significant differences. The percentage of faculty members with 2 or more years of graduate work varied only from 57.1 percent in the Mountain States to 65.7 percent in the Pacific Coast States.

Sources of earned degrees of faculty members.—In asking faculty members of higher educational institutions to report the types of institutions from which they took their degrees (items 26-30, fig. 1, p. 148) it was assumed that the information might supply a picture of the

educational background of those staff members and that it might serve as a rough indication of their attitude toward higher education and the education of teachers. It is realized that professional attitudes are formed by experience and by work in professional schools as well as by a number of other factors such as professional organizations. readings, and work on special educational projects. Nevertheless the data presented in tables 12 to 14 on the sources of education of the faculty members who are preparing teachers in this country present some interesting conditions. Table 12 presents the sources of the earned bachelor's degrees of the members of the teaching staffs of higher educational institutions distributed for each type of institution by the type of institution from which the degrees were obtained. Table 12 shows that the State universities and land-grant colleges. the denominational colleges and universities, and the private nondenominational colleges and universities were the three groups of institutions in which the large majority of faculty members obtained their undergraduate education. This would indicate that the faculties of the institutions in which teachers were being prepared in 1931-32 were composed predominantly of the graduates of liberal arts colleges—either separately organized or as parts of universities. Table 12 also shows that there has been a strong tendency to recruit college teachers from institutions of the same type as the one in which they are employed to teach. Thus 54 percent of the staff members of State universities and land-grant colleges received their bachelor's degrees in State universities and land-grant colleges. The tendency was most marked among the denominational colleges and universities in which group 61.2 percent of the faculty were graduates of similar institutions.



TABLE 12.—Source of earned bachelor's degrees of members of leaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931—38.

					Perom	Percentages by type of institution	Tob of Instit	tution			1
Type of institution	Total number involved	State univer- sity or land- grant college	State Woman's college	. State teachers college	Municipal Colleges or uni-	Municipal pal teachers college	Denomi- national college or uni-	Private nondenomi national college or	Private teachers college	Foreign college or uni-	Other
	-	-	•,	-					2	=	
State woman's college.  State woman's college.  State teacher's college or normal school  State teacher college or normal school  Municipal university or college.  Municipal teachers college.  Municipal teachers college.  Municipal teachers college.  Private nordemouniversity or college.  Private nordemounisational junior college.  Nondenominational junior college.	200 4 244 4 244 4 251 4 251 4 252 4 252 4 253 4 254 4 255 4	は我は他就は我は我就就	2018 2018 2018 2018 2019 2019	医克尔曼 医皮上上皮肤下下的白色的下骨骨下骨骨	Q14 .441 .441 88-85-888-00	0.2 F. 1	はなられるのは、はればなる。	は改成は戦争によるようなのかのものできることをある。	Ququ 1	4 . TH . 447 8000 PEUO	Q41414

ollogue reporting to the Survey in 1981–82, 54 percent of them obtained se, 8.1 percent from State teachers colleges, etc. This table should be read: Of the 2,706 members of the teaching staffs of State universities and land-grant colleges, bachelor's degrees from State universities and land-grant colleges, 0.2 percent from State woman's colleges,

					Bouros of	Source of earned master's degree	ar's degrees				
College enrollment	Total	State university or land-grant college	State woman's college	State teachers college or normal school	Municipal university or college	Municipal teachers college	Denomina- tional uni- versity or college	Private pondenom- inational university or college	Private teachers college	Poreign college or university	Other types of college
-			•	•	•	1	-1	•	2	=	5
Newer than 200 200-00 2	840 2 036 1, 926 1, 142 1, 652 1, 880 719 431	44.7 88.5.7 88.5.7 87.0 46.5.6 66.5 67.4 89.1	g 8.	1.0 9.1 8.1 1.1 1.1		9	<b>福祉</b> 益でごうである 8-8486088	名名は古名名記記 の名の名目を下りの	在水瓜酰基基 克克	Q111, 114% 889-1-646	
Number Number Percent	11, 376	44.3	9	87	174	E.	1,266	90.00	63	. 22	8

TABLE 14 .- Source of earned doctor's degrees by percentages of members of instructional staffs in colleges and universities of various sizes, 1931-58

			Bouro	of earned	doctor's d	egrees		
College enrollment	Total	State uni- versity or land- grant col- lege	Municipal university or college	Denom- inational univer- sity or college	Private nonde- nomina- tional univer- sity or tollage	Private teachers college	Foreign univer- sity or college	Other types of college
	*	•	•		•	,		,
Pewer than 250. 250-400. 250-400. 750-600. 1,000-1,400. 1,500-2,400. 2,500-4,900. 5,000-4,900. 10,000 and more.	186 643 899 362 462 726 730 860 837	41. 4 35. 9 34. 9 30. 7 30. 6 45. 1 43. 1 41. 6 35. 7	- 20 .8 .6 L0 .7 .0	19. 9 10. 4 10. 7 6. 4 14. 5 4. 0 8. 1 5. 9 2. 1	81. 7 62. 8 65. 6 56. 0 87. 7 62. 0 66. 8 64. 6 62. 8	1.6 1.4 1.5 2.9 1.3 1.4 .8 1.6	1.8 4.1 4.2 4.8 4.4 4.1	L 0
Total responses: Number Percent	4, 586	1,778	87	345 7. 6	1,072 45.2	71 L 6	345 8.4	43

Sources of master's and doctor's degrees. - In tables 13 and 14 the types of institutions from which master's and doctor's degrees were obtained by the faculty members of higher educational institutions in 1931-32 are distributed according to the college enrollment of the institutions in which they taught. Four-fifths of the master's degrees were obtained from two groups of institutions—State universities and land-grant colleges and private nondenominational colleges and universities. There was a slight tendency for the larger institutions to select more of their staff members with master's degrees from private nondenominational colleges and universities and fewer from the denominational colleges and universities. This tendency was decidedly more marked in (table 14) the case of teachers with doctor's degrees. The private nondenominational colleges and universities granted more of the doctor's degrees held by faculty members in 1931-32 than any other group.

Comparison of the number of doctor's degrees reported in table 14 with the data in table 11 will show the differences between years of graduate study and earned degrees. For example, in table 11, 29.3 percent of 1,196, or 348 instructors in colleges with fewer than 250 students, reported 3 or more years of graduate study. Only 186, or 54 percent, of these reported having earned doctor's degrees. This does not indicate inaccuracies in reporting but merely shows that a large amount of graduate work done by the members of the instructional staffs of these institutions did not result in earned graduate degrees. Other comparisons of this kind show that the larger institutions tended to have larger percentages of their faculties whose graduate work has resulted in graduate degrees.



Honorary degrees of staff members.—The answers to the questions (item 29, fig. 1, p. 148) on honorary degrees revealed little information of any value except that approximately 95 percent of the instructional staff members of these institutions had no honorary degrees and that there were nearly as many honorary master's degrees held as doctor's degrees. The number of honorary bachelor's degrees was only one-fourth as large as the number of either the master's or the doctor's.

Degrees from institutions of present employment.—A measure of academic inbreeding was attempted by asking faculty members to indicate the extent to which their education was obtained from the institutions in which they were employed in 1931–32. The answers to these questions (item 30, fig. 1, p. 148) are given in table 15 for seven of the larger groups of institutions. The total picture showed a situation quite contrary to the popular conception. The data in column 3, table 15, indicate that in 1931–32 no group of institutions had more than 31 percent of its instructional staff with any degree from the institution in which they were teaching, while one of the groups had as few as 6.4 percent of the faculty educated in the institutions in which they were teaching.

TABLE 15.—Degree or degrees earned in institution of present employment by members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1951-52

. `				P	wountage	s of deg	1008		.13.
Type of institution	Total num- ber in- volved	No de- gree from this insti- testion	Bache- lor's	Mas- ter's	Doctorate	Bache- lor's and mae- ter's	Bache- lor's end dec- toraje	Mas- ter's and doc- torate	Begins lor's, mes- ter's and doc- torate
	1					1		•	10
State university or land- grant college. State woman's college or normal school.	3, 841 881 3, 874	60. 3 85. 3	10. 1 18. 1 10. 9	8 8	13	7.6	0.8	1.3	1.1
Municipal university or col- lega.  Municipal tenchers collega.  Denominational university	179 378	72.1 90.6.	Am a	1.1		8.4		LI	.0
or college.  Private nondenominational tiniversity or college.	3,205 3,067	60. 5 74. 1	28.1 11.5	1.5 2.7	.6 20	40	.2	.8 . 10	.6 1.6

Teaching experience of faculty members.—In order to present the experiential equipment of faculty members of institutions in which teachers were being educated in 1931-32 questions to faculty members were inserted in the inquiry to cover teaching experience in the institutions in which they were then employed, in other colleges or universities, in public schools—both elementary and secondary, as administrative officers in public schools and in other occupations or professions related to the work they were then performing. The answers to

these questions (items 31-37, fig. 1, p. 148) are given in tables 16 to 22. Here again the distributions are made in terms of the different types of institutions and showed in several instances that teaching experience in the public schools was much more prominent in the professional equipment of the faculties of some groups of institutions than of others.

Experience in present institution.—The number of years faculty members had been employed in the institutions in which they were teaching in 1931–32 is indicated by the median and first and third quartiles of the distributions as shown in table 16 for each of the 11 types of institutions. The medians of the larger groups would indicate a median of about 7 years of teaching experience in the institutions in which they were then employed. State universities and land-grant colleges and the municipal institutions had the longest periods of service as shown by the medians and also by the third quartiles which indicate for the municipal university and college group a very wide spread with a fourth of the staff members having had fewer than 3.8 years' service in the institutions and a fourth having had more than 22.5 years.

TABLE 16.—Total years spent in institution of present employment by members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-38

21-	Type of institution	Total		Years	
-		involved	Qı	Median	Q,
		1	1		
at unicipal universi Municipal teachers Municipal junior or Denominational un Denominational in-	iand-grant college. see or normili school ty or college. college. illege. iversity or college. national university or college. junior college.	209 179 376 602 3, 241	4.37 2.7 2.8 4.3 2.9 2.8 2.8 2.7	8.1 6.9 5.0 8.6 6.8 6.0 7.4 5.1	14. 10. 12. 8. 22. 16. 9. 10. 8. 13. 11. 6.

A tabulation of the years college teachers have been employed in the institution of present employment when distributed according to the size of the institution (college enrollment) showed a steady increase in the length of the period from the smaller institutions to the larger. Staff members in institutions with fewer than 250 students had a median length of service of 5.2 years in the institutions then employing them. This increased to 9 for the largest institutions.

Experience in other colleges and universities.—The college teaching experience in other colleges and universities of the instructional staffs is given in table 17. The data in this table should be studied with those of table 16 for the central tendencies regarding the teaching experience on the college level of college teachers



TABLE 17.—Total years experience on other staffs of members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-32

Type of institution	Total number with ex-		Years		No colleg exce els	e experi- swhere
	perience elsewhere	Qi	Median	Qs	Number	Percent
1	jū2.	3	-6			7
State university or land-grant college	2, 568 362 2, 046	2 4 2 4 2 1	4.5 4.5 3.9	8.0 8-4 6.9	1, 278 219 1, 829	33. : 37. : 47. :
State junior college	1. 140	24 23 21 1.9	8.7 4.7 4.2 .8.0	7.4 8.9 6.9 5.4	107 67 227 320	51. 37. 60. 53.
Denominational university or college.  Private nondenominational university or college.  Denominational junior college.  Nondenominational junior college.	1,836	2.5 2.6 1.7 1.8	4.8 4.7 2.8 2.8	9.1 8.6 5.8 5.9	1,403 639 117 27	43. 81. 53. 45.

This table shows that from 30 to 60 percent of the college instructors had had no college-teaching experience in any other colleges than the one in which they were teaching in 1931-32. It also shows that the median length of college teaching in other colleges or universities was only about two-thirds as long as the period in the institution of present employment.

Teaching experience of college faculties in elementary schools.— Because teachers for the elementary schools are being prepared in all of these groups of institutions the number of the faculty who have had any teaching experience in the elementary schools and the extent of that experience are facts of professional significance. These facts are given in table 18. In 1930-31 about two-thirds of the elementary teachers who entered teaching from institutions of higher education came from normal schools and teachers colleges and yet 45.4 percent of the instructional staff members of the State normal schools and teachers colleges had had no teaching experience in elementary schools. Municipal teachers colleges had the lowest percentage of the staff without teaching experience in the elementary schools. This is probably due to the practice of recruiting faculty members for such institutions very largely from teachers in the city school system. This is further indicated by the fact that a fourth of the staff members of the municipal teachers colleges had had more than 13.5 years' teaching experience in elementary schools. Other studies indicate that elementary teachers are being prepared in most of the institutions in all of the groups listed. Even though some of these institutions claim that they do not prepare elementary teachers it is nevertheless true that their graduates are given certificates which entitle them to teach. The large percentages of staff members in some of the groups of institutions who have not had any teaching experience.

in elementary schools is an item which should be considered when institutions in those groups are involved in State programs for the preparation of elementary teachers.

TABLE 18.—Total years' experience in elementary school as teacher, principal, or supervisor by members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-32

Type of institution	. Total	. Ye	ars' experie	1200	No exp	erience
4	involved	Qi	Median	Q <sub>3</sub>	Number	Pgroent
*-1	2		4	5		,
State university or land-grant college State woman's college. State teachers college or normal school State junior college. Municipal university or college. Municipal teachers college. Municipal junior college. Denominational university or college. Private nondenominational university or college. Denominational junior college. Nondenominational junior college	1, 023 191 2, 115 81 59 297 199 900 530 94 15	212242122222222222222222222222222222222	8.2 8.5 4.8 8.7 7.4 8.4 8.4 8.4 8.4 8.4	4.9 5.5 7.5 6.2 4.7 18.5 5.5 8.1 8.6	*2,821 390 1,761 128 120 79 402 2,245 1,538 124 45	78. 4 67. 1 45. 4 61. 2 67. 0 21. 0 66. 0 69. 4 75. 0 78. 0

Experience of college faculties in secondary schools.—Data concerning the teaching experience of staff members in secondary schools is shown for the different types of institutions in table 19. This table has the same significance in the preparation of teachers for the high schools as does table 18 for the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools except it applies more directly to most of the groups. About four-fifths of the secondary teachers in 1930-31 who entered teaching from higher educational institutions in 1930-31 were recruited from the college and university group and only one-fifth from the normal schools and teachers colleges. The State teachers colleges had a smaller percentage of their faculty members without teaching experience in secondary schools than any of the other groups with the exception of the municipal junior colleges the faculties of which were recruited largely from the high-school teachers. Fortytwo and three-tenths percent of the faculty members for all cooperating institutions were without educational experience in the secondary schools. In general, however, the percentage of staff members with teaching experience in secondary schools was higher than the percentages with teaching experience in elementary schools.



Table 19.—Total years' experience in secondary school as teacher, principal, or supervisor by members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-32

	Total	Percentage of	Number	of year econdar	y school	ace in
Type of institution	number	total having no expe- rience	Number of cases	Q <sub>1</sub> cases	Median	Qı
1	•	-1	4		6	7
State university or land-grant college	3, 846 581	52.8 44.9	1, 816 320	23	3. 5 3. 7	5.6
State teachers college or normal school	3,876	31. 2 35. 9	2, 668 134	. 28	4.7	7. 9
Municipal university or college	179	48.0	93	2.4	4.9 3.7	6.9
Municipal teachers college	376	36.4	239	3.1	5.9	10.9
Mimicipal limior coulege	602	19.3	486	3.6	6.6	10.9
Denominational university or college Private nondenominational university or col-	3, 236	41.7	1,887	2.5	4.0	7. 8
lego	2,058	\$ 50.1	1, 026	2.5	8.9	6.6
Denominational junior college.	219	35.2	142	2.8	4.8	**8.4
Nondenominational junior college	60	48.3	31	2.7	4.6	8.1

Experience as school superintendents.—The tabulation of the number of college teachers who had had experience as superintendents of schools is given by types of institutions in table 20. The percentages are low except for the State teachers colleges and normal schools, in which group a sixth of the staff members had been superintendents of schools. The percentages are not relatively low when the number of positions as superintendent and assistant superintendent are compared with the number of teaching positions. On the basis of such comparisons, experience as a superintendent of schools has undoubtedly been an advantageous factor in securing positions on college faculties.

TABLE 20.—Total years' experience as school superintendent or assistant superintendent by members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-32

3	Total	Yes	rs' experi	0000	No exp	erience
• Type of institution	number involved	Qı	Median	Qı	Number	Percent
1	9	8	4		•	7
State university or land-grant college. State woman's college. State teachers college or normal school. State junior college. Municipal university or college. Municipal teachers college. Municipal junior college. Denominational university or college. Private nondenominational university or college. Nondenominational junior college. Nondenominational junior college.	827 33 596 28 15 25 54 283 129 22	23 25 27 24 26 29 22 24 25 1	3.6 4.2 4.6 3.8 4.3 5.0 3.8 4.0 3.2	6.5 8.5 6.7 7.6 8.3 7.1 6.8 4.8	3, 518 548 3, 278 181 164 351 547 2, 947 1, 929 196 58	91. 8 94. 3 84. 6 91. 6 93. 4 91. 0 93. 7 93. 7 90. 2

Total teaching experience of college staff members.—The total teaching experience of faculty members of higher educational institutions in 1931–32 including all college experience and all teaching and administrative experience in the elementary and secondary schools is given in

table 21. This shows very clearly that the institutions in which teachers were prepared in 1931-32 were staffed by an experienced group of teachers. The data in this table check very well with the data on age of college teachers, table 6.

TABLE 21.—Grand total years' educational experience of members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-32

	Type of institution	Total number	Years' ed	lucational e	xperience
	۲	involved	Qı	Median	Qı
	1			4	•
State teachers co State junior colle Municipal unive Municipal teach Municipal junior Denominational Private nondeno Denominational	or land-grant college  ollege  ge  raity or college  rollege  college  university or college  minational university or college  junior college  nal junior college		8.3 8.1 9.7.4 10.3 16.9 8.4 7.6 8.5 7.0	14. 2 13. 1 15. 8 11. 9 18. 5 23. 6 13. 3 13. 3 14. 6 11. 6	24. 1 21. 2 26. 5 15. 9 30. 5 30. 4 21. 5 22. 1 24. 7 18. 3 17. 9

Experience in other occupations and professions.—One other element in the experience of college faculties was requested, namely, the years spent in "any occupation or profession, in business, commerce, etc., directly or indirectly related to your present field of endeavor." The answers to this question are reported in table 22 and indicate that two-thirds of the staff members had had no such related experience and that for the third that had the occupation or business was followed for a relatively short period of years.

TABLE 22.—Total years' experience in any occupation or profession in business, commerce, etc., directly or indirectly related to present field of endeavor of members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities, 1931-32

Type of institution	Total number	Yes	ars' experie	DOS	No exp	erience
Type or matterion	involved	$Q_1$	Median	Qı	Number	Percent
. 4	2 ,	3	4	5		7,
State university or land-grant college State woman's college or normal school Municipal university or college Municipal teachers college Municipal junior college Denominational university or college Private nondenominational university or college.	1, 617 166 1, 236 60 99 229 1, 165 762	24 23 24 22 4 24 24	3.7 3.6 3.6 4.7 3.8 4.6 3.9	6.6 7.0 6.6 9.5 6.1 5.7 9.4 8.4	2, 229 415 2, 640 119 276 373 2, 075	58. 0 71. 6 68. 1 66. 5 73. 6 62. 0 64. 0



#### SUMMARY

 Approximately nine-tenths of the faculty members reported 1 or more years of graduate work and about two-thirds, 2 or more years.

There were greater differences in the preparation of faculties within groups than were found among groups of institutions.

3. Faculty members of institutions in which teachers were prepared in 1931-32 were in a very large majority of cases graduates of liberal arts colleges and the arts colleges of universities.

 State universities and land-grant colleges and private nondenominational colleges granted more than four-fifths of all

graduate degrees.

 Only three-tenths of the teachers in the higher educational institutions in 1931-32 had received one or more of their degrees from the same institutions in which they were then teaching.

- 6. Staff members of higher educational institutions had taught a median of about 7 years in the institutions in which they were employed in 1931-32 and a median of between 4 and 5 years in other colleges or universities. About two-fifths of the faculty members had no teaching experience in other colleges.
- 7. The fact that the median length of teaching service of staff members increased with the size of the college shows the same tendency to move from smaller to larger institutions: which was found for public-school teachers with respect to the size of communities.
- 8. The majority of the instructional staff members of higher educational institutions had not had experience as teachers, supervisors, or administrators in elementary schools. About two-fifths of the faculty members of normal schools and teachers colleges had not had such experience and more than two-thirds of the faculty members of the other groups were without such experience.
- 9. More staff members of higher educational institutions had had educational experience in secondary schools than was true of experience in the elementary schools but in the groups of institutions from which a large majority of high-school teachers were obtained approximately half of the staff members had had no educational experience in the secondary schools.
- 10. In general, the faculties of the institutions in this study were composed of experienced teachers most of whose teaching experience had been on the college level and most of that in the institutions in which they were then employed. Approximately half of them had not had experience as teachers, supervisors, or principals in elementary or secondary schools.



#### CHAPTER IV

# SALARIES IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Salary conditions in higher educational institutions.—The inquiry sent to staff members of higher educational institutions asked the salaries of 1930-31 and 1931-32 and the number of months for which the salary was paid (items 39 to 44, figure 1, p. 149). The questions dealing with the number of months of employment were not very satisfactory because of the large number of institutions which had 6 weeks' summer sessions and which made their totals 10% or 11% months if salaries were paid for 9 or 10 months and the summer session salaries in addition. There was no way of checking to know whether these cases were reported as 10 or 11 months for the group with 9 months and summer session or as 11 or 12 months for the group with 10 months and summer session. There was also evidence that a sizable percentage of instructors, in institutions where teaching in summer session was not expected of all staff members, did not include summer session salary in the salaries recorded for the 2 years, although it was intended that summer session salary should be included. There was also some confusion caused because some instructors checked the number of months for which they actually worked while others checked the number of monthly salary payments. For example, many colleges have 36 weeks in their academic years and yet pay the salaries of instructors in 10 monthly installments. Salaries from these schools were sometimes reported for 9 months and sometimes for 10 by instructors in the same institutions. Because of these limitations on the salary data and also because there was in 1931-32 and still is so much greater difference between the salaries paid within each group of institutions than among the groups which are being studied, the salary data in this study will be given little attention.

Some tables will be included with little or no comment. They will serve as a record of the college salaries paid in 1931–32 and while the salaries recorded are not highly reliable for a specific group or for a specific officer they can be used for general impressions. Because the inaccuracies mentioned were not confined to any one group or type of institution there is strong probability that most of the salary differences were real differences and would have appeared had the data been more uniformly reported.

Salaries of faculty members and heads of departments.—The medians . and the first and third quartiles of the distributions of the salaries of faculty members and heads of departments by number of months of employment for the school year 1931-32 are presented for the different types of institutions in table 23. The number of cases indicates that the large majority of those teachers were paid on the basis of a 9- or 10-month year. The 11- and 12-month groups probably were composed of instructors who taught in summer sessions because in all but two instances the median salaries were higher for the 11- and 12-month group than for the 10-month group. The data in this table show that in 1931-32 a number of salary distinctions which had been found in previous studies were still present. For example, the teaching staffs of the practice and demonstration schools were in every instance paid smaller salaries, usually much smaller, than the faculty members and heads of departments in the same groups. The junior colleges were paid on a different schedule—much lower than were the colleges and universities. The salaries paid in the denominational colleges and universities were lower than in the other groups except the junior colleges.

The general impression given by the third quartile salaries in table 23 is that the range for college salaries had decreased by 1931-32. In some groups the third quartile salary was so nearly the same as the median that it indicated a group of the staff members at maximum salaries. In some groups the third quartile salary was lower than the medians of other groups and in some cases lower than the first

quartile of other groups.

College salaries in different geographic areas.—The salaries of college and university teaching staffs distributed by geographic areas are given in table 24 for the different number of months for which salaries were paid. The similarity among the areas is the most noteworthy element in the table. The largest difference—the Middle Atlantic States for the 12-month group was probably due to several large institutions with large numbers of the faculty teaching in summer session.



Common   C	9 months		9 months	othe		1	1			Puel ment for	I ment	Your Be	Bi.	school year, 1931-32	ir, 19.	11-38		
1	Fedure, members and heads of departments in various types of institutions						10 10	othe			11 mc	nthe			12 mo	nths	1	
1,000   2,377   2,077   2,000   1,150   2,000   2,710   113   2,500   2,500   2,710   113   2,500   2,500   2,710   113   2,500   2,500   2,710   113   2,500   2,50			ď	×	ð	Name of the last	ð	×	ð	Numa Der of	ð	×	8	Num-	ő	×	đ	
1   10   10   10   10   10   10   10			*	•	-	-	-		1.	1	1			Change				
1,000   2,00	Teaching staff and department heads				T		1		1	2	=	2	2	2	2	31	13	
1, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10,	practice demonstration school lege: and department heads. Practice demonstration school sind department heads.		F5 55	ES 88	1287 1287 1287 1289 1289	82 8	2 150 2 150	2,000 2,564 2,866				900 00	2,073					
1,799   1,872   2,381   2,713   2,284   2,094   2,514   110   2,284   2,790   4,514   1,884   2,884   2,994   2,844	at the state of		15 E	7 007		38 2	50 12 00 50 12 00	81 E			28	28	988	220 8	88	23		
1,739   1,944   2,484   3,034   3,175   3,203   3,475   3,204   3,884   3,044   3,04	testing staff, practice demonstration school Testing staff and demonstration school Testing staff and demonstrate beat			Ħ.			\$8	1, 907	514						98	. 5		
Number of   1,018   2,462   2,676   2,470   2,000   2,525   2,470   2,000   2,525   2,676   2,000   2,525   2,001   2,000   2,525   2,470   2,200   2,600   2,600   2,000   2,000   2,200   2,000   2,200			SE 3	E 28		-	, § 38	9 39	120		3	-	98		1 9 3	19 8		
Number of cases   Q <sub>1</sub>   Median   Q <sub>2</sub>   Number of cases   Q <sub>2</sub>   Number of cases   Q <sub>2</sub>   Number of cases   Q <sub>2</sub>   Number of case	1	****	書を	88		_	25	8	3 23	-	18	7			18.	9	18	CZ4
Number of   Q-1   Median   Q-1   Number of   Q-1   Median   Q-1			Hee	ls of de	partme		nonthe	9	9	eaching	staff,	ractice	demon	tration	a i de	9 1 1	114	
100   1,000		COLORS	8	8		Media		40	7	Vumber	7	'à	-	Mothan		1	1	
101   1,805   2,513   2,223   2,756   2,513   2,005	e woman's college  teachers college  teachers college  teachers college  full plant westly or college  dicipal tangers college		25288	लं सं तं तं तं च क स स स	25.77.5	410000	8885	चें लें लें ले	625 625 625	" =	828	1,1,1,	. = 28	લનલ	258	ofeiei	503	
100 3,043 3,788 3,200 66 1,088 1,780 3,413 1,22 1,088 1,780 3,413 1,22 1,008 1,780 2,180 1,780 2,180 1,780 1,780 1,780 1,780 1,780 2,180 2,180 2,180 2,180 2,180	uction tunior college ominational university or college		255	4	888	ક <del>ન</del> લ	553	ක්ත්ස්	9878		8	5,	22	j	8	7	1 18	
0000 1, 106 1, 750 28 1, 860 2, 150 2, 560	ominational junior college denogramational junior college see teachers college	1	282	1441 1441	2322	666-1-1	875 SE	ને ને ભે લ	052	7	20	4	22	7.7	22	र्शन	195	- 2
		1		8	8	-	901	1.1	200			1, 20	9	2,1	9	6		17

TABLE 24.—1931-38 salories of college and university leaching staffs distributed by geographic areas 1

Geographic area	Q <sub>1</sub>	Median	Qı	Total cases involved
1	,		4	
8 months' employment: Middle Atlantic. Southern.  Middle Western.  9 months' employment:	2,003	2, 075	4, 238	50
	2,083	2, 570	3, 275	89
	1,833	2, 400	3, 638	17
New England Middle Atlantic Southern Middle Western Mountain Pacific 10 months' employment: New England	2, 431	2, 148	8, 907	362
	2, 478	2, 008	8, 864	855
	2,009	2, 474	8, 063	2,063
	2,096	2, 605	8, 290	2,108
	2,108	2, 596	8, 155	165
	2,580	2, 961	8, 525	643
Middle Atlantic. Southern. Middle Western. Mountain. Pacific.	2, 482	2, 949	3, 470	307
	2, 698	3, 364	4, 084	894
	2, 818	2, 764	- 3, 383	593
	2, 450	3, 012	3, 700	1, 488
	2, 400	2, 838	3, 450	48
	2, 433	2, 853	3, 232	504
11 months' employment: New England Middle Atlantic. Southern. Middle Western. Mountain Pacific 12 months' employment: New England	2, 975	2, 600	4, 175	23
	8, 128	2, 600	4, 700	72
	2, 536	3, 065	8, 642	253
	2, 468	3, 010	8, 805	426
	2, 625	3, 063	2, 625	84
	2, 975	3, 460	4, 475	66
New England. Middle Atlantic. Southern. Middle Western. Mountain. Pacific.	2,714	2, 178	4, 011	132
	8,318	4, 008	5, 029	473
	2,478	2, 984	8, 571	928
	2,573	3, 204	8, 943	777
	2,514	3, 008	3, 514	223
	2,560	3, 001	3, 831	0 200

Areas as follows: New England—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont; Middle Atlantic New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania; Southern—Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Okiahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia; Middle Western—Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Wisconsin; Mountain—Arisona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, Wyoming; Pacific—California, Oregon, Washington.

College salgries according to academic rank.—Salaries of faculty members of cooperating institutions were distributed by academic rank for 7 of the larger groups of institutions for the school years of different lengths. The salaries for the 10-month group are reported as table 25 as they may be useful with other studies of college salaries in establishing trends. The data in table 25 show the very marked tendency to increase salary as academic rank is raised. This would probably have been even more marked if the practices of individual institutions could have been shown instead of the medians for groups of institutions.

TABLE 25.—Comparative data showing the salaries paid in 1931-38 by various types of higher institutions to college teachers employed on a 10-month basis.

Position held	State univer sity or land- grant college	State wom- an's	State teacher college	Municipal university or college	Munic- ipal teachers college	inal	Denomina- tional univer- sity or college	Private nonde- nomina- tional univer- sity or college
1	1					,	8	
Professors: Number of cases in volved. Salary; Q:	305	16	200	16	65	11	294	177
Median e Qa Associate professors: Number of cases involved	\$3,681 \$4,078 \$4,780	\$3, 131 \$3, 600 \$3, 868	\$3,096 \$3,505 \$4,042	\$3, 642 \$4, 963 \$4, 960	\$3, 476 \$3, 736 \$4, 722	\$3, 228 \$3, 582 \$3, 641	\$2,572 \$3,000 \$3,436	\$3, 443 \$3, 908 \$5, 015
Delary:	211		111	.,,,,,,,,	14		51	66
Assistant professors: Number of cases involved.	\$2,945 \$3,198 \$3,554	11	\$2, 831 \$3, 053 \$3, 402		\$3,767 \$3,150 \$3,925		\$2,092 \$2,550 \$3,881	\$3,079 \$3,575 \$4,460
Balary: Qi	\$2, 510		119	14	14		90	116
Median. Qs Instructors: Number of cases involved	\$2, 680 \$3, 013	\$2, 100 \$2, 375 \$2, 688	\$2, 513 \$2, 783 \$3, 275	\$2, 350 \$2, 686 \$2, 875	\$3, 225 \$3, 413 \$3, 875		\$2,044 \$2,679 \$2,552	\$2,563 \$2,960 \$3,350
Balary:	290	,	400		64	305	95	136
Median	\$1, 874 \$2, 076 \$2, 319		\$2, \$16 \$2, 698 \$3, 108		\$3, 833 \$3, 286 \$4, 100	\$2, 362 \$2, 780 \$8, 038	\$1,725 \$2,082 \$2,275	\$2,008 \$2,000 \$2,625

Salaries of college administrative officers. - The salary data (medians Q1 and Q2) for groups of administrative officers in which five or more returns were received are given in table 26. The returns from the administrative groups were not as complete as for the teaching groups for the reasons given in chapter I. However, several of the groups include enough cases to present satisfactory comparisons of the salaries paid to those officers with the salaries paid to the instructors in the same groups of institutions. The comparisons with the salaries of professors in the same groups of institutions as shown in table 25 are most easily made. Apparently, according to the salaries paid in 1931-32 the president and the dean of the college were the only administrative officers who were consistently paid better salaries than heads of departments and professors in the institutions of the same group. The same differences among groups of institutions in the salaries paid administrative officers existed in 1931-32 as were found for the faculty members' salaries.

TABLE 26.—Salary of university and college administrators for the school year 1931-32

		Number		Balary	
+	Administrators in various types of colleges	involved	Qı	· Medish	Qı
31-	1	1		4	
Itat	university or land-grant college:			al an	
1	President	11	38, 100 3, 075	3, 830	\$0,775 4,188
	Dean of the college	110	4,713	5, 650	0,63
	Dean of men	16	4, 150	4, 650	8, 20
	Dean of women	24	3, 125	3, 683	4, 20
	Director of research	45	8, 125	3, 850	4, 97
	Director of training schools	16	· 68,000	8, 600	4,48
GERT	s teachers college: President	72	5, 525	6,055	7, 30
	Registrer	63	2 138	2, 875	3, 52
	Dean of the college.	61	2, 813	4,075	1.42
	Dean of men	36	2,950	3, 335	8, 80
	Dan of woman	108	2, 635	2, 061	3, 36
	Director of training schools	112	8, 238	8, 664	4,20
Stat	iunior college:		1 1 1		•
	Dean of the college	10	2, 935	8, 550	3, 80
Mai	sicipal teachers college:				
	President	•	8, 181	8, 500	7, 37
Mu	nicipal junior college: President		3,425	B. 150	8,68
	Deen of the college	25	1.835	8, 450	1.06
Den	ominational university or college:		-,	4,000	4.00
	President	. 86	8, 200	4,800	A. 88
	Registrer	47	1,935	2, 478	8, 20
	Dean of the college	82	2, 925	8, 400	3, 98
	Dean of men		1, 950	2,780	8, 55
	Dean of women	62	1, 988	2, 467	2,98
1.	Director of training schools	1.5	2, 225	2,725	3, 08
rnv	ste nondenominational imitatarity of conege;	19	6, 200	8, 100	9, 80
	President	16	2, 250	2 700	3, 80
	Dean of the college	68	8.965	4,900	6.18
	Dean of man	8	1, 200	8, 850	à 00
	Desn of women	21	2, 350	2,970	1.46
	Director of research	. 27	1, 775	8, 263	4,48
Dee	aminatičnal hypior college		100		
	President	14	2,775	8, 850	8,90
10.33	Dean of the college	1.5	2, 164	2, 578	3, 26
Priv	ate teachers college:			4,950	A 40
	President	5	8,788	4,000	6, 48

#### SUMMARY

- Because of certain inadequacies in the data blank and resulting inaccuracies in the replies the salary data included in this chapter are reported only in order that general impressions may be obtained of the collège salary situation in 1931-32.
- The majority of the staff members of colleges and universities in 1931-32 were paid salaries for 9- or 10-months' employment.
- Staff members of practice and demonstration schools, of junior colleges, and of denominational colleges and universities as groups received lower salaries than other comparable groups.
- 4. College salaries in 1931-32 seemed to be less affected by location of the institutions in geographic areas than was thought from previous studies. The Middle Atlantic, New England, and Pacific coast areas paid slightly higher salaries than the other areas:
- 5. Salaries increased regularly with the higher academic ranks.
- 6. The president and the dean of the college were the two administrative officers who received higher salaries than the heads of departments and professors in the same institutional groups.



### CHAPTER V

## TEACHING AND SERVICE LOAD OF FACULTY **MEMBERS**

Teaching load and service load .- Persons outside of the immediate field of education frequently confuse the so-called "teaching load" of faculty members with their total institutional responsibilities. The actual hours spent in the classroom represent only a part—a small part in time—of a college teacher's work. In addition to the time spent in instruction he must prepare for the lectures or for the laboratory demonstrations, he must correct written work and examinations, serve on faculty committees, consult and advise students, answer correspondence, represent his institution in a variety of time- and energy-consuming ways and carry on research in connection with his own special field. These are all responsibilities which he is expected to assume and for which his salary is paid. The total of these responsibilities should be referred to as his "service load" or his "institutional load" instead of his "teaching load" even though most of the time is directly or indirectly related to his work as a teacher. In order to present this entire picture the inquiry to staff members of higher educational institutions included questions on the major divisions of the service load (items 45 to 65 in fig. 1, p. 150-51). Summary tables of the answers and a few of the detailed tables will be presented in this chapter with a minimum of discussion because the problem is so complex and the number of items so large that it would be impossible to single out even the most significant of the interrelations without greatly extending the space allowed for this section of the study.

Teaching load-clock-hours per week,-The actual teaching loads in clock-hours per week in the school year 1931-32 for the faculty members of the cooperating institutions are shown in table 27 which gives for each type of institution the number of teachers and the first quartile, median, and third quartile of the distribution of hours taught per week. Due in all probability to the work of various standardizing agencies the medians and the range of the middle 50 percent were rather uniform. The medians for the junior colleges were all slightly higher than for the other groups. In interpreting the data of table 27 the reader should remember that the numbers are higher than they would be as reported to standardizing agencies. No allowance was made in table 27 for the "weighting" given to class work in certain subjects especially those involving shop and laboratory work which is

usually counted at the rate of 1% or 2 hours for 1.

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TABLE 27.—Teaching load—clock-hours per week during school year 1931-38—of members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities

Type of institution	Total number involved	Q.	Median	Qu
1	44		<b>6</b> 3	
State university or land-grant college.  State woman's college.  State teachers' college or normal school.  State junior college.  Municipal university or college.  Municipal teachers' college.  Municipal junior college.  Denominational university or college.  Private nondenominational university or college.  Denominational junior college.  Nondenominational junior college.	309 179 373 902 3, 340	11.8 16.3 16.4 12.4 14.9 16.4 11.5 11.2 14.8 16.2	18. 0 16. 6 16. 7 18. 2 16. 8 16. 6 17. 8 16. 4 17. 0 18. 0	18. 21. 20. 21. 16. 19. 22. 18. 17.

The municipal university and college group and the private nondenominational university and college had the most compact distribution of teaching loads and probably the fewest hours of teaching per week of any of the groups.

The teaching load in clock-hours per week was distributed according to the size of the institution as measured by college enrollment. The percentage of the faculty in each size group was computed for the different number of hours of teaching per week and is shown in table 28. The percentages in table 28 show a sharp difference in practice beginning with the 2,500-4,999 size group. In the three groups of the largest institutions there was a marked tendency to have larger percentages of the staff teaching fewer than 10 hours per week and smaller percentages teaching 20 or more hours per week. In the group of the largest institutions nearly two-thirds taught fewer than 15 clock-hours per week and only 7.4 percent more than 20.

TABLE 28.—Teaching load by percents of members of instructional staffs in various sized colleges and universities, 1931-32

	Total				Teachi	ng load	(bours j	per week	t)	1	
College enrollment	apon-	•	1-0	10-14	15	16	17-19	20-24	25-20	30-34	\$5 and more
_ 1	1		4	. 6					20	11	11
Fewer than 200. 200-009. 200-749. 700-009. 1,000-1,499. 1,500-2,490. 1,500-4,900. 1,600-9,000. 10,000 and more.	1, 201 2, 734 2, 695 1, 538 1, 719 2, 101 1, 769 957 568	0.1 .1	0.1 4.0 4.0 7.4 12.8 20.3 20.7	22.0 21.8 24.4 22.0 21.8 24.4 41.7 43.8	17. 5 18. 6 16. 9 19. 6 18. 9 17. 8 14. 3 10. 6 8. 9	10.8 13.4 16.2 13.8 9.6 12.9 6.6 6.1	19.0 19.4 19.2 16.2 16.7 12.4 12.9 2.0	13.8 14.9 14.8 16.4 17.0 14.9 11.2 2.0	6.5 6.9 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1	1.4 1.5 2.0 1.0 1.6 1.5 1.4	. 0.7 1.2 .7 1.5
Total responses: Number Percent	15, 267	0.1	1,300	4,045 20.5	2,574	1,757 11.5	2,258 1Å 4	2,002 13.7	4.6	367 1.6	123 0.8

Teaching load by subjects. - In order to show the variations which existed in the teaching load of faculty members teaching different subjects tabulations of the clock-hours spent by teachers of chemistry, physics, mathematics, and English (2 laboratory and 2 nonlaboratory subjects) were prepared and the results appear in table 29 for some of the larger groups of institutions. Heads of departments in the majority of cases taught full programs—the median teaching loads for them being around 16 or 17 clock-hours. The midpoint for the teachers of chemistry and physics were 3 or 4 clock-hours per week more than the midpoint for teachers of mathematics. Teachers of English had the lowest teaching load in clock-hours of those four groups, 52.2 percent taught fewer than 15 clock-hours per week in 1931-32. Another point of interest in table 29 lies in the large numbers of staff members in chemistry and physics in some of the groups who taught 20 or more clock-hours per week. Teachers in the teachers colleges and in the denominational colleges and universities carried the heaviest loads in this respect. In three groups more than 50 per cent of the staff carried teaching loads of more than 20 clockhours per week.

TABLE 29.—Distribution of teaching load (clock-hours per week during school year 1931-32) of staff members of different types of colleges

		Num-		Pe	roen (	age o	clock	-bour	s per	week	
	Type of instructor and institution	ber in- volved		10-1	15	16	17-10	20-20	26-20	30-34	35 and more
NO.	g l	1				•	,	8		10-	11
	CHRISTRY									-	
	Heads of departments in: State university or land-grant college. State teachers college or normal school. Private nondenominational university or college. Denominational university or college	36 34 36 76		88. 8 5. 9 28. 1					6.1	0.00	20 28 27
	Total	171	6.4	16.4	8.8	9.4	10,0	24. 5	9.4	29	2.8
	PRYNCE										
	Heads of departments in: State university or land-grant college.  Denominational university or college.  Private nondenominational university or college.	22 36	7.0	36. 4 22. 2 22. 2	19.7	8.3	13.6 23.2 60 27.7		5.5	28	****
	Total	76	7.0	26.3			-				*****
	CHEROSTRY	- 10	1.0	20.0	11.0	7. 9	21, 1	19, 7	4.0	1.8	• • • • •
	State university or land-grant college. State teachers gollege or normal school. Municipal university or college. Denominational university or college. Private nondenominational university or college.	222 100 17 145	5.0 2.5	14.4 6.7 35.3 12.4	4.1 7.6 6.2 8.7	21	19.3		12.6 13.5 5.9 15.2	5.8 2.9 5.5	1.0
-	Total	581	4.5	12.6	4.9	6.0	18.6	83. 9	11.7	41	1.7
		-	-		-	-	-	_			-



TABLE 29.—Distribution of teaching load (clock-hours per week during school year, 1931-32) of staff members of different types of colleges—Continued

	Num-		Per	rcente	age of	clock	hour	per v	week	
Type of instructor and institution	in- volved	1-9	10-14	15	16	17-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	and more
• 1	3	8	4	.8		7	8		10	11
PHYSICS										
caching staff in:  *Btate university or land-grant college  Btate teachers college or normal school  Municipal university or college	111 50		21. 6 10. 0 25. 0	12.6	10.8 10.0	24. 3 34. 0	19.8 34.0 25.0	2.7	2.0	
Denominational university or college.  Private nondenominational university or callege.	75	0.00	13. 3	4.0	-4.0	21, 4	37. 4	100	177	1, 8
Total	297	5.3		9.4	9.1	-	26. 3	2		
BATHEMATICS			.,,,,	D. 1	9, 1	20. 9	20. 1	5.4	1.3	. 8
eaching staff in: State university or land-grant college State teachers college or normal school Municipal university or college	213 148 15	8. 4		6.7	29. 0	21. 6	. 9 9. 5	2.0	. 5	
Denominational university or college Private nondenominational university or college	125	0.0	23. 2		12.0		-,-	3, 2		
· (C)	71	-	40. 9	28.4	11.3	7.0	4. 2		****	1.4
Total	572	\$ 6	27. 1	21. 5	17.8	21. 9	4. 5	1. 2	. 2	. 2
eaching staff in:										
State university or land-grant college State teachers college or normal school Municipal university or college	433 508 20	10.2	56. 3 30. 3	20.3	3.7 21.6	3. C 11. 2	4.2 5.9	1.4	. 9	1.0
Private nondenominational university or	337	5. 0 5. 6	55. 0 45. 7	26, 1	20. 0 9. 5	8.3	8.8	1,2	. 3	
college	227	17.6	52.0	13. 2	5.8	6.2	4.8	. 9		
Total	1, 525	7.5	44.7	22.6	11.4	7.8	4.6	1.1	. 3	. 5

Institutional responsibilities of staff members. - In attempting to obtain a more accurate picture of the total service load of college staff members they were asked to estimate for the year 1931-32 the average number of hours per week which, as full-time employees, they devoted to each of the following nine forms of institutional responsibilities: (1) Residential college instruction—nonlaboratory, etc.; (2) residential college instruction-laboratory, studio, gymnasium, shop, etc.; (3) residential instruction—practice school pupils; (4) extension teaching; (5) preparation for instruction; paper work, etc., (6) college representative to the public; (7) regularly delegated administrative responsibilities; (8) research; and (9) other institutional responsibilities (conferences, committee work, travel, etc.). The answers to these questions are summarized for 8 groups of institutions and for each kind of institutional responsibility in table 30. For each type of responsibility the number reporting that they gave time to that form of service, the percentage which that ... number was of the total number of instructional staff members and the first quartile, the median, and the third quartile of the distribution of the time spent are reported in table 30? This table contains an unusually large number of interesting and important facts and rela-



tionships but because it is so concentrated (a final summary of numerous detailed tables) it must be used with caution. For example, 93.2 percent of the instructional staff of the State university and land-grant college group reported time spent in residential instruction of the nonlaboratory type. The median of the average hours per week spent in this form of work was 10.8 and because such a large proportion of the faculty was involved it may be said that the instructional staff spent about 10 hours per week teaching nonlaboratory courses. The situation presented for the same group of institutions in column 3 is a very different one. Here it appears that only 161 instructors or 4.2 percent of the total group gave any residential instruction to practice school pupils. The median number of hours per week spent in this work by the 161 teachers was 6.2, but this is not representative of the entire group because 95.8 percent, or 3,685 members, of the instructional staff did not teach practice school pupils. An effective method for using table 30 for comparisons is to read down each column first for the percentage of the total group reporting that form of institutional responsibility and then again for the median average amount of time spent. In this manner decided differences among institutions will appear.

An example is shown in column 3 in which the percentage of the total instructional groups in the State teachers colleges and the municipal teachers colleges teaching practice school pupils was much larger than was true for any of the other groups. Another example was the larger percentage of the faculty in the municipal universities and colleges, which reported extension teaching. another difference was the larger percentages of the faculties in the State universities and land-grant colleges, the private nondenominational and the municipal universities giving time to research as well as the longer time devoted to research as indicated by the medians. The data in table 31 supplement those in table 30. The average hours shown in table 31 for each of the nine forms of institutional responsibility represent the average time spent by the entire faculty (including those who did not perform the activity) while the averages in table 30 are for only those who reported time spent on each item. An illustration will show the difference in the way the data for the two tables were prepared. If for the State universities and land-grant colleges the medians in table 30 are added the sum is 66.7 hours per week. This is obviously too high because all the medians were for only parts of the total group. The tetal median load of institutional responsibility for the instructional members of the State university and land-grant college group is shown in table 31 to have been either 44.7 hours or 46 hours. (The figures in column 11 are the medians of the total sums reported by the staff members (items 57-58, fig. 1, p. 151) and those in column 12 are the sums of the averages in columns 2 to 10, inclusive.)



TABLE 30.—Institutional responsibilities of faculty members in selected types of institutions, 1931-32

Institutional responsibilities by type of institution	Residential college instruction, nonlaborratory, etc.	Residential college instruction, laboratory, studio,gymnasium, shop, etc.	Residential instruc- tion, prac- tice school pupils	Extension	Preparation for instruc- tion, paper work, etc.	Servésas college rep- resentative to public	Regularly delegated administra- tive respon- sibilities	Research	Other insti- tutional re- sponsibili- ties (con- ferences, committee	Total hours devoted to institu- tional re- sponsi- bilities
1			4	20	•			•	2	=
State university or land-grant college:	804 6					3	+			
Percent engaged in activity	93.2	49.0	4.2	17.1	3,745	22.8	27.2	2,692		
Average nours per week Q. Average hours per week median	0.0	10.0	40	64 64	0.6	ed e	60.0	40		
Average hours per week Qa.	14.2	16.3	10.1	0.0	20.0	9 9	123	14.4	i e	2.3
Number engaged in activity	3,413	1,873	. 605	883	8 794		1, 298	1.675	2 878	
Average hours nor wook O.	860	400	17.9	17.6	0 88		33.6	43.2	74.3	
Average hours per week median.	13.0	12.1	90	400	16.7	7 m	4.4	2 4 2 6 3 6	es es	2,5
Average nours per weak Q1.  Denominational university or college:	17.4	17.4	9.6	4.7	21.0		8.3	7.5	9.6	46.
Number engaged in activity Percent engaged in activity	3,021	1,240	505	405	3,081	662	962	1,671		3, 207
Average hours per week Q.	100	1.50	9 60	27.5	10.4	90.2	4.0	51.6		08
Average hours per week median.	13.5	11.7	4.4	4.6	15.2	e -	140	4.0	iei-	40.9
Private nondenominational university or college:	2	1	2	9	21. /	4.0	6.0	20.		46.2
Number engaged in activity	1,899	588	88	336	1,996	367	730	1, 274		2,064
Average hours per week Q1	7.5	0.0	4 4	20.00	200	17.9	36.0	62.0		66
Average hours per week median.	11.4	10.6	4:	60	14.7	8	4	9	100	40,0
State women's college:					. 44.	ė	111	12.2		48.0
Number engaged in activity Percent engaged in activity	800	318	90	3,	07.6	H 2	137	887	372	189
Average hours per week Q1	7.6	80	60	2.1	10.5	2.1	4	2,0	2.5	33.1
Average hours per week Q <sub>3</sub>	16.8	19.2	11.7	4 4 5	25.22	다 다 다	10.2	1.6	9.0	6.8
Number engaged in activity	E	2	90	2	11	38	88	123	135	921
Average bours per week O.	90.0	7.7	4.5	44.1	86.5	19.6	46.4	. 68.7	75.4	
Average hours per week median. Average hours per week O.	12.6	0.0		***	1200	1 00 v	9 60 5	ကတား က်တ်	d to	2.0

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- du4r: yaguma Sasuu Suro	,
35.1 35.4 7.4 25.1 25.5 25.5 25.5 25.5 25.5	
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362 93.7 9.2 13.7 20.5 685 97.5 8.6 14.4	
දියසුද සියසෙන තියසෙන	
25.2447. 25.2447. 25.25.25.25.25.44.	
25 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	
88.3.5 10.2 10.2 14.1 17.4 17.4 17.4 19.0 10.0 18.1	-
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This table should be read as follows: Of the faculty members of State universities and land-grant colleges 3,586, or 93.2 percent of the total group reported doing residential an average of 14.2 hours or more.



Table 31.—A composite picture of the average hours per week devoted to institutional responsibilities by members of college and university teaching staffs, 1931-32

•				Insti	tutiona	l resp	onsibil	ities			
Type of institution	Residential college in- struction, nonlabora tory, etc.	Residential college in- struction—laboratory, studio, gym, shop, etc.	Residential instruction, practice school pupils	Extension teaching	Preparation for instruc- tion, paper work, etc.	Serve as college repre- sentative to public	Regularly delegated ad- ministrative responsi- bilities	Research	Other institutional responsibilities (conferences, committee work, etc.)	Sum of hours devoted to institutional responsi- bilities	Sum of Items 48 to 56, Inclusive
	2	1	4	5	6	7	8		10	11	12
State university or land-grant college (total cases 3,846) State teachers college (total cases	10.0	5. 5	0.3	0.8	14. 0	1.0	1.0	7. 1	3. 3	44.7	46.0
3,875)	11.5	6.0	1.3	.7	14.8	. 8	2.5	24	3.8	41.8	43. 8
college (total cases 3,242)  Private nondenominational university or college (total cases	12.1	4.6	. 3	. 5	14.7	.8	2.2	3. 5	2.8	40.0	41.5
2,057)	10.4	4.5	. 3	.7	14.9	.7	3.0	5. 3	3. 2	41. 5	43.0
cases 581)	10.4	7.6	,6	. 3	15. 5	.7	1.9	2.4	3.4	41.9	42.8
(total cases 179)	11.6	3. 9	. 2	1,9	13. 2	.8	4.3	5. 8	3. 7	42.4	45. 4
tal cases 376)	11.2	4.9	1. 3	. 6	13.6	. 6	2.1	24	3.8	38. 9	40. 5
cases 600)	12.7	5.7	. 2	.4	14.3	. 6	1.8	1.9	3, 4	40.0	41.0

This table should be read as follows: The average number of hours spent per week by the entire teaching staff of the State university and land-grant college group was 10 on residential instruction of the non-laboratory type, 5.5 hours on residential instruction of the laboratory, studio, shop type, etc.

From table 31 it is possible to check some of the conclusions drawn from the preceding table and also to obtain a better perspective of the total service program of college teachers. The sum of the hours reported in columns 2 and 3 gives a measure of the median teaching load for each type of institution. The time spent in preparation for instructional work, correcting papers, and other responsibilities directly connected with instruction was about equal to the time spent in instruction. While the other types of responsibilities seem to have taken relatively little time, when the averages in columns 8, 9, and 10 are added they total to a median load ranging from 7.1 to 14.4 hours per week—nearly as much time as was spent in teaching in 3 of the groups.

Relation of teaching load to research.—The relationship of the amount of time spent in teaching to the amount of time devoted to research has been a matter of frequent discussion among college administrators. The medians and averages given in tables 30 and 31 indicate that the institutional groups in which the largest number of staff members conducted research had somewhat fewer hours of residential instruction. Another phase of this problem is presented in table 32, which gives the relationship of the total institutional load of the instructional staffs of the cooperating institutions and

the amount of time spent on research. The table also compares the teaching load of the group doing research with that of the group not reporting any research. The number of cases at either extreme of the distribution were too few for reliability but the table shows that in 1931-32 the faculty members who carried the heaviest total service loads also spent the most time in research and carried almost as heavy teaching loads as the members not reporting any research. Furthermore, the percentage of the faculty engaged in research increased steadily as the total service load increased. Another item worthy of note is that the median hours spent in research in all the groups with total service loads of 40 or more hours per week were from 4 to 27 times the difference in the median hours of the teaching loads of the 2 groups.

TABLE 32.—The relation of total institutional load of teaching staffs of colleges and universities to the amount of research and teaching load, 1931-32

1		T	'eachi	ng sta rese	if enga arch	ged in	Tes	ching l	oad (cl	ock-ho	urs pe	r week
Total hours per week devoted to institutional responsibilities	Total number involved	Pe	reent		urs spe		N	group		Res	earch (	tronb
			of	Qı	Median	Qı	Qı	Me- dian	Qı	Qı	Median	Qa
1	9		3	4	8		7	8	9	10	11	13
0 to 9	39 401 1,786 4,087 5,699 2,329 689 110 33 17	٠	5 20 35 45 59 70 77 76 76	2.2 2.3 2.6 3.2 3.9 4.9 7.7 10.2 16.9	3.3 3.7 4.2 5.7 8.3 11.5 13.7 15.8 25	4. 5 5. 0 7. 5 10. 5 14. 2 21. 0 24. 4 24. 7 25	8. 9 13. 3 15. 1 16. 1 13. 9 13. 2 12. 2	12.6 15.9 16.8 16.6 16.5 15.5 22.5 20.0	15.3 18.4 20.7 21.2 21.8 21.8 18.3	4.8 11.0 12.6 12.6 12.5 12.1 11.4	8.6 14.4 15.6 15.6 15.5 15.0 18.5 17.8	12.8 16.3 18.0 18.0 19.2 19.2
Total	15, 190						la constitución de la constituci	7 1 1 1 1			17.0	

Relation of length of college curriculum to research.—Table 33 shows the relation of the length of the curriculum offered in institutions to the number of hours spent in research by the staff members of the institutions in 1931-32. The effect of graduate work and its emphasis upon research by both students and faculty members is evident from the increased percentages of the instructional staff who reported 20 or more hours per week devoted to research.



TABLE 33.—Relation of amount of research done by teaching staffs of colleges and universities to maximum length of curricula presented by institutions, 1931-32

v	Total	Maxin	num lengt	h of curries	ila present	ed in perce	intages
Number of hours research work per week	number of cases	2 years under- graduate	3 years under- graduate	4 years under- graduate	l year graduate	2 years graduate	3 or more years graduate
1	1		1.			7	8
10 to 14	1, 185 452 280 332	64.3 19.0 2.4 14.8	62.5 18.7 -12.5 6.8	61.9 22.1 7.5 8.5	84.0 17.4 14.8 14.3	50.6 16.0 10.8 22.6	47. 3 20. 6 14. 7 17. 4
Total	2, 249	42	16	530	463	93	1, 105

Relation of size of college to research.—The amounts of time devoted by staff members to research in 1931-32 in institutions of different sizes (college enrollment) are given in table 34. It is evident from this table that members of the instructional staffs in the larger institutions devoted more time to research than did those in the smaller institutions. This is shown most effectively by the increasing percentage of the instructors who reported 20 or more hours of research per week.

TABLE 34.—Relation of amount of research done by teaching staffs of colleges and universities to size of student body, 1931-32

Number of hours	.Total		Per	centage (	of college	enrollm	ent as at	Nov. 1,	1981	
research work per week	number of cases		250 to 499	500 to 749	750 to 990	1,000 to 1,499	1,500 to 2,499	2,500 to 4,999	5,000 to 9,999	10,000 and more
· i	1.	8.	4			7	8	, .	10	11
10 to 14	1, 185 452 280 332	63. 3 21. 7 8. 3 6. 7	61.8 23.0 5.4 9.8	66. 8 17. 3 8. 6 7. 8	67. 0 19. 4 4. 0 9. 6	52.2 21.8 11.6 14.4	51. 9 18. 8 14. 0 15. 3	47. 0 20. 2 16. 4 16. 4	43. 6 23. 8 14. 4 18. 2	49. 1 13. 1 15. 8 22. 3
Total	2, 249	60	183	232	124	270	320	,464	390	206

Size of college classes by college loads.—Another measure of the teaching load of college teachers involves the number of students in the classes they teach. Staff members in cooperating institutions were asked to report the average size of their classes in 1931-32 on the three levels junior college, senior college, and graduate school (items 60 to 65, fig. 1, p. 151). The number of instructors reporting from each type of institution and the Q<sub>1</sub> median and Q<sub>2</sub> of the distributions of class sizes as reported for the three levels are given in table 35. Classes and the ranges of the middle 50 percent of the classes were larger on the junior college level than on the graduate level. The

median size of the classes was surprisingly similar among the different groups of institutions on the junior college level and very varied on the graduate level.

Table 35.—Average size of classes at different levels in colleges and universities, as given by members of teaching staffs, 1931-32

	Junio	of-col	lege le	vel	Senio	r-00	llege le	vel	Gr	adua	to love	4
Type of institution	Total num- ber in- volved	Qı	Me- dian	Q.	Total num- ber in- volved	Qı	Me- dian	Qı	Total num- ber in- volved	Q <sub>1</sub>	Me- dian	Qı
1		3	4	8		7	8	•	10	11	13	13
State university or land-grant col- lege	2, 536 412	21 19	28 24	36 30	2, 707 430	11 11	17 16	26 23	1, 368	4 2	6 3	11
school  Municipal university or college  Municipal teachers college  Municipal junior college  Denominational university or col-	3, 378 87 254 575	21 21 19 21	27 26 25 25 25	35 31 30 30	2, 573 113 231	11 15 16	17 22 21	25 28 26	146 23 56	5 14 10	10 22 17	20 27 35
rivate nondenominational univer-	2, 465	16	. 22	30	2, 526	8	13	20	252	4.	' \ 8	13
eity or college	1, 349	18	24	31	1, 514	9	15	24	516	8	13	24

#### SUMMARY

1. The total "service load" of college instructors should be distinguished from their "teaching load."

The median number of teaching hours per week was quite uniform.
 for all types of institutions included in this study except that
 it was higher in the junior colleges.

3. The median number of hours of teaching per week tended to

decrease as the size of the institution increased.

4. College teachers of subjects involving laboratory work taught approximately 3 or 4 hours more per week than teachers of nonlaboratory subjects. Heads of departments carried approximately full-time teaching loads.

5. Very few of the staff members of the cooperating institutions taught practice-school pupils except in the two groups, State

teachers colleges and municipal teachers colleges.

6. The State universities and land-grant colleges, the private non-denominational colleges and universities, and the municipal universities and colleges had the largest percentage of their faculties doing research and more hours spent at it per week than in the other groups.

7. The median total service load for college instructors was 43 or 44 hours per week—divided roughly into thirds—one-third for instruction, one-third for preparation for instruction, and onethird for all other institutional responsibilities including

research.



8. Regularly delegated administrative responsibilities, research and conferences, committee work, etc., each took on the average from 2 to 4 or more hours per week from faculty members.

 Larger percentages of the teachers with the heaviest service loads conducted research and also spent more time in research than did college teachers with lighter total service loads.

10. There was little difference (about 1 hour per week) in the teaching

load of the groups doing research and those not doing research.

11. Faculty members in graduate schools and in larger institutions gave more time to research than did those in undergraduate schools and in the smaller institutions.

12. The median sizes of classes on the junior college level of the cooperating institutions were larger than those on the senior college level which in turn were larger than those on the graduate level. Median class sizes on the graduate level varied much more widely than in either of the undergraduate levels.



### CHAPTER VI

# PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AND ACTIVITIES OF STAFF MEMBERS

Evidences of professional growth of staff members.—The continuous professional development of all members of the instructional staffs of higher educational institutions is a matter of constant concern to all administrative officers in such institutions. There are numerous ways by which instructors may continue their professional growth while teaching, for instance, by systematic reading in the field of their teaching interests, by research either in the methods of teaching their subjects or in the subject-matter content of the subjects, by travel, by study, and in other ways. The use and the results of many of these ways are not subject to easy study by means of a questionnaire. It was thought, however, that the way in which sabbatical absences were used, the extent to which the results of research and study were published, and the participation of faculty members in various professional activities would serve as indices of the extent to which the staff members of the several groups of institutions were interested and active in their own professional improvement. Accordingly some detailed questions on these three phases of the noninstructional activities of faculty members were incorporated in the staff inquiry (items 59, 66-69, fig. 1, p. 151).

Table 36.—Sabbatical leave of absence taken by members of teaching staff of colleges and universities, 1931-32

Type of institution	Total number in-	Institution does not grant sabbatical leave	Did not take last sabbatical leave	Took last sabbatical leave and traveled abroad	Traveled in the United States	Studied for ad: vanced degree abroad.	Studied for ad-	Taught at another	Wrote a book	Other
ı ı	3	3	4	5		7	8		.10	11
State university or land-grant college State womans college State teachers college or normal school Municipal university or college Municipal teachers college Municipal junior college Denominational university or college Private nondenominational university or college	3, 218 580 3, 477 169 323 593 2, 912 1, 629	73. 2 96. 8 78. 8 55. 0 51. 1 95. 8 85. 3	12.4 5.5 35.5 34.1 3.2 4.3 9.3	4.9 2.1 5.9 7.1 2.5 10.3	1.3 1.1 3.4 .2 .9	0. 5 . 2 . 5 . 6 . 3	5.3 9.9 1.8 2.8 4.9	0.3 .3 .3	0.4 .8 .6	1.7 1.8 1.2 1.1

Sabbatical leaves of absence.—The extent to which sabbatical absences were available to faculty members in eight groups of institutions in 1931-32 is shown in table 36. The percentages in this table refer to the number of staff members replying and not to the number of institutions. Thus a few large institutions in which sabbatical absences were not granted would outweigh a large number of smaller institutions in which sabbatical absences were granted.

Several interesting and unexpected things are shown in table 36. In the first place, the granting of sabbatical absences was apparently much less common than is usually supposed. Sabbatical absences were available to only about one-fifth of the instructors in the institutions reporting. In the second place, most of the instructors took advantage of the sabbatical year if they had the opportunity, the exception to this generalization being the municipal universities and colleges, and the municipal teachers colleges. In the third place, it' was evident that most of the staff members used the sabbatical absence for professional advancement. Only an insignificant number used the time to teach in another institution. While the percentages in the body of table 36 appear small, it is because they are percentages of the total groups, most of whom did not have sabbatical leaves. The two ways of using the sabbatical absence which were most frequently employed by faculty members in 1931-32 were for travel abroad and for studying for advanced degrees in the United States.

TABLE 37.—Books and articles by members of teaching staffs of colleges and universities published since July 1926

	Total	Perce	ent of	faculty books	prod	lucing	Perc	ent of	faculty articles	prod	lucin
Type of institution	ber in- volved	No books	1	3 or 3	4 or 8	More than 5	No arti- cles	1 to 1	4 to 9	10 to	20 or
			4		•	,	8		20 ,	11	
State university or land-grant col- lege	3, 846° 561	72.4 86.9	14.5 10.3	8.9	2.4	1.8	49. 1 76. 4	25. 2 18. 6	15.7	6.4	1
echool. State junior college. Municipal university or college. Municipal teachers college. Municipal junior college. Denominational university or col-	3, 876 909 179 876 601	86. 5 90. 9 66. 5 85. 6 98. 9	8.7 6.7 17.8 8.0 4.0	3.6 2.4 12.3 3.4 1.5	.7 1.7 1.1	1.7 1.9 .3	76. 1 83. 7 58. 6 74. 0 82. 7	17. 1 18. 3 24. 6 15. 7 14. 9	4.8 1.0 10.0 8.5 1.7	14 84 .5	8. 1.
rivate nondenominational univer-	8, 240	84.8	10.8	8.2	.8	-14	74.6	16.4	5.8	20	4
sity or college Denominational junior college Vondanominational junior college	2,058 219 • 60,	73.7 94.5 98.8	14.5 2.7 1.7	7.9 1.8 3.3	21 17	1.8	56. 2 87. 2 90. 0	24.0 8.7 6.7	11.6 27 3.8	8.6	2

Books published.—The extent to which books and magazine articles were produced by the teaching staffs of higher educational institutions in the period between July 1926 and the academic year 1931-32 is shown in table 37. The number of instructors replying and the

percentage who during that period wrote no books, 1 book, 2 or 3 books, 4 or 5 books, and more than 5 books are given for each of the 11 different types of institutions. Similar data are also included for the number of magazine articles published during the same period.

It appears from table 37 that approximately one-fifth of the instructors in these institutions wrote books, the percentage varying from 33.5 in the municipal universities and colleges to 5.5 in the denominational junior colleges. The table also shows that the most typical number of books produced by the instructors who did write books during the 5-year period was 1. Only in the three groups, the State universities or land-grant colleges, the municipal universities and colleges, and the private nondenominational universities or colleges, were there any significant number of faculty members who produced 2 or 3 books during the 5-year period.

Table 38 in which the number of books published by members of the instructional staffs of cooperating colleges were distributed according to the college enrollment of the universities shows that very definite relationships existed between the size of the institution, the percentage of instructors who published books, and the number of books per instructor published. The percentage of instructors who during that period published no books diminishes from 89.3 percent in the smallest group (those institutions with fewer than 250 students), to 54.9 percent in the institutions with 10,000 or more The percentage of instructors writing 1 book or 2 or more books during that period increased in a corresponding manner.

Table 38.—Books published since July 1926 by percentages of members of instructional staffs in colleges and universities of various sizes, 1931-32

College enrollment	Total		Number	of books p	ublished	
Conside entrollment	responses	·None	1	2 or 3	4 or 5	More than 5
1 1	1		4			7
Fewer than 250. 4 250-499 500-749. 750-999 1,000-1,499 1,800-2,499 2,500-4,999 10,000 and more.	1, 200 2, 728 2, 698 1, 538 1, 720 2, 100 1, 709 957 564	89. 3 89. 0 85. 5 86. 7 80. 4 78. 3 75. 7 60. 4 54. 9	8.2 7.8 10.2 8.7 11.6 12.9 13.6 18.6 20.7	2.1 2.9 2.9 8.4 6.6 6.2 7.1 14.4 16.0	0.4 .8 .7 1.2 1.5 2.2 3.6 4.8	0.4 .6 .8 1.2 1.1 1.4 2.0
Total responses: Number Percent	15, 264	12, 382 - 81. 1	1, 713 11. 2	814 & 4	190 1. 3	156 1.0

The distribution of the number of books published by staff members according to the geographic areas in which the colleges are located showed no significant variations among the various areas.



Articles published between 1926 and the academic year 1931-32 .-Table 37 indicates that approximately two-thirds of the staff members of the institutions reporting did not write any magazine articles during the 5-year period between 1926 and 1931-32. The percentage of faculty members writing magazine articles varied from 50.9 percent in the State universities and land-grant colleges to 10 percent in the nondenominational junior colleges. The three groups in which the largest percentage of faculty members wrote magazine articles were . the same three groups in which most books were produced, namely the State universities and land-grant colleges, the municipal universities and colleges, and the private nondenominational universities and colleges. Reference to column 9 in table 37 shows that most of the faculty members who did write magazine articles during the 5-year period did not write more than three articles. However, in the three institutional groups which had the largest percentage of faculty members who wrote magazine articles, the significant percentages of staff members who wrote 20 or more articles in the 5-year period was distinctly larger than for other groups.

The tabulations for the number of magazine articles written when distributed according to the size of the institution and according to geographic areas showed results similar to those for books written.

Relationship of research to educational productivity.—Table 39 shows the relationship between the percentage of instructors reporting some research activities in 1931-32 compared with the percentage writing books and magazine articles during the period 1926-32. These comparisons are arranged according to the instructional departments in the higher educational institutions cooperating in the study. The data in column 3-the percentage of the instructors in each department reporting research—showed that the nighest percentages in 1931-32 were in the fields of agriculture, psychology, biology, and economics; the lowest were in the fields of library science, home economics, and physical education: \*Checking these returns with the data in columns 7 and 8 shows that the departments most productive in writing books in the 5-year period following 1926/were sociology, education, agriculture, psychology, and for magazine articles written during the same period, agriculture, psychology, biological science, sociology, philosophy, and education. While these figures cannot be taken foo seriously for individual departments they do indicate that there was a direct relationship between the percentage of faculty members in a department engaged in research and the number of books and magazine articles produced by the instructors in those departments..

TABLE 39.—Research (1931-38) and productivity (1926-32) of university and college teaching staffs

Department	Total number of	research		Hours of research per week by department members during 1931- 32			ducing	Percentage of depart- ment pro- ducing	
5 d		(1	931-32)	Qı	Media	n Qı	books since 1926	articles since 1926	
* •	1	-			8				
Agriculture	440		78		1	-	-		
Art and drawing	461		80	3	1	-	28	61	
Biological sciences	1.072		64	i	3		10	28	
Business and commerce	505		49	3	1 9	1 20	/ 18	40	
Chamber	1.50		-			9	/ 19	39	
Chemistry	880		60	3			/	_	
P. CODOMINA	408		68	1			18	44	
Education. English	1, 353		61		1 7	12	24	- 40	
English	2,106		80	. 8	. 8	10	30.4	46	
	7.100		80	3	5	0	18 1	28	
Geography	300					1		-	
Health.	105		70	4	7	1 12	. 27		
DIBLORY, CIVIOR	1,016		3.5	-2	*4	6	13	44	
Home economics, household	1,016		65	3	7	13	26	25	
arts	- 11	•	2.5		1.0		20	33	
	641		24	3 1	. 4	7	44	1	
ndustrial arts						1	. 11	21	
ADDITIONS	209		45	2	4	6			
Classical				-		0 1	17	33	
Modern	889		- 87	4	-,1				
Modern	1, 242		85	- 1	4	12	1 - 17	26	
Modern forary science	85		23	3		12	20	. 22	
darking the same	10		-		Cours.	8	11	* 31	
dathematics	19872		43	- 1	400		-		
A LANG.	830		40	3		11	111	26	
hilosophy, ethics	303			3	4	6	8.1	12	
bysical education	602		60	. 3	5	12	24		
	002		32	2	4	5	6	47	
bysics	44.1							17	
NYCDOIOFY	64.		53	3	8	9	16	1,000	
ociology	379		74	3	5	11	27	20	
rades, industries	265		64	4	7	13		5.5	
tber	31		48 7	3	8	. 40	38	47	
	216		5.2	3	5	10	19	30	
· Total		-		-	0	10	0 29	44	
***********	15, 273		54						

Extracollege professional activities.—In the attempt to secure a picture of the professional activities outside of regular college work in which staff members participated in the 5-year period following 1926, a check-list of activities was prepared covering the usual range of these professional responsibilities. (For list see items 68-69, fig. 1, p. 151.) The answers to this list are reported in table 40. There are obvious reasons why the percentages in table 40 vary for some of the extracollege activities among the different groups of institutions. For example, in the percentage of municipal university, college, and teachers college faculty members serving as consultants for city school systems or for city institutions-was larger than the percentage of faculty members of other types of institutions participating in this form of professional activity. The most significant column in table 40 is the last one showing the percentage of faculty members in the different types of institutions not participating in any of the activities listed. This percentage ranging from 39.3 in the State universities and land-grant colleges to 58.3 percent in the municipal junior colleges indicates that approximately half of the staff members of these institutions did not participate in any of those activities considered indicative of professional growth and recognition.

TABLE 40.—Distribution of participation in extracollege activities by members of teaching staffs in colleges and universities

	Percent not par- ticipat- ing	12	25, 25, 25, 26, 26, 27, 26, 28, 28, 28, 28, 28, 28, 28, 28, 28, 28
	Num- ber not partici- pating	=	1, 511 281 216 316 361 1, 780
	other	32	44604 9 1.
	Editor of mag- azine or Journal	2	904941 9 9 11148 1 8
	Won honorary citation or recognition for scholarly, artic, or other accomplishment from a govelnment or from a professional or civic organization	2	ଜ୍ୟପ୍ରାସ୍ତ କ୍ କ୍ ଉପରାମରେ ବ୍ ବ
	Consultant for city system or instintution	12	1 . P. P
	Office in national professional organiczeton	=	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
	Office in na- tional cfvic, etc., organi- zation	2	11.8.71
	Office Office in State in State in State in Cavic Gavic, sional organication zation		800 P. 40 9 7 7 7 8 2 5 5 5 0 0 7
	Office in State dvic, etc., organi- zation	<b>o</b> c	अध्नात्म् थ स् क्रम्कश्रम् क स
	Mem- ber of nation- al or State com- mittee (ctvic, frater- nal, social)		はまは気吹 た はるてるのち ち ち
.2	Der of Detroit of Detr	•	12.20.20 17.20.00 17.20.00 18.0
4	Parti- cipated in State or city survey	•	84.50.14. 4. 6. 26.50.4. 4. 8.
	Elected member of national honorary professional association of your particular field	•	82.8 82.8 1.86.7 80.6 87.4
	Num- ber of activi- ties checked less nonpar- tici- pants	8	3, 501 427 1128 2256 337 2, 020 1, 549
	Total num- ber in- volved	,-	3.846 581 170 375 602 8,242 2,068
	Type of institution	1	State university or land-grant college.  State teachers colleges.  Municipal university or college.  Municipal teachers college.  Denominational university or college.  Private nondenominational university or college.

The tabulation of participation in the extracurricular activities distributed according to the college enrollment shows that there was a distinct relationship between participation in these activities and the size of the institution—the larger the institution, the larger the percentage of participation.

#### SUMMARY

1. Only about one-fifth of the instructional staff members reporting in 1931-32 worked in institutions which granted sabbatical leaves of absence.

2. Of those who had leaves of absence in 1931-32 the large majority spent the year either in travel abroad or in work toward an ad-

vanced degree in the United States.

3. About one-fifth of the instructional staff members wrote books and one third wrote magazine articles during the 5-year period following 1926.

4. Most of the educational productivity occurred in the State universities and land-grant colleges, the municipal universities and colleges, and the private nondenominational universities and colleges.

5. The percentages of instructors who wrote books and magazine articles was greater in the larger institutions than in the smaller.

The number written per instructor was also greater.

6. There was a definite relationship between the percentage of the faculty engaged in research and the number of books and magazine articles prepared during the 5-year period following 1926.

7. About half of the faculty members of higher educational institutions did not participate in any of the extracollege activities listed

in the inquiry blank.

8. The extracollege activities most frequently listed by faculty members were election to membership in national honorary professional associations of their particular field of work and membership in national or State professional committees.



#### CHAPTER VII

## TEACHING STAFF OF PRACTICE-DEMONSTRA-TION SCHOOLS

practice-demonstration schools in teacher education .-Teaching may be described as both a science and an art. A teacher's professional equipment must include a knowledge of the things to be taught, a knowledge of the science of education and the methods of teaching, and proficiency in the art of teaching. There are, of course, other elements in a teacher's professional equipment but these three are fundamental. In order to provide prospective teachers with the necessary minimum of teaching skills before they are graduated and certificated as teachers it is essential that they have opportunity to practice the required skills under careful-supervision until they can demonstrate the degree of teaching proficiency required of beginning Some form of practice or laboratory school is therefore a necessary part of the facilities of any institution educating teachers. Practice in the actual skills of teaching must obviously be had either during the preservice period of preparation or obtained during the teacher's first year of teaching. The second plan requires a degree of supervision of the young teacher which virtually amounts to conducting a practice school for him after he is employed, otherwise he obtains his practice at the expense of the children he teaches and at the risks of initial failure and the establishment of bad teaching habits.

The study of curricula of institutions in which teachers are prepared showed that the most distinguishing element between institutions which are primarily concerned with the education of teachers and those in which teacher education is only one of several main functions is the adequacy of the facilities for practice and demonstration work. This difference was shown and emphasized in several other parts of the survey (vol. III, pts. IV and V; vol. IV; vol. V, pts. I, VII, and

VIII).

Because of the very important place which the practice school holds in the education of teachers and because of the important relation which the staff of the practice school holds to the effectiveness of such schools it was decided to separate the practice school staff for special study in order to facilitate comparisons. This chapter shows the status of the practice-demonstration teaching staff members for the year 1931-32 on the various items in the inquiry (fig. 1, p. 145) distributed by the seven groups of institutions of senior college grade. The data are summarized in table 41. The same items are included



in this table as have been presented and discussed for instructional staff members in the colleges and universities in the earlier chapters of this part. Because the same distribution has been carried for all the items the data have been presented in one long table. Anyone interested in detailed comparisons with similar data for the college instructional staff may easily find them by referring to preceding tables as indicated for the items in table 41. Attention will be called to a few of the most noteworthy items in this table.

Table 41.—Personnel study of the teaching staff of practice-demonstration school, 1931-32

	Percent by type of institution									
Field	State univer- sity or land- grant college	State woman's college	State teachers college	Munici- pal teach- ers col- lege	Denomi- national univer- sity or college	Private nonde- nomina- tional univer- sity or college	Private teacher college			
1,	2	3	4			7	8			
MARITAL STATUS		1,4		Y			-			
Total number responding	211	90	1. 595	90	75	22				
Single	64. 0	78.9	79.8	73. 3	62.7		4			
DIVORTERO	32.7	17.8	14.9	21. 1	36.0	54. 9 41. 8				
Widow—widower (N.B.—Tables 7 and 8.)	2.4	3.3	1. 1 4. 2	1.1	1.3	3.3				
AGE					-					
Total number responding	211	90	1, 588	83	75	122	30			
Q <sub>1</sub>	31.3	30.6	30.6	37. 2	30.3	20.0				
Q <sub>1</sub> (N.B.—Table 6.)	36. 4 42. 9	36. 2 43. 4	36. 4 44. 2	43. 2 50. 8	33. 9 40. 6	36. 4 42. 2	35, 3 39, 0 46, 9			
Department in Which Instruc- tion Is Given	4:			-						
Total number responding	207	90	1, 572	89	74					
Agriculture	2.9	-	-		1.0	121	******			
Art and drawing Biological sciences	1.5	1.1	24	1.1	*****	.w				
Business and commerce	3.4	2.2	1.1		2.7	4 4	••••			
Chemistry	1.4		.7		1 4.0	1.7	• • • • • • • •			
Economics			.2  -		5.4	1.7				
Education	47. 9	58. 9	.1 -		1.4					
Eligible	7.7	4.4	67. 5	76.4	39. 1					
Geography	. 5	2.2	1.1	2.3	14.8	11.5				
Health. History—civics.			.4			*******				
Home economics—household	4.9	5.6	3.7	2.8	2.7	5.8				
Languages	10.1	1.1	2.5 1.9	1.1	1.4	1.7				
Classical	1.9	1.1	1.1			1, 10	012.5 107.15			
Modern.	2.9	1.1	.6		5.4	4.1				
Library science					4.0	8.3				
Music.	1.9	5.6	3.2	2.8	4.0					
Philosophy—ethics	2, 4	6.7	3.9	4.5	4.1	5.8				
Physical education		******		cccbJAK	5.4	6.6				
FUARICE	5.3	2.2	1.8	1.1		4.9				
rsychology	. 5	1, 1	.1		1.4	1.7				
COCIOIONY			.1	1,1		2.5	*****			
Other (N.B.—Table 4.)	. 5		1.0	2.2	1.4	.8				



TABLE 41.—Personnel study of the teaching staff of practice-demonstration School, 1931-32—Continued

	Percent by type of institution									
Pield	State univer- sity or land- grant college	State woman's college	State teachers college	Munici- pal teach- ers col- legs	Denomi- national univer- sity or college	Private nonde- nomina- tional univer- sity or college	Private teacher college			
1	2	3	1			7	8			
SEX										
Total number responding	211	90	1, 595	90	75	123	3			
Men	37. 0 63. 0	7. 8 92. 2	10. 7 89, 3	8.9 91.1	50. 7 49. 3	36. 6 63. 4	10. 90.			
HIGHEST LEVEL OF TRAINING		•		4	-		-			
Total number responding	210	90	1, 594	, 89	75	123	- 2			
Less than high-school gradu- ate			0. 2	1.1		0.8	3,			
1 year of college		1, 1	.8	2.2	2.7	. 8				
3 years of college. 4 years of college. 1 year of graduate work 2 years of graduate work	. 5	3. 3 34. 4 44. 5 15. 6	8. 3 6. 2 30. 3 43. 1 7. 3	5, 6 6, 8 24, 7 19, 1 12, 4	4. 0 22. 7 25. 3 24. 0	2.5 13.8 30.1 24.4	6. 6. 41. 27. 6.			
3 or more years of graduate work (N.B.—Table 10.)	19. 5	1.1	3. 5	28. 1	21, 3	26. 8	6.			
Source of Earned Bachelor's Degree			•		-		-			
Total number responding	205	84	1, 306	66	69	114	2			
State university or land-grant			7, 555			***				
college State woman's college State teachers college Municipal college or univer-	64. 4 . 5 10. 7	10. 7 38. 1 11. 9	23. 5 1. 4 34. 1	1. 5 4. 6	2.9 1.4 4.4	18.4	8. 16.			
Municipal teachers college Denominational college or		1. 2	1.8	31. 8		1.8				
Private nondenominational college or university	11. 2 9. 7	14. 3 11. 9	9. 9	12.1	68. 1	12,3	8,			
Private teachers college	2.0	9.5	8. 1 1. 7	40. y 9. 1	10. 1 13. 1	59. 6 . 9 1. 7	50. 8. 8.			
(N.B.—Table 12.) Source of Earned Master's										
DEGREE				•						
Total number responding State university or land-grant	140	- 44	712	32	46	82				
college	70. 7	29. 5 2. 3	29. 8	9.4	21.7	9.8	*****			
State teachers college	2. 2	2.3	5. 8		2.2					
Municipal teachers college Denominational college or		2.3	2.8	9, 4 3, 1						
university	.7		5. 6	25.0	32. 6	1. 2				
Private teachers college	20.0 8.7 .7	34. 1 29. 5	34. 6 20. 2 . 1	46. 8 6. 3	21. 7 21. 8	79. 2 9. 8	66. 22. 11.			
Other type (N.B.—Table 13.)		********	.7							

Table 41.—Personnel study of the teaching staff of practice-demonstration school, 1931-32—Continued

	Percent by type of institution									
Field	State univer- sity or land- grant college	State woman's college	State teachers college	Munici- pal teach- ars col- lege	Denominational university or college	Private nonde- nomina- tional univer- sity or college				
	1					,	8			
SOURCE OF EARNED DOCTOR'S DEGREE						**				
Total number responding	15	5	37	3	13	6				
State university or land- grant college.  Denominational college or university.	93. 3	80. 0	78.4	66.7	15, 4	33. 3				
university or college Private teachers college Other type.	6.7	20.0	8. 1 10. 8	33. 3	38. 4 23. 1 23. 1	33. 3 16. 7				
(N.B.—Table 14.) DEGREE OR DEGREES EARNED			*******			16, 7				
IN INSTITUTION OF PRESENT EMPLOYMENT	*									
Total number responding	211	90	1, 593	90	75	.124				
Percent with no such degree Number with such degrees Bachelor's	47. 9 110	65. 6 31	82.6	96.7	49.3	50. 8 61				
Master's. Doctorate. Bachelor and master's Bachelor and doctorate. Master's and doctorate. Bachelor, master's, and doctorate. (N.B.—Table 15.)	40.9 26.4 2.7 24.6 .9 1.8	96.8		100. 0	71. 0 7. 9 21. 1	14.7 52.5 3.3 27.9				
EXPERIENCE						4. 0				
otal years employed by present institution:  Total number responding	211	90	1,595	90	75	124	30			
MedianQs(N.B.—Table 16.)	2.7 5.4 9.8	2.7 4.7 7.9	2.8 5.4 9.6	5. 0 8. 6 15. 8	3. 3 4. 7 6. 4	2. 1 4. 5 8. 7	2.3 4.3 8.1			
otal years' experience on other college or university staffs: Total number responding	211	90	1, 594	90	74	104				
Percent with no experience Number with experience	· 64. 9	70. 0 27	70. 6 469	85. 6 13	85. 1 11	58r 9 51	60.0			
Median Qı (N.B.—Table 17.)	1. 7 2. 8 5. 6	1. 8 2. 8 5. 3	2.0 3.4 5.7	2, 3 4. 5 7. 9	1.9 3.8 8.1	2.1 3.6 5.9	2.0 3.6 5.4			
otal years' experience in ele- mentary school as teacher, prin- sipal, or supervisor: 'Total number responding	211	* 90	1, 596	90	75	124				
Percent with no experience.  Number with experience  Q1  Median Qa  (N.B.—Table 18.)	54. 5 96 2. 5 4. 0 7. 9	35. 6 58 3. 0 5. 6 10. 8	22. 4 1, 239 4. 6 8. 0 13. 2	13. 3 78 6. 5 10. 4 18. 2	50. 7 37 4. 3 6. 2 9. 8	50. 0 62 2. 8 5. 0 9. 3	20. 0 24 .5. 3 11. 0 17. 0			

Table 41.—Personnel study of the teaching staff of practice-demonstration school 1931-32—Continued

. /	Percent by type of institution									
Field	State univer- sity or land- grant college	State woman's college	State teachers college	Munici- pal teach- ers col- lege	Denomi- national univer- sity or college	Private nonde- nomina- tional univer- sity or college	Private teachers college			
1	2				•	7	. 8			
Experience-Continued	1						L.			
Total years' experience in sec- ondary school as teacher, prin- cipal, or supervisor." Total number responding	211	90	1, 596	·90	78	124	3			
Percent with no experience. Number with experience Q1 Median Q2 (N.B.—Table 19.)	23. 7, 161 3. 8 6. 8 10. 6	45.6 49 4.0 5.9 9.1	58. 8 657 2. 9 4. 9 8. 5	73.3 24 2.6 4.7 10.0	53. 3 35 3. 6 7. 1 9. 8	45. 2 68 3. 1 6. 7 10. 8	86.			
Total years' experience as school superintendent or assistant superintendent:  Total number responding	211	96	1, 596	. 90,	76	124	30			
Percent with no experience. Number with experience Q1	, 90. 5 20 2. 9 4. 8 8. 5	96.7	94.0 95 2.6 4.2 7.1	97.8 2	94.7	94. 4	100. (			
rand total years' educational experience: Total number responding	211	90	1, 595	90	75	124	30			
Qı	8. 6 13. 6 21. 6	7. 9 12. 6 20. 0	8.8 13.9 22.9	15. 4 22. 3 29. 8	5. 5 9. 9 16. 2	7. 8 12. 5 18. 9	7. 8 15. 0 24. 1			
SALABIES .										
ear 1930-31: Total number responding	186	74	1, 402	89	62	97	2			
Qı Median Qı	\$1, 990 2, 533 2, 883	\$1,717 2,008 2,158	\$1,969 2,258 2,642	\$2, 783 4, 456 4, 531	\$1, 425 1, 800 2, 469	\$2, 278 2, 706 3, 123	\$1,000 2,150 2,438			
ear 1931-32, total: Total number responding	203	89	1, 566	89	66	122	, 28			
Q <sub>1</sub>	\$1, 911 2, 417 2, 879	\$1, 685 1, 917 2, 109	\$1, 935 2, 243 2, 637	\$2, 863 4, 464 4, 535	\$1, 088 1, 750 2, 413	\$2, 025 2, 557 3, 061	\$1, 350 2, 150 2, 540			
TEACHING LOAD (HOURS PER WEER)					0					
otal number responding	211	90	1, 596	. 89	75	123	30			
ercent not teaching	2.8 205 15.3 22.4 28.5	0 90 23. 2 26. 9 29. 8	1, 581 20, 5 26, 3 30, 4	25.0 27.9 81.2	0 75 11. 1 16. 4 25. 1	3. 2 119 15. 6 20. 6 26. 3	7.8 14.3 -21.9			

## TEACHER PERSONNEL

TABLE 41.—Personnel study of the teaching staff of practice-demonstration school, 1931-32.—Continued

*			Percent l	by type of	institution	Percent by type of institution										
Field	State univer- sity or land- grant college	State woman's college	State teachers college	Municipal teachers col-	national											
1		1	4		6	7	. 8									
INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES (HOURS PER WEER)			٠													
Residential college instruction, nonlaboratory, etc.: Total number responding	211	90	1, 570	90	75	123	20									
Percent not instructing. Number who give instruction Q1. Median. Q1. (N.B.—Table 30.)	50. 2 105 3. 3 6. 0 10. 6	56. 7 39 3.3 6.4 12. 7	67. 2 515 3. 4 6. 4 12. 0	75. 6 22 5. 3 8. 0 15. 8	30. 7 52 5. 0 9. 3 13. 4	48.0 64 6.6 13.6 19.4	20.7 22 22 2.2 3.3 4.5									
Residential college instruction— laboratory, studio, gym, shop, etc.: Total number responding	211	90	1, 573	90	75	123	30									
Percent not instructing Number who give instruction. Q Median Q (N.B.—Table 30.)	74. 9 53 4. 8 8. 5 15. 5	65. 6 31 7. 8 14. 6 20. 8	79. 4 324 4. 5 8. 8 15. 0	87. 8 11 5. 5 10. 3 16. 9	80. 0 15 3. 5 6. 9 11. 6	74.8 31 6.3 11.6 17.3	63.8									
Residential instruction, practice school pupils: Total number responding	211	90	1, 594	89	75	123	1									
Percent not instructing. Number who give instruction. Q1. Median. Q1. (N.B.—Table 30.)	18. 0 173 11. 9 19. 9 25+	10. 0 81 16. 1 23. 5 25+	9. 6 1, 441 17. 3 25+ 25+	11. 2 79 24. 4 24+ 25+	57.3 32 13.0 21.7 25+	. 48.8 63 13.8 22.0 25+	29°0 24 6.4 10.6 14.4									
Extension teaching: Total number responding:	211	90	1, 594	80	. 75	123	90									
Percent not teaching. Number who teach Q. Median Q. (N.B.—Table 30.)	90. 5 20 2. 5 4. 1 8. 3	91.1	95. 5 72 2. 1 3. 3 4. 4	96.6	68.0 24 2.3 3.5 4.8	93.5	96.7									
Preparation for instruction, pa- per work, etc.: Number reporting prepara- tion.	198	86	1, 499	76	72	112	28 , ,									
Q1 Median Q1. (N.B.—Table 30.)	7.6 12.2 16.4	8. 5 12. 6 17. 3	7.8 12.2 16.9	8. 5 12. 3 15. 8	2.9 4.9 13.8	6.3 10.3 13.4	5. 0 8. 2 13. 8									
erve as college representative to public: . Total number responding	211	90	1, 595	. 88	75	123	80									
Percent not serving Number who make public contacts Q: Median Q: (N.B.—Table 30.)	87. 2 27 2. 3 3. 6 4. 9	87.8 11 2.1 3.2 4.3	87. 0 207 2. 1 3. 1 4. 2	96.6	92.0	94.3	93. 3									



## 206 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 41.—Personnel study of the teaching staff of practice-demonstration school, 1931-32 Continued

			Percent l	y type of i	nstitution		
Pield	State univer sity or land- grant . college	woman's college	State teachers college	Munici- pal teach- ers col- lege	Denominational university or college	Private nonde- nomina- tional univer- sity or college	Private tencher college
1-1-	. 2	1 1	( . )		•	. 7	. 8
Institutional Responsibili- ties (Hours per Week)—Con.		***	٠				. ,
Regularly delegated adminis- trative responsibilities: Total number responding	, 211	90	1, 504	89	75	100	,
Percent having none Number with responsibili-	70. 1	-	79.9	88.8	92.0	76. 4	86.
ties	2.6 4.2 7.6		320 2.7 4.4 9.6	10 2.7 4.3 7.8	6	20 2.4 3.8 6.3	
Research: Total number responding	211	90	1, 595	88	75	124	
Percent doing no research Number who do research  O  Median  O  (N.B.—Table 30.)	64.0 76 2.5 3.9	11 2 1 4 8 2	73.7 419 2.3 3.5 4.8	72.7 -24 2.4 -8.8 7.5	70.7 .22 2.0 3.1 4.1	51. 2 61 2.6 4. 1 7. 4	76.7
Other institutional responsibili- ties (conferences, committee work, travel, etc.): Total number responding	211	90	1, 595	. 88	75	· .123	
Percent having none	39. 8 127	51. 1	36.1	38. 6	66.7	80.1	40.0
bilities. Q1. Median. Q1. (N.B.—Table 30.)	24	2.5 3.9 6.5	1,019 2.6 4.3 7.6	2.2 3.5 4.7	25 2.5 8.9 7.2	95 2.3 3.7 5.3	18 3.6 6.7 11.3
Total institutional responsibili-							-
Total number reporting	211	90	1, 591	. 88	74	122	30
Ol Median (N.B.—Table 31.)	7 31. 5 40. 8 47. 4	36. 7 40. 6 48. 0	35. 1 40. 8 48, 3	31. 5 38. 0 45. 8	15. 5 25. 5 40. 2	29. 1 34. 9 40. 6	18. 3 30. 5 37. 6
BOOKS PUBLISHED SINCE JULY		•					
Total number responding	211 86. 3	· 90	1, 596	- 90	75	124	30
1 2 or 3	9. 0 3. 3 . 5	98.9	95. 1 3. 9 . 6 . 1 . 3	93.3 1.1 3.4 1.1 1.1	94.7 4:0	79. 0 9. 7 9. 7 1. 6	100.0
ARTICLES PUBLISHED IN MAGA- ZINES OF NATIONAL SCOPE SINCE JULY 1926		•		×		-	
Total number responding.	211	* 90	1, 582	90	74	124	30
None 1 to 3 4 to 9 10 to 19 20 or more (N.B.—Table 37.)	66.8 24.6 6.2 1.9	92.2 .6.7	89. 2 9. 1 1. 3 . 1 . 3	93. 3 5. 6	90.5 6.8	79. 9 14. 5 8. 2 .8 1. 6	98.3

Extent of practice-demonstration facilities. Some very noticeable differences among the types of institutions shown in tables 3 and 41 were in the ratios of the practice-school staff members to the total instructional-staff members in the different types of institutions. Assuming that the same proportion of both groups answered, the percentage the practice-school staff members were of the instructional staff was an index of the extent of practice-school facilities provided by the different type of institutions. One reservation would have to be made, however, and that is that the groups of institutions other than the teachers colleges were not devoted exclusively or primarily to teacher education. For most of these institutions 46 percent of the students were preparing to become teachers. Even if due allowance is made for this, there were still marked differences among the types of institutions. The percentage which the practice-school staffs were of the college or university instructional staffs in each type of institution in 1931-32 was: State universities and land-grant colleges 5.9, State women's colleges 19.2. State teachers colleges 53, municipal teachers colleges 26.6, denominational universities or colleges 3.1, private nondenominational universities or colleges 6.9, and private teachers colleges 37. Obviously the percentages for the types of institutions not teachers colleges were very much smaller than for the three groups of teachers colleges even if allowance is made for the proportion of students not going into teaching and for the fact that many of the colleges and universities made provision for practice teaching in cooperating schools and did not include reports from the teachers in those schools.

Age, sex, and marital status of practice-school staffs.—Comparisons of the median age of the practice-school teachers with those of the college and university instructional groups as given in table 6 show that the practice-school staffs were consistently a younger group than the college instructors. Much higher percentages of the practice school staffs in all cases were women than was true for the college instructional staffs of the same types of institution. Computations from the percentages in tables 6 and 7 show that larger percentages of the practice-school staffs were unmarried than of the college instructional staffs.

Highest level of education.—The data in table 10 show very convincingly that the practice-school instructors in 1931-32 had had less educational preparation than the college instructional staff members. This was especially true for the percentages with 2 or more years of graduate work, which ranged from 46.5 percent to 76.8 percent for the college instructional staff members, but from 10.8 percent to 51.2 percent for the practice-school instructors. The larger percentage with 4 years of college work or less is further evidence that the staff members of the practice schools had had less educational preparation than the college faculty members.



Source of earned degrees. In comparing the source of the earned bachelor's degree held by the practice school staff members with the source of the same degree for the college instructional staff members the proportions received from the different types of institutions were similar with one pronounced difference, namely, that there was a decidedly stronger tendency for the practice school staff members to hold their first degrees from institutions of the same type as the ones in which they were then teaching than was true for the college The importance of this fact is increased by the conditions instructors. which existed in these institutions with respect to the percentage of the staff members who received their bachelor's degree from the institution in which they were teaching in 1931-32. In every group except the municipal teachers college larger percentages of the practice school faculty than of the college faculty received their first degree from the institution in which they were then teaching. It therefore seems that there was more professional inbreeding in the practice school faculties than in the college and university faculties.

The types of institutions from which the majority of the practice school staff members earned their master's and doctor's degrees were the State universities and land-grant colleges and the private non-denominational colleges and universities. One element in which the practice school staff differed from the college staff was in the larger percentage of master's and doctor's degrees granted by the private teachers college group to the practice school instructors. This might be interpreted to indicate more emphasis upon preparation of a distinctly professional nature for the practice school instructors than

for the college teachers.

Teaching experience of practice school staff members.—Instructional staff members of practice schools in 1931-32 had taught in the institutions in which they were then employed fewer years than had the college staff members. There was a difference of 1 or 2 years in the medians for the 2 groups. A decidedly larger percentage of practice school teachers than of college teachers had had no teaching experience in another institution of higher education and of those who had had, the median length of the experience was uniformly less by approximately a year, than for the instructional staffs of the colleges or universities. This is another indication that the staff members of the practice schools were more institutionally provincial than were the college instructional staffs.

The situation was different in the matter of teaching experience in the elementary schools. Not only had a larger percentage of the practice school staff members had experience in the elementary schools but the median length of experience was for most of the groups 2 or 3 years longer than for the college teachers. In the matter of teaching experience in secondary schools the reverse of the foregoing situation



prevailed for all groups except the State universities and land-grant colleges and the private nondenominational colleges and universities. This was probably accounted for by the fact that there were more elementary practice and demonstration schools than secondary and by the tendency to recruit college teachers more frequently from the high schools than from the elementary schools.

A comparison of the total years of experience showed medians slightly lower for the practice school groups than for the college faculties. The medians and quartiles indicate, however, that the practice schools were staffed by experienced teachers since the lowest

quartile was nearly 8 years for most of the groups.

Salaries of practice school staff members.—Salaries for practice school staff members as reported for the years 1930-31 and 1931-32 showed insignificant reductions in the median salaries paid in 1931-32 except for the private nondenominational college and university group. Salary reductions in higher educational institutions did not become widespread until after the school year 1931-32 but the denominational and the private groups were the first to experience them. Comparisons of the salaries paid the faculty members of practice schools and those paid college staff members, as shown in tables 23, 25, and 41, indicate that there were median differences ranging from \$400 or \$500 to more than \$2,000 in the several groups with the exception of the municipal teachers colleges. In that group the practice school teachers received almost as much as the college teachers due to the fact that both groups were in most cases on the same city salary schedules. With the exception of the three groups, State universities and land-grant colleges, municipal teachers colleges, and private nondenominational colleges and universities, the teachers in the practice schools, as judged by the median salaries received, ranked lower than the college staff members holding the rank of "instructors." In all groups, except the municipal teachers colleges, they ranked lower on the basis of median salaries than the assistant professors.

Institutional responsibilities of practice school staff members. In five of the groups of institutions the actual teaching load in hours per week was from 5 to 10 hours longer for the teachers in the practice school than for the college instructors. This is compensated for by less time devoted to other institutional responsibilities so that the total time spent per week on various institutional activities was no more and for several of the groups was even less than the total time spent by the members of the college instructional staffs.

An analysis of the medians and quartiles of the time spent by practice school staff members on the various forms of institutional responsibilities indicates that in 1931-32 about half of them gave regular instruction in the colleges and universities for about 6 hours



per week; about one-fourth of them taught laboratory, studio, shop, or gymnasium courses for from 8 to 10 hours per week; most of them taught in the practice schools (denominational colleges and universities and private nondenominational colleges and universities were exceptions); less than a tenth taught extension classes and for 4 or fewer hours per week; they spent approximately 12 hours per week in preparation for instructional work; about one-eighth served as representatives of their institutions for a median of 3 hours per week; about one-fifth spent a median of 4 hours per week in regularly delegated administrative duties; about one-fourth averaged between 3 and 4 hours per week in research; and more than half gave about 4 hours per week to conferences, committee work and other institutional responsibilities.

Books and magazine articles published by practice school staff members.—In all groups of institutions a smaller percentage of the practice-school faculty members published books in the 5-year period following 1926 than was true for the college and university instructional staffs and those who did publish books wrote fewer. There were only very small percentages of the practice-school faculty members who wrote more than one book in that period.

The same relationship held with respect to the pragazine articles published during the same 5-year period.

### SUMMARY

- Facilities for practice in teaching and for demonstration of teaching techniques are considered necessary in all professional schools for teachers and were the elements in which the greatest differences were found between the institutions devoted primarily to the preparation of teachers and other higher educational institutions.
- 2. The State teachers colleges and normal schools, the municipal teachers colleges and the private teachers colleges all gave more emphasis to practice and demonstration schools, as indicated by the ratio of the practice-school staff to the college or university staff, than did the other types of colleges and universities.
- 3. The staff members of the practice schools in 1931-32 were slightly younger, more of them were women and fewer of them were married than was found for the college staff members.
- 4. The staff members of the practice schools had less formal education than the staff members of colleges and universities. There were more of them with only 4 years of college work or less and fewer of them with 2 or more years of graduate work. Probably an average of more than a year's difference existed between the two groups in the total amount of education.

- 5. Practice-school staff members were much more frequently graduates of the same type of school and also of the same school in which they were teaching in 1931-32 than were the college faculty members.
- 6. Faculty members of practice schools had less teaching experience in the institutions in which they were employed in 1931-32; fewer had taught in the secondary schools and for a shorter period than had the instructional-staff members of the colleges and universities.
- 7. The salaries paid teachers in the practice schools were distinctly smaller than those paid to staff members in the same types of institutions. The salary levels for practice-school teachers were in all groups but one below those paid assistant professors and usually below those paid college instructors.

8. Staff members of practice schools in the cooperating institutions spent more hours per week in class work but fewer hours per week in their total institutional responsibilities. Their teaching responsibilities in the college were largely in the field of education (many of them methods courses) and in the special fields of art, music, physical education, household arts, and industrial arts.

9. The staff members of demonstration and practice schools gave distinctly less time as a group to research and to the production of books and magazine articles during the 5 years following 1926 than did their colleagues on the instructional staffs of the colleges and universities.



### CHAPTER VIII

### RECOMMENDATIONS

In making recommendations for improving the professional preparation and the quality of the work of staff members in institutions in which teachers are educated the following reservations should be kept constantly in mind. The first reservation is that degrees held. experience, hours taught, salary received, and such quantitative items are at best merely general indices of the value and quality of the work done by college teachers. They are in no sense ends in themselves and everyone will admit that certain college teachers with little formal education, with little experience in college teaching, with a very heavy teaching load, with low salaries, and with no books written during the 5 years just past are nevertheless doing excellent work as college teachers and rendering valuable service in the education of the prospective teachers for the elementary or secondary schools who are in their classes. Even though this is so, most people would also admit that such teachers are good teachers in spite of these conditions rather than because of them.

The second reservation is that the variations were much greater within individual institutions and among institutions in the same group than they were among different groups of institutions. For that reason most of the suggested recommendations are of greater value to those in charge of institutions than to organizations concerned with the problems of one or more of the groups of institutions.

The third reservation is that teachers are being educated in the majority of the institutions of each of the groups studied even though many of the institutions do not consider the education of teachers as among their principal functions. However, since these institutions accept prospective teachers as students and expect them to receive certificates as teachers upon graduation, they should be judged by the same standards, so far as their teacher-education courses are concerned, as are those institutions whose principal function is the professional preparation of teachers.

The following recommendations are made with the preceding reservations in mind:

 The professional nature of the instruction given to prospective teachers depends not only upon the education and experience
 of the college teachers but also upon the attitude of the college teachers toward teaching and teachers. For this reason



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instructional-staff members of institutions in which teachers are prepared should possess a high degree of contagious enthusiasm for teaching and a sincere interest in the students as

prospective teachers in the public schools.

2. The master's degree or its equivalent should be considered the minimum requirement for the preparation of staff members of all higher educational institutions in which teachers are This standard should be enforced primarily upon prepared. all new appointments but it should not be accepted as a substitute for teaching ability particularly for those college teachers who are to teach prospective teachers. Increased emphasis should be placed upon the possession of the doctor's degree or its equivalent for new permanent appointments.

In enforcing such a recommendation as this one on the amount of education it is only reasonable that provision should be made for a number of exceptions in order to provide for those experienced teachers or specialists who are eminently qualified and skilled as teachers but who do not have the

required degrees.

3. Laboratory school facilities should be provided in all institutions preparing teachers. These facilities should be adequate to provide for observation, demonstration teaching, practice teaching, and, if possible, for some experimentation. ficiency in teaching should be the final test of a prospective teacher's right to graduate and the work of the laboratory school should also be the final test of the institution's ability to educate teachers. For this reason every staff member whose courses are required of prospective teachers should have an interest in and some responsibility for the work of the training school if to no greater extent than a partial responsibility for the supervision of his own students when they are teaching his subject in any of the grades.

4. Instructors of prospective teachers who have not had any teaching experience or at least not any recent teaching experience in the public schools should be expected to compensate for that lack by frequent contacts with the kinds of teaching situations

for which they are preparing students.

5. The improvement of instruction in institutions preparing teachers should come as a result of encouragement to conduct studies, organize syllabi, visit other teachers and other schools, and try different types of class organization and presentation, rather than through inspectional supervision from administrative officers or heads of departments. Staff members should be provided with the necessary clerical help for such occasional, 715°-35-Vol. 2-

studies and experiments. Studies of this kind and other research activities of the teaching staff members should be recognized as part of the total service load especially when the investigations are concerned with the improvement of the teaching process. In graduate divisions, research by faculty members which is directly related to research activities of students should be scheduled as a regular part of the teaching load. On the basis of the findings of this Survey it is recommended that research of the more technical kind should be concentrated in the larger institutions where there are enough students, library and laboratory facilities, and faculty specialists to reduce the cost and furnish the necessary stimulation and supervision.

6. Because of the significant increase in the educational preparation of staff members as the size of the institution increases, comprehensive programs of teacher education should not be encouraged or accredited in very small institutions (especially those with fewer than 250 students) unless such schools are unusually well supported. Exceptions to this recommendation should be made for those small institutions which concentrate upon the education of teachers for one or two related types of positions for which the faculty members are adequately

equipped to prepare teachers.

7. Reports from staff members upon the humber of students taught by them indicated that many very small classes should be eliminated or offered less frequently in order to increase the student load per teacher. This was particularly true for the graduate classes in the smaller institutions.

8. Critic teachers and supervisors in the training and demonstration schools should meet quantitative standards of preparation equal to those set for other members of the faculty who work with prospective teachers. The practice school staff members in addition to meeting the quantitative educational qualifications should be experienced "master teachers" in the subjects or grades taught, and should be capable of demonstrating various types of teaching for those subjects or grades with a skill which will set high standards of teaching for the prospective teachers who observe them.

9. Much more general and adequate provisions should be made for

the retirement of college and university teachers.

10. Higher educational institutions educating teachers in the United States should make more and better provisions for insuring continued professional development of instructional staff members during service. Some of the ways in which this end may be accomplished are:



(a) More general use of sabbatical absences for study, travel, special research, or writing.

(b) Payment of expenses to meetings of national and special associations in which individual instructors are interested.

(c) Encouragement to publish books and magazine articles in the fields in which instructors are working.

(d) Small subsidies in money, in clerical help, or in freedom from teaching responsibilities to aid in conducting research or special instructional experiments.

(e) Designation of faculty members as institutional representatives at meetings in which they are prepared to participate.

(f) Occasional visits by individual instructors to one or more other institutions to observe ways in which certain instructional matters are handled in those institutions.

11. If public-school teachers are to be expected to assume places of leadership in the communities in which they teach it is reasonable to expect the college teachers of these public-school teachers to be leaders not only in their fields of academic specialization but also in the civic and social life of the communities in which the colleges are located.

As was remarked at the close of part I of this volume these recommendations were suggested by one or more of the survey findings and have resulted from humerous discussions among the survey staff and from one or more presentations to the board of consultants. They are submitted not as a program but rather as the elements from which programs can be made for the improvement of the professional preparation and service of faculty members of institutions in which teachers are educated with the expectation that the ultimate result will be better-prepared teachers and better teaching in the public schools of the United States.

# APPENDIX TO PART I

TABLE I.—Highest level of training of elementary school teachers in open-country 1- and 2-teacher schools, 1930-31

State	Number involved	only	of ele- mentary school only	1 year of high school	2 years of high school	3 years of high school	of high school	weeks of college	year of college	l year of college	of college	3 year	ollege	of grad- uate work	of grad- uate work	of grad- uate work	unan 3 years of graduate work
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TABLE VII. -Highest level of training of junior high school teachers, 1930-31

State	Number involved.	Non- graduate of ele- mentary school	Graduate of ele- mentary school only	1 year of high- school	2 years of high school	3 years of high school	4 years of high school	6 to 12 weeks of college	Half year of college	1 year of college	2 years of college	3 years of college	4 years of college	l year of grad- uate work	2 years of grad- uate work	3 years of grad- uate work	More than 3 years of graduate work
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TABLE VIII.—Highest level of training of senior high school teachers, 1830-31

Number involved		Non- graduate of ele- mentary school	Oradusta of ele- mentary school only	of high school	2 years of high school	3 years of high school	of high sobool	6 to 12 weeks of college	Half year of college	l year of college	2 years of college	3 years of college	4 years of college	l year of grad- uate work	2 years of grad. uate work	3 years of grad- uate work	More than 3 years of graduate
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TABLE XI.—Sources of earned degrees of senior high school teachers, 1930-31

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2 2780 11.4 1.9 2.6 3.6 3.7 1.0 2 20.0 118 2.0 118 2.0 2.7 1.0 2.7 2.0 3.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 1.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2	2,730 10.1 1.0 2.0 47.1 1.2 20.0 118 2,730 4.6 1.6 2.7 4.8 12.5 1.0 21.2 10 10.0 2.0 3.0 2,730 4.6 1.6 2.7 4.8 12.5 1.9 77.0 806 3.0 7.8 11.8 1.5 4.6 1.1 20.0 3.1 1.2 8.2 1.3 1.2 8.1 1.2 8.1 1.2 8.2 1.3 1.2 8.1 1.2 8.1 1.2 8.1 1.2 8.2 1.3 1.2 8.1
2,700 22.5 6.5 8.6 8.7 11.2 20.0 118 10.0 8.7 11.5 20.0 118 10.0 8.3 11.5 20.0 21.2 10.0 10.0 8.3 11.5 20.0 21.2 10.0 10.0 8.3 11.5 20.0 20.0 20.0 20.0 20.0 20.0 20.0 20	2,730 4.6 1.6 2.7 4.8 12.5 1.9 2.0 118 10.0 3.7 2.2 38.2 1.1 4.2 39.9 28.1 1.7 27.6 3.1 12.8 7.2 39.9 28.1 1.2 39.0 28.1 1.2 3.0 7.2 3.1 12.8 3.0 7.2 3.1 12.8 12.5 1.9 3.1 12.8 3.0 7.2 3.2 2.2 3.2 2.2 3.1 12.8
2 2780 11.4 1.9 2.6 3.6 11.1 2.8 11.2 28.0 11.8 11.2 28.0 11.8 11.2 28.0 11.4 1.3 2.6 3.8 11.4 1.2 2.0 38.1 1.7 27.6 3.1 12.8 11.2 2.0 38.1 1.7 27.6 3.1 12.8 11.2 2.2 2.3 11.4 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.7 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.5 2.5 11.3 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5	2,730 10.1 1.0 3.0 47.1 1.2 29.9 118 10.0 10.1 1.2 29.9 118 10.0 2.7 4.8 112.5 11.0 11.0 11.0 11.0 11.0 11.0 11.0 11
2,700 22.5 6.5 8.6 2.7 4.8 11.2 20.0 11.8 2.0 4.7 1 1.2 20.0 11.8 2.7 2.8 2.8 11.4 2.0 88.1 1.7 27.6 80.1 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10 1.70 80.2 1.10	2,730 2,
2,730 1.5	2,730 10.1 1.0 2.7 4.8 12.5 1.0 21.2 2.0 28.1 1.2 28.0 28.1 1.1 2.0 2.1 2.1 2.2 2.0 28.1 1.2 2.0 28.2 1.3 20.7 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.1 2.1 2.0 2.1 2.1 2.1 2.1 2.1 2.1 2.1 2.1 2.1 2.1
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2 2730 28.1 1.0 2.7 2.7 2.8 2.8 2.8 2.8 2.8 2.8 2.8 2.8 2.8 2.8	2, 230 2, 230 2, 230 2, 230 1, 654 5, 686 1, 654 5, 686 1, 654 5, 686 1, 157 2, 736 1, 654 1, 167 1, 167 1, 167 1, 167 1, 168 1, 168
2,730 2,8 11.4 1.3 2.5 1.4 2.7 2.5 1.6 2.5 1.1 2.5 2.5 1.1 2.5 2.5 1.1 2.5 2.5 1.1 2.5 2.5 1.1 2.5 2.5 1.1 2.5 2.5 1.1 2.5 2.5 1.5 2.5 1.3 2.5 2.5 1.3 2.5 2.5 1.3 2.5 2.5 1.3	2,730 2,730 4,6,966 1,564 5,096 5,000
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# 238 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE XII.—Fields for which rural school teachers received most training, 1930-31

State	Number involved	Rural school	Kinder- garten- primary	Inter- mediate	Upper elemen- tary	Junior high	Senior high	Junior college	Other
<b>`1</b>	2	1	g. 4	5		7	8	•	10
Alabama		29. 3	16.1	31. 3	5.7	- 15.8	1.4	0.3	0.1
Arkansas	631	29. 6 65. 4	12.9	27. 3 8. 9	6.8	9.8	9. 1		2.2
California	965	53. 0	9.8	17. 3	11.7	3.7	21		
Colorado	929	36. 2	16.9	22.8	5. 3	9.4	7.5	.1	1.8
Connecticut.	269	27.2	27.5	29.4	13.8				
Connecticut Delaware	59	59. 3	3.4	23.8	6.7	1.5	3.4		. 3
Florida	130	47.7	13. 1	19. 3	13.9	3.8	1.5	********	.7
Georgiadaho	176	55. 1	9.7	14.8	14. 8	1.7	3.4	. 5	
Illinois Indiana	163	35. 0	12.9	27.0	9. 2	12.3	3.6		
Illinois	4, 845	65. 3	5.9	11.5	8, 1	3.7	4.8	.2	
Indiana	1, 182	52.3	10.1	25. 1	9. 2	.9	24		. 5
Iowa Kansas	0,110	81.3	4.6	7. 1	2.6	1.1	2.7	. 2	.4
Kentucky		73. 3 74. 5	5.5	10.7	3.5	3.4	3.4		. 2
The second second	-,	14. 5	7.4	6.9	7.4	21	1.4	. 2	.1
Louisiana	403	25. 1	21.8	29. 1	15.7	1.2	6.2	. 2	
Maine		54.8	13.3	17. 1	9.8	24	1.9	.2	. 7
Maryland		55. 4	15.7	17. 5	9.4	. 8	.8	.2	. 2
Michigan	160 2,708	28. 8	26.3	33. 1	8.2	1.8	. 6		1. 2
the second secon	4,106	64.5	5.8	12.6	6.7	6.2	3.6	.1	. 5
Minnesota	3,891	82. 2	5.1	7.2	3.8	1.4	. 2		+
Mississippi	203	53. 7	15.3	14.8	6.9	1.4	5.5	1.4	. 1
Missouri	648	68. 0	8.0	9.0	6.3	2.3	5.7	Ĩ.i	1.0
Montana Nebraska	1, 114 2, 956	42.3	16.6	22.8	10.3	4.6	3.1		: 3
	4,900	76. 1	7. 5	9.0	29	1.9	2.2	.1	. 3
Nevada		45.9	11.9	20.8	11.1	4.4	5.9		
New Hampshire		48.0	9 13.8	24. 5	6.3	5.6	1.5		*******
New Jersey New Mexico	339	41.6	13.9	36. 6	7.3		.6		******
New York	219	56. 2	14.6	15. 1	8.7	3.6	1.8		
1018	4, 161	68. 6	5.8	14. 4	4.8	4.5	1.7		.2
North Carolina	669	35. 4	22.3	22.0	16.1	1.8	1.8		
North Dakota	2,748	65. 0	11.0	13. 1	7.2	2.3	1.0	.3	. 3
Ohio	1,816	49.7	7.2	22.5	12.8	2.8	4.5	. 2	.3
Oklahoma Oregon	1, 271	63. 9	10.0	13.6	6.4	2.8	2.8	. 2	.3
Olegon.	963	40.0	19. 8	24.0	10.0	5.2	. 6		.4
Pennsylvania	3, 887	41.1	15.5	32.6	4.6	3.9	2.1		
Rhode Island	41	46.4	7.3	34. 2	4.9	24	24		. 2
South Carolina	165	46. 1	16.4	21, 2	7.3	4.2	4.2	.6	24
South Daketa	1,798	79. 1	3.5	9.3	3.5	23	20	.2	.1
l'ennesses	1, 684	66.7	7. 2	9.0	12.3	1.7	2.9	.1	i
Cexas	1,086	41.2	15.5	23. 7	8.4				
Utah.(	69	13.0	20.3	31.9	21.8	10.0	8.7 1.5	. 2	. 2
/ermont	451	77.6	4.4	10.2	3.6	2.2	1.6	1.5	
Virginia	1, 377	34.5	19.4	17. 4	20. 5	4.4	3.4	8	.1
The second section is a second section in	908	29. 2	16.8	28. 0	19. 2	5.7	1.0		i
West Virginia	20	58.6	3.5	6.9	13.8	6.9	10 4	. 1	
Visconsin	3, 557	89.7	24	2.8	80	.7	10.3	.1	
W yoming	504	71.2	6.1	11.0	5.4	2.2	28	144	.4
Total	61, 407	63.3	9.0	14 4	-		-	******	
	01, 101	00.0	W. U _	14.7	6.7	3.3	2.6	.1	. 3

Table XIII.—Fields for which intermediate teachers in cities 10,000 to 99,999 population received most training, 1930-31

State		Number nvolved		Kinder- garten- primary	Inter- mediate	Upper elemen- tary	Junior high	Senior high	Junior college	Other
1		2	8	4			,	8	•	10
Alabama	1111111	134 133	0.7	8. 2 7. 5	76. 2	4.5	6.7	3.0		0.
California Colorado		85 877 100		4.8	60. 2 82. 4 70. 7	9.7 3.5 9.8	10.6 3.5 8.6	11. 3 4. 7 5. 5	0.7	
Connecticut		761	.4	9.5	79. 0 80. 3	8.6	5.0	7. 0		1, (
Delaware		182		9.4	74.8		1. 0	.1		
Georgia		172 16	6.2	8.7 18.8	77. 3 56. 3	2.2	4.4 4.1 6.2	8.7 5.8 12.5	••••••	. 6
Illinois	······	1, 086	. 3	5.7	72.3	8.2	5.3	207 8		
Indiana		616 488	. 8	8.4	79.3	7.3	2.1	7. 2 5. 2	.1	9
Kansas Kentucky		270		7.8	75. 8 68. 6	6. 2 5. 1	6.6	11.9		. 4
Louisiana		142	**	0.140	77.5	5.7	3. 7	8. 2	. 8	. 4
Maine Maryland	Table 1	250	1. 2	7.2	76. 1 80. 8	9.2	3. 5	9. 1	. 8	1.4
Massachusatta		1.507	.2	9.6 8.2	88. 5	1.9		1. 2		
Michigan		768	.1	9.3	79. 6 72. 0	7.0	5.9	4.2		
Minnesota Mississippi		192		16.1	71.4	8.9	1.6		******	4
Missouri		85 356	.3	7. 0 9. 2	69. 5	7.0	5. 9	10.6	******	1.5
Montana Nebraska		139	.7	13. 7	67. 6 72. 7 69. 4	7.9	2.9	10.1	. 5	.5
Nevada		16			1 1.	0.4	3. 2	6.4		
New Hampshire		116		5.2	81.3		12.5	6.2		- B
New Jersey New Mexico		1, 807	.3	5.0	83. 6	7.4	1.7	2.6		
New York	and collection. " of the collection of the collection of	1,633	.4	9.3 5.8	76.7			14.0	.1	. 5
North Carolina.		288				6.8	7.8	1.9	.1	.4
North Dakota	117000	40	. 3	10.1	72.3	3.8	4.5	8.0		1.0
OhioOklahoma		1, 214	. 2	7.1	70.0	6.7	3.0	******		
Oregon.		91		14.3	75. 1 72. 6	7. 5	6.1	5.3	.3	
Pennsylvania		2 012			35.9	5. 5	6.6	1.0		
-Khode Island		151	.6	13.7	75. 8	8.1	4.0	24	.1	. 3
South Carolina	earn CIC	146		10.9	82. 8 75. 4	4.0	20			
South Dakota Tennessee	******	60		11.6	80.0	6.7	4.8	1.7	.7	
	27.17.5	60		10.0	63. 3	5.0	10.0	11.7		
Texas. Utah.	++++++	620	. 3	6.8	69. 9	3. 2	0.8		4	
Vermont	******	18		13. 3	80.0		0.8	13.3	. 3	. 4
VIIIVIIIII		228		2.3	80. 9	12.1	4.7	۵, ا		*****
Washington	2	246	1.2	15. 8 12. 2	67. 1	7.0	3.0	6.6		. 9
West Virginia		158						1.6		.4
W ISCONSIN	LUNG TO THE	497	.6	8.1	77.3	6.3	4.4	8.7		21111
Wyoming		40		12.5	72.5	12.5	10.0	2.5	*****	.4
Total	18.	487	.4	8.1	-		-			****
	-	177		0.1	75. 8	6.6	4.4	4.2	.1	.4

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TABLE XIV —Fields for which upper elementary teachers in villages less than 2,500 population received most training, 1930-31

State	Number	Rural	Kinder- garten- primary	Inter- mediate	Upper elemen- tary	Junior high	Senior high	Junior college	Other
1	2		4	5		7	8	•	10
Alabama	270	0.3	29	8.5	63. 5	19. 8	4.0	1.1	
Arizona	51	3.9	1.9	3.9	41.2	23.6	4.0 25.5	0.7	0 3
Arkansas. California.	407	4.5	.9	8.0	57.7	18. 1	9. 9		9
Colorado	119	4.2	1.6	7.4 6.7	59.5 42.1	30.3	9.8	.7	. 7
Connecticut.		- A				au 3	12.0	. 8	1.7
Delaware	120 20		3.3	18. 3	68.8	9.3	. 8		
Florida	101	3.0	1.9	12.9	60. 0 55. 5	25.0	10.0	,,,,,,,,	
Georgia.	110	. 9		8.2	62.7	14.9	10.9	2.7	. 9
Idaho	63	3.1	2.1	12.7	42.9	31.9	6.3		1. 8
Illinois	283	3.5							
Indiana	421	3.7	.4	6.7	67. 9 76. 7	12.0	9.9	.7	1, 4
Iowa	434	3.5	1.6	7.6	61.5	15.5	9.2	. 2	. 2
Kansas Kentucky	291	5.5	1.4	7. 2	55.0	24.1	6.8	*******	,1.1
Reduces	184	5.4	3.3	6.0	62.0	13.1	9. 7	. 5	
Louisiana	380	.7	29	15.4	64.5	1.5	14.1		
Maine	161	3.1	1.8	14.3	70.9	6.8	1.9	. 6	- 7
Maryland Massachusetts	195	6. 2	4.1	8.2	71.8	6.1	3.6		. 6
Michigan	203 323	2.1	3.4	11.4	61.1	18. 3	3.9		.4
	040	-1	1.2	8.0	55. 5	21. 1	9.9		1, 2
Minnesota	425	3.3	1.4	5.9	62.1	25. 2	1.9		
Mississippl	101		29	29	58. 5	16.9	17.9	9	. 2
Missouri Montana	290	1.0	1.0	7.9	57. 9	15.4	15. 1	.3	1,4
Nebraska.	97 241	3.3	3.3	5.1	60.9	22.7	5.2		
			~ 0	8.7	50.7	24. 1	9. 1		. 8
Nevada	26	3.8		11.6	50.0	7. 7	23.1	28	
New Hampshire	82	0.0	. 24	13.5	56. 1	19.6	24		******
New Mexico	73	6.9	1.3	10.5	69.6	8.2	5.6		1.7
New York	598	4.2	1.3	8.9	56.7	12.4	5.5	1.3	
North Carelina						24.0	2.5	. 2	. 3
North Carolina North Dakota	539 229	.7	1.6	5.6	69.6	5.4	16.0	.4	. 7
Ohio	617	3.6	. 8	11.4	67.7	13.1	4.8		1.3
Oklahoma	197	3.0	1.0	7.3	61.5	12.0	7.8		.1
Oregon	181	.3.8	4.4	8.3	6 59. 2	21.6	22	. 5	. 5
Pennsylvania	1,049	4.0			130			******	. 5
Rhode Island	44	1.9	3.4	14.6	55. 1	17.4	4.1	.2	. 3
South Carolina	77		1.3	16.1	59. 1 63. 7	11.3	6.8		2.2
Bouth Dakota	114	7. 0	1.7	6.1	58.8	10.3	11.7	1.3	
Tennessee	308	5. 2	23	7.8	64.6	6.4	12.7	1.0	
Texas	483	1.2							
Utah	120	2.5	2.5	8.1	54.7	12.5	21. 5	.6	
Vermont	76	10.6	26	3.9	62.5 79.0	20.0	4.2		
Virginia	385	1.3	3.6	4.7	63.4	12.2	14.5	.3	
Washington	327	1. 2	3.6	9. 2	64. 5	19.0	21	4	T. K.
West Virginia	4			25.0	78.0				111111
Wisconsin	198	13. 2	. 5	5.0	75. 0 50. 1	15 0			*****
W yoming	75	5.8	1.3	9.3	1 .65	15. 2 17. 3	10.7		1.0
Total	11 000						-	11111	*****
* Uses	11, 670	13	2.0	8.9	61.7	14.8	8.5	.8	. 5

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## 244 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

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## 246 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS .

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250 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

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District of Columbia Florida Georgia Tdaho

State

. TABLE XX.—Salaries of elementary school teachers in 1- and 2-teacher open-country schools, 1930-31—Continued

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1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1,		Alsbama. Arisona Arisona Arkansas California					2012	1, 2963	1, 968 1,046 1,044	1, 1763					22		1,000	1, 286	
4.5 1, 319 1, 1005 1, 230 16 1, 238		Colorado. Connecticut					18	1, 298	1, 609	1, 813	8	1, 080	2,200	2 800	1.673	1.00	1,878	2,408	ACH
4.5 1, 319 1, 458 1, 804 886 1, 194 1, 133 1, 463 16 1, 538 16 1, 638 17 1, 133 1, 463 16 1, 538 17 1, 133 1, 463 16 1, 638 17 1, 133 1, 147 17 1, 133 1, 147 17 1, 133 1, 147 17 1, 133 1, 147 17 1, 134 1,		Florida Georgia Idabo					351	750	1,048	1, 160	2	1, 738	2,117	2,730	1, 792	1,448	1,677	1,946	
45 1,319 1,466 1,804 8860 1,194 1,133 1,463 16 1,638 16 1,638 16 1,638 16 1,638 16 1,638 16 1,638 16 1,638 16 1,638 16 1,940 1,232 1,343 1,343 1,740 1,232 1,1448 1,044 1,144 1,633 1,644 1,633 1,644 1,633 1,644 1,633 1,644 1,633 1,604 1,200 1,130 1,200 1,130 1,200 1,130 1,200 1,130 1,200 1,130 1,200		unnois.					22	1,013	1.00	1,326	16	1, 338	1.600	2 200	2 008	-			1
233 893 974 1.066 1.343 1.313 1.011 1.313 1.011 1.313 1.011 1.313 1.011 1.313		indiana OWB.	3	1,319		1,804	88 29	1, 194	1, 133	1, 463	91	1, 638	1,900	2 100		1,47		1.0	
194 1,146 1,288 1,348  770 1,220 1,338 1,004 1,718  186 1,146 1,243 1,004 1,718  187 1,280 1,112 1,339  188 1,280 1,112 1,339  188 1,280 1,112 1,339  189 1,280 1,112 1,339  189 1,280 1,180 1,200  1,180 1,200 1,180	•	Kentucky					6 82 8 E 83 8	1.00	1,812	1.088					32.58	282	1,516	1, 582	NNI
77 1,220 1,338 1,004 17 1,513 116 1,115 1,238 1,004 17 1,513 127 1,004 1,106 1,115 1,339 12 1,525 1,600 1,700 12 1,525 1,600 1,700 1,300 1,300 1,500		Maine Maryland					23		388						**		A 20	9	
1188 9776 1.043 1.088 627 9890 1.112 1.3309 1.881 1.386 1.514 1.831 2557 1.3806 1.514 1.700 1.2 1.625 1.600 1.700 776 1.280 1.306 1.545	-						28	1.20	828	100	12	1,780	25.00	2,250	7,939	1,397	274	245	
188 1, 236 1, 112 1, 349 1, 344 1, 344 1, 340 1, 1445 1, 700 1, 155 1, 600 1, 700 1, 150 1, 340 1, 300 1, 540 1, 543		Mastestppl flacturi					158	978	.0.1	1,008					88	1, 510	1, 733	2,000	
44 1,056 1,139 1,200 1,700 1,6	200	Kontana. Tebraska Tevada					188	888	1, 112	388					172	1.32	1,689	1,876	٠
76 1,280 1,866 1,645 40 1,600		ew Hampshire.						8 8	1, 600	8 8					13	1, 514	1, 550	1, 586	
	croff. 3						-	300	-	963	9	1, 500	1,800	2, 167	3, 536	1, 196	1,413	2,5	
568 1.094 1.208 1.428					-		+	790	1	900	10	1, 426	1,875	2, 688	3, 574	1,661	200	1 990	25

TABLE XXI.—Salarise of elementary school teachers—cities 10,000 to 99,999 population, 1930-31—Continued

				9 100	9 months							10 гл	10 months			
Blate		M	len			W	Women			M	Men			W	Women	
	Num- ber of	õ	Median	. &	Num- ber of	ō	Median	3	Num- ber of	ō	Median	8	Num- ber of	õ	Median	5
-		-	•		•	1		•	=	=	2	2	2	2	=	2
North Dakota Ohlo Oklahoma	a	1,317	1, 600	1,850	1, 136	1, 272	1, 403	1, 467	25	1,281	1,712	1,966	1,759	1,271	1.518	
Pennsylvania Rhode Island	Z	1,588	1, 838	2,063	2,471	1,071	1, 168	1,258	8	1,367	3	1,871	2 045	1.371	1,486	1, 887
					287	1,084	1,241	1,342					250	1, 406	1, 599	1, 707
1-ennessee Terms Tresh	18	1, 263	1,360	1,450	1,488	9812	1, 983	1,248					8	1,315	1, 841	1,646
Vermont Virginia. Washington West Virginia.					មួយនីដូន	933 1,158 1,270 1,142	1,302	1, 285 1, 285 1, 396 1, 543 1, 543			-		2848	1, 100 1, 217 1, 147 1, 345	1, 650 1, 329 1, 340 1, 507	1,821
Wyoming Total				2	37.00	1, 128	1.28	1,634		1			8	1, 362	1, 562	1, 767
	110			-	14,014	-			243				1			

TEACHER I	PERSONNEL
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				. m	months							10 EM	10 months			
State		M	Men			A W	Women			M	Мев			W	Мошеп	
	Num- ber of	õ	Median	<b>8</b> ·	Number of	ð	Median	ô	Num- ber of cases	ő	Median	õ	Num- ber of	ō	Median	. 6
	•	•	•	•	•			-4	2	n	2	2	2	3	=	2
Alabama. Arisona. Arbamas. Oalifornia	242	22.1.	25.1. 825.1.	1, 400 1, 925 1, 800	022	26.80	1, 862	1,1,000	12	1, 733	1,960	2,200	8		1,780	1, 964
Colorado	3	1, 256	1, 507	1,986	142	1, 283	1,527	1,860	28	2,013	2,340 2,340	2,700 2,578	1.871	2,000	2,246	44
Delaware District of Columbia						*   <del> </del>		1	15 co	1,815	1, 563	2,450	28 28	1.577	1,868	2,14
Georgia	84	1,263	1,307	7,58 402 402	8=	1,113	28.83	1,364 1,42	2	5	7, 300		Z	2,000	2,52	2,570
Idabo	*	1, 131	1, 250	1,450	8	1,007	1, 264	1,362			-					
Indiana Iowa Kanaga	228	1,421	1,611	1,801	200	1,256	1, 168	1, 6234	228	1, 808	1, 846 1, 964 111 111	444 2012	\$5.5 8.7 8.7 8.7 8.7 8.7 8.7 8.7 8.7 8.7 8.7	1, 500	1,928	1,841
Kentucky Jouisiana Maine Mariand	학교통	1, 013 1, 150 1, 067	1,120	1, 613 1, 563 1, 867	200	28.50	1,020		8	1, 90	1,820	1,983	ğ	1,488	8	1,73
Messachusetta Michigan Minnesota	88	1	1,271	1.470	107	1, 173		<b>8</b>	8 8 8	1, 579	2, 136		EE 1	1,487	1,828	44 881
Mississippl. Missourt	3.02	1128	888	385	ar a	2868	1,28	1.00	8	1,776	2,086	2,363	478	1,740	3,081	14 18
M.OHVBIDS.	7	1,400	1, 550	17	6	1 30		649		1 198						



2,822 7.05 2,661 2,088 2,070 ô 2 Medlan 1,678 2,008 2,080 46万 823 1,766 1,776 = Women 1,200 200 1,88 1,88 1,88 1,88 1, 510 1, 781 22.28 1, 863 õ , 3 1, 121 Num-ber of 2,019 1,282 200.1 5 E 582 3 2 10 months \$78 44 -44 52 524 525 2,886 2,138 2,138 2,026 2,828 3 લલલ TABLE XXII.—Salaries of junior high school teachers, 1930-31—Continued Medlan 7.7 28 88 88 2,428 1,966 92.4 99.7 1,088 1,833 2,063 2 Men 2,015 955 1, 525 22.5 111. 1, 531 1,744 ö = 223 Num. ∞E8 6 23 348 3 8 5 2 1,364 ---4-4388 1,301 97338 87386 1,540 1,611 õ -Median 1 236 25 25 38 28 28 38 1, 287 1,1236 25 1,285 1.87 . **W**опреп L. 134 11111 1, 148 1,164 õ -950 Name of the of 8 2 8 2522 26 82828 32 3 ٠ 9 months 1.400 1, 638 1,98 1,781 11411 28235 1,1 26 16 ö Median 1,442 1,250 1,876 1,340 7.1.1. 7.88.8. 7.88.8. 1,46 • Men 1, 176 1,28 1,300 1,23 11111 1, 208 õ . Name of the last 2 2 3 2222 38 02 E85.8 28 8 • Btate Jersey Mexico.

44 44 444 82 82 518 24 218 8 Medlan 24 Women 38 2,161 983 383 ō 3 Name .. 669 10 months 2,136 2,218 44 444 50 1044 1089 2, 806 2, 811 8 3 Median 2,00 4-14 \$88 \$80 94 53 2 100 2 TABLE XXIII. - Salaries of senior high school teachers, 1936-31 1,288 4.14 多加級 1,894 ō = Num 1.878 B3¢ -14-1 588 . 3 Median 1,867 25E2 Wошеп 1,1,000 0,00 1, 334 õ Number of 328 EEEB 9 months #625# 288 2 288 2 1.41.1.4 5.89.89 5.89.89 ö Median 1,666 888 1, 528 1, 737 1, 730 1, 587 1, 757 1,198 1,477 õ -Number of 388 5£284

				9 100	months				¥			10 months	othe			
Rtata		M	Men			Women	Den			×	Men			Wo	Women	4
	Num- ber of cases,	. ō	Median	ð	Num ber of	Ö	Median	ō	Num- ber of	ō	Median	õ	Num. ber.of	õ	Medlan	õ
-			•	-		-	<b>sc</b>	•	2	=	13	=	2	2	=	1
Nebraska	908	1, 238	1, 568	1, 917	\$	1, 200	1, 368	1, 596			9		9	99	9	
Nevada New Hampshire	2	1, 738	2,060	2,207	28	1, 215	1, 201	1,800	128	100	144	444	82	200	36	2,718
New Mexico	22	1,366	1,565	1, 747	130	1, 318	1997	1, 620								
New York							000	9	1.979	2,000	2, 621	3, 250	* 80°	1,637	2,000	7,621
North Carolina North Dakota	285	320	328	11.2	183	182	185	148	1,018	2.071	2,676	2 928	1. 410	1. 830	2,400	2,800
Oklahoma	813	1, 176	1, 426	1, 706		1,068	1.186	1,47	3	1, 681	2,183	7,000	2	1.20	1,860	2.40
Oregon. Pennsylvania.	1, 200	1,308	1,618	2,026	1,862	1, 230	1, 319	788	1, 513	4- F2-	440	rain Fast	200	25.00	444 E83	444
Rhode Island South Carolina South Dakota	107	1, 196	1,700	1, 826	22	22		2.0	9	8	3	•				
Tunessee	206	1,314	1.43	1,823	2.043	1,004	1, 160	1,358						•		
Utah Utah Uranout	2388	1111 244 250 244	1, 900	2, 780 1, 780 1, 686	7,13	788	1 280	282	22	1,575	82	7, 400	3	1.23	1, 483	8
Washington	82	1, 440	1,636	1,882	8	1, 316	1.300		808	1.800	2,1%	2 488	199	1, 625	2,000	2, 313
West Virginia. Whoonsin Wyoming	243	1, 518	77.7 855	1.1.98	162	22.5	1,208	787	299	1, 982	2,381	2,663	2	1.088	1,887	2,408
Total	11,130				22,636				13,018				22,708			